



All India Network of English Teachers

*AINET Occasional Papers*

No. 2 (November 2016)

---

Teacher Motivation: A Conceptual Overview

Dr. Krishna Dixit

Yeshwant Mahavidyalaya,  
Seloo, Wardha, India

---

ISSN 2393-8439 (Online) / 2393-8668 (Print)

© 2016 The Author and AINET

[www.theainet.net](http://www.theainet.net)



## All India Network of English Teachers

### *AINET Occasional Papers*

No. 2 (November 2016)

#### EDITORS

Dr. Amol Padwad

[amolpadwad@gmail.com](mailto:amolpadwad@gmail.com)

Dr. Krishna Dixit

[krishnakdixit@gmail.com](mailto:krishnakdixit@gmail.com)

**AINET Occasional Papers** is a series of papers containing research studies, factual analyses, theoretical arguments and policy/ programme proposals in English language education. The series attempts, in an ongoing way, to stimulate and contribute to debates and discussions on English language education in India. Though the primary interest of the series is in works dealing with the Indian context, it is open to works from other contexts too, which may have relevance to English language education in India. The views expressed in the papers published in this series are the personal views of the author(s) and do not necessarily represent those of the AINET or the editors.

Printed and published by AINET

© 2016 *All India Network of English Teachers*

[www.theainet.net](http://www.theainet.net)

For comments and queries:

[theainet@gmail.com](mailto:theainet@gmail.com)

## Teacher Motivation: A Conceptual Overview

Dr. Krishna Dixit

Yeshwant Mahavidyalaya,  
Seloo, Wardha, India.

### INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to present a conceptual overview of teacher motivation (TM hereafter) – an emergent domain in educational change and educational psychology. Motivation is a prominent issue in education because of its pivotal role in initiating, sustaining and cultivating learning process. Researchers in educational psychology (for example, Pintrich and Schunk: 1996) concur that motivation is the foundation of learning process. Teachers are central to any educational enterprise. Johnson (1986) highlights the centrality of teachers implying that teachers are central to problems and solutions in education (in Ozcan, 1996: 5). The motivational dimension of teachers' lives has been largely neglected in educational research so far, but it is slowly receiving the attention of researchers and taking a shape of an independent research domain in its own right. As the primary intention of this paper is to offer a wide-angled perspective of TM, I will try to discuss varied pertinent aspects, such as approaches to the study of motivation, key frameworks of motivational studies, significance of teacher motivation, teacher motivation frameworks, teachers and educational change and teacher professional development, in an attempt to offer a clearer picture of the emerging TM domain. Broadly, the paper is divided in 4 sections. I begin in the first section with an overview of the motivation construct and frameworks of motivation study. It is followed a discussion of TM in the second. The third section deals with TM for professional development. Finally, in the fourth section, a brief overview of TM research in India is presented.

## 1. TOWARDS UNDERSTANDING MOTIVATION

The term '*motivation*' is derived from the Latin word '*movere*', which means 'to move'. In the initial phases of motivation research it seems to bevariously conceived as a personal striving to perform difficulttasks (Murray, 1992), as a reflection of the psychical energy within individuals (Freud, 1966) and as visible behaviour (Skinner, 1968 in Guilloteaux: 2007).Contemporary cognitive views on motivation stress the influence of individual's thoughts, beliefs, and emotions on motivation. Some scholars in the field have taken the opposite polar position about the very existence of motivation. Walker and Symons (1997: 4) note that the American Psychological Association once contemplated replacing the term 'motivation'as search word in the main psychological database because of its polyphonic semantic nature.

Motivation is basic to our survival. It is the natural human process for directing energy to accomplish a goal. "Like the national economy, human motivation is a topic that people know is important, continuously discuss, and would like to predict",says Wlodkowaski (2008: 1) to highlight its ubiquitous nature. Basicallyand broadly, there are two disciplines that investigate motivation – neuroscience (natural science) and psychology (social science). However, it should be noted that neuroscientific perspectives on motivation are still evolving and most of the prevalent motivation research in education has a psychological orientation. Before moving into the discussion of this disciplinary distinction it would be helpful to look at a few definitions of motivation.

Ryan and Deci's (2000:54) definition captures the essence of Latin term when they state that "to be motivated means to be moved to do something". Walker and Symons (1997:4) define motivation as "the conditions and processes that activate, direct, and sustain behaviour". For Pintrich and Schunk (1996),

Motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained. Motivation is a process rather than a product. As a process, we do not observe motivation directly but rather we infer it from such behaviours as choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and verbalizations (p.4).

In Vallerand and Thill's (1993:18) view, motivation is a "hypothetical construct that is used to describe internal and/ or external forces that generate the kick off, direction, the intensity, and the persistence of behaviour". Gardner (1985:10), who actually inaugurated the study of motivation in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), describes motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve a goal". Zoltan Dörnyei (2001:8), a leading researcher in the field of motivation in

SLA, observes that motivation is concerned with “the *direction* and *magnitude* of human behavior”, that is:

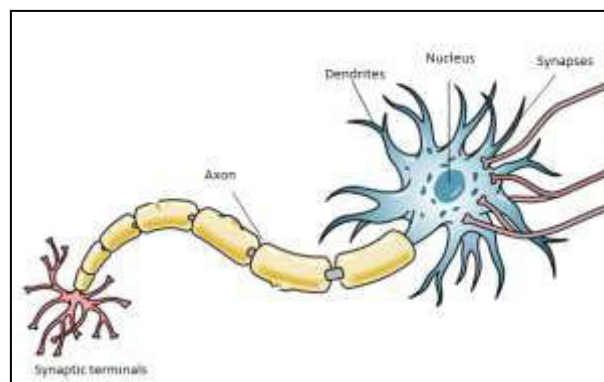
- The *choice* of a particular action (*why* people decide to do something),
- The *persistence* with it (*how long* they are willing to sustain the activity),
- The *effort* expended on it (*how hard* they are going to pursue it)

(emphasis original)

Wlodkowaski (2008:2) observes that the intangible nature of motivation makes it mysterious. It can neither be seen, nor touched, nor can precisely be measured. It can only be inferred from what people say and do, following signs like effort, perseverance, resourcefulness, completion etc. Overall, motivation is basically a psychological construct associated with various clearly observable features of the behaviour of individuals. Therefore, researchers in the field often lament the fact that motivation cannot be precisely defined. Covington (1992:1) rightly observes that “Motivation, like the concept of gravity, is easier to describe - in terms of its outward, observable effects - than it is to define”. Although there exists no precise definition of motivation, the core ingredient that makes up motivation seem to be engagement in some particular action.

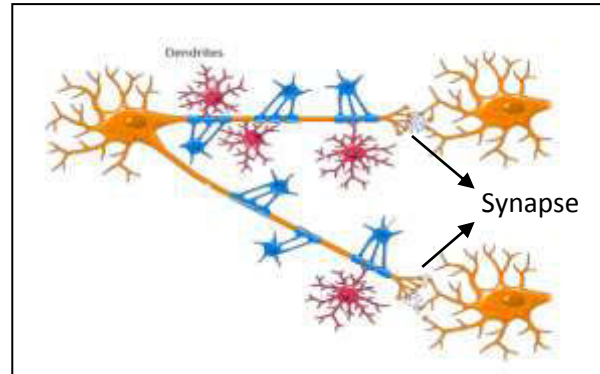
### 1.1 Neuroscience and Motivation

In neuroscience motivation is invariably linked to learning (Carter: 2010). Neuroscience offers remarkable information about what happens within the brain when one learns. Although much of this knowledge comes from laboratory studies on the human brain, it has led to a much clearer picture of the basic structures of the brain and the nervous system that provides a biological understanding of motivation. At its most basic level, learning is a biological function and the brain is the most responsible organ for this process. The key elements in the brain related to the learning process are neurons. Neurons have a cell body, a single long branch known as axon, and multiple shorter branches called dendrites.



*Figure 1: Structure of a neuron (Carter:2010)*

The junction where signals pass from one neuron to another is called a synapse. Current brain research supports the idea that learning and development occurs in the brain through the process of the strengthening and weakening of synaptic connections (Wlodkowaski, 2008: 10-11).



*Figure 2: Neuronal connection - Synapse*

Neurons are crucial to the learning process. They encode, store, and retrieve information as well as influence all aspects of human behaviour (Wlodkowaski, 2008:10). Neurons are like tiny batteries sending chemical and electrical signals that create processes to integrate and generate information. When learning happens, such as a new word or a new concept, connections containing that information are made between neurons. Through practice and repetition such connections are strengthened and result in learning. Thus, learning is basically a construction of networks of neurons (Greenfield, 1997:150-151 and Zull, 2002:92). According to Zull (2002:99) “it seems that every fact we know, every idea we understand, and every action we take has the form of network of neurons in our brain”.

Neuroscientific enquiry into motivation is a fairly recent development as compared to psychological explorations. As mentioned above, neuroscience perspectives on motivation are invariably linked to learning and attempt a biological explanation of learning. Further, they suggest that motivation, emotions and actions are the key trio that influences learning. From the neuroscience perspective, motivation is a process that determines how much energy and attention brain and body can afford to perform a certain task or attend to a given stimulus. Motivation generates emotions and binds emotions to actions (Ratey, 2001:247). Reeve and Lee (2012:365) highlight the work of Richard Mayer (1998) who characterized the relationship between neuroscience and educational psychology through the metaphors of dead-end, one-way and two-way streets. A dead-end implied no correspondence between neuroscience and educational psychology, while a one-way street indicated the unilateral application of neuroscience insights to education. But the

two-way street metaphor suggests interdisciplinary investigations where both fields feed into and inform each other.

It is generally believed that human brain has inherent inclination for knowing what it desires to know. Wlodkwski (2008) notes:

Every moment of our lives is a competition among our senses to perceive what matters most. What matters is defined through our cultural perspectives, which carry language, values, norms and perceptual frameworks to interpret the world we live in (p. 18).

I believe that this 'what matters' offers a location where neuroscience and psychology converge and has the potential to explain human motivation in a more comprehensive way. This phenomenon of 'what matters' is closely associated with emotions and feelings, which in turn are subject to the influence of social and cultural environment. Emotions add importance to thoughts and experiences. Some studies show that events that are accompanied by feelings receive preferential processing in the brain (Christianson, 1992:20). It appears that from a neuroscientific perspective motivation is manifested in terms of emotions. Wlodkwski (2008) observes,

Research in neuroscience indicates that emotions are critical to learning. Not only do emotions largely determine what we pay attention to and help us to be aware of our mind-body states, they also affect what we remember. We are much more likely to remember things that engage us emotionally (p.21).

Motivation binds emotions to actions. In this sense, all learning is above all an emotional (affective) phenomenon. Speculatively speaking, 'what matters' is largely indicated and dictated by the culture one is part of and it triggers and sustains brain activity in terms of emotions and consequent actions, which, in other words, means that a neuron network emerges and gets into action.

Another aspect that influences motivation, namely 'reward', has been well explored in neuroscience. Reeve and Lee (2012) referring to Schultz (2000) note:

From a biological perspective, the role of reward in motivation is fundamental. It is fundamental to survival, to learning, to well-being, and to the generation of goal-directed effort. The energization or generation of goal-directed effort (motivated action) follows from and is dependent on first extracting reward-related information from environmental objects, events, and circumstances, and this reward-related information consists largely of the release of the neurotransmitter dopamine (p. 367).

One point worth pondering for further investigations could be the exploration of dynamics among cultural features, reward, emotions and brain activity.

## 1.2 Social Science and Motivation

Motivation research from social science perspective has a well-documented history of over 100 years. According to Guilloteaux (2007:28), the scientific study of motivation in education originated circa 1930 and since then it has developed into a sophisticated field of enquiry, particularly since the dethroning of behaviourism by cognitivism in general psychology. Since then a number of theories and approaches to investigating motivation have emerged – expectancy value theory, goal setting theory, self-efficacy theory, self-determination theory are some of them – and the field is growing rapidly in present times with the adoption of interdisciplinary approaches involving neuroscience (ibid). Therefore, Dörnyei (2001:18) remarks that, “contemporary motivational psychology appears to be in an exciting state of flux”. Dörnyei (2001) and Guilloteaux (2007) point out several changes that have taken place in motivation research, making it more focused and broader. These changes include shifts in the scope of theories of motivation (from reductionism to comprehensiveness), in conceptual frameworks (from behaviourism to cognitivism to social-cultural cognitivism) and in methodological approaches (from reducing motivation to variables and investigating in quantitative frameworks to investigating motivation in socio-cultural contexts in interpretive qualitative frameworks). The key motivation theories that have emerged in course of the past 100 years are summarised in the following table.

Theory	Useful Summaries	Key Motivational Components	Main Tenets & Principles
Expectancy-value theories	Brophy (1999), Eccles and Wigfield (1995)	Expectancy of success; the value attached to the task	Motivation to perform various tasks is the product of two key factors – the individual's expectancy of success in a given task and the value the individual attaches to success on that task. The greater the perceived likelihood of success and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual's positive motivation.



Achievement motivation theory	Atkinson and Raynor (1974)	Expectancy of success; incentive values; need for achievement; fear of failure	Achievement motivation is determined by conflicting approach and avoidance tendencies. The positive influences are the expectancy (or perceived probability) of success, the incentive value of successful task fulfilment and need for achievement. The negative influences involve fear of failure, the incentive to avoid failure and the probability of failure.
Self-efficacy theory	Bandura (1997)	Perceived self-efficacy	Self-efficacy refers to people's judgment of their capabilities to carry out certain tasks, and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine their choice of the activities attempted, the amount of effort exerted and the persistence displayed.
Attribution theory	Weiner (1992)	Attributions about past success and failures	The individual's explanations (or 'causal attributions') of why past successes and failures have occurred have consequences on the person's motivation to initiate future action. In school contexts ability and effort have been identified as the most dominant perceived causes, and it has been shown that past failure that is ascribed by the learner to low ability hinders future achievement behaviour more than failure that is ascribed to insufficient effort.
Self-worth theory	Covington (1998)	Perceived self-worth	People are highly motivated to behave in ways that enhance their sense of personal value and worth. When these perceptions are threatened, they struggle desperately to protect them, which results in a number of unique patterns of face-saving behaviours in school settings.
Goal setting theory	Locke and Latham (1990)	Goal properties; specificity; difficulty and commitment	Human action is caused by purpose, and for action to take place, goals have to be set and pursued by choice. Goals that are both specific and difficult (within reason) lead to the highest performance provided the individual shows goal commitment.

Goal orientation theory	Ames (1992)	Mastery of goals and performance goals	Mastery goals (focusing on learning and content) are superior to performance goals (focusing on demonstrating ability and getting good grades) in that they are associated with a preference for challenging work, an intrinsic interest in learning activities, and positive attitudes towards learning.
Self-determination theory	Deci and Ryan (1985); Vallerand (1997)	Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation	Intrinsic motivation concerns behaviour performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity. Extrinsic motivation involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment. Human motives can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation.
Social motivation theory	Winer (1994) Hickey (1997) Wentzel (1999) Walker et al (2004)	Environmental influences	A great deal of human motivation stems from the sociocultural context rather than from the individual.
Theory of planned behaviour	Ajzen (1988), Eagly and Chaiken (1993)	Attitudes; subjective norms; perceived behaviour control	Attitudes exert a directive influence on behaviour, because someone's attitude towards target influences the overall pattern of the person's responses to the target. Their impact is modified by the person's subjective norms (perceived social pressures) and perceived behavioural control (perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour).

*Table 1: Summary of key motivation theories (after Dörnyei, 2000)*

### 1.3 Motivation and Sociocultural theory

The emergence of sociocultural ideas, starting from the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky, has led to a reconfiguration of concepts like thinking, learning and motivation in education. Before Vygotsky it was thought that learning, thinking

and motivation were individual centred, individual initiated and fully individual processes. The emergent idea of motivation as essentially social in nature has changed the dynamics of motivation research. Now it is increasingly accepted that learning and thinking are processes embedded in socio-cultural contexts. Here a distinction needs to be made between investigating social influence on motivation and social nature of motivation. Social influence on motivation is a considerably researched area, but investigating motivation as an entity social in nature is an emergent phenomenon. Hickey (1997) and Walker et al (2004 & 2010), who have investigated motivation as a social phenomenon, observe:

The key commitment of socio-cultural motivational theorists is their recognition of the social nature and origins of motivation. Accordingly, socio-cultural researchers attempt to explain how motivational goals, values, standards and interests are socially constructed, and how they emerge and develop from social interaction and are manifested in collaborative and individual action (Walker et al 2004:4).

The distinguishing feature of studying motivation as socio-cultural entity is its attention towards social and cultural practices through notions like the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and the role of mediation in learning and development (Tharp and Gallimore: 1998). Walker et al (2010:18) note that social and cultural practices play a critical role in the construction and emergence of motivation:

Cultural practices are recurrent actions or activities that may be maintained, changed or challenged. They are valued by the communities that engage in them and are associated with a sense of belonging or identity and with particular forms of discourse. They help to structure learning and thinking activities and have motivational and affective properties and consequences.

The crucial aspect of this approach is the inclusion of ZPD in the discussion on motivation. ZPD refers to the learner's ability to successfully complete tasks with the assistance of more capable other people. Walker et al (2010:19) define ZPD as "a socially mediated space that is formed through the relationships involving sensitivity and trust". It comes into existence through the ongoing participation in social and cultural practices of the community. Hickey (1997) and Walker et al (2010: 19) note that "Socio-cultural Vygotskian and traditional motivational theorists (Brophy: 1999) have observed that these aspects of the ZPD make it an inherently motivational zone". The construct of ZPD is significant for motivation:

- Working within ZPD is inherently motivating because it involves the transfer of responsibility, or control, for learning, from expert to self. This transfer of control is motivating as it acknowledges student mastery of the task, and hence the learner's developing efficacy.
- Interaction within the ZPD is also likely to lead to the recruitment of the learner's interest in the task or knowledge domain as the learner comes to value and appreciate the knowledge which is valued by a respected, more capable other person. (after Walker et al: 2010)

Social-constructivism reveals that cognition is interconnected to social and cultural processes. The key catalyst for the emergence of ZPD and the internalisation process is mediation. Mediation involves various tools, concepts and cultural artefacts. For example, in the field of teachers' professional development teacher groups or academic events can be thought of as mediation mechanism. Lantolf and Thorne (2006:62) observe that mediational tools are "simultaneously material and conceptual (or ideal) aspects of human goal-directed activity that are not only incorporated into the activity, but are constitutive of it". The Socio-cultural approach to motivation is significant in the area of education, since:

- It aids in exploring teaching-and-learning as primarily a social activity. Some significant research in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) offers valuable insights into the nature of (English) teaching-and-learning as a social activity (for example see Prabhu: 2001, Holliday: 1994, Coleman: 1996).
- Social-constructivism highlights the crucial role of support in learning and proposes that ZPD comes into being through participation in activities and support is an inherent property of ZPD.

To conclude this section, motivation research is evolving fast, incorporating insights from biological, social and neurological sciences. It offers several lenses that have explanatory power to interpret motivation-related human behaviour in various ways. Neurobiological research has facilitated deciphering learning and motivational processes among the young and adults. It has helped in enhancing our understanding of the role and place of emotions in learning and their links to motivation. From a neuroscience viewpoint, at the micro level all learning is long-lasting changes in existing neuronal networks. Wlodkowski (2008:10) observes, "when adults learn, they build on or modify networks that have been created through previous learning". Further, something cannot be simply told and explained, especially if it is related to a deeply held attitude or belief. For change to

take place, another neuronal network has to take the place of the existing one associated with a current attitude or belief. This biological development needs repetition, practice and, more importantly, time. Social science perspectives have focused on individual and social variables. The most important among them are expectancy-value frameworks, self-efficacy beliefs, self-worth, goal setting, self-determination theory (SDT), and emergent socio-cultural understanding of motivation. The key differences among these theories lie in the selection of variables to anchor the theory around. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:9) compare it to lifting a large, loosely knitted net. They suggest, “if we lift it up by holding different knots, very different shapes will emerge, even though the actual net is exactly the same. The question, then, for motivational psychologists has been to decide which knots to grab (i.e. which factors to assign a key role in their theories) and how to lift the net up in order to obtain a shape that makes most sense (i.e. what kind of relationship to specify between selected factors)”.

## 2. TEACHER MOTIVATION (TM)

The attention that teacher motivation (TM) has received in research has mostly been in terms exploring its relationship with student motivation. A common inference from this corpus of research (for example, Blackburn and Lawrence: 1995; Bess: 1997; Dörnyei: 2001; Kubanyiova: 2013; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova: 2014; Richardson et al: 2014) has been that student motivation is *strongly linked to teacher motivation*. Much of the general research in motivation *per se* seems focused on student motivation for learning. As Richardson and Watt (2010:139) remark, “the concentration on students has tended to overlook to centrality of teacher motivation as integral to teachers’ goals, beliefs, perceptions and aspirations, and behaviours, and thereby to student motivation and learning”. Against this backdrop of limited existing research on TM, several reasons may be put forth to emphasise why exploring TM is significant:

1. TM is crucial for student motivation. Richardson and Watt (2010:140) remark, “teachers’ goals, sense of professional autonomy and enthusiasm for teaching, impact their students’ perceptions and behaviours”. They further observe that “teachers who are more enthusiastic about teaching demonstrate higher quality instructional behaviour, in the form of learning situations that are challenging yet supportive for students” (ibid: 147). Atkinson (2000:46) observes that “the lynch pin in sustaining, enhancing or decreasing motivation is very often the teacher; and that their influence upon pupil demotivation is an important factor that cannot be ignored”.

2. Research on educational reform has shown that teachers are central to overall educational process and they are equally central to addressing problems in education. National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) (2009:4) states that teachers should be placed at the centre of educational reforms as they have the decisive power to make reforms a reality. De Jesus and Lens (2005:120) note that TM is important for the advance of educational reforms: “First, motivated teachers are more likely to work for educational reform and progressive legislation. Second, and perhaps more importantly, it is the motivated teacher who guarantees the implementation of reforms originating at the policy-making level”.
3. De Jesus and Lens (2005:119) find that “teachers suffer more than other professional groups from the occupational lack of motivation”. Several factors, spread across work-content and work-context areas, have been identified to account for this lack of motivation. But a lot of further wider and deeper research is needed in order to enhance our understanding of TM and to find ways of boosting it.
4. Understanding of TM is crucial for the providers of in-service teacher education. It is indispensable for teachers, teaching profession and institution for progressive growth (Chambers and Chambers, 1978:161).
5. TM is a key to teachers’welfare and their progress in personal and professional lives. In the present rapidly changing professional world, characterized by recurring cycles of new curriculums, new ways of incorporating ICT in education and new notions of accountability and achievement, TM remains the only factor in helping teachers to survive and prosper (Atkinson, 2000:46).
6. Teacher professional development research indicates that TM is one of the key elements for the success of professional development activities. For example, Schieband Karabenik (2008:10) note that “descriptions of teacher development need to add accounts of individual motivational and dispositional factors” when teacher development is considered to be a medium to translate the educational reform into reality. In their review of the knowledge database on TM and professional development Schieb and Karabenik (2007:14) show that “professional development can be improved by focusing directly on teachers’attitudes and motivation to engage in PD”. Karabenick and Conley (2011:9) argue that “motivational concerns, while often alluded to in passing ... remain a critical yet understudied component of teacher PD interventions”.

## 2.1 Dimensions of TM

The available TM research literature seems to deal with two aspects: to enter the teaching profession and motivation to stay in the profession. Referring to several studies (for example, Joseph and Green: 1986, Alexander et al: 1994, Moran, Kilpatrick, Abbot, Dallatt, and McClun: 2001, Wyatt et al: 2012)) Watt and Richardson (2008:409) summarise that a desire to work with children and adolescents, and to cause a positive change in their lives, is highly influential in attracting people to teaching, and for many a primary driver for becoming teachers. Other reasons that motivate people to join teaching include salary, job status and job security (Watt and Richardson: 2008). In terms of the motivation to stay in the profession, Dörnyei (2001) lists several factors like autonomy, contingent career path, intellectual challenges etc. as having a decisive impact. However, our understanding is still very limited about what makes people stay in the teaching profession, and whether or not the motivational triggers at the point of entry are effective and adequate also to retain them in the profession. It is possible that some additional or different factors are responsible for the motivation to stay in the profession. Taking this line further, Padwad (2016) argues that a third aspect of motivation - motivation for professional development - also needs to be taken into account. The constructs and factors related to the motivation to join teaching and to stay in it may not be adequate and effective in understanding the motivation to also keep developing. He further hypothesises that TM is dynamic in nature, keeps evolving through different stages of the teacher's career and takes on different forms and features at different stages (ibid). In summary, an argument may be made in favour of conceptualising TM in terms of at least the following three dimensions, which need to be recognised as worth exploring and understanding separately:

- Motivation to enter,
- Motivation to stay in,
- Motivation to grow in the teaching profession.

## 2.2 Conceptualising Teacher Motivation

There are two core theoretical perspectives on work motivation – endogenous and exogenous (Grant and Shin: 2012). ‘Endogenous’ refers to the psyche of the workers and ‘exogenous’ signifies contextual influences. In the available TM literature it is seen that TM is often discussed by blending both perspectives. Three broad conceptualisations of TM can be gleaned through the existing TM literature:

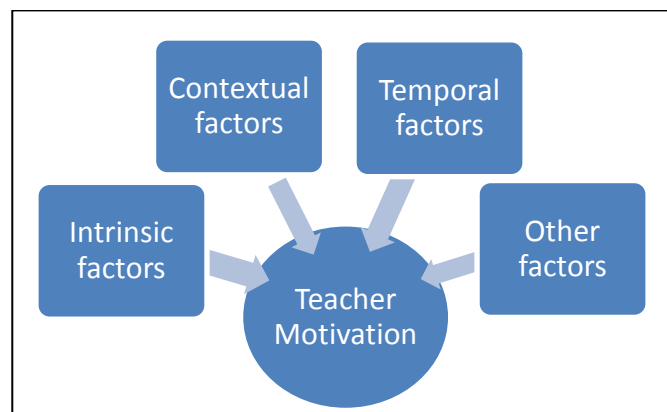
- Dörnyei's Construct of TM
- Ozcan's Construct of TM
- Kubanyiova's Construct of TM

Before I discuss these constructs in detail I wish to mention that there are few more constructs-under-construction such as vision centred TM (Dörnyei and Kubanyiova: 2014) and TM and Time Bubble (Husman et al: 2014) which are more pertinent to the third dimension of TM namely 'motivation to grow' and I discuss them in TM for professional development section.

### 2.2.1 Dörnyei's construct teacher motivation

According to Dörnyei (2001) teaching being a specific professional activity has certain unique motivational characteristics that influence TM. He conceptualised TM as follows:

- It involves a prominent intrinsic component as a main constituent.
- It is very closely linked with contextual factors (institutional demands, constraints of work place, status of profession in society etc.)
- It has a temporal dimension. TM is contingent on the phase of teachers' work lives. It is generally observed that teachers in the last phase of work life tend to show low motivation.
- It is fragile in nature, i.e. exposed to several powerful negative influences.



*Figure 3: Factors in teacher motivation (after Dörnyei, 2001)*

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:161) note that “teaching as a vocational goal has always been associated with the internal desire to educate people, to impart knowledge and values, and to advance community or a whole nation”. In the studies conducted by Dinham and Scott (2000) and Richardson and Watt (2006) this



intrinsic desire emerged as the primary motivator for choosing teaching as a career. Indian teachers also seem to reflect the same ethos as they report joining teaching to contribute to the development of nation “by moulding children into good citizens or carving the future of the country” (Mooji, 2008: 512). Through teaching teachers expect and anticipate intrinsic rewards, of which there seem to be two separate sources (Czikszentmihalyi: 1997 in Dörnyei, 2001: 158):

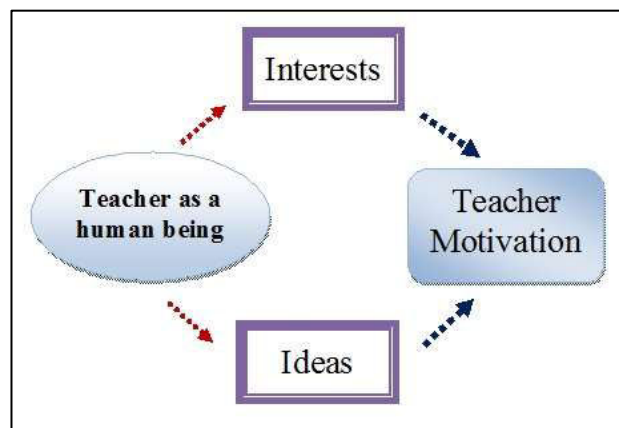
- The educational process itself, i.e. witnessing change in the students attributable to teachers’ action
- The subject matter, i.e. dealing with a valued field and continuously integrating new information in it, thereby increasing one’s own level of professional skills and knowledge

Influence of contextual forces on TM can be grouped under macro and micro contextual influences. Macro forces include the general image of teaching and teachers in the society. Micro forces include visible features of teachers’ work contexts such as class size, norms of the institution, school leadership, teacher roles and responsibilities etc. Dörnyei (2001:162) argues that “teacher motivation is not just about the motivation to teach but also about the motivation to be a teacher as a lifelong career”. The career perspective links TM with temporal dimension. The motivation is high if the career path is open and very low in case of the closed career path. If teachers visualise the growing career in terms of new roles and responsibilities with enhanced rewards they strive for achievement. TM is fragile in nature. It is easily influenced by several forces like absence of autonomy, low salary, high stress, bureaucratic pressure, lack of adequate facilities, absence of student support, to mention a few.

### **2.2.2 Ozcan’s construct of teacher motivation**

Ozcan (1996) proposes that in order to develop the construct of teacher motivation teachers need to be considered as human beings with personal sets of attitudes, values, and beliefs. He states that “in attempting to construct a theory of teacher motivation, teachers should be considered as human beings, employees, and also as decision making practitioners in a unique occupation” (ibid: 3). He defines teacher motivation as “the strength of teachers’ willingness to teach” (ibid: 1). He assumes that teachers as human beings are naturally motivated to survive, utilize their potential and realize themselves, and to achieve their ends they need material and ideal resources. He notes that “possibilities to earn resources necessary to survive and self-realization motivate people to act” (ibid: 43). He proposes two

categories of components shaping teachers' behaviour: 'interests' and 'ideas'. The first impulse for a given action comes from 'interests', while 'ideas' provide justification and define the situations in which interests are pursued. 'Interests' can be classified as personal, honorific, religious, political, economic and psychological by nature and they can be personal, local or national interests by their extent. Ozcan defines interests as "every kind of resources and rewards necessary for human beings to survive, utilize their potential and realize themselves" (1996:4).



*Figure 4: Ozcan's construct of teacher motivation (after Ozcan: 1996)*

## INTERESTS

Interest is one of the central concepts in the study of any human endeavour. It is often used in conjunction with various adjectives such as material interests, ideal interests, economic interests etc. As a value or potency, an interest may add, satisfy or maximize the past, present or future properties of human beings. Further, these interests are multi-dimensional in the sense that they are multi-functional. For example, economic interest is valuable for meeting economic ends. However, in addition to its economic function, money also provides an individual with social prestige or improve their political power in decision-making contexts. In other words, money does not serve economic needs alone but is a multi-dimensional interest. Ozcan (ibid: 7) notes that "in this sense, each interest is multi-dimensional, and striving for a particular interest simultaneously implies a desire for more than that particular interest".

Lortie (1975:101) classifies teachers' interests (he labels them as rewards) as extrinsic, intrinsic and ancillary interests. Extrinsic interests are further divided

into money/ income, prestige and power over others. In the study by Mooji (2008) on teacher motivation in India teachers suggest that they join teaching profession as it is relatively easy to get a job as a teacher and it offers a reasonable salary and assures financial security. Intrinsic interests are subjective valuations of the results of action. They include joy, pleasure and psychological satisfaction. Lortie (1975: 101) argues that the “cultural and structural aspects” of teaching influence teachers towards emphasizing psychological rewards in their work. Extrinsic interests are received or earned from others. They are extrinsic in the sense that they exist independently of the individual. Ancillary rewards are both subjective and objective. Lortie (ibid: 101) mentions ancillary interests like people’s expectations about teaching as cleaner than factory work. They motivate people to enter the occupation and career interests motivate people for active participation and commitment. Lortie (ibid) argues that “ancillary interests affect the decision of individuals to enter a given occupation rather than their performance”.

Lortie (ibid: 82-108) says that there is a tendency among teachers to de-emphasize extrinsic rewards. However, the rewards teachers expect from teaching include extrinsic rewards and they are as important as intrinsic rewards (Lieberman and Miller, 1984: 11). This is highlighted by research which shows that “teachers rarely leave teaching for the lack of psychological rewards, but they leave teaching for the insufficiency of extrinsic rewards such as economic income, prestige, and power” (Ozcan, 1996: 10).

Ozcan (ibid) remarks that in modern societies with division of labour, people engage in occupations to earn their survival and self-realization sources. Teachers teach by “spending their material, social, and psychological potential to perform their occupation and to produce a socially valuable service. In return, they expect, or are supposed to expect, the rewards necessary for their survival and self-realization” (ibid: 13). But they are not supposed to express their desire for extrinsic rewards because of prevailing social values. Referring to Lortie (1975) Ozcan (ibid: 14) states that in a society with normative values, such as American society, declaring the intention to pursue extrinsic rewards is not a prestigious, socially favoured behaviour. In Indian society too teachers are not supposed to pursue extrinsic rewards. It appears that the extrinsic rewards usually preferred by teachers are respect and power. Ozcan (ibid: 14) argues that generally teachers do not come from wealthy and powerful families and their salaries are also not very high. Therefore, teachers’ longing for respect and power is not a misplaced desire. The dynamic behind this preference might be the desire to protect their self-esteem. “For teachers to prefer respect and influence can mean they care about the respect

received from students and others” (ibid: 14). Teachers want to be recognized, respected, and honoured and hence they seek opportunities to attain them. Ozcan (ibid: 23) opines that “teachers use their professional power or authority as a means to make decisions relevant to teaching. Research shows that teachers desire to modify the given material and add something personal to their teaching”. Therefore, teachers prefer decision making freedom to organisational rules (Lortie, 1975: 111).

### IDEAS

This category contains knowledge, beliefs, norms and values and is highly instrumental in understanding teachers’ behaviour. Ozcan identifies main sources of ideas as follows:

- The culture of society and subcultures of social groups with which individuals identify themselves, such as gender, social class, ethnic, religious and occupational groups.
- Feedback coming from the assessment and evaluation of personal, social, and professional conduct.
- Individuals themselves, their experience, perceptions and reasoning (Ibid: 7).

In case of TM teachers’ beliefs about students, curriculum, methods and materials of teaching come from the occupational culture of teachers and education. Feedback comes from students and the assessment of teachers’ performance. Teachers’ values have their origin in the culture with which teachers are affiliated. Although teachers have a will and capacity to take decisions about teaching, they cannot often do so, being a part of – and bound by the values of – the community and the culture they work within. This culture, which is basically a set of ideas, values and beliefs “developed by the group to solve their survival and self-realization problems” (ibid: 8) shapes the characteristics of teachers.

### **2.2.3 Kubanyiova’s construct of teacher motivation**

In her research on conceptual change in teachers Kubanyiova (2009) proposes a framework of teachers’ selves. This framework stands at the interface of the second dimension of TM – the motivation to stay – and the third dimension – the motivation to grow. She identifies three selves of teachers as:

*Ideal Language Teacher Self:* It implies how teachers desire to see themselves ideally. It constitutes identity goals and aspirations of teachers. It is assumed that “irrespective of what the content of this ideal self is, teachers will be motivated to expend effort to reduce a discrepancy between their actual and ideal teaching selves” (Kubanyiova, *ibid*: 315-316).

*Ought-to Language Teacher self:* This self refers to “the language teachers’ cognitive representations of their responsibilities and obligations with regard to their work” (*ibid*). She further states that it involves expectations of colleagues and society in general and normative pressures of the school. Here the operant motivation is extrinsic incentives and teachers’ vision of negative consequences.

*Feared Language Teacher Self:* This indicates those teachers who fail to live up to ideals or “perceived obligations and responsibilities” suggested in the ought-to-language-teacher-self.

For the construction of a theory of TM this teachers’ selves construct is useful in the sense that it offers a dynamic view of teachers’ work lives. It suggests the struggles that teachers go through in arriving at a satisfactory work life self. I find this construct helpful in carrying out interventions for teacher development, taking into consideration teachers’ ideals and ecological factors that influence teachers’ work. This may be a useful conceptual basis to acknowledge diversity of teacher identities and adapt teacher development undertakings to them.

### **2.3 Key themes in Teacher Motivation Research**

Though TM research has not yet succinctly separated themes/ issues pertaining to two well researched dimensions of TM, namely, motivation to join the profession and motivation to stay in the profession, one can identify a set of common issues investigated. They include stress, autonomy, self-efficacy, challenges in teaching and career structures.

#### STRESS

Teaching is one of the most stressful professions as it involves attending to the interests of several stakeholders – students, institution, parents, society, policymakers, self - at the same time. Besides, there are other contributors to stress like bureaucratic pressure, lack of required facilities, low salaries, changing notions of accountability. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) note that teacher use certain strategies to avoid stress:

- Split up the teacher-student relationship through specialisation and subdivided tasks, resulting in a situation in which no one is responsible for interacting with students holistically.
- Depersonalise the individual student and insistence that no one receives special treatment. Develop detachment and cynical attitudes, and denial of feelings.
- Attempt to reduce the need for decisions by reliance on ritualised task performance
- Avoid change and maintain status-quo (2011: 169).

### AUTONOMY and AGENCY

This topic has attracted a lot of attention of researchers. Most of the research studies in the area (for example, Pennington: 1995, Benson: 2001, Pelletier et al: 2002, Batra: 2005, Dörnyei: 2011) concur that teachers have restricted autonomy. Teachers rarely feel that they are the origin of their actions. Education as an important concern of governance faces frequent interference of governments, educational and administrative authorities, educational experts and others. In the present times there exists a tendency to regularise the educational process. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:170) observe that “this regularisation process can take the form of introducing nationwide standardised tests and national curricula”. This process deskills teachers by neglecting their experience, expertise and their local understanding of educational demands. Another issue, reflecting a general mistrust towards teachers, relates to constantly changing notions of accountability and increasing administrative interference. Dörnyei (ibid) notes that that this phenomenon leads to an increased demoralisation of teachers. From the perspective of self-determination theory lack of autonomy negatively influences TM.

### SELF-EFFICACY

According to Deci and Ryan (1997) feeling efficacious and having a sense of accomplishment is one of the basic conditions to cultivate intrinsic motivation. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) attribute the lack of self-efficacy among teachers to existing teacher education process. They point out that teacher education process focuses on subject-matter training, leaving aside necessary skills to operate in institutional settings. Consequently, most newly qualified teachers are hit hard by the harsh reality of everyday classroom life, often referred to as the ‘reality shock’ (Veenman, 1984: 143). Teachers fail to understand classroom contexts and many of them change their original student-centred teaching behaviours (taught in teacher education programmes) and adopt a more authoritarian approach.

### INTELLECTUAL CHALLENGE

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:172) state that “in a typical school setting, many teachers teach the same subject matter year after year, without any real opportunity from teaching to discover or acquire new knowledge, skills or abilities”. The absence of intellectual challenge influences TM negatively. Moreover, the institutional norms may offer no opportunities for teachers to modify the subject matter.

### CAREER STRUCTURE

In many contexts teaching offers a ‘closed contingent path’ (Dörnyei, 2011:173), which implies a lack of appropriate career structure or opportunities to switch over to higher or other roles and responsibilities. The consequence is that teachers often feel that they have ‘got stuck’ or ‘reached a plateau’ (ibid). This ‘futurelessness’ also causes a negative influence on TM. However, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) note that there is a possibility of creating future oriented reward system of titles and responsibilities “that can potentially fill the motivational hiatus caused by an inadequate career structure” (ibid: 173).

To conclude, teacher motivation research is an evolving area of enquiry. Such enquiry is significant on several accounts, the most important one being its direct relationship with student motivation. It has been mostly investigated using work motivation frameworks used in sociology and organisational psychology.

## **2.4 Teacher motivation in ELT**

Dörnyei (2011:176) remarks that TM research in ELT is yet scarce and the only exception is Martha Pennington’s (1995) investigation of motivation of ESL teachers in the American education context. Following this a small corpus of research in this area has emerged, but the area still remains underresearched.

Pennington’s (1995:7) objective was to study work satisfaction and motivation of teachers of English as a Second Language. She found that the “two highest rated facets were moral values and social services, which is in accordance with the theoretical arguments about the intrinsic, ideologically character of teacher motivation” (Dörnyei, 2011: 176). Another study on TM in ELT is by Doyle and Kim (1999). They discuss their results on three main themes: intrinsic motivation (helping students), negative influences (low salary) and mandated curricula and tests. They conclude that although intrinsic motivation facilitates coping with

stressful job of teaching it suffers because of external factors like low salary, lack of recognition and prescribed curriculum and tests. Yet another study is by Shoaib (2004 in Dörnyei and Ushioda: 2011) conducted in Saudi Arabia. She argues that TM is a complex phenomenon operating at three main levels: teacher level, the managerial level and the ministerial/institutional level. She specifies action points like attending formal/professional activities for teachers; providing appropriate specialised in-service training for language teachers for managerial level and allocating more funds to educational system for ministerial level. One more study that “attempted to articulate the connection among teacher cognition, teacher motivation and teacher development (‘motivation to grow’ Padwad: 2016), with a particular focus on exploring conceptual change in language teachers” (Dörnyei, 2011:182) is by Kubanyiova (2009). She applied the notion of possible teacher selves to the analysis of teacher motivation. Following Dörnyei’s (2005) L2 Motivational Self System, she developed the three-way framework of Ideal-Language-Teacher Self, Ought-to-Language-Teacher Self and Feared-Language-Teacher Self constructs discussed in Section 2.1.3 above. Her findings suggest that teachers’ engagement with professional development activity depends on:

- How far the professional development input and its pedagogical principles are consistent with teachers’ own intrinsic aspirations, i.e. their Ideal Language Teacher Selves;
- How far teachers recognize a dissonance between their current and desired end-states;
- How much they are motivated to reduce the gap (in Dörnyei, 2011:183).

To sum up, TM research in ELT is limited at present, but emerging fast. The studies completed so far seem to suggest that TM investigations are following some familiar issues like intrinsic motivation, while at the same time attempting to freshly configure some specific conceptualisations of TM. Kubanyiova’s (2009) investigation, for example, offers a promising direction in conceptualising TM with some scope for incorporating the professional development aspect.

### **3. TEACHER MOTIVATION FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

#### **3.1 TM, Professional Development and Educational Change**

As noted earlier TM research has focused on motivation for entering the profession and motivation to stay in the job. But motivation for professional development, i.e. ‘motivation to grow’ still remains largely an uncharted territory. Besides, given that the overall field of TM research is still evolving, it seems natural that specific



research on TM for professional development is yet to take strong roots. It may not be wrong to expect this particular aspect to attract considerable research interest in near future, given that the prevalent discourse of educational change, and teacher training initiatives, seem to highlight in-service professional development of teachers.

Professional development is essentially a learning process and motivation is essential for learning. TM for professional development is gradually coming under research lens with the emergent focus on teachers as central to educational processes. Boyd et al (2003: 47) opine that intensive efforts are needed to attract teachers towards professional development and professional development providers have to make sure that they “have something of high quality that will encourage them to come back” (ibid). Scattered evidence (for example, Alexander: 2008 and Tittle: 2006) suggests that professional development influences TM to teach better. Hargreaves (1994) observes that “descriptions of teacher development need to add accounts of individual motivational and dispositional factors for professional development” (in Karabenick and Conley, 2011:7). Watt and Richardson (2008:91) state that “[f]ortunately, the recognized importance of teacher motivation in professional development process arises at a time of renewed interest in teacher motivation in general”.

There exist very few studies that focus on TM for professional development. The most notable and relevant among them are by Schieb and Karabenick (2008) and Karabenick and Conley (2010). Schieb and Karabenick (2008) observe:

To date... there has been no systematic focus on the factors that influence teachers' motivation for participating in professional development, their level of engagement during professional development activities, and the degree to which teachers' motivation and engagement influences what they learn and apply in their classroom instruction. Such research is essential to clarify the connection between teacher and student learning (p. 11).

Schieb and Karabenick (2008) in their comprehensive review and knowledge database on motivation for professional development have identified certain issues to explore TM for professional development:

- Teacher self-direction and teachers' sense of self-efficacy are essential for the success of professional development. Research has recognized positive relationships between teacher levels of self-efficacy with regard to motivation and professional development opportunity.

- Teachers' feeling of isolation is an impediment to TM.
- There is a strong correlation between positive teacher and administrative relationships and opportunities for professional development. Studies show that those in educational leadership position can support teachers in areas such as motivation, reflection, evaluation, recognition, rewards and improving work culture.
- Provision of learning opportunities and materials can enhance TM for professional development.
- Studies indicate that the acknowledgement of teachers' existing beliefs and practices is a major factor in their motivation to participate in professional development in an engaged way, and that it plays a crucial role in facilitating change.
- There is a broad coverage of the many ways that professional development can be offered to reflect the needs of the individual school environments and contexts in ways that have motivational implications. Professional development can take many forms.
- The primary reasons that motivate teachers for professional development include the degree of independence in teachers' decisions to participate, the relevance of the programme to the needs of the teachers and their students, the alignment of their professional and personal goals with the purpose of professional development, convenience, costs and anticipated rewards and skills gained.
- Inclusion of both traditional and newer teaching approaches result in motivating teachers towards professional development.
- Research has claimed that professional development programmes should include role of intrinsic rewards, such as the impact that teachers' sense of self-worth and accomplishment have in developing positive attitudes and motivation toward their participation in and anticipation of successful implementation.
- professional development programmes which take into consideration teachers' needs, their motivations, their students' abilities enhance TM for professional development. (p. 11-13)

Karabenick and Conley (2011: 2) in their study on TM for professional development identify the following issues:

- Teachers prefer professional development which improves their subject-matter knowledge, is enjoyable and fun, enhance their career, and does not require too much time and effort.
- Teachers' most preferred professional development formats consist a series of workshops on topics of concern. Less preferred formats include summer institutes, institutional professional learning communities and lectures.
- Teachers' desire to participate was directly related to whether professional development would make their lessons more engaging and more effective for student learning, improve their students' achievement, improve the degree to which their students learned the required material, capture students' interest in the subject they taught, show students they truly cared about them, and establish positive relationship with students (p. 7-8)

### **3.2 Constructs of TM for Professional Development**

With the growing interest in the professional development of teachers one witnesses emergence of research in motivation for professional development. In the present scenario two distinct frameworks seem to form the conceptual backdrop for the considerations of TM for professional development.

- Dörnyei and Kubanyiova's construct of vision
- Husman, et al's Time Bubble or Future Time Perspective (FTP)

#### DÖRNYEI AND KUBANYIOVA'S CONSTRUCT OF VISION

This conceptualization is related to 'teacher cognition'. Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014:25) lament the fact that motivation has not received prominent place in teacher cognition research. They note that the notion of vision is not unfamiliar in teacher development literature, though in various different forms such as Golombek's (2009) construct of 'images of teaching'. The key implication of this notion is that the sort of vision teachers have of their classrooms, teaching and learning determines their motivation for professional development. This overlaps with Kubanyiova's (2009) construct of teachers' selves discussed in Section 2.1.3.

#### HUSMAN ET AL'S TIME BUBBLE OR FUTURE TIME PERSPECTIVE (FTP)

Husman et al (2014) propose a new framework conceptualised around one's future in teaching career to explain TM for professional development. They introduce a

notion called ‘future time perspective’ (FTP), defined as “the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal setting process” (ibid: 182). An extended FTP is important for in-service teachers’ motivation to learn. An extended FTP enables a person to envision their own future and create paths to making that vision a reality, allowing for emotional links between activities in the present (for instance, fully engaging in a workshop) and ongoing open-ended goals (for instance, becoming a better teacher) (ibid:183). FTP is conceptualised as a time bubble extending into both the past and the present. Husman et al (2014) propose that:

For teachers to remain focused and motivated, regarding professional learning, it is important that they have a broad, extended time bubble. Such teachers may be more likely to engage in productive teacher learning activities and are more likely to be self-reflective and concerned about the development of their “future teaching self” (p. 183).

#### **4. TEACHER MOTIVATION RESEARCH IN INDIA**

Although Indian educational policy confers a central position to teachers in education TM remains a neglected area in educational research. Planning Commission of India (2013: 63) suggests that there is a need “to improve teachers’ motivation to teach well” and that “competence of teachers and their motivation is crucial for improving the quality [of education]”. It seems that there are no studies devoted particularly to TM in India except a few such as Ramchandran et al (2005). This study is based on a survey of teachers in 9 states of India. The findings indicate that professionalism and professionalization of teaching is yet to appear in Indian discourse of education. They also show that teachers seem to have narrow and instrumental notions of TM. For instance, when the researchers asked the teachers about their understanding of TM, one teacher was reported as saying, “A ‘motivated’ teacher comes to school every day, does what he is told and provides information the higher ups want!” (ibid: 33). The study concludes that the teachers it surveyed were largely demotivated, seemingly on account of:

- Increased enrolment and resultant large classes (as increase in the enrolment is not matched with recruitment of teachers)

- Teachers' lack of skills to manage so much diversity in the classroom. Training programmes for teachers are designed keeping in view the situation in large urban schools where one teacher manages one class. The problems faced by teachers in multi-grade situations, where teacher-pupil ratios are high, are rarely covered in training programmes. Labels like joyful learning and child-centred learning do not mean anything to teachers who have to deal with social diversity, different ability levels of students and most importantly, children who are undernourished, hungry and frequently ill.
- Systemic issues dealing with corruption (payment for getting/ preventing transfers, depositions, appointments, promotions and special assignments) have vitiated the larger teaching environment in the country. The teachers say this has politicised the environment and actual teaching is rarely monitored. Building networks with political patrons and supporters in bureaucracy is considered more important by the teachers.
- Teachers' unions and block and district-level administrators claim that teachers are regularly asked to do a range of non-teaching tasks which take them away from the classroom. (ibid: 34-35)

For the administrators the attributes of motivated teachers include:

- Low absenteeism
- Maintaining discipline
- Proper record keeping
- Collection and supply of educational data
- Utilisation of funds allocated for teaching and learning material
- Giving writing tasks in the classroom and correcting them.

In another study by Mooij (2008) an attempt was made to investigate the reasons for teachers' indifference and de-motivation towards improving the quality of teaching and engaging in professional development despite the widespread and policy supported acknowledgement of the importance of quality education. The findings suggest that lack of autonomy and a sense of agency among teachers, increasing bureaucratisation of education and the absence of support are some of the reasons for teachers' de-motivation. This scenario of TM suggests that a lot is needed to accomplish the construction of new 21st century teacher envisaged in educational policies. Besides, the study also points to an urgent need for a

reorientation of all stake-holders about the education process and complexities of educational change.

#### 4. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is to map the territory by bringing together scatter pieces in and around education domain. I make no claims of exhaustiveness as a lot of groundwork at the level of theory and models remains to be done. At present TM is in the process of being fully recognized as a valid research domain in its own right and being dynamically linked to learner motivation, professional development, teacher education and educational change. Moreover, it is inherently interdisciplinary, as its study needs to include inputs and explorations from psychology, sociology, management, and education. I hope that this overview will serve the purpose of offering a preliminary orientation about TM and initiate discussion, dialogue and research about such a crucial aspect of education. Comments, criticism, and suggestions are welcome.

#### References

- Ajzen, I. (1988) *Attitudes, Personality and Behaviour*. Chicago: Dorsey Press.
- Alexander, P. (2008) Charting the course for the teaching profession: The energizing and sustaining role of motivational forces. *Learning and Instruction*, 18, 483-491.
- Alexander, C., D. Chant and B. Cox (1994) What motivates people to become teachers? *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 19/2, 21-29.
- Ames, C. (1992) Classrooms, goals, structures and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 267-271.
- Atkinson, S. (2000) An investigation into the relationship between teacher motivation and pupil motivation. *Educational Psychology*, 20/1, 45-57.
- Atkinson, J. W. and J. O. Raynor (1974) (Eds.) *Motivation and Achievement*. Washington, DC: Winston and Sons.
- Bandura, A. (1997) *Self-Efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Batra, P. (2005) Voice and agency of teachers: Missing link in National Curriculum Framework 2005. *Economic and Political Weekly*, October, 4347-4356.
- Benson, P. (2001) *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*. Harlow: Longman
- Bess, J. L. (1997) Introduction. In J. L. Bess (Ed.) *Teaching Well and Liking It. Motivating faculty to teach effectively*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

- Blackburn, R. T. and J. H. Lawrence (1995) *Faculty at Work: Motivation, expectation, satisfaction*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Boyd, S. E., E. R. Banilower, J. D. Pasley and I. R. Weiss (2003) *Progress and pitfalls: Across-site look at local systemic change through teacher enhancement*. Chapel Hill, NC: Horizon Research Inc.
- Brophy, J. (1999) Toward a model for the value aspects of motivation in education: Developing appreciation for particular learning domains and activities. *Educational Psychologist*, 34, 75-85.
- Carter, J. (2010) *Mapping the Mind*. London: Phoenix.
- Chambers, J. and P. Chambers (1978) Teacher motivation and in-service education. A Re-appraisal. *Professional Development in Education*, 4/3, 161-171.
- Christianson, S. (1992) *The Handbook of Emotion and Memory: Research and theory*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Coleman, H. (1996) *Society in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Covington, M. (1992) *Making the grade: A self-worth perspective on motivation and school reform*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Covington, M. V. (1998) *The Will to Learn: A guide for motivating young people*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997) Intrinsic motivation and effective teaching: A flow analysis. In J. L. Bess (Ed.) *Teaching Well and Liking It: Motivating Faculty to Teach Effectively*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 72-89.
- De Jesus, S. N. and W. Lens (2005) An integrated model for the study of teacher motivation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 54/1, 119-134.
- Deci, E. L. and R. M. Ryan (1985) *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L. and R. M. Ryan (1997) Self-determined teaching: Opportunities and obstacles. In J. L. Bess (Ed.) *Teaching Well and Liking It. Motivating faculty to teach effectively*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Dinham, S. and C. Scott (2000) Moving into the third, outer domain of teacher satisfaction. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38, 379-96.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2000) Motivation in action: Towards a process oriented conceptualisation of student motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 482-93.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001) *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. Harlow: Longman, 1<sup>st</sup>Edn.
- Dörnyei, Z. and E. Ushioda (2011) *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. Harlow: Longman, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edn.

- Dörnyei, Z. and M. Kubanyiova (2014) *Motivating Learners, Motivating Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Eagly, A. H. And S. Chaiken (1993) *The Psychology of Attitudes*. New York: Hartcourt Brace.
- Eccles, J. S. and A. Wigfield (1995) In the mind of the actor: The structure of adolescents' achievement task values and expectancy-related beliefs. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21, 215-225.
- Freud, S. (1966) *The Complete Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis*. New York: Norton.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985) *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Golombek, R. R. (2009) Personal practical knowledge in L2 teacher education. In A. Burns and J. C. Richards (Eds.) *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 155-162.
- Grant, A. M. And J. Shin (2012) Work motivation: Directing, energizing, and maintaining effort (and research). R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *Oxford Handbook of Human Motivation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Greenfield, S. (1997) *The Human Brain: A guided tour*. London: Phoenix.
- Guilloteaux, M. (2007) Motivating language learners: A classroom oriented investigation of teachers' motivational practices and students' motivation. An unpublished Ph. D. thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham, UK.
- Hargreaves, A. (1994) *Changing Teachers Changing Times*. London: Cassell.
- Hickey, D. T. (1997) Motivation and contemporary socio-constructivist instructional perspectives. *Educational Psychologist*, 32, 175-193.
- Holliday, A. (1994) *Appropriate Methodology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Husman, J. M. A. Duggan, and E. Fishman (2014) The teacher time bubble: Expanding teachers' imaginings of the future to support learning. In P. W. Richardson, S. A. Karabenick, and H. M. G. Watt (2014) *Teacher Motivation: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge.
- Johnson, S. M. (1986) Incentives for teachers: What motivates, what matters. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 22/3, 54-79.
- Joseph, P. B. and N. Green (1986) Perspectives on reasons for becoming teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 37/6, 28-33.
- Karabenick, S. A. and A. M. Conley (2011) *Teacher Motivation for Professional Development*. Melbourne: MSPMAP.



- Kubanyiova, M. (2009) Possible selves in language teacher development. In Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (Eds.) *Motivation, Language Identity and L2 Self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Kubanyiova, M. (2013) *Teacher Development in Action: Understanding language teachers' conceptual change*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Lantolf, J. P. and S. Thorne (2006) *Sociocultural Theory and Genesis of Second Language Development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lieberman, A. and L. Miller (1984) School improvement: Themes and variation. *Teachers College Record*, 86/1, 4-19.
- Locke, E. a. and G. P. Latham (1992) *A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Lortie, D. C. (1975) *Schoolteacher*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Mayer, R. (1998) Does the brain have a place in educational psychology? *Educational Psychology Review*, 10, 389-396.
- Mooji, J. (2008) Primary education, teachers' professionalism and social class about motivation and demotivation of government school teachers in India. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28, 508-523.
- Moran, A., R. Kilpatrick, L. Abbot, J. Dallat, & B. McClune (2001) Training to teach: Motivating factors and implications for recruitment. *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 15(1), 17-32.
- Murray, C. E. (1992) Teaching as a profession. *Harvard Educational Review*, 62/4, 494-519.
- NCTE (2009) *National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education*. New Delhi: NCTE.
- Ozcan, M. (1996) Improving teacher performance: Toward a theory of teacher motivation. A paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York.
- Padwad, A. (2016) Rethinking teacher motivation for professional development. In P. Gunsekhar and G. Pickering (Eds.) *Ensuring Quality in English Language Teacher Education*. New Delhi: British Council, India, 35-42.
- Pelletier, L. G. Séquin-Lévesque, and L. Legault (2002) Pressure from above pressure from below as determinants of teachers' motivation and teaching behaviours. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94, 186-196.
- Pennington, M. C. (1995) *Work satisfaction, motivation and commitment in teaching English as a second language*. ERIC Document ED404850.
- Pintrich, P. R. and D. H. Schunk (1996) *Motivation in Education: Theory, research and applications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Planning Commission of India. 2013. *Education and Literacy: Twelfth Five Year Plan*. New Delhi: Government of India.
- Prabhu, N. S. (2001) *Interview by Alan Maley*. *The Teacher Trainer*, 16/1, 20-23.
- Ratey, J. J. (2001) *User's Guide to the Brain*. New York: Pantheon.
- Reeve, J. and W. Lee (2012) Neuroscience and human motivation . R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *Oxford Handbook of Human Motivation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 365-380.
- Richardson, P. W. and H. M. G. Watt (2006) Who chooses teaching and why? *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 34, 27-56.
- Richardson, P. W. and H. M. G. Watt (2010) Current and future directions in teacher motivation research. In T. C. Urdan and S. A. Karabenick (Eds.) *The Decade Ahead: Applications and Contexts of Motivation and Achievement – Advances in Motivation and Achievement*, Volume 16B, Bingley :Emerald.
- Richardson, P. W., S. A. Karabenick, and H. M. G. Watt (2014) Introduction. In P.W.Richardson, S. A. Karabenick, and H. M. G. Watt (Eds.) *Teacher Motivation: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54–67.
- Schieb, A. and S. Karabenik (2008) *Teacher Motivation for Professional Development*. Washington, DC: National Science Foundation.
- Schultz, W. (2000) Multiple Reward Signals in the Brain. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 1/3, 199–207.
- Shoab, A. (2004) What motivates and demotivates English teachers in Saudi Arabia: A qualitative perspective. An unpublished PhD dissertation. Nottingham: University of Nottingham.
- Tharp, R. G. and R. Gallimore (1998) *Rousing Minds to Life*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tittle, C. K. (2006). Assessment of teacher learning and development. In P. A. Alexander & P. H. Winne (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Vallerand, R. & Thill, E. (1993). *Introduction à la psychologie de la motivation*. Paris: Vigot.
- Veenman, S. (1984) Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 54, 143-78.
- Walker, C. J. and C. Symons (1997) The meaning of human motivation. In J. L. Bess (Ed.) *Teaching Well and Liking It. Motivating faculty to teach effectively*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

- Walker, R., Pressick-Kilborn, K., Arnold, L., Sainsbury, E. (2004) Investigating motivation in context: Developing sociocultural perspectives. *European Psychologist*, 9/4, 245-256.
- Walker, R., Sainsbury, E., Pressick-Kilborn, K., MacCallum, J. (2010) A Sociocultural Approach to Motivation: A Long Time Coming But Here at Last. In Urdan T, Karabenick S (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement: The next decade of research in motivation and achievement*, Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Watt, H.M.G. and P. W. Richardson (2008) Motivations, perceptions, and aspirations concerning teaching as a career for different types of beginning teachers. *Learning and Instruction*, 18, 408-428.
- Watt, H. M. G., P. W. Richardson, U. Klusmann, M. Kunter, B. Bayer, U. Trautwein and J. Baumert (2012) Motivations for choosing teaching as a career: An international comparison using the FIT choice scale, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 791-805.
- Weiner, B. (1992) *Human Motivation: Metaphors, theories and research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Weiner, B. (1994) Integrating social and personal theories of achievement motivation. *Review of Educational Research*, 64, 557-573.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1999) Social-motivational processes and interpersonal relationships: Implications for understanding motivation at school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 91, 76-97.
- Wlodkowaski, R. J. (2008) *Enhancing Adult Motivation to Learn*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Zull, J. E. (2002) *The Art of Changing Brain: Enriching the practice of teaching by exploring the biology of learning*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

\* \* \* \* \*

**Dr. Krishna K. Dixit**

Head, Department of English,

Yeshwant Mahavidyalaya, SELOO, Dist. Wardha

krishnakdixit@gmail.com

Dr. Krishna Dixit holds an M. Ed (Trainer Development: ELT) from Marjon/ University of Exeter, UK and Ph. D. on 'ESL Teacher Motivation for Professional Development'. He has 19 years of teaching experience at the tertiary level. He also works as a freelance teacher trainer, teacher research mentor and ELT consultant. His areas of interest include teacher motivation, history of ELE in India and Continuing Professional Development of teachers.