“We live in constant chaos”: Exploring the dynamicity of teaching motivation from a complexity perspective

by

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is entirely my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been submitted elsewhere for any other degree or qualification.
Abstract

A significant proportion of language teaching around the world takes place in secondary schools, with much of this in difficult and challenging contexts. The importance of the teacher to levels of student motivation is unquestioned, yet little is known of what motivates the teachers. This longitudinal case study took place in Argentina over one academic year and explores the dynamic nature of teaching motivation in secondary schools. A range of qualitative methods were applied: teacher interviews; classroom observations; student focus groups; reflective journals; shadowing field notes; questionnaires, and a research journal. Analysis was from a complexity perspective and employed the theoretical lens of self-determination theory. The findings identify the widespread issue of low teacher motivation, despite a small number of teachers exhibiting a strong intrinsic motivational drive. Mapping of the state space demonstrates that the negative influences on motivation greatly outnumber the positives. Negative initial conditions include student attitudes; the value of English; environmental factors; timetabling; teacher isolation through lack of support; institutional prejudice; scarcity of CPD; lack of resources; and the chaotic nature of the education system. Positive initial conditions include job satisfaction and interpersonal relationships. The fluid and dynamic reality of teaching motivation is illustrated, along with patterns of nesting which identify motivational attractor states; and evidence of the nonlinearity of effects from repeated motivational threats. The psychological need for relatedness is seen to be a major source of motivation, or lack thereof. Moreover, as a result of the absence of established professionally supportive networks within the school system, the need for relatedness is seen to be satisfied though inter-personal relationships with the student-body. Finally, by extending cognitive evaluation theory through a complexity lens, the thesis affords new perspectives for future research which foreground the importance of context.
### Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation / Key Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Listado de Profesores</strong></td>
<td>The list of teachers with the number of points they have accrued. This is used to establish the order in which applying teachers will be offered a vacant class if more than one has applied.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ministerio</strong></td>
<td>The name for the Ministry of Education in Argentina. This is generally used for the provincial Ministry of Education. When referring to the national Ministry of Education, ‘The Government’ is generally preferred.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Preceptor / Preceptora / Preceptores</strong></td>
<td>A position within the school. The job of the preceptor is to maintain student records, e.g. record attendance; ensure student discipline outside of lesson times, i.e. during school breaks; and to contact the parents if a student is not in school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private Institute</strong></td>
<td>The local name given to a privately owned language school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Profesor / Profesora / Profesores / Profé</strong></td>
<td>A teacher. The students generally prefer the abbreviation profé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Profesor de Orientación y Tutoría / POT</strong></td>
<td>A position within the school. The job of the POT is to support the teachers in the classroom, and to provide pastoral care for the students. They liaise with the families and try to identify potential problems which might affect a student’s academic potential. The abbreviated form POT is generally preferred.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Profesorado</strong></td>
<td>The institution in which pre-service teacher training takes place. Each subject has its own Profesorado. Courses take place in the evenings and they utilise the state school buildings. Classes are typically scheduled between 18:30 and midnight, from Monday to Friday, though this can vary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Receso</strong> [Rioplatense Spanish]</td>
<td>The two-week winter break held in the middle of the academic calendar. This falls in the second term and is generally scheduled at an appropriate time in mid- to late-July.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supervision</strong> [Rioplatense Spanish]</td>
<td>The administrative department that oversees education within the district. Within the hierarchy, they operate below the level of the Ministerio and above the level of school principals. To become a member of Supervision, an individual must have started as a teacher and amassed enough experience to progress sequentially through each stage of promotion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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1 Simplicities are enormously complex
—Richard O. Moore, Quotations, 1960

1.1 Introduction

The origins of this study lie in my fascination with the ever-changing reality of student motivation which I experienced whilst working as a language teacher, observing the progress of my students. Motivation has enjoyed its position as a primary factor in language learning success for many years due to its fundamental importance to successful second language acquisition (Dörnyei, 2005), with this being something to which most teachers can attest. As I deepened my understanding of human motivation, I was empowered by the knowledge that we, as educators, have a fundamental role to play in fostering those same forces crucial to successful language learning encounters. Lamb and Wedell (2013) underline this, noting that amongst the manifold influences which are necessary to maintain a student’s motivation throughout the lengthy and arduous process of language learning, the role of the teacher could well be “the most significant” (p. 7).

As my career further developed, my time became divided between working with students directly, and indirectly through aiding their teachers. As such, my interests evolved to encompass the less understood field of teaching motivation, wherein, it is generally accepted that motivated teachers exert a far-reaching and long-lasting effect on their students (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Given the quantity of students each teacher has the potential to inspire throughout their working life, an argument could be made that teaching motivation represents an area ripe for further investigation. Initially, this led to my work at MA level, with a quantitative investigation of language teaching motivation, foreign language classroom anxiety, and teacher self-efficacy. Thus primed to learn more, the continuation of this desire to attain a deeper understanding progressed and has ultimately led to the production of this thesis.

In spite of the aforementioned capacity for influence, there has long existed a dearth of research into the reality of the motivation to teach. Nikolov (2001) identified that “scholarly discussions often concern students’ attitudes and motivation, but they rarely touch upon the same areas of their teachers” (p. 165). More recently, gaps in the existing body of knowledge continue to be unexplored, with Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) noting that “literature on teacher motivation
remains scarce” (p. 176). With limited exceptions (see Section 3.3) this situation has not altered significantly in the intervening years, with much still not known about the motivation of language teachers in particular. As a result, the manner in which factors in and outside of the classroom impact on a teacher’s continuing drive to educate their students remains largely unknown.

Accepting the need for further studies, it is worth noting an epistemological imbalance in the existing literature. In recent years, a growing acceptance has emerged that much of the previous motivation research may have erroneously conceptualised it as a largely unitary construct which is predominantly static in nature. Such a simplified focus may have allowed for clarity of analysis and afforded initial gains in understanding but has been unable to account for the continuously shifting complexities that are the hallmark of human interactions. With so many contextual variables which can impact upon levels of teaching motivation, attempting to distil the complexity of life in order to allow for a manageable focus, has resulted in isolated views which can only explain smaller pieces of a larger, more complex reality. It is for this reason that I believe that adopting a complexity perspective offers a pathway to deeper understanding of the teaching and learning environment. Such a context-rich approach to the study of teaching motivation levels, affords a level of focus on its dynamic nature from a variety of temporal vantage points. Crucially, this would additionally incorporate explicit acknowledgement that simple linear cause-effect relationships rarely reflect the reality of the world around us. Such a perspective has the potential to uncover previously concealed insights into the complex reality of the classroom.

This thesis aims to address some of these noted shortcomings by investigating the dynamic nature of teacher motivation over the course of one academic year. A longitudinal research design allowed for a rarely possible extended period of exposure to the field, with a corresponding bond of trust forged between myself as the researcher, the teacher-participants, their students, and the wider community. Having been granted an unrivalled degree of access to the state secondary school system within the Argentinian town of Solaris, I was afforded an unprecedented opportunity to investigate the teachers’ motivational complex systems. Correspondingly, the primary focus of this study is to answer three research questions:
What are the experiences of English language teachers in Solaris with regard to teaching motivation at the outset of the 2016 academic year?

What are the specific features of Solaris which are liable to affect the teaching motivation of the English teachers?

Is there evidence of the dynamic nature of teaching motivation?

Approaching these questions from a complexity perspective foregrounded the importance of context-rich bottom-up analyses which provide a forum through which these teachers’ voices may be heard for the first time. The resulting findings provide new insights into the lived experiences of those working within the education system in Solaris and allow for the extension of existing theory to allow for more complex understanding.

1.2 Overview of the thesis structure

This thesis is divided into nine chapters. Subsequent to this introductory chapter, the second provides the reader with background information related to the specifics of the Argentinian context. Chapter 3 reviews relevant existing literature within the field, focussing on Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST), Self-Determination Theory (SDT), and studies related to teaching motivation. Having provided a contextual and theoretical grounding within which to situate the study, an account is then given of the research design and methodology in Chapter 4. The three research questions are explored individually in three successive chapters, within which results, and discussions are provided. Chapter 5 explores the experiences of the English teachers in Solaris in early 2016; Chapter 6 identifies the matrix of primary influential variables which positively, and negatively affect the motivation to teach; and Chapter 7 presents evidence of the dynamic nature of teaching motivation, along with the identification of patterns of nested behaviours. In Chapter 8, validation of the findings is provided through the views of the wider teaching community; evidence of impact is presented; and bottom-up contextually relevant suggestions for systemic improvements are provided with a platform. Finally, in Chapter 9, I summarise the main findings; acknowledge limitations of the study; outline the contributions made by this thesis; and offer suggestions for future research.
2 Argentina ergo Solaris

It may be reasonable to assume that the reader possesses limited familiarity with the context under investigation: Argentina. In recognition of this, the purpose of this chapter is to present salient background information specific to the Argentinian context, and simultaneously answer important questions that the reader may have. These are envisaged to potentially include: why Argentina; why the town of Solaris in particular; why secondary schools; why am I interested in this particular context; and given my position as an outsider, why do I consider myself to be an appropriate conduit for insights into this unfamiliar culture and context? Whilst I endeavour to respond to each of these, in recognition of the thesis word limit and a desire to minimise repetition, some areas may not be fully developed in this chapter. In such instances, I believe that a fuller and more beneficial understanding may come through engagement with the subsequent chapters. As such, priority is given here to background detail only when its absence might hinder understanding moving forwards. In all other cases, more detailed discussions will be provided as the thesis develops (see Chapters 5, 6, 7, & 8).

2.1 Argentina

The issue of English language teaching has long been an important consideration for Argentinian policy makers at governmental level who have attempted to shape the manner in which instruction is provided within the state school system. This degree of interest in the language might be surprising, given that all but one country in both Latin and Central America share a common language, though some regional differences exist. A further issue could include the recognition of the political and territorial disputes that have historically plagued Argentinian relations with English-speaking countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Nevertheless, Porto (2014) contends that there is a strong recognition of the importance of English throughout the country and that it is engendered with a degree of prestige not afforded to other foreign tongues. Nielsen (2003) additionally notes that, “although English is neither a national language nor an official language in Argentina, it is definitely the most important foreign language in the country” (p. 201). This may be surprising given the proximity of Brazil but perhaps recognises the international profile of English as a lingua franca. Porto (2014) appears to partially agree with this, identifying it as, “additive rather than
subtractive” (p. 7). In this sense, the English language is perceived by some to supplement their communicative abilities and is not viewed as a form of linguistic imperialism which serves only to denigrate the national tongue (see Section 6.1.1.2 for further discussion). However, whilst this may be true in the larger cities, the spread of English in smaller localities is much more restricted and in general, levels of proficiency remain low. From a global Englishes perspective, Argentina would be located in Kachru’s (1992) expanding circle. As such, one would typically expect to see English largely utilised as a “medium for international communication” (Kachru & Smith, 2008, p. 4), though the authors do additionally note that in Latin America specifically, English is employed, “in restricted domains such as higher education, research publications in science and technology, international business, tourism, and commerce” (Kachru & Smith, 2008, p. 6). It should be noted that such domains of use may potentially be seen less frequently in smaller settlements, and corresponding lower levels of English language ability might be found.

2.2 Solaris

The specific location for this study is the town of Solaris, which sits at the western edge of a southern province in Argentina. The town is located within the region of Patagonia, in the Andes Mountain range, close to the border with Chile. Solaris is an urban settlement with a population of 32,758 inhabitants, according to the 2010 census (Department of Statistics and Censuses, 2010). It occupies a remote rural location, with the closest city almost 300km away, and for many of those that live outside of the town, farming is a primary occupation. Whilst it should be recognised that all contexts may be considered unique, Solaris can also be considered as representative of many other towns in rural Argentina. Given the geographical scale of the country and its relatively low population density outside of the main cities, many similarly isolated communities exist where experiences regarding the English language may not be very different. As a result of this, Solaris may be considered a case, through which more can be understood of English language teaching in the state secondary schools of Argentina. In towns such as this, with limited engagement in the restricted domains of language usage specified in the previous paragraph, there exist few opportunities for English language usage. Furthermore, indigenous languages such as Mapuche retain greater significance in the immediate locality, though the heritage language is often treated as the second or
other tongue with the Argentinian dialect of Castilian Spanish, Rioplatense, consistently being the dominant language in all areas of life. Whilst Solaris has a seasonal tourist industry, with access to a national park and a popular ski resort both a relatively short distance from the town, the majority of visitors originate from either within Argentina or from neighbouring countries and have scant need for the use of English as a lingua franca. As such, it may be problematic for teachers to identify an authentic rationale for the relevance of the English language to their students within the secondary schools of Solaris (see Section 6.1.1.2).

In spite of these challenges with regard to English within Argentina as a whole, ergo Solaris, English language teaching retains its place within the curriculum as a compulsory subject. However, it is not part of the core national syllabus, being taught for only two teaching hours, i.e. three 40-minute classroom periods, each week. In contrast, core subjects, such as maths or history, receive five teaching hours of tuition per week, and as such, a degree of diminished priority attached to English may be identified. Designation of subjects within the curriculum are decided at national level and affect all regions, though many other decisions regarding education are handed down for more local consideration. Argentina operates a “federal system of government comprised of 23 provinces and the autonomous city of Buenos Aires” (Porto, 2014). The 24 regions each possess their own Ministerio (Ministry of Education), with differences between the provinces in the proportion of funding each receives for its education budget, the manner in which they allocate those funds, and the way they implement educational policies (Acedo, Gorostiaga & Senén-González, 2007). Each province is further divided into districts, within which, a centre of administration exists for the district as a whole. Solaris is an example of such a centre, and as a result, is home to the local district representatives of the provincial Ministerio, known as Supervision, who administer the schools both within the town and its surrounding rural area. In addition to the noted differences at provincial level as a result of the decentralised governmental structure, variation can also be identified within each district. For example, each school receives a discretionary budget, which may be utilised however the principal deems appropriate, with one school in Solaris having used the funds to provide a teaching assistant to aid classroom discipline with first year students. As such, there exists the potential for variations to exist in the provision of English language
teaching not just at provincial level but also within the local environment i.e. between the schools in Solaris.

2.3 A rationale for the study

Whilst the education system affords the aforementioned degree of autonomy at district and provincial level, in many areas, the Argentinian government retains oversight. In addition to establishing the core curriculum, they have periodically attempted to implement countrywide policy change in order to improve student levels of attainment in English. However, whilst such reforms in language curriculum policy may have been well-intentioned, the effects at ground level have often failed to result in the sought-after improvements. For example, Soto (2012) maintains that whilst there was significant countrywide reform of the school curriculum in 2010, this resulted in minimal real change on the part of many teachers. One possible explanation for the lack of discernible change at local level could be due to the changes not being fully carried through by the school administrations as they have a degree of freedom in the manner of implementation and monitoring. Similarly, it is also conceivable that such top-down changes might face resistance from the school staff, or that inadequate training may have failed to prepare them for said changes, leaving the staff without the necessary knowledge and/or skills to see them successfully implemented. A further potential problem is identified by Paz and Quintero (2009), who criticise the origins of many such changes, questioning the appropriacy and validity of foreign-derived solutions to Argentinian classroom problems. In doing so, they highlight the importance of contextually relevant solutions, as a contrast to implicit assumptions that what may have worked elsewhere will be successful in Argentinian classrooms. Armendáriz (2009) adds further weight to this line of argumentation, articulating the importance of a bottom-up approach to educational reform, foregrounding the notion that experiences in Argentinian classrooms should drive and inform policy discussion and development. Nevertheless, it should be recognised that such approaches require a degree of scientifically robust research in order that such locally derived, bottom-up reform may have a clear evidentiary warrant. Whilst steps have been taken in this area, there is still much ground to be covered and more studies such as this investigation will be necessary if research is to underpin future systemic developments.
One area of research interest in Argentina has been in the field of motivation research, with the Federación Argentina de Asociaciones de Profesores de Inglés (FAAPI) selecting motivation and autonomy as the central theme for its 27th conference in 2012. In the same year, Soto (2012) investigated the effects of the previously mentioned national policy reforms with regard to autonomy and teacher motivation. Whilst acknowledging a disappointingly low response rate to her research instrument, Soto, (2012) reported, “low level or complete lack of motivation” (p. 57) from the responding language teachers. Whilst this might be dismissed as an isolated study and not representative of wider trends, such reported low levels of teacher motivation should be given due consideration lest they are indicative of a more worrying widespread trend. In providing support for this identified suppression, Porto (2014) points towards low levels of teacher motivation generally within the public-school system, while Pinto and Pulido (1997) further identified similar issues within the tertiary sector. As such, it may be that systemic problems exists with regard to teacher motivation throughout the education sector. Whilst a convincing case may have been made for further teaching motivation research in Argentina, the intervening years have not produced a great deal. Nevertheless, Banegas (2012) highlights the importance of teacher motivation, positing a symbiotic relationship between teacher and student forms of motivation (for a fuller discussion of this relationship, see Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). He further argues that such influences may be positive or negative, highlighting the potential for both teacher and student to exert motivational/demotivational influences on each other. I believe that further research into teaching motivation in Argentina is now long overdue.

2.4 Making the case for the outsider

Finally, I would like to establish the connection to my own research interests and make the case for my position as researcher in this context. Hiver and Dörnyei (2017) refer to language teaching in state secondary schools as “the setting in which the majority of language learning takes place worldwide” (p. 3), something which resonates with a context such as Solaris, where many families are unable, or unwilling, to pay for private language tuition. As such, the English lessons provided within the State school system present the only formalised learning opportunity available. Whilst my interests in teaching motivation have already been introduced
(see Section 1.1), the reasons for my desire to research within the Argentinian language education may be less clear. Initially, my PhD fieldwork was due to take place in a quite different context where, due to circumstances outside my control, continuation became impossible. At rather short notice, I was serendipitously presented with the opportunity to access to the schools in Solaris through a Warwick University colleague (Estanislao), who offered to act as my local gatekeeper and primary contact within the Ministerio. Far from representing a second-best option, this resulted in unfettered access to schools and teachers, on a scale which would have been unlikely in alternative contexts. This thesis is the result of such a depth of engagement.

Nevertheless, adapting my research design to the new context in limited time was not without issues, one of which being my lack of familiarity with the country and its culture prior to arrival. A case might be made that my lack of previous engagement with Argentina, and corresponding minimal knowledge of the culture, could have resulted in assumptions made out of ignorance, and a weakening of the research itself. However, Gregory and Ruby (2011) clarify that there are potential pitfalls inherent for the researcher, whether insider or outsider, arguing convincingly that neither vantage point is by definition, superior. I believe that by approaching the field of investigation without pre-existing experiences and making a conscientious effort to minimise existing conceptions and beliefs, I was able to present myself as a form of tabula rasa, ready to be educated with local knowledge by the participants. Positioning myself as a fellow teacher who wished to gain understanding of their individual lived experiences allowed the teachers to redress some of the power differential inherent within classroom observations and share with me the intricacies of their lives. Such an approach is one which I had previously pursued in my professional capacity, having frequently accepted teaching positions in environments with which I was altogether unfamiliar prior to my arrival. As a result, a particular skillset had already been in development over many years, and thus I felt a degree of familiarity almost immediately. Whilst the process was not without incident, a benefit was that my lack of local knowledge became assumed, meaning that explanations which would have been presumed unnecessary for an insider, were offered to me in great detail. It is often within these moments that insights can be gleaned through careful attention to the language choices of the speaker and other paralinguistic clues. In such instances, my position as outsider may have enabled me
to identify features that might otherwise have been overlooked, with important supplementary data subsequently gained. In addition to this, whilst the position of outsider may offer the potential for misunderstandings, in Solaris, it came with a significant unexpected benefit. As the year progressed, I learnt that it was my outsider status that had enabled me to earn the trust of the participants. One of the core-participating teachers, Santiago, explained:

And there is a very special point that you are not a part of the system. That is crucial to a successful relationship between a teacher, who is being observed, assessed, and at the same time assisted with suggestions or with observations, comments. And the independence from a Principal, or a Supervisor, or the Ministry. [...] And I would not like that my perception of your, of our experience with you, could mean, or could be interpreted as that the Ministry has to set a kind of observer, official observer, because I really think it would not work. Not exactly for the process itself or the meaning, or the intention. But for the way things are done here because first of all, it should be someone independent from the school.

(Extract 2.1, SaPC/29/11/16) (See Appendix A for data codes)

Here, Santiago indicates the degree of politicisation inherent within the system, whereby information can quickly be turned against an individual. As a direct result, it would have been unlikely that an insider could earn the trust of such a diverse range of teachers and been afforded this level of access to unfiltered comment and opinion. For this particular study, the potential weakness had become a strength.

It is hoped that the provision of initial background orientation, as found in this chapter, may serve to aide in engagement with what follows subsequently. In addition to this, having now attempted to respond to some of the more pressing questions regarding my position as researcher, the reader may be better oriented towards the later stages of analyses and interpretation found in the thesis. I now turn to contextualising the study within the landscape of the existing literature.
3 What is already known, and what is not. An exploration of the literature

The content of this chapter is designed to offer an overview of the theoretical underpinnings for the study as a whole. In order to do this, I begin with a discussion of the paradigm within which the study is situated: Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST). Contrary to its simple titular identification as a theory, CDST in fact represents a paradigm under which a number of theories are subsumed (Cameron, 2003). Perhaps most crucially, it is argued that a complexity perspective is able “to deal holistically with the [...] dynamics of contextualised interaction” (Cameron, 2003, p. 40). Given the focus of this study, which concerns itself with the construct of teaching motivation viewed in constant interaction with its immediate context, I suggest there is much to argue for the relevance of such an approach to an investigation of this type. Following this, the motivational macro-theory of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) will be explored, with a specific focus on the micro-theory of Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), which forms the analytical lens applied in this thesis. Whilst alternative theories were contemplated, the data present a natural fit with, and extension of CET. As such, its explanatory potential as an analytical lens offers much to the educational context of Solaris. Finally, as a means of further situating this investigation, a discussion of advances in knowledge relating to the field of teaching motivation will be offered. The focus will remain on studies relevant to language teaching where possible, though given that such studies remain relatively rare, the wider field is considered where appropriate to this thesis. It is not intended that any of these sections be viewed as an exhaustive historical overview. Instead, decisions have been made at all times as to what may, or may not, be useful to the reader when contextualising the study and engaging with the remainder of the thesis.

3.1 Complex dynamic systems theory (CDST)

3.1.1 Expounding the theory.

For more than thirty years, there has been continued debate as to whether approaches arising from complexity and dynamical theories may offer something of worth to the social sciences (Davis & Sumara, 2006; De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007; Dörnyei, 2009a; Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Thelen & Smith, 1994; Van Geert, 2008; Wolfram, 1985). Some authors, such as
Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry (2015) have proclaimed that Complex dynamic systems theory represents a paradigmatic ground shift, of seismic potential, away from the traditional qualitative/quantitative duopoly. This view has been supported by those who argue that a complexity approach should now be considered a viable alternative to the traditional research paradigms for research into issues of second language learning (Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2016; Larsen-Freeman, 2017). However, despite the explanatory potential of this theoretical standpoint for applied linguistics research, its uptake remains something of a comparative minority pursuit, with much work still to be done.

Complex dynamic systems theory can be considered to subsume Complex Systems Theory (CST) and Dynamical Systems Theory (DST). In historical terms, both CST and DST originate from the domain of the natural sciences, where they have been established for decades. The former is drawn from the field of biology, whilst the latter arose from within the mathematical realm and despite these seemingly disconnected backgrounds, there is much common ground shared by the two theories. Nevertheless, a central distinction remains, namely that dynamical systems theory requires a focus on the evolutionary nature of the process and must therefore factor in time as a variable. This is not so for complexity theory, which affords a greater degree of freedom in this regard. As a result of this conceptual and empirical overlap, the two have often been conflated by fields outside of biology and mathematics, with the result being termed Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST). It is additionally worth noting that this nomenclature has often been applied with a degree of freedom and the three terms have often been used interchangeably outside of their original disciplines (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Finally, and as a means of aiding clarity for the reader, research adopting this analytical lens within applied linguistics is now often termed as having applied a complexity perspective.

In order to fully explore the potential of CDST, it is first necessary to undertake a brief review of its central terminology and concepts. A useful starting point from which to begin is with the conceptualisation of a system, such as Boccara’s (2010) definition as, “a collection of interacting elements making up a whole” (p. 1). Systems may be simple or complex in nature, with a simple system defined as one which requires some form of externally located control mechanism. As a result, the simple system should follow a pre-determined, and highly
predictable pattern of behaviour; e.g. a clock or a kettle. Such behavioural predictability can be considered one of the central features of simple systems. By contrast, “the novel behaviour in a complex system emerges through the self-organizing interaction of its components” (Larsen-Freeman, 2015, p. 14). In effect, self-organising systems have no controlling force to dictate their progress, and developmental changes are viewed as the emergent effects of the systemic elements acting upon each other. As a result of such autonomous development through the multi-directional feedback between components, complex systems may be considered unpredictable by nature. To provide a relevant example: the motivation of a teacher might well be affected by, amongst other things, levels of student participation in their class. This student motivation may in turn, have been affected by any number of influencing factors, such as their teacher; the interpersonal dynamics within the student body; specific events that occurred in a previous lesson; personal issues outside the class; or even something as seemingly innocuous as a change in the weather outside. Should the aforementioned changes in teaching motivation be experienced in conjunction with increases in student participation, a form of motivational feedback loop might be formed. As such, the system could be said to have self-organised into a new more motivated state, with the outcomes of further iterations of this feedback loop forming the initial conditions for the next change in the system. Such an example hints at the fluid and ongoing nature of such self-organisation, whilst also acknowledging that the effects could potentially be negative, with a corresponding downward cycle of motivational effects. As this is a simplified illustrative example, only two possible facets have been accounted for whereas in reality, a much more diverse and multi-dimensional classroom reality exists.

A system is visualised as operating within what is termed its state space, or phase space, with the latter term coming from the mathematical world of dynamical systems and therefore requiring a compulsory chronological dimension (Boccara, 2010). The idealised state space should be able to encompass all of the possible outcomes which the system may embody, though for pragmatic reasons, this is often reduced down to the range of options which are relevant to the study once data analysis has occurred (Juarrero, 2010; Van Geert, 2008). For example, the flow of vehicles through a busy intersection might be considered as a complex system and its state space should encompass all possible levels of traffic. Over the time period of a
typical week, changes could be recorded, with the number of vehicles ranging from none at all to complete gridlock. Moreover, in addition to these more likely outcomes, a range of further possibilities exist, such as complete road closure due to flooding or resurfacing work; high levels of traffic on a Sunday morning due to an event in the city; or lower than expected levels during rush hour as a result of the school holidays. The state space should include the entirety of possibilities, though, as noted above, it may not be practical or necessary to account for each and every conceivable outcome. Moreover, recording the dynamic shifts that occur within the state space allows for the system’s trajectory to identified. It is this trajectory which offers researchers the potential for a deeper understanding of how the elements within the system interact. An example of this might be noting unexpected patterns of traffic congestion which invite further investigation, and which might result in possible explanations being identified, along with potential methods of alleviation. It should be noted at this stage that in the social sciences, the trajectory of a system can only be reliably employed for its explanatory power of that which has already occurred. In order to attempt any form of predictive capability, large data sets, powerful computer systems, and sophisticated computational modelling software are required. Such resources and approaches tend not to be found in applied linguistics research and in this regard, this study is no different.

One of the fundamental differences between CDST and more traditionally employed approaches to applied linguistics research is the manner in which the concept of linearity is considered. Crucially, this may also be considered one of its greatest explanatory strengths. Within alternative paradigms, data are often analysed for linear effect patterns whereby cause and effect ratios may be considered somewhat static. As such, the findings from these analyses offer the potential for predictability and allow for inferences to be extended beyond the original data sample or perhaps even generalised to the population at large. Such outcomes may be highly desirable as they afford recognisable levels of impact. However, a fundamental limitation of these approaches may be their inability to accurately render the unpredictability which is an inherent facet of the world around us. Thelen (2005) describes nonlinearity as being:

\[
\text{like a mountain stream. Depending on the conditions of the stream, similar actions may have very different results. Thus, if I throw a rock into a deep pool, the pool may be disturbed by ripples for a short time, but it will remain}
\]
largely unchanged. The same rock tossed into a shallow part may divert the stream completely, with consequences downstream (p. 260).

Whilst recognising that all events will have some degree of effect on their surrounding context, it is also clear that similar events may result in quite different outcomes. Such uncertainty of outcome may resonate with any teacher who has utilised the same lesson plan with two similar groups, only to achieve quite different results. Complexity theory allows for the recognition that sizable effects can be the result of seemingly innocuous causes and vice versa. Nevertheless, it ascribes no expectation that such outcomes should always be present thereafter, recognising the situated reality of any such instance. It is this perspective which is of particular relevance in research such as this investigation, with its focus on teaching motivation.

In their seminal account of the importance of complex systems to applied linguistics, Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) list the most salient features which a complex system must evince: “heterogeneity of elements or agents”, “dynamics”, “nonlinearity”, “openness”, and “adaptation.” (p. 36). Through these specifications, a better picture can be drawn of the nature of a complex dynamic system in action. Whilst each of the elements within the system should be both individual and distinct, the dynamic nature of the system results from each of its elements being in a state of perpetual interaction and development via feedback loops and the nonlinear effects of said interactions. Furthermore, complex systems are not closed and therefore do not have limits to their energy or potential. An open system is unlikely to achieve permanence or true stasis and any degree of stability or seeming equilibrium is merely a temporary state prior to further shifts as the system adapts in response to itself (Feryok, 2010). In noting this, a potential weakness in complexity thinking may be identified. Given the transient nature of the system within its state space, and furthermore, noting the degree of freedom with which the boundaries around the state space may be placed, there lies the potential that valuable insights may be missed if careful and systematic consideration is not applied to identify the optimal parameters.

Having established the basis for a complex system, it is important to further elucidate the manner in which the system may manifest its dynamism. Within fields such as mathematics, it is often possible to identify changes to the system as a series of discrete steps. Identification of the control parameters which are the cause of such
changes can then allow for their manipulation and further study. However, when researching human behaviour in the social sciences, changes in a complex system may often be seen within a multi-faceted and continuously shifting landscape of intertwined initial conditions. Such obfuscation may mean that the traditional conception of control parameters no longer applies in quite the same fashion. In spite of this, it is still possible to envisage each manifestation of the system as a direct result of what has occurred in its immediate past. Whilst not as immediately apparent as with mathematical calculations, such an approach is entirely possible. Conceptually, the values of each facet of the state space at a given point in time can be considered as the initial conditions for any change which is about to occur (De Bot et al., 2007), with reverse-engineering equally possible once data has been captured. Each part of the system is engaged in a reciprocal arrangement, as such, an alteration in one or more of these values may trigger a change in the trajectory of the system as a whole (known as a perturbation). These triggers may then be retrospectively identified as the control parameters for the state shift under investigation (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Returning to the illustrative traffic analogy, a motorist unaware of the existence of an unexpected disruption might find themselves wondering why they were unable to traverse their planned route as quickly as expected. An explanation for these new conditions might be gained by listening to a local traffic alert on the radio, whereupon an explanation is given that a lorry has broken down and is restricting the flow of vehicles. Now it can be seen that the breakdown may be considered the initial condition for the state shift. The emergent nature of self-organisation within the system additionally means that other drivers making individual decisions as to whether and how to alter their routes would likely have further ramifications for other roads in the immediate vicinity. Such changes could not have been predicted prior to the disruption and can now be viewed as new state shifts, with their own initial conditions traceable to the fallout from the earlier breakdown.

A state space is perceived as containing the potential for attractor and repeller states, though neither of these exerts any direct force upon the system itself as they are metaphorical in nomenclature (Hiver, 2015). In fact, these two states merely imply the level of probability that the system may gravitate towards or away from said state, with an attractor state holding the additional potential of an environment conducive to a degree of relative stability. Juarrero (2010) explains that attractor
states may be conceptualised as dips in the landscape of the state space into which, the system may settle and achieve a degree of stasis. Conversely, those which repel are visualized as peaks and are less likely to create conditions conducive to settling. If we follow the example further still, the system may be envisaged as a metaphorical sphere, at the mercy of traditional gravitational forces. As such, the ball might roll into an attractor basin and experience temporary stability, whereas a repeller state represents a peak, from which the system is likely to roll away (Nowak, Vallacher, & Zochowski, 2005). Employing our traffic analogy once more allows for a further example. If the time of day is considered an observable variable, along with the number of vehicles, we may find that our state space has deep and wide attractor basins for heavy traffic around rush hour during the week. Similarly, there may also be attractor basins for low traffic in the hours after midnight when many people are asleep. At other times of day, traffic flow is more variable and therefore, attractor states are narrower and more shallow. Moreover, in the scenario previously outlined of an unusual traffic event, there is a period in which other motorists take evasive action, and attempts are made at recovering or clearing the stranded vehicle. Given the high degree of unpredictability during this initial period, it might be considered a repeller state in which there is very little stability within the system. Such a scenario is considered to be a system in flux.

The depth of the attractor or height of the repeller is concomitant with the strength of its perceived influence and the width of either indicates the range of possible influential elements. In these terms, stability in a complex system can only be conceived of in a deep and narrow attractor basin, where a strong perturbation would be needed to shift the system. Nevertheless, even this should only be conceived of as a form of “dynamic stability” (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008. P. 32) and not true stasis. Additionally, a state of flux (or chaos) may occur if the system is located in a repeller state and at the mercy of a range of differing perturbations from conflicting influences. It is worth highlighting here that a truly flat model would be hard to conceive as this would imply that all possible states are completely equal, something which is unlikely given the range of dynamically interacting elements and their resulting feedback which form the initial conditions. As such, the system can be conceptualised as fully dynamic in nature, constantly shifting in its state space. This might be perceived as akin to a ship on the ocean
where there is only ever an illusionary period of seeming equilibrium while the vessel reacts to the ongoing movements in the surrounding water.

Hiver (2015) identifies a number of attractor state types which embody different configurations of influence from the system parameters. These include fixed-point attractor states, of which there may be more than one and which can be viewed as showing a high degree of likelihood in their probability of occurring; periodic attractor states, more complex than the previous state and forming part of a fixed pattern of behaviour e.g. the system may vacillate between a number of these states in a cycle or loop; and finally the most common, the chaotic (also known as strange) attractor state, in which the system seems to move towards an attractor but never fully reaches it. When heading towards a strange attractor state, the movements of the system are chaotic, complex with no discernible pattern due to the effects of multiple perturbations and a limited degree of stability (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Within the field of language learning motivation research, Hiver (2015) offers a useful example of this, drawing a parallel with the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2009b), characterising the L2 ideal self as a strange attractor state. He argues that the L2 ideal self can be considered to be a moving target as each time the individual draws near to their perceived ideal, it is pushed further away by the system adapting itself to feedback from the initial conditions. As a result, the ideal L2 self is ultimately, an unattainable goal which can never be fully realised. Although this sequence of events may seem to form a pattern of behaviour, the reality is that the change can never truly be repeated in quite the same manner, as the initial conditions will always be different.

Finally, one further concept from the field of mathematics is consistent with a complexity perspective, that of fractalization (Thelen & Smith, 1994), also referred to as nesting. A fractal is characterised as forming a “scale-free” (De Bot, 2015. p. 31) image of self-repetition at different levels of magnification, with a snowflake often being employed as an exemplary fractal. This is of particular relevance as a complexity perspective allows for a multi-dimensional perspective of time. One such example is the work of Mercer (2015), who investigated the nested (or fractal) nature of the self at concurrent time scales ranging from individual seconds to factors of months. One added advantage of a multi-perspectival approach such as this is that it may allow for the identification of collective variables, whereby the resulting effect of a set of initial conditions is the creation of a higher order and observable category.
Larsen-Freeman and Cameron’s (2008) classroom discourse is an example of this, wherein interactions between the two complex systems of student and teacher language result in a new system: classroom discourse.

3.1.2 Complexity approaches in applied linguistics.

As a result of the aforementioned characteristics of complex dynamic systems theory, a number of researchers in the field of applied linguistics have become vocal proponents of the benefits of research using this approach (De Bot et al., 2007; Dörnyei, 2009a; Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Van Geert, 2008). Recognised advantages of a complexity perspective include its ability to focus on the process rather than the end results of language acquisition; a recognition of the unorthodox and complex nature of reality and an ability to exploit this for greater understanding; a more holistic approach which rejects reductive tendencies; a recognition of the importance of context as an important part of the system, rather than a background variable; the acceptance of nonlinear cause and effect ratios; and above all, a focus on the individual rather than an idealised version of them or a group average. Furthermore, Miller (2002) states that longitudinal studies are best suited to complex dynamic systems research design, with Dörnyei (2009a) also noting the manner in which longitudinal elements fit with a complexity approach. In addition to this, De Bot et al. (2007) adopt a Vygotskyian perspective and identify that a fundamental advantage of CDST “is that it provides us with a framework and the instrumentation that allows us to merge the social and cognitive aspects of SLA and shows how their interaction can lead to development” (p. 19). However, whilst Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry (2015) go as far as to comment that CDST holds the greatest explanatory potential for future motivation research, they also highlight that much of the previous research in this area has been mislabelled due to a misunderstanding or an inability to correctly implement CDST and that much work is yet to be done.

In addition to problems with operationalizing CDST in research, a number of other potential issues have been mooted. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) note that sceptics point to the problematic nature of reduced potential for human agency in a self-organising system. However, they then go on to suggest this is a misreading of the situation. Instead, as the individual is constantly intertwined in a co-constructive relationship with the system and their environment, there is an
inherently guaranteed degree of agency. In addition to this, a more practical constraint is the issue of how to decide at which level to focus the investigation when the system under inquiry is part of a nested, reality. Moreover, there may be a tendency towards adopting a fine-grained temporal lens, due to the limited nature of stability within the system. In such instances, important wider perspectives may be lost. It might also be argued that it is not possible to accurately identify the initial conditions of the system at the beginning of the investigative process as they can only be traced retrospectively once the effect has been realised. This latter issue may present a compelling argument for an emergent approach to research design, which allows for such ongoing adaptations in response to the developing field. Moreover, the principles of nonlinearity additionally imply that causes and effects may be difficult to identify with the data at hand or at the level of focus chosen for the study and this might create retrospective issues with regard to time frames and also more general methodological concerns. Furthermore, the dynamic and continuous nature of motivation means that there are no discrete points which we can neatly employ as a starting point for an investigation, thereby creating further issues in identifying the system parameters. In such instances, it must be acknowledged that no perfect start, or end, point exists. Instead, the focus should be on the depth of understanding achieved, rather than the degree of perfection inherent in the research design, since there are inherent potential weaknesses in all approaches.

Perhaps, a more fundamental concern is that complexity thinking may be conceptually limiting as it can only provide retrospective analyses and inferences, with no potential to predict future behaviour. This is underlined by Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry (2015), who clarify that if cause-effect ratios are nonlinear, any attempt to predict the future behaviour of the system will be futile. These are valid points to a degree as even highly complex computational modelling utilising vast quantities of data has limited predictive power, as has previously been noted. An example of this might be to equate the vast resources used in meteorological patterning and the regularity of evidence as to its lack of reliability. However, Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) argue that whilst it would be almost inconceivable that sufficient data could be compiled to attempt such computational modelling in the field of individual differences research, this should not be seen as an issue. This is because the power of complex systems theory is in its aptitude for “dynamic description” (p. 41). They explain that we should not “attempt to build
models but rather use concepts and ideas from complexity theory as a perspective from which to approach particular problems in applied linguistics” (p. 41). This is a valid point and the assertion that a shift in perspective is needed in order to fully exploit the potential of CDST may explain the degree of resistance that complexity research has faced at times from within the field. Howe and Lewis (2005) lament that researchers often tend towards methodological and paradigmatic stasis and can therefore be slow to adopt new approaches, a process which is further reflected in the historically restricted uptake of such research articles in applied linguistics journals.

Whilst it has been acknowledged that research in the field of applied linguistics adopting a complexity perspective is relatively recent, firm early foundations have begun to be laid in a range of sub-disciplines. Earlier studies often dealt with issues such as the reconceptualization of language itself (Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2009); issues of language development (De Bot, 2008); and the interplay between language, agent, and environment (Dörnyei, 2009a). However, whilst a steady stream of studies continued to emerge, recognition should be given to Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry (2015) whose edited volume of work in the field of CDST and language learning seems to have heralded an upturn in the quantity of published research. As a result of this, a wider variety of areas have begun to receive their due prominence. From a conceptual standpoint, Ushioda (2015) notes the importance of context in CDST research, suggesting that both ‘learner-external and learner-internal contextual processes” be incorporated into analyses which identify macro- and micro-perspectives (p. 53). In particular, she highlights stimulated-recall protocols and reflective writing as methods of gaining access to internal contextual processes relevant to such micro-perspectives. Moreover, it is not just the learner whose reality may be more accurately rendered through such a context-rich approach, with its value also relevant to teacher-based studies. Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016) move from the conceptual to the practical, focussing on approaches to research methods in an attempt to a develop a theoretical template of considerations to aid in complexity research design.

Aside from more theoretical approaches, areas of focus have included exploratory methods of data collection, such as MacIntyre’s (2012) Idiodynamic method, which aims to capture moment-by-moment in-task data from student participants. In this, as with much of the language learning research, understanding the reality of the learner is foregrounded. However, in addition to studies which
focus on the student (for further examples, see Mercer, 2015; Piniel & Csizér, 2015; Henry, 2015), the world of the teacher has emerged as ripe for exploration. Examples of teacher-based studies include Steenbeck and van Geert (2013), who investigated teacher-student interactions; Davis and Sumara (2012), who considered teacher education from a complexity perspective; and the burgeoning interest in teacher cognition (see Kubanyiova, 2007, 2012; Feryok, 2010), where CDST has offered new perspectives. More recently, interest has begun to be shown to issues of teacher motivation (see Kimura, 2014; Hassaskhah, 2016; Henry, 2016; Sampson, 2016). However, aside from Kimura (2014), few studies have been conducted which investigate in-service secondary school teachers, with pre-service teachers often forming the focus of investigation. One possible explanation for this imbalance may be the relative ease of access that pre-service teacher training courses offer to an accessible sample for research purposes. By contrast, whilst their in-service peers may be at the centre of a significant proportion of language learning experiences around the world, they tend to be less available to researchers. From a methodological standpoint, teacher-focused case studies which adopt a longitudinal approach to research design are even less well-represented in complexity research. Finally, the burgeoning field of CDST has yet to be established in Latin America. As such, the ability of a complexity perspective to offer robust explanations for the unique issues faced by teachers in contexts such as Argentina, has yet to be fully tested. I would argue that these areas may provide fertile ground for increased empirical studies as we develop our understanding of the reality of situated English language teaching.

3.2 Motivation theory

Motivation research has provided a diversity of competing and complementary theories which offer breadth and depth of insight within the field of applied linguistics. Any attempt at a thorough historical overview of the entirety of these developments would be both impractical and unnecessary; and as such, the primary focus of the subsequent sections will be on elements of theory directly relevant to this investigation. However, it should be noted that perhaps the most fertile area of motivation research within applied linguistics has concerned itself with the motivation of the language learner. Whilst I recognise that such advances in knowledge relate primarily to the students’ side of the teaching and learning
dynamic, it may be helpful to momentarily explore a timeline of L2 motivation’s four main developmental phases: the social-psychological period; the cognitive-situated period; the process-oriented approach; and the socio-dynamic period (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The social-psychological period, originating in the 1960s (Lambert, 1963), was embodied by the work of Gardner and Lambert (1972) and perhaps reached its greatest prominence in Gardner’s influential (1985) socio-educational model. The central theme of the socio-psychological period was that “the social and cultural environment in which learners grow up influence (sic) their attitudes and motivation, which in return influence (sic) their achievement” (Xie, 2011, p. 25). In short, if the individual does not possess a positive attitude towards the second language and its community, they are more likely to struggle in their quest to successfully acquire the language. The second phase, the cognitive-situated period is generally agreed to have evolved from the late 1980’s until approximately 2000. Research from this phase offers a more localized perspective on motivation and responds to the perceived weaknesses of the social-psychological period: namely its tendency to visualize motivation in terms of groups or societies. Subsequently, the turn of the new century witnessed further developments in the world of second language motivation research, one of which was a shift towards a process-oriented approach. Dörnyei (2009d) describes this period as being “characterised by an interest in motivational change and in the relationship between motivation and identity” (p. 17). Finally, the current socio-dynamic period which Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) state is “characterized by a concern with dynamic systems and contextual interactions” (p. 396). Whilst I acknowledge that these phases reflect developments in understanding the experiences of language learners, not teachers, such an overview offers a conceptual vantage point from which to engage with the theory that will underpin the analyses in this thesis: Self-Determination Theory (SDT).

3.2.1 Self-determination theory.

The macro-theory of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) has proven to be one of the more enduring motivational frameworks since its application within the cognitive-situated period of L2 motivation research. Dörnyei (2005) underlines the impact of SDT to the field, describing it as, “one of the most influential approaches in motivational psychology” (p. 76). Lamb (2017)
additionally recognises its enduring presence as an explanatory force within the field of motivation research. However, while the theoretical framework of SDT has been the subject of extensive exploration within SLA research, this should not be considered the limits of its explanatory potential. Instead, SDT has been widely used in the analysis of all areas of human activity, including work and teaching. Moreover, prior to its adoption to L2 motivation research within the cognitive-situated period in the early 1990s, self-determination theory had already been widely utilised in mainstream psychology for two decades. The nature of robust theory implies that it is entirely possible that new developments and extensions might enable an existing theory to gain new life when reconsidered in line with new perspectives. As such, and with a rich and varied heritage both within and without the field of applied linguistics, it is possible there is still much that can still be explained through the focus on the individual provided by SDT’s analytical lens. Given that teaching motivation is in constant interaction with the teaching context, I am interested to explore how an SDT analysis of teaching motivation may be informed by complexity perspectives and whether such an approach may offer the potential for new insights. In order to argue for this approach, I will first offer an exploration of the micro-theories that comprise SDT, and then provide a detailed rationale for its appropriacy as an analytical tool in this investigation.

3.2.2 Cognitive evaluation theory (CET).

The central sub-theory which underpins self-determination theory is that of Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET). CET conceptualises motivation as being driven by two main orientations, those of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 2009d). Ryan & Deci (2000) define intrinsic motivation as the performance of an action as a result of finding it to be “inherently interesting or enjoyable” (p. 55), with one by-product of this being that the individual may be additionally driven to pursue further opportunities as they may offer similar rewards. The counterpart to the intrinsic catalyst for action is known as extrinsic motivation, being defined as “those actions carried out to achieve some instrumental end, such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment” (Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000, p. 61). Of the two, the intrinsic dimension is deemed to be of particular importance to language teachers, who have been characterised as strongly intrinsically motivated (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Erkaya, 2012; Han & Yin, 2016; Radel, Sarrazin, Legrain & Wild,
2010). At this stage, it may be relevant to recognise that for Deci and Ryan (1985),
the intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation should not be viewed as two ends of a
single continuum. In fact, much research has been conducted which shows that each
embodies its own separate continuum, and that the two are not inextricably
connected (Jones, Llacer-Arrastia & Newbill, 2009; Noels et al., 2000; Schunk,
Pintrich, and Meece 2008). In spite of this, there exists some dissent, with some
authors highlighting potential issues with this perspective (Noels, 2009; Van Lier,
1996) and questioning its veracity. As such, there remains a need for further
clarification as to the permeability of any barrier between the two continua (see
Section 3.2.3; 3.2.5 for further discussion).

3.2.2.1 Competence.

Cognitive evaluation theory, however, does not simply view motivation as a
bipartite composite of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, manifesting themselves in
varying degrees of strength. Instead, intrinsic motivation itself is considered to be
comprised of three facets corresponding to the basic psychological needs of
competence, autonomy, and relatedness. It is said that if these three needs are met,
intrinsic motivation has the potential to thrive. The first, competence, is defined by
Niemiec and Ryan (2009) as “the experience of behavior as effectively enacted” (p.
135; see also Ryan & Deci, 2001), and as such, the individual should feel they have
been able to complete whichever task they had set themselves, e.g. achieving their
lesson aims, successfully completing the curriculum for the year, or perhaps seeing
their learners developing confidence and ability with the English language. Ryan and
Deci (2000) also approach from an educational perspective, adding examples
wherein a student might have their basic psychological need for competence satisfied
through, “optimal challenges, effectance promoting feedback, and freedom from
demeaning evaluations” (p. 58).

Returning once more to the needs of the teacher, Grolnick, Deci and Ryan
(1997) state that, “competence support, often defined as provision of structure (as
opposed to chaos), refers to guidelines and constraints on behavior, involving
communication of expectations that are optimally challenging, explanations and
administrations of consequences, and provision of informational feedback” (cited in
Roth, 2014, p. 43). As such, teachers are likely to feel that their need for competence
has been met if they operate in an environment where communication is
characterised by its clarity and detail (Reeve, 2002); and in which there is an availability of positive feedback (Deci & Ryan, 1980). It is important to recognise that for such positive feedback to be maximally effective; it should be both specific and felt to be authentic (Muñoz & Ramirez, 2015). Moreover, it should also be noted that receiving negative feedback is likely to result in the suppression of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2009). In this regard, clear and open lines of communication should be maintained between the academic management team and the teacher, along with those between them and their peers, so that information may travel efficiently and without loss of detail. Moreover, positive feedback may be passed along as and when appropriate with little or no interruption or degradation of content. In contrast to this, Timms and Brough (2012) suggest that “teachers who are unable to fulfil their expectations of a fulfilling and satisfying career of contributing to the psychological and intellectual growth of students, will inevitably experience a sense of ‘unaccomplishment’, which directly undermines their sense of professional self-efficacy” (p. 772; see also Friedman, 2000). As such, an isolated and uncommunicative school administration, which enacts change without adequate advanced notice, and which fails to praise quality teaching might be considered to be the perfect breeding ground for deleterious effects on existing and potential future levels of intrinsic motivation. Moreover, if this were combined with a repetitive, unchallenging syllabus and students who fail to engage in class while showing few signs of progress, it might be difficult to consider how intrinsic motivation could survive in any recognisable form. Such an extreme set of circumstances would certainly present challenges with regard to meeting the teachers’ basic psychological need for competence.

### 3.2.2.2 Autonomy.

The second of CET’s three psychological needs is autonomy. This can be defined as “the experience of behavior as volitional and reflectively self-endorsed” (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009, p. 135). Ushioda (2011) additionally marks an important distinction between autonomy, as in the ability to control one’s actions; and the, “psychological need to experience behaviour as self-determined” (p. 223; see also Lamb, 2007). Here, it is the latter which takes precedence, given its role as a psychological need. Muñoz and Ramirez (2015) identify two aspects which need to be present if autonomy can be said to be in existence: choice and rationale. Perhaps
interestingly, the salience of clarity in communication is once again identified, though this time with regard to ensuring the rationale for any action is provided in an autonomy-supportive manner (Reeve et al., 2002), lest the individual feel their sense of agency is under threat. In addition to this, the existence of choice, without external pressure intended to influence the decision-making, will not only ensure that intrinsic motivation is not threatened but also result in its development (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan, 1991).

The central role of competence and autonomy is clarified by Ryan and Deci (2000) who state that, “feelings of competence will not enhance intrinsic motivation unless they are accompanied by a sense of autonomy” (p. 58). Gagné and Deci (2005) further develop this idea, arguing that if an activity is seen to reinforce an individual’s sense of their own competence via the reception of positive feedback, whilst additionally complementing their autonomous feelings by being notionally self-directed, the result will be an increase in intrinsic motivation. In this sense, intrinsic motivation can be characterised as an individual proceeding with an action that they have elected to pursue and that, whilst it might be challenging, they feel they are able to successfully complete the task. In spite of this agreement, questions still remain, such as to what degree the positive effects of autonomy may be undermined. For example, teaching might be considered to be a career which entails a great deal of autonomous decision-making, given the teacher must plan their lessons and that they typically operate without direct oversight while in the classroom, directing groups of learners through the stages of their lesson plan. However, the reality of school life might include intrusive behaviour by other members of staff which impede this degree of true freedom within the classroom. Moreover, the previously mooted distant and remote academic management team may be prone to making seemingly arbitrary decisions that impact negatively on the teachers’ ability to pursue their self-directed plans of action. In such environments, the true extent of the teacher’s autonomy may be somewhat less clear. Furthermore, such distinctions might be relativized within cultures where such professional dynamics are considered usual, or conversely, be seen as highly unprofessional in others, resulting in varying degrees of effect. Such differences may not be immediately evident from the outside unless careful recognition of contextual factors is considered when assessing perceived levels of autonomy.
3.2.2.3 Relatedness.

In addition to competence and autonomy, Ryan and Deci (2002) identify the final facet in the triumvirate of psychological needs: relatedness. Relatedness can be understood as the “need to establish close and secure attachments with others” (Jang, Reeve, Ryan & Kim, 2009, p. 644). In this sense, whilst autonomy might be perceived on some levels as reflecting a need to stand alone, relatedness reflects the need to belong. Moreover, whilst satisfying the psychological needs for competence and autonomy are seen to be necessary if intrinsic motivation is to thrive, relatedness exists in a supplementary capacity. Niemiec and Ryan state that:

SDT posits that satisfaction of the need for relatedness facilitates the process of internalization. People tend to internalize and accept as their own the values and practices of those to whom they feel, or want to feel, connected, and from contexts in which they experience a sense of belonging (p. 139).

In addition to highlighting the role of relatedness as facilitative, as opposed to the fundamentally central roles played by competence and autonomy, a further caveat is implied. For teachers, it might be reasonable to assume that it would be their colleagues within the school who are most likely to align closely with the aforementioned values and practices and to whom they may be drawn to seek connection. This might be reasonable as only other members of staff might be able to fully understand, and share in, the realm of the educator in a secondary school. Ducharme and Martin (2000) identify the importance of support and social interactions with co-workers in this regard, along with Barth (2006) who supports this assertion for teachers working in schools. In addition to this, Muñoz and Ramirez (2015) also note that for students, the authority figure of the parent, and later the teacher, are often those with whom the learners wish to feel connected. In this regard, it may be likely that it is not just the peer teachers, but also those within the administrative team within the school who populate the group of colleagues to whom the teacher turns in order to satiate their psychological need for relatedness. Perhaps as a result of its supportive only role within self-determination theory, relatedness has not received the same degree of research focus as competence or autonomy, though Lamb (2017) recognises that conceptual links may well exist with areas such as group dynamics (Dörnyei, & Murphey, 2003). Further questions may additionally exist as to the degree to which the immediate culture and context might impact on the strength of influence exerted by relatedness (see Erkaya, 2013; Muñoz
& Ramirez, 2015). Given the unique working environment within which secondary school teachers build relationships with their adolescent students, it may be that subtle variations are seen regarding intrinsically located teaching motivation as a result of differences in teaching contexts.

3.2.3 Organismic integration theory (OIT).

Whilst cognitive evaluation theory concerns itself primarily with intrinsic motivational orientations, organismic integration theory attempts to explain extrinsic motivation in greater depth. Ryan and Deci (2002) explain that this theory conceptualises extrinsic motivation as being comprised of four possible subdivisions, each reflecting the degree of internalisation regarding the strength of external influences.

*Figure 3.1* The stages of internalisation for extrinsic motivation

As Figure 3.1 shows, the four states can be visualised as a continuum whereupon the perceived locus of causality (Ryan & Connell, 1989) exists in graduated stages of internalisation. A greater degree of internalisation is also seen as representative of a more autonomous motivational stance as will be seen in the following descriptions. The first of the stages is termed externally regulated behaviour and is seen as the least autonomous of the four. Vansteenkiste, Lens and Deci (2006) classify this as the archetype of extrinsically motivated behaviour since its origins are externally located either through seeking reward or avoiding punishment. The next stage is introjected regulation of behaviour which implies that whilst the action is carried out...
primarily for reasons which originate outside of the self, some degree of internalisation has occurred (Bakar, Sulaiman & Rafaai, 2010). The third form of regulation is called identified and this represents a further step-change in the process of internalisation, with the resulting greater degree of self-determination. Finally, the most autonomous stage of internalised extrinsic motivation is termed integrated regulation, though it is perhaps worth highlighting that this should not be confused with Gardner’s (1985) integrative motivation. Each of these four types of regulation represents a shift in terms of the internal perceived locus of causality (IPLOC) which corresponds with both a perception of greater self-determination and an increased degree of autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

However, whilst there is no debate as to whether an increase in internalisation represents an activity being driven more by the self than by an external agent, there is some disagreement about the potential for interaction between intrinsic motivation and the more autonomous incarnations of its extrinsic partner. Deci and Ryan (1985) claim it is not possible for extrinsic motivation to become intrinsic and that the two forms should not be conceptualised as opposing ends of a cline with the four stages of regulation in between. Viewed from their perspective, intrinsic motivation is innate and can only come from within, leaving no potential for the internal perceived locus of causality to become fully internalised and absorbed within the self completely. Nevertheless, Noels (2009) presents a valid criticism of this view, calling into question the true distinction between intrinsic motivation and identified regulation. She highlights that the former, which implies the individual is indulging in behaviour for their own interest or enjoyment, may not be that different to the latter, which indicates that the action carries some form of personally regulated sense of importance. Seen in these terms, this terminological uncertainty has the potential to create problems in operationalising the two constructs and therefore result in data of potentially questionable reliability. Further issues might also be seen in data analysis and interpretation as a result of this lack of conceptual clarity.

Van Lier (1996) also offers his critique, positing by way of example that intrinsic motivation alone is not enough to account for successful language acquisition. Instead, intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations must work together in a dynamic relationship. There is some merit in his approach as he identifies that whilst intrinsic motivation may be fundamental in instigating behaviour and even in overcoming aversions to unpleasant tasks, it cannot sustain an
individual through the lengthy process of learning a language, implying Vygotskian principles of integration between the innate tendencies and the sociocultural environment. Such a position is equally consistent with the reality of teaching, in which a strong intrinsic desire to educate cannot be said to account for all that takes place. Van Lier (1996) develops his argument further, mooting that a merging of intrinsic and extrinsic orientations occurs as the process of internalisation takes place, principally at the level of introjected regulation. Furthermore, as the process of internalisation takes place, intrinsic and extrinsic motivational drives become fully combined by the stage of integrated regulation. He underlines this point of view with the unequivocal statement that “not only is there no opposition between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, they are actually two essential forces that must work in concert to stimulate learning” (Van Lier, 1996, pp. 112-113). There is much to be argued for in this reconceptualization of OIT. Nevertheless, it should be noted that given the aforementioned issues with opacity in the definitions of these terms, what remains is a purely theoretical discussion which cannot be empirically proven one way or the other. From a theoretical standpoint, it might be argued that the nature of second language acquisition is so essentially different from other behaviours that it does require some adaptation to the original standpoint. Certainly, anecdotal evidence would argue for the need of both forms of motivation at varying stages along the lengthy path of linguistic development and any theory which implies that they might work in complete isolation would seem to be unable to reflect the complexity of motivational changes over time.

However, it remains unclear as to what degree might this be true for teachers, or in the case of this study, English teachers. In the first instance, it is recognised that teachers tend to possess a fairly strong intrinsic drive for their chosen career (Richardson, Watt, & Karabenick, 2014). As such, whilst not entirely eradicated from consideration, the importance of extrinsic factors may be less central than in other workplace scenarios. Moreover, for many secondary teachers around the world who work in difficult and challenging circumstances, extrinsic rewards such as salary or status within the community may be entirely absent. Moreover, contexts in which extrinsic motivation might be aided by the desire to avoid negative scenarios cannot be treated as universal. To offer an example, for some teachers, poor exam results might be mitigated by offering additional opportunities for the students to pass, or by lowering the degree of difficulty as means of ensuring a healthier exam
success rate. Moreover, if teachers were to feel they are not fully integrated into their school and valued for their contributions, they might not feel the same degree of concern with regard to their under-performing classes. A context in which their subject, or even secondary education as a whole, is deemed not to be useful or necessary by the students and their families could engender a struggle to find extrinsic motivations of any significant degree. Once again, it seems that the specifics of the context could potentially hold much in terms of correctly rendering the reality of teaching motivation. As a result, it should be acknowledged that some questions have been identified as to the direct relevance of organismic integration theory to teacher motivation studies, though such questions may be contingent upon contextual factors, such as those highlighted here.

### 3.2.4 Amotivation.

One final construct in self-determination theory is that which Deci and Ryan (1985) term amotivation, something which Roth (2014) defines as the existence of no motivation at all (p. 37). In contrast with the previously defined intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, Noels et al. (2000) argue that an alternative scenario may also arise, where results are perceived to come not as a result of the actions of the individual but from “factors beyond their control” (p. 62). Deci and Ryan (1985) state that the person in question will then experience a lack of both competence and autonomy, with the resulting effect being termed amotivation. In the interests of clarity, it should be noted that self-determination theory contains no negative form of motivation. In line with this, Vallerand and Bissonnette (1992) state that amotivation represents the lowest degree of self-determination and it is expected to precede the cessation of the action in question. Whilst amotivation has seen a degree of research interest in some fields, particularly in its relationship to burnout (for example, see Holmberg & Sheridan, 2013; Lonsdale, Hodge, & Rose, 2009; Lyndon et al., 2017), it should be noted that amotivation pertains to the quantity of motivation rather than the quality (cf. intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) (Fernet, Guay, Senécal, & Austin, 2011; Gorozidis & Papaioannou, 2013). As a result of this, amotivation may not hold the same degree of analytical potential when compared with the previously outlined micro-theories within self-determination theory (see Sections 3.1.3; 3.1.4).
3.2.5 The rationale for self-determination theory.

Ryan and Deci (2000) claim that the presence of “rewards”, “threats”, “deadlines”, “directives”, and “competition pressure” can exert a notable effect on both intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation. They argue that, in the same way that positive and negative feedback can enhance and undermine feelings of competence, attaching any form of perceived external regulation to an activity can reduce levels of intrinsic motivation due to the accompanying reduction in autonomy, ergo self-determination. It is also interesting to note that Jang et al. (2009) claim that in an educational setting, competence, autonomy and relatedness needs can all be met by an autonomy supportive approach, thereby noting the potential importance of autonomy research in educational environments. However, Eccles et al. (1991) claim that the reality is more complex than this and that children and adolescents require differing levels of autonomy and control depending on their individual stage of development, resulting in potential issues in school environments. Such revelations might not seem to offer much with regard to the teachers’ motivation levels, though SDT studies have supported the relevance of such findings to adults (for example, see Esdar, Gorges, & Wild, 2015; Gagné, & Deci, 2005). Nevertheless, it may be important to consider Ushioda’s (2016) small lens approach and whether this might also apply to the teachers, wherein the impact of personally relevant influences on their motivation can be identified and investigated. In addition to such granular study, adopting a wider lens could additionally show that individuals from differing cultural backgrounds may require a degree of external control and autonomy consistent with their expectations and/or previous experiences in order to operate at their optimal level. Such insights might only become available if more longitudinal studies are conducted with teachers as their focal point, which allow for multi-perspectival analyses of the data.

However, potential criticisms have also been levelled at self-determination theory both generally and in terms of its relevance to the realm of teacher motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000) argue that much of the research concerning adolescents and adults may be flawed as “the freedom to be intrinsically motivated becomes increasingly curtailed by social demands and roles that require individuals to assume responsibility for nonintrinsically interesting tasks” (p. 60). This is an important insight and one which may undermine assumptions which hinge upon previous research. Furthermore, Gagné and Deci (2005) highlight one possible
problem with cognitive evaluation theory and intrinsic motivation research in the workplace is that the payment of a salary implicitly undermines the intrinsic dimension itself. Indeed, if, as has been previously outlined, the presence of a reward diminishes intrinsic motivation, and such motivation is reduced by the inherent nature of the maturational process, questions might be asked as to the potential for intrinsic motivation to maintain explanatory potential for workplace studies. Nevertheless, as has been noted, language teachers typically possess a high proportion of intrinsic motivation for their chosen career (see Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Erkaya, 2012; Han & Yin, 2016; Lamb, 2017; Radel, Sarrazin, Legrain & Wild, 2010, Roth, 2014). As such, the strong sense of vocation attached to education might have the potential to over-ride such motivation-damping factors. Furthermore, it may be possible that the barrier between self-determined forms of motivation and their extrinsic counterparts is indeed somewhat permeable (see Section 3.2.3). An alternative explanation could be that integrated motivation is highly similar to intrinsic motivation from an experiential standpoint, as has been suggested by Noels (2009). Whilst these, and other interpretations as possible, it may first be important to further explore the reality of teaching motivation from a range of perspectives that account for the individualised experiences of the teachers themselves.

From an ontological perspective, Noels (2009) recognises that SDT reflects an inherently positivist stance as it conceptualises one true identifiable self which is either positively, or negatively affected by interactions with the social environment within which it resides (see also Deci & Flaste, 1996). Whilst this perspective may appear to be borne out by much of the body of empirical research, it should be recognised that a significant quantity of SDT studies have been quantitative by design. Seen in this light, the findings may not be altogether unexpected. In contrast to the one true self, it may also be possible to perceive any number of selves, each of which could be conceptualised within the SDT framework. To clarify this further, an individual may embody a number of varyingly different selves depending on whether they were at work, at home, in a public social environment, or many other potential scenarios which have differing social requirements. Whilst there may be some archetypal root self which underlies these, it might not be something which can be envisaged as a fully formed and identifiable self. Seen in these terms, the most appropriate self could be called upon for each environment by selecting from a range of personal attributes and only at this stage would it be recognisable and identifiable.
as something which could be truly referred to as the self. A conceptualisation such as this would allow for a more constructivist approach to research whilst still employing an adapted SDT framework and may allow for a contextually rooted and finely detailed understanding of the motivational profile of an individual, in a specific environment whilst still acknowledging its fragility and temporality.

From a paradigmatic standpoint, and as has been previously noted, Ryan and Deci (2000) point out that much of the research into self-determination theory has been quantitative in research design. They further note the two predominant methods of operationalising intrinsic motivation: self-report instruments and an experimental design in which participants carry out an activity whilst being observed. The subjects are then asked to stop the activity and left alone in the room with both the original activity and a number of distractors at their disposal. It is assumed that any attempt to continue the activity would indicate the presence of intrinsic motivation since the only perceivable gratification would originate from the self, such as through satisfying curiosity. Whilst these types of measurement may be considered scientifically sound, there are a number of potential problems with each. Self-report questionnaire studies have formed the backbone of much research into motivation and the resulting contribution to understanding of this complex phenomenon has been significant. However, As Dörnyei (2005) highlights, one problem with self-report instruments is that “it is not easy to decide the exact nature of the underlying learner trait that the instrument targets” (p. 73). The resulting paradox we are left with when adopting such operationalisations is whether we are indeed isolating and quantifying motivation itself, or if motivation is simply the name which we are applying to whatever it is that we have measured. Furthermore, even in more open-ended questions which require the participant to reflect on their answers and provide further detail, it is not an altogether simple or guaranteed process that the individual will be able to access relevant experiences or tap into the constructs the researcher hopes to investigate. After all, the more open the item, the more it will be filtered through a lens of the interlocutor’s own choosing and they may be in possession of their own agenda; one which may or may not be consistent with that of the researcher. One method of reducing the impact of such conscious interference, whether conscious or otherwise, is to employ a wider range of data collection techniques. A further approach could be to extend the period of immersion in the field in an attempt to move beyond the intrusion of white noise in the data. An
ethnographic approach might offer one solution to this wherein both a range of methods and concerted attempts to blend the emic and etic perspectives might afford clearer understanding and insight.

To add further critique to the aforementioned quantitative research designs, it is necessary to consider a wider perspective with regard to the influences on levels of motivation. As has been previously noted, the cognitive-situated approaches attempted to distil the exterior context of language learning, from societal level down to that of the classroom and the learners within. However, this in turn, denies the multitude of complex interactions that may affect the individual’s levels of motivation at the time of measurement. Ushioda (2009) argues for a more fluid and individualised perspective, termed as a person-in-context view. She highlights that more traditional approaches attempt “to uncover rule-governed psychological laws that explain how context affects motivation, rather than to explore the dynamic complexity of personal meaning-making in social context” (p. 217). What this means in relation to self-determination theory is that whilst researchers have become more focused on the effect of the immediate context, i.e. classroom or teacher, on an individual’s motivation, little has been done to examine the complex internal influences that the learner brings with them to such contexts and how this interacts with the previously mentioned variables. Any resulting findings may be viewed in this light as an incomplete rendering of a much more complex reality. By adopting a complexity approach, the researcher may be afforded with a conceptual framework within which such personally relevant experiences can be incorporated into the analysis and which allows deeper insights. Moreover, by approaching self-determination theory from a complexity perspective, moment-by-moment changes in motivation as a result of the ongoing interplay between the individual and their context may enable SDT to retain its influential role within the realm of current motivation research.

3.3 Teaching motivation

3.3.1 Establishing the field

As previously noted, the motivation of language learners is a now well-established line of inquiry within applied linguistics (see Section 3.2). However, this has yet to be fully extended to the other side of the language classroom dynamic,
with a dearth of research focussing on the motivation of the teacher (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018). Whilst the early foundations have been laid and a limited amount of research conducted, this area of the field is recognised as still relatively young and as yet, not fully developed (Urdan, 2014; Hiver, Kim & Kim, 2018), with Richardson, Karabenick, and Watt (2014) acknowledging that there has “been little attention paid to teachers’ motivations” (p. xiii). Nevertheless, the authors do note two exceptions to this: teacher burnout (for examples, see Farber, 1991; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Chang, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Durr, Chang, & Carson, 2014); and teacher self-efficacy (for examples, see Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Swanson, 2010; Klassen, Durksen, & Tze, 2014; Wyatt, 2018). As can be seen, there has been some continued show of interest in these two individual aspects of the field, with the two areas additionally often investigated in tandem. As a result of this narrow degree of focus, there is still much that remains undiscovered and untested in the realm of teacher motivation studies.

For some, such as Praver and Olga-Baldwin (2008), teachers might be considered much the same as their learners with regard to motivational influences, with particular focus in their work given to the tenets of SDT as a means of exploring what motivates English teachers. Hiver, Kim, and Kim (2018) also note a prevalence of adaptations to learner motivation theories in order that they might additionally shed light on the teacher variant. They list three prominent examples of theory that have been employed in this manner: achievement goal theory (for example, see Butler, 2007); expectancy-value theory (for example, see Jesus & Lens, 2005); and self-determination theory (for example, see Eyal & Roth, 2011); though it should be noted that these were already well-established theoretical frameworks within the field of applied psychology and were not devised with only the L2 learner in mind. Such an approach seems logical, given the extensive literature and depth of research findings available and there may be much that can be learned from judicious application of theory which has proven explanatory potential for the student. However, it would be wise to acknowledge the inherent dangers in assuming too much with regard to similarities between the student and the teacher given the very different roles they play within the classroom context and different sources of stress.
3.3.2 The importance of the students

In spite of the acknowledged historical lack of research interest, Han and Yin (2016) highlight that the importance of understanding the motivation of the teacher is becoming more widely acknowledged. In addition to the potential impact resulting from a greater understanding of the reality the teaching profession, there may be an argument that this could have enhanced significance for language teachers. This is due to the widely acknowledged issues regarding low levels of language acquisition in secondary classrooms, and the corresponding potential for a motivated teacher to significantly increase levels of student engagement (Dörnyei, 1998; Lamb, 2017). Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) succinctly underline the importance of teacher motivation to its learner variant, stating that “the former is needed for the latter to bloom” (p. 3). Moreover, Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan (2007) support this, demonstrating that motivated teaching behaviour can result in increases in motivated learning behaviour, with further similar results being also found in the Latin American context (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009).

However, this relationship dynamic should not be considered to be unidirectional, as students also possess the ability to influence their teachers. Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque, & Legaul, (2002) noted that teachers were likely to experience suppressed levels of teaching motivation as a result of their ongoing interactions with poorly motivated learners, something which could realistically be quite a common experience in many secondary teaching contexts around the world. Conversely, Henry and Thorsen (2018) identified the importance of moments of contact between the teacher and the student. In their study, it was seen that micro-interactions between the two within the class fed into recognisable increases in learner motivation and the development of interpersonal bonds (see also Korthagen, Attema-Noordewier, & Zwart, 2014). In light of the acknowledged bidirectionality of influence with regard to classroom motivation, it might be pertinent to consider whether positive outcomes might also flow in the other direction from such micro-interactions, i.e. for the teacher to also be motivated by the encounter. Whilst the answer may be more complex than a simple attribution of causality to one side of the classroom or to consider any correlation to be linear, it seems that the cultural nature of this bilateral relationship may be quite widespread, having additionally been recognised in Turkey (Kiziltepe, 2008), Japan (Sugino, 2010), and Argentina (Banegas, 2012). One conclusion that might be drawn is that neither teacher
motivation nor its student variant can be conceptualised as existing entirely in isolation of each other. It may be reasonable to posit that neither is likely to flourish unless its alternate is seen to be in existence, though one would not expect this to be a consistent relationship or for the effects to be linear. Given the lack of knowledge available, many questions still remain as to the nature of such interactions and how they might affect the teacher from both macro- and micro-perspectives. As such, this could prove to be fruitful ground for further research.

3.3.3 The importance of the school

In addition to the student, wherein each class can be envisaged as representing its own individual context, the school should also be considered (for example, see Ingersoll, 2001 for a discussion of the impact of the school on teacher retention). Once again, neither of these can be entirely separated from the broader environmental context, with both also being enacted upon by the individual culture of the education system, and also the unique wider cultural context of the region or country. In their work on teacher turnover, Johnson et al. (2014) identified nine predictive variables which may indicate whether a teacher is likely to remain working for their school: “colleagues, community support, facilities, governance, principals, professional expertise, resources, school culture, and time” (cited in Simon & Johnson, 2015). Whilst such decisions might be seasonal in many educational contexts, it is worth noting the manner in which Argentinian teachers appear to possess a great deal of autonomy with regard to choosing which schools they will work for, and that such decisions can be ongoing throughout the academic year (see Section 6.1.1.5 for further details). Given the organisational influence of the school principal, there is the potential for them to exert both direct and indirect influences on levels of teaching motivation within their schools. As such, this could prove to be an additionally fruitful line of enquiry. Simon and Johnson (2015) similarly recognise the influence of the principal on the motivation to teach, noting the importance of impartial observations, and manageable teaching loads as positive influences, though it should be recognised that such decisions are not always within the grip of the head of the school. In addition to this, Blase and Blase (2001) identified a range of positive and negative factors through which principals might affect teaching motivation, namely:
being visible in the school, generous with praise, and extending autonomy to teachers, all approaches […] interpreted as leading to high motivation […]. Conversely, […] principals who interrupt, abandon, criticize, and maintain control over teachers were likely to generate […] low motivation, feelings of being unsupported, fear and confusion, avoidance [of work], and feelings of being manipulated or abused (cited in Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005, p. 72).

Nevertheless, it is not only the interactions with the students or the academic management team that have the potential to motivate the teacher. In addition to this, supportive policies which enable the teacher to maintain student discipline are also noted as a factor in encouraging teachers to continue to work in a particular school (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). Furthermore, whilst much of the discussion thus far has concerned general education, Doyle and Kim (1999) explored areas of dissatisfaction for English teachers, noting the importance of intrinsic motivation for their sample and identifying many of the same factors as significant areas of demotivational potential. Moreover, Dinham and Scott (1998) foreground the importance of accounting for both micro- and macro- context when investigating teacher motivation, as anything less may only afford a limited perspective. For these authors, society at large represents the macro-context, whereas the micro-context is considered to be the school itself. Whilst this is a valuable contribution to the discussion, I believe that to fully understand teaching motivation, researchers should additionally incorporate influences at classroom level and below. Each group of students can be observed both as individuals, and as a coherent group identity, with great variation possible in both of these constructs. It would be important to recognise such distinct layers in research design and account for the degree of synchronous multi-layered contextual interplay inherent within the classroom.

### 3.3.4 Connecting theory to practice

Whilst the value potential of empirically sound teacher motivation research has now been established, it is salient to return to the matter of an appropriate theoretical framework which may serve as an analytical lens. Arguments have been made to demonstrate that teaching motivation should not be considered separate and distinct from other motivational frameworks found within the area of general psychology (for example, see Deci, Kasser, & Ryan, 1997). Moreover, Hiver, Kim, & Kim
(2018) additionally argue that “an empirical programme is now needed to systematically establish the usefulness and relevance of existing frameworks from more mainstream teacher motivation research (e.g. self-efficacy, achievement goal theory, self-determination theory) for L2 teachers and teaching (p. 28). As a means of forwarding the debate, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) identified four areas which work focused on teaching motivation might explore. Developing their ideas further, the authors predict that intrinsic motivation is responsible for a significant proportion of teacher motivation. In addition to this, contextual factors exert a further considerable effect in both professional and in social domains. They moot the existence of a temporal axis, such as a sense of career development; and finally, that teaching motivation is fragile as a result of the challenging nature of the profession. It would perhaps be wise to give due consideration to these aspects when considering the degree of fit offered by theory to the data in any such study.

One such option is self-determination theory, with Jones, Llacer-Arriastia and Newbill (2009) stating that SDT not only has an established pedigree as the basis for educational research but also affords the researcher a robust theory upon which to build their assertions. Within the field of teacher motivation research, examples include Ryan and Weinstein (2009), who identified that intrinsic motivation is undermined by the controlling effects of high-stakes testing; and Kunter and Holzberger (2014), whose work explored the intrinsic orientations of teacher motivation. Focussing specifically on the basic psychological needs of the teacher, Hiver, Kim, and Kim (2018) suggest that autonomy exerts the greatest influence on intrinsic motivation, though this is something which is as yet untested in a range of contexts. Moreover, given that the three constructs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are claimed to transcend issues such as culture and gender (Deci & Ryan, 1985), such a finding might prove to be of great importance when considering the wellbeing of teachers working in a wide array of differing contexts. However, Muñoz and Ramirez (2015) identify the potential for a degree of variation with regard to the satisfaction of basic psychological needs. In their Colombian study, it appeared that relatedness occupied a more central position with regard to the motivation of their sample of English teachers. I have previously questioned the true potential for SDT to be immune to the influences of context and culture, a conceptualisation which may have arisen as a direct result of the positivist epistemology which underpins much of the previous research. The work of Muñoz
and Ramirez (2015) may additionally raise questions as to whether their results might be an atypical example; evidence of contextual variety; or perhaps even a wider Latin American cultural bias. With much of the Americas unexplored in terms of teacher motivation research, there is a recognisable need for data which can assist in bringing this region into the wider debate regarding teacher motivation.

3.4 Drawing the threads together

The purpose of this chapter has been to outline a theoretical rationale for this study, and to identify areas within the existing body of knowledge which have yet to be fully explored. Whilst a developing foundation has been established for teacher motivation research, Mercer and Kostoulas (2018) identify that many of the existing studies concerning language teachers focus on pre-service or early-career educators. They additionally recognise that, whilst this may be understandable due to difficulties in gaining access to busy working teachers, it would be important to learn more about the lives of more experienced teachers, including those nearing retirement. In addition to this, Richardson (2014) highlights that more research is needed to understand teacher motivation in low-income contexts, such as those found in developing nations. I believe that this study, which explores the experiences of a cohort of early-, mid-, and late-career English teachers in Argentina, represents an opportunity to develop understanding of these under-researched, yet highly populated, and globally relevant, teacher demographics. Whilst Gagné and Deci (2005) argue for the appropriacy of SDT as a theoretical basis for workplace motivation research, Rueda and Moll (1994) recognise the importance of a sociocultural perspective, particularly in their research concerning Latin culture. Such an approach requires a much deeper focus on the ongoing interactions between individual and context, and the resulting effects on motivation (see Ushioda, 2003; 2009). Moreover, a Vygotskian approach is consistent with Kimura (2014) who notes that for classroom-based teacher-focused research, a complexity perspective allows for greater nuance, subtlety and responsiveness to an ever-changing environment. On the basis of these factors, I believe that applying a complexity lens to self-determination theory offers the greatest degree of explanatory potential for this study of the dynamic nature of teacher motivation, which utilises a sample of experienced secondary school teachers in Argentina. Such an approach can be considered both contextually appropriate and capable of affording new insights into
the motivational experiences of this group of language teachers. Having now accounted for the theoretical underpinnings for this study, what follows in the subsequent chapter is a detailed discussion of my research design, the relevant methodologies, and the rationale for their selection.
4 How to approach Solaris? An account of my research journey

Having provided a discussion of the background and theoretical underpinnings for this investigation, I now turn to the specifics of the research design and methodology. In this section, I will first present the over-arching aims of the investigation along with the specific research questions which drove all subsequent methodological considerations. Next, a discussion of case study and ethnography will be provided, as these approaches guided all subsequent decisions. I introduce the participants of the study and provide a detailed breakdown of the data collection procedure, including a brief review of the theory and rationale for each method within my research design. Additionally, a research schedule is offered which affords the reader an overview of the manner in which each process was incorporated into the larger design and when it was applied within the 2016 academic year. Following this, an outline of my approach to data analysis will be provided, and finally, an overview of the subsequent chapters is given as a means of ensuring the reader is fully oriented as to what follows.

4.1 Aims and research questions

As has been previously noted (see Section 1.1), this study was informed by my ongoing engagement with the existing literature in this under-researched area, in conjunction with my own previous work in the field of language teacher motivation (Ness, 2013a; Ness, 2013b). I recognise that this approach to research design may not be in line with the proposition that empirical questions should arise prior to considerations of a theoretical nature (Mills, 2000). However, I feel that this natural development of my existing research interests reflects a pragmatic stance, which allowed for my previous experiences and existing knowledge of theory to aid the identification of issues warranting further investigation. As an example of development, my prior research reflected a positivist paradigmatic bias, concerning itself with notions such as the testing of hypotheses and the search for generalizable truths, as evidenced by its quantitative approach (Dörnyei, 2007). My doctoral work in contrast, reflects a Vygotskian (1985) theoretical standpoint and is driven by the desire to explore and gain understanding of an individualised, contextually bound reality in which meaning is co-constructed by its participants. All decisions regarding research design reflect a search for the optimal method through which the research questions may be answered and as such, a qualitative approach, which
recognises the uniqueness of the research site and its participants, was selected (Dörnyei, 2007). Finally, I would like to clarify that this decision should not be interpreted as personal paradigmatic preference, rather it is a recognition of the validity and appropriacy of all epistemologies when selected in response to clearly specified research aims. The aims of this study are the following:

- To explore the nature of teaching motivation in a sample of English language teachers working in the Argentinian state secondary education system.
- To investigate the dynamic nature of influencing factors upon the teachers’ motivational levels.

In order to achieve these aims, four research questions were originally formulated as follows:

- **RQ 1:** What are the experiences of the Argentinian teachers with regard to motivated language teaching behaviour at the outset of the academic year?
- **RQ 2:** How do these experiences develop over the period of the school year and is there evidence of temporal nesting at micro/macro levels?
- **RQ 3:** How do the teachers and their students perceive motivated language teaching behaviour? What comprises motivated language teaching behaviour in the classroom?
- **RQ 4:** What influences affect the dynamic nature of the teachers’ motivated language teaching behaviour?

In response to the developing field of inquiry, I felt obliged to revise these original items in order to better reflect the context under investigation. This is consistent with Braun and Clarke (2006), who comment that, “although all projects are guided by research questions, these may also be refined as a project progresses” (p. 14). Moreover, such adaptations are to be expected with both case study and ethnographic research, wherein emergent research designs may often result in revisions to the initial research questions. In this regard, my investigation is no different and my revised research questions are as follows:

- **RQ 1:** What are the experiences of English language teachers in Solaris with regard to teaching motivation at the outset of the 2016 academic year?
- **RQ 2:** What are the specific features of Solaris which are liable to affect the teaching motivation of the English teachers?
- **RQ 3:** Is there evidence of the dynamic nature of teaching motivation?
In order to answer these research questions, a robust research design, rooted in established methods was required. What follows is a detailed description of both the procedure, and the rationale for each step taken.

4.2 Case study and ethnography

The focus of this section is to present a rationale for case study as an appropriate method for this investigation. In addition to this, I will outline how and why the fieldwork was informed by an ethnographic approach. Ethnography and case study are not interchangeable terms, and neither should they be considered as forming a hierarchy of methodological approaches. As has been noted, this study adopts a case study approach as its overarching principle; however, given the existence of debate as to whether case study should be considered a method or a paradigm (Gomm, Hammersley, & Foster, 2000), there exists room for additional approaches to inform the practice of data collection. In this investigation, an ethnographic approach was taken to the fieldwork, allowing for additional benefits to be seen in the quality and depth of the data. Gilham (2000) notes that, “the meticulous description of a case can have an impact greater than almost any other form of research report” (p. 101), and it is such potency that is the end goal for this investigation of teaching motivation in Argentina. Within this section, I will first provide definitions for case study, and ethnography. Subsequently, I offer a discussion of the relevant methodological choices fundamental to this study. By the end of this section, it is intended that the reader have a clearer understanding of the subject under investigation, the case selected for study, and the appropriacy of the chosen ethnographic approach to the process of data collection.

The origins of case studies can be traced to the genesis of anthropology as a field of research; and more specifically to the work of Malinowski in the 1920’s (for example, see Malinowski, 1922). Richards (2003) observes that defining case study can be problematic:

‘Case study’, as its practitioners readily admit, means different things to different people. While some would use the term as almost synonymous with qualitative research, others allow that case studies can be quantitative; and while some researchers claim that case study is nothing more than a method, there are those who would elevate it to the level of paradigm (p. 20).
In spite of this, Gilham (2000) attempts to define a case as, “a unit of human activity embedded in the real world”; “which can only be studied or understood in context”; “which exists in the here and now”; and “that merges with its context so that precise boundaries are difficult to draw” (p. 1). Such a description begins to demonstrate the appropriacy of such a method to this investigation. However, further clarity is offered by Hancock and Algozzine (2017) who outline the four areas on which case studies tend to focus: situations, events, programmes, and activities. In this instance, the focus of the investigation is a situation, as the study was designed to improve on existing understanding of English teaching motivation in Argentinian state secondary schools. Examining this in yet greater detail allows for the schools of Solaris, set in a geographically remote location, to delimit the scope and provide the case through which teaching motivation in Argentina could be investigated.

Case studies can additionally be defined by their exploratory capacity, as noted by Yin (2018), something which is consistent with this study. However, whilst Hamel, Dufour, and Fortin (1993) note that it is quite natural for the precise case to evolve during the period of fieldwork, shared territory between case study and ethnography begins to become apparent. Nevertheless, the authors recognise that whilst the case may be under-defined at the outset, it is necessary to have a clearly articulated object of the investigation. In the matter of this thesis, teaching motivation in Argentinian secondary school English language classrooms was the specific subject for exploration. At the outset, it was unclear whether the data might allow for a select group of participating teachers, a school, or even a group of schools to form the case. Only through exposure to the field and time spent in recursive interaction with the developing data set was a final decision possible, whereupon the entire secondary English teaching community of Solaris crystallised as the case under investigation. This decision was made as the data offered a clearly delineated overview of the town as a whole, while additionally proffering specific examples of classroom interactions and teacher experiences which could exemplify the case in an appropriate level of detail.

In contrast to case study, the rise to prominence of ethnographic research in the social sciences can be traced more recently to the late 1980s (Watson-Gegeo, 1988), with ethnographies subsequently finding outlets for publication in fields such as education and applied linguistics. Underlining the importance of ethnographic approaches, Pole and Morrison (2003) proclaim that “ethnography has become, if
not the dominant, then certainly one of the most frequently adopted approaches to educational research in recent years” (p. 1). Whilst there is evidence of some theoretical overlap between approach and paradigm, Watson-Ggeo (1988) cautions against a reductive rebranding of all qualitative studies, noting that ethnography is one possible approach within a paradigm of many methodological options. Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) deepen the debate, claiming that providing an accurate definition of ethnography may be impossible, as each researcher presents an alternative interpretation. Nevertheless, an attempt should be made and Brewer (2000) defines ethnography as:

The study of people in naturally occurring settings or “fields” by methods of data collection which capture their social meanings and ordinary activities, involving the researcher participating directly in the setting, if not also the activities, in order to collect data in a systematic manner but without meaning being imposed on them externally. (p. 10)

As can be seen, case study and ethnographic approaches share much common ground, though they should not be considered as one and the same. Meyer (2001) places them in opposition, observing, “that the case study is open to the use of theory or conceptual categories that guide the research and analysis of data” (p. 331). The author goes on to state that, “in contrast, grounded theory or ethnography presupposes that theoretical perspectives are grounded in and emerge from firsthand data” (p. 331). Such a distinction provides a means through which the approaches can be seen as distinct from each other, and underlines that the use of existing theory in this study is in line with case study methodology. Further differences can be found in the final representation of the eventual report, with specific reference to the depth of thick description provided in ethnographies. Additionally, the nature in which the case under investigation is delimited is of key importance in case study research, allowing the potential for the work to be extended to alternative contexts which share key characteristics.

I will now attempt to provide a rationale for the suitability of an ethnographic approach to fieldwork as a means of achieving the stated aims of this study. A defining characteristic of an approach informed by ethnography is its ability to incorporate an eclectic range of data collection and analysis techniques (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). In this regard, the present study conforms, being comprised of a variety of differing data sources, perspectives, and methods of data triangulation
which allow for insights which might be lost had a more rigid epistemological position been adopted (see Table 4.3 and Section 4.4 for data collection methods). Educational research in general, and language learning studies in particular, may involve a focus on latent variables which are controlled by unconscious processing; such as teaching motivation in the present study. In such instances, singular data collection methods alone may not be able to fully render reality with any degree of clarity, whilst both case study, and ethnographic approaches which employ a carefully selected combination of methods can enable a fuller picture to emerge. A further feature of both ethnography and case study is an emergent design, which allows for the context to unfold and inform the research process in an ongoing fashion (Hammersley, 2006). This degree of flexibility with regard to research design whilst immersed in the field, may be considered a strength as it allows for the researcher to respond to previously unforeseen problems or opportunities as they naturally arise, something which is evidenced through the developmental changes to my research questions and methods of data collection (see Sections 4.1; 4.4).

A potential distinction between case study and ethnography is the tendency for the latter to be characterised by their longitudinal nature, as this allows the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of the relevant contextual issues within the field of investigation, with traditional anthropologists often devoting years to data collection (Angrosino, 2007). A useful example of this in the field of education is Kidd (2013), whose study lasted eighteen months in order to provide a fuller picture of the developing nature of the new teachers’ professional identities and of their changing methodological perspectives throughout their first years of employment. This is analogous with many other educational studies, in which the academic calendar offers a natural chronological framework by which to gauge the appropriate length of the investigation e.g. one academic year, one term, one month etc. Moreover, Hammersley (2006) further cautions against too brief a period in the field, as a result of which the researcher might miss the natural cycles at play and fall prey to misunderstandings which a lengthier stay might preclude.

With regard to my research questions which attempt to identify dynamically shifting changes in motivation (see Section 4.1), I would argue that the period of one academic year represents an organic set of boundaries which lend themselves perfectly to the purposes of this study. An advantage of an extended immersion in the field, as seen in this investigation, is that the teachers and their students
progressively became less guarded and ceased to focus consciously on me as an observer and the process of data collection. Such a process is of particular benefit in classroom-based research, as it can mitigate the influence of the observer’s paradox, whereby participants fail to act in their usual manner as a result of the observer’s presence (Dörnyei, 2007). Finally, Watson-Gegeo (1988) observes an additional benefit of prolonged immersion in the field is that it may allow for a dynamic perspective throughout the data collection. Given the focus of this research considers the dynamicity of teaching motivation, I feel adopting the influence of ethnography in this regard represents a strength of the research design.

However, whilst a lengthier immersion in the field may be advantageous, Hammersley (2006) explains that difficult decisions must inevitably be made regarding the outer limits of the of the study, ergo the case. Whilst the cycle of an academic year may proffer a much greater degree of insight into the lived experiences of the participants, I recognise that the limitations on space inherent in a thesis render it impossible to encompass the entire tangled web of interrelating factors that may affect the participants and influence their data. Instead, decisions concerning limitations must be judiciously applied during analyses, something which is also consistent with a complexity approach, wherein boundaries must be placed around the system under investigation. Such limits allow for the identification of its initial conditions and afford space for more detailed and nuanced analyses of the state space.

Aside from its longitudinal nature and methodological eclecticism, a further characteristic of ethnographic research is the use of participant observation, something which Moeran (2006) argues is a “defining feature” (p. 117). Participant observation involves the researcher engaging with the field whilst collecting data rather than attempting to remain an outsider and allows for the researcher to tap into experiences in real-time with the participants. In this case, one full teaching day per month was spent shadowing each teacher to any and all of their secondary school English language classes; with the same day of the week utilised throughout the academic year in order to enrich the quality of the data collected. This enhanced level of empathy allowed for better focussing of interviews and field notes as well as a fuller understanding of the field when later analysing the data, something I see as a vital component of my study. Furthermore, it crucially fostered the development of an enhanced degree of rapport with my participants, and their students, as we bonded
through shared experiences. In a context where teachers often express feelings of professional isolation (see Section 6.1.1.6), this may have been pivotal in gaining their trust. It also enabled me to pursue lines of questioning and seek clarification in person on an ad hoc basis without waiting for a formalised interview opportunity, thereby, potentially offering access to more natural spontaneous responses. It should be noted that participant observation can also be pursued in a virtual sense through modern technology (Kidd, 2013). In this manner, I was able to maintain contact with the participants and engage in member checking of data long after having departed Argentina through the use of instant messaging protocols (WhatsApp), and email.

It is important to recognise that participant observation is designed to try and gain an insider perspective. As the fieldworker becomes more familiar, with the participants and the context, the etic (outsider) perspective can soften and become more emic (that of an insider). For LeCompte and Goetz (1982), the researcher may emerge “with a dual identity as an outsider-insider which permits authentic presentation of the participant world” (p. 47). In my case as a foreign researcher attempting to explore the realities of life for language teachers in Argentina, this was a fundamental strength. It is perhaps also worth reiterating the spontaneous validation that this fieldwork could not have been conducted by an insider. For the teachers, only someone from outside of the system, and the locality, could have succeeded in gaining their confidence (see Sections 2.5; 8.1). Nevertheless, whilst this outside-insider perspective can be perceived as a positive outcome, helping to overcome some of the conscious and unconscious biases that the researcher inevitably brings to the field, Hammersley (2006) cautions that this requires a constant balancing of participant and analyst personas. Moreover, there may be a finite length of time that such an equilibrium can successfully be maintained. From my own experience, I became constantly wary of identifying too closely with my participants lest my relative degree of objectivity become compromised and subsequently result in negative impacts on my data analyses. This tension regarding optimal levels of intimacy and distance proved to be a challenging aspect of the fieldwork.

Aside from problems related to the effects of the field on the researcher, one issue which is often overlooked in school-based research is the degree of impact the researcher may have on the context itself, something which I also found to require a degree of constant consideration. Israel & Hay (2006) maintain that gaining the full
trust of the participants is of primary importance yet in a small tight-knit community such as Solaris, with its natural cliques and interlinking personal histories, this can present its own challenges. I had to be alert, at all times of the day and week, to the manner in which my actions might be perceived within the community and constantly consider how these might impact on other aspects of the field e.g. spending too much time with one teacher could be seen as representing alliance with that individual or a specific school. Moreover, a delicate ethical balancing act also had to be maintained between myself as researcher, and the participating groups of teachers, something which Russell (2005) argues can be particularly problematic. Pole and Morrison (2003) characterise participant observation as a method “in which there is direct contact between researcher and researched within the specified setting” (p. 7). As such, it should be noted that it was not only my interactions with the teachers that required careful consideration, with lengthy periods of participant observation in schools naturally involving a great deal of interaction with the students.

As with researchers before me, I wrestled with the ethical matter of how to maintain the optimal degree of distance from the learners. Whilst this may not initially seem problematic, for many of the students, I represented a rare opportunity to interact with someone from an English-speaking country. As such, considerations about how my behaviour could impact on their interest in the lessons and their potential motivation to learn English were ongoing. Dumontheil (2014) notes that for young learners, perceptions of and reactions to adults may be more instinctual and less consciously considered. One aspect of this was that great care had to be taken to consider how those students might perceive me and whether their confidence could be gained, or if I would always be considered to be a teacher. At one end of a metaphorical continuum, and closest to the concept of non-participant observer, King (1984) reports:

I did allow myself to be approached by children to begin with, but I soon found that they treated me as a teacher surrogate as they did other non-teacher adults. […] I politely refused requests for help, referring the child to the teacher, and met requests for approval only with smiles. To begin with I kept standing so that physical height maintained social distance. Most importantly I avoided eye contact; if you do not look, you will not be seen. These measures led to my being, for the most part, ignored by the children […]. I often found it
helped to sit down [...] often using furniture or even the unoccupied Wendy House as a convenient ‘hide’ (pp. 121-3).

Mandell (1988) offers a similar solution, termed the “least-adult role”, wherein the ethnographer avoids exhibiting signs of authority, aiming that the students accept there is greater parity between them and engendering trust. However, as Lappalain (2002) highlights, there are affective and ethical complications inherent in adopting such a role. For example, in one instance, I was left without any prior warning alone in charge of a large class of energetic eleven and twelve-year-olds intent on racing excitedly around the classroom desks. In this instance, ensuring the safety of the students had to take precedence and any mask of detachment slipped, perhaps forever demarcating me as a teacher in the eyes of the learners. On the other end of the aforementioned continuum, we might look to Russell (2005), who states that she “attempted to distinguish myself from teaching staff, to gain trust from students” (p. 191). In order to achieve this, Russell aligned herself with the teenage participants of her study both physically, by shadowing them to their classes, and psychologically, by sharing personal information in an attempt to bond with the teens. However, while such an approach might be well-suited to the older teens, it is less likely to be pragmatic with younger students. What is clear from these examples is that there is no correct way to approach this methodological conundrum and the shifting requirements of this study did not allow for a clear and consistent attempt at demarcating my allegiances as researcher.

In the first instance, the teachers form the main focal point of the study and its attempts to investigate teaching motivation. However, the specifics of the research design also called for the development of a rapport with the students in the observed classes as they could be a source of data offering an invaluable alternative perspective. Furthermore, in a context such as Argentina, where informality and the importance of maintaining friendly social relationships is seen as paramount, it was crucial that I attempt to be available to both students and teachers whilst not being seen to be prioritise the interests of the teacher over students, or vice versa. Naturally, the extended period of immersion in the field and evolving research design meant that degrees of proximity varied dependent on a variety of interconnected factors. In line with King (1984), I attempted to make my presence as unobtrusive in the classroom as might be possible and resisted engagement with either teachers or students during the lesson unless directly approached. At that
point, to deny would often have been potentially more harmful than to acquiesce, though this often meant having to make instantaneous decisions as to whether to respond or not and subsequent concerns as to whether the correct choice had been made. Ultimately, it is wise to recognise the impracticality of attempting to present the field as having been untouched by my presence. However, it should also be made clear that all attempts were made to minimise said influencing factors wherever possible.

As a final comment, Pole and Morrison (2003) are unequivocal in their support for an ethnographic approach, calling it a “principal […] for educational research” as “the depth of knowledge […] it yields surpasses that from other approaches” (p. 153). This would seem to be consistent with Vygotsky’s (1985) perspective on the social construction of meaning, which suggests that research into the language classroom must account, in some manner, for the influence of contextual issues. It is important to recognise that improvements to language teaching in developing contexts are rarely successful when imported wholesale from outside and that the specifics of the culture and context at hand are vitally important (Holliday, 1994). Kuchah (2013) calls for a contextually appropriate approach to researching English language teaching and I would argue that this represents a compelling argument for adopting an ethnographic approach which may allow for both etic and emic perspectives to be gained. Ushioda (2009) has long spoken out for the need for a more fluid and individualised perspective, termed as a person-in-context view. Researchers such as these also stress the importance of recognising that each level of context (e.g. country, state, district, school, and classroom) has its own distinct combination of variables and that understanding the nature of these may be key to future progress. Walford (2002) identifies this as a particular strength of research informed by ethnography and I would add that successful attempts to adopt a complexity perspective are fundamentally linked to the ability of the research methods to provide a context rich rendering of the case under investigation. To this end, I believe that an overarching case study, driven by fieldwork informed by ethnographic principles, presented the strongest possible approach through which the stated aims of this study might be achieved.
4.3 Participants

There are 28 secondary school English teachers in Solaris according to the Provincial Ministry of Education records, though these official figures are from 2015 and I believe a more accurate number in 2016 was 26. This lack of certainty is partially as the official list includes all the teachers in the region and as a result, incorporates those working outside of Solaris in other towns or in rural schools. Another factor is the manner in which many teachers divide their hours between primary, secondary, adult, and private institute classes, depending on availability of classes and logistical considerations present when attempting to piece together their timetable at the start of each year (see Section 6.1.1.5). A further hindrance to clarity is that this number is open to change at any point in the academic year, with two teachers leaving the profession during the 2016 academic year and one moving to Solaris from another province mid-year. Of this figure, 21 were employed teaching English in secondary schools for some or all of their timetabled hours during the academic year under investigation, with all 21 being approached to consider participation in the study. It was finally decided that a sample of six teachers (Amber, Ben, Gwen, Rae, Santiago, and Sonya) would form the group of core-participants for this study, as this number could allow for a diversity of perspectives and backgrounds, whilst recognising the practical limitations that existed as a result of my working alone. The aim was to ensure the procurement of a rich dataset, characterised by its depth of contextual detail. The six core-participants all worked as teachers of English within the Argentinian state secondary school system in Solaris for the duration of 2016 (see Section 4.4.1).
As can be seen in Table 4.1, the majority of the sample were in possession of qualified teacher status, either at primary level, secondary, or both. However, as is representative of the context, not all were qualified English language teachers, and not all at secondary level. The amount of classroom experience varied, with the least experienced being in their third year as an English teacher and the most experienced having taught the language for 30 years. Two male and four female teachers comprised the core-participants, though it should be noted this is not representative
of the teachers in Solaris where only three of the 21 active English teachers were male. In spite of this, I feel it is important to allow room for the voices of both male and female teachers as there exists the potential that gender-based differences may exist within the system which might otherwise go unrecognised. Moreover, with newly qualified teachers due to graduate from the Profesorado (teacher training institute), this gender imbalance may well shift to some degree in coming years. The ages of the participants ranged from 33 to 53 at the time of the fieldwork, a spread which accurately mimics the ages of the majority of English teachers in Solaris. All of the participants were proficient in English and exhibited no signs of inhibition, anxiety, or communicative difficulty when using the language, with many of them expressing strong positive connections to English and a desire to further improve their levels of ability. Finally, additional satellite participants were recruited who did not form part of the core research group (see Table 4.2 for additional biographical data). These individuals were connected to the teaching community in Solaris but either did not wish to participate full-time or were not teaching secondary school English at the time of the fieldwork and were therefore deemed ineligible for core-group membership. For these individuals, participation (in the form of interviews, informal observations, discussions, and the final questionnaire) was designed to provide supplementary data which could inform the research design, provide a deeper understanding of the context, open up new lines of inquiry, and validate existing findings.
*Data correct at the time of collection in late 2015 / early 2016*

I recognise that, as busy professionals coming from a variety of backgrounds and having had different levels of experience with continuing professional development (CPD), many of the teachers did not initially possess the ability to reflect with clarity on their pedagogical principles, their abilities, and their experiences. However, this developed through facilitative interaction with me in an ongoing constructive manner. Similarly, as the participants became accustomed to discussing their levels of teaching motivation, something which would not normally occur in this context, they became more attuned to changes occurring which would otherwise have gone unnoticed (see Chapter 7). I propose that this may have aided in fostering objective criticality in the teachers’ responses to the study and therefore instilled greater significance and strength to the data.

### 4.4 Procedure

In this section, I provide further details regarding the research design and manner in which its constituent parts combined. To increase clarity and guide the reader through the stages of the data collection process, I have subdivided the procedure into three sections, the breaks between which allow for a brief overview of the methodology for each data collection technique to be offered so that the reader may identify links between theory and practice. It should be noted that the study...
adopts a holistic approach rather than being comprised of isolated individual methods for each research question. Therefore, each form of data collection and analysis forms one facet of a larger cohesive design, just as each research question is designed to focus on one aspect of a larger cohesive reality.

4.4.1 Sampling

As with all principled inquiry, careful decisions had to be made with regard to the sample:

There is always a limit to how many respondents we can contact or how many sites we can visit, we have to make some principled decisions on how to select our respondents, at which point to add additional participants to the sample and when to stop gathering more data (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 126).

In his overview of qualitative sampling techniques, Marshall (1996) identifies three main types: convenience, purposeful (also termed judgemental), and theoretical. A convenience sample is that which is available or most convenient for the researcher; however, this option “lacks intellectual credibility” (Marshall, 1996, p. 523). In contrast, a purposeful sample is one to which the researcher applies some form of selection criteria in order to provide the “most productive sample” (Marshall, 1996, p. 523). Finally, a theoretical sample (originating from grounded theory) reflects that, as theory begins to emerge from the initial data analyses, the sample is increased or adapted in order to “examine and elaborate” these discoveries (Marshall, 1996, p. 523). It is worth noting that according to Dörnyei (2007), the terms purposeful and theoretical sampling are now often conflated and used interchangeably. This longitudinal study utilised a degree of all three of Marshall’s (1996) identified forms of sampling, something which he notes is not uncommon. In the initial stages, convenience and purposeful sampling procedures were applied as access to my field of inquiry had been granted by a local gatekeeper, who was additionally employed by the Ministerio. Whilst this may not have been an ideal scenario, the aforementioned gatekeeper was also an experienced researcher and therefore sympathetic to the necessity for scientific rigour. Once the initial group of potential participants had been identified, further purposive sampling methods were applied in order to identify the core sample. Dörnyei (2007) identifies criterion sampling as an example of purposive sampling methods, which applies selection criteria in order to identify the most suitable candidates from a larger group. In this
In this case, my focus was specifically on experienced Argentinian teachers of English, currently employed by state secondary schools in Solaris and the initial sample numbered eleven teachers. This process was assisted through the cooperation of Supervision and the school administrators, who possessed demographic data relating to secondary school English teachers. As such, a sound working relationship with local stakeholders, such as representatives of the Ministerio, school principals and administrators was crucial to the sampling process. By employing this information, suitable prospective participants for the study could be identified in advance and also decisions made regarding possible replacements in the event of attrition or non-take-up. It should also be recognised that it is not unusual for research in applied linguistics to incorporate some degree of convenience sampling for reasons of practicality and recognition of the limitations imposed by researching outside of a laboratory environment. In this regard, the present study is no different.

In addition to the aforementioned convenience and purposive sampling methods, a degree of theoretical sampling was incorporated. Additional participants were sourced, and existing teachers removed from the main focus, according to the emerging requirements of the study. In this regard, an element of snowball sampling also occurred as participating teachers used their existing networks to contact colleagues who might be suitable, and who might help fulfil the task of achieving saturation in the data set. At the end of this process, a final core sample of six teachers emerged, with an additional supplementary list of teachers who might be called upon to fulfil specific facets of the data collection process but would not take part full-time. Richards (2003) draws an interesting distinction between process sampling decisions and those relating to case whereby, he argues that the former apply to the procedure of locating the initial participants and the latter are concerned with considerations affecting the type of data procured and inferences which can be drawn from it. In this regard, each of the decisions outlined above represent a desire to identify a typical case, from which “any findings are likely to reflect what is normal” (Richards, 2003, p. 250).

4.4.2 Data collection procedure (1).

The data collection process took place over a period of approximately one year, i.e. the duration of one academic year, plus additional time for piloting and establishing the study. However, due to differences in the Argentinian academic
calendar and that in the UK, sampling, piloting and early data collection began in September 2015. This was an ongoing procedure and the core sample was not fully finalised until February 2016. A number of additional potential part-time participants were also identified who would later assist through the provision of supplementary data, informal observations opportunities, opening up additional lines of enquiry, and validating existing data. However, once the initial group of participants had been finalised, the preliminary phase of data collection began in November 2015. This was comprised of one semi-structured focus group interview with the teachers and was designed to focus on general information about the participants themselves and the specifics of the context. Timetabling was organised with the input of those confirmed and was therefore tailored according to the prior commitments of the teachers. It was envisaged that this focus group interview would not only aid in the final sampling decisions but might also provide a reference point for reflection later in the study and offer useful insights which could inform its ongoing development. The data collected in this preliminary phase was transcribed and initial analyses carried out between the end of the 2015 academic year and the beginning of the subsequent one, initially scheduled for the 29th of February 2016.

Table 4.3 Main data collection schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary Phase: September 2015 – February 2016</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▪ Focus group interview with core-participant teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>▪ Daily entries in my research journal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Phase One: February 2016 – Mid-July 2016</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▪ Initial interview with Amber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Supplementary interviews with additional participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Pre-observation interview with each core-participant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Classroom observation with each core-participant</td>
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<tr>
<td>▪ Post-observation interview with each core-participant</td>
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<tr>
<td>▪ Post-observation focus group interview with the students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Weekly reflective journal entries from each core-participant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ One day of shadowing per month with each core-participant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Supplementary questions emailed periodically to each core-participant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Daily entries in my research journal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Phase Two: Mid-July 2016 – December 2016

- Supplementary interviews with additional participants
- Classroom observation with each core-participant
- Post-observation interview with each core-participant
- In-class questionnaires targeting real-time perspectives on teaching motivation for students in the observed classes
- Weekly reflective journal entries from each core-participant
- One day of shadowing per month with each core-participant
- Exit interview with each core-participant
- Supplementary questions emailed periodically to each core-participant
- Teacher questionnaires for all English teachers
- Daily entries in my research journal

As can be seen in Table 4.3 there were three phases of data collection: a preliminary phase prior to the 2016 academic year; and one for each of the two halves of the school year. Each of the two halves comprising the academic year had a broadly similar data collection schedule, though the research design evolved with adaptations in response to the developing field of inquiry. The planned schedule consisted of a pre-observation interview in which the primary focus was on gaining a deeper understanding of the individual teacher’s experiences and changing levels of motivation within the current year thus far. This was then followed by a classroom observation, during which I noted down signs indicative of fluctuations in visible teaching motivation. Additional areas of interest that could be capitalised on in post-observation interviews were also noted, along with those that might feed into developments for the second phase of data collection. This is in line with the principles of case study and ethnographic research which, as has previously been ascertained, allow for the context to unfold and inform the research (Hammersley, 2006). As the data collection instruments were developed in direct relation to the emerging themes in the analyses and my evolving knowledge of the field, those used in phase two were not identical to the first phase. The objective was not to attempt replication for the purposes of direct comparison, rather to develop a deeper awareness of what constituted and influenced language teaching motivation for this particular group of individuals. What follows next is an examination of two of the
key methods seen in Table 4.3 qualitative interviews and classroom observation. Once this has been provided, I return to the data collection procedure once more.

4.4.2.1 Qualitative interviews.

Qualitative interviews can be sub-divided into three main categories: informal conversation interviews; general interview guide approaches; and standardized open-ended interviews (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003). Turner (2010) describes informal conversation interviews as being akin to a spontaneous discussion in which the researcher benefits from not being constrained by a pre-determined list of questions. Such interactions may be described as being analogous to Richards’ (2003) unstructured interviews. Elements of informal conversation interviews were employed in this study, typically as issues arose whilst shadowing the teachers and such an approach allowed for them to be explored in an informal environment with the teachers before, between, and after classes. One advantage of this was the degree of flexibility and immediacy in probing issues whilst they might still be fresh in the teacher’s mind. Additionally, the lack of formality and conversational tone offered up a good fit for this context, where, as has been previously noted, informality and spontaneity are culturally valued over structure and formality. For some topics, a recorded interview may have resulted in changes in the teachers’ levels of comfort to divulge information, though this was less of a concern by the later stages of the year.

The second of Gall, Gall and Borg’s (2003) typology is the general interview guide approach. Here, the interviewer decides on a list of questions to be covered and, whilst still retaining a degree of flexibility to diverge, interject new items, or follow up on emerging leads, the interviewer is expected to adhere reasonably closely to the aforementioned interview guide. In this manner, such an approach is not dissimilar to Schmidt’s (2004) semi-structured interview format which she argues is frequently incorporated in qualitative investigations, with ethnographies being identified as worthy of mention. A relative strength of this protocol is the manner in which it affords the interviewer time to ascertain the most salient question topics and consider other potentially important aspects such as the language used, and the order of questions. In doing so, a number of pitfalls, such as inadvertently leading the interviewee or posing loaded questions can be minimised. As has previously been noted, all of the core-participants were interviewed in this style five times across the year. The exception to this was Amber, who, having been recruited
later than the others, did not take part in the initial focus group interview, in late 2015. As a result, it was decided that she be interviewed individually at the inception of the academic year, with general questions and issues highlighted in the focus group interview being incorporated into the interview guide. All other scheduled supplementary interviews were conducted using this semi-structured approach.

The final third of Gall, Gall and Borg’s (2003) tripartite taxonomy is the standardized open-ended interview, which might be compared to a structured interview, something which Richards’ (2003) observes “has at best a rare place in qualitative research”. Questions have been asked as to the essential differences between a standardised open-ended interview and an open-ended questionnaire. Gafni, Moshinsky and Kapitulnik (2003), for example, found few differences in the data when they directly compared the two formats, though it should be acknowledged that their research was not in the field of applied linguistics. To a limited degree, this form of interview also played some part in the present study, though in virtual format, as the teachers were periodically sent a small number of questions by email, usually timed to coincide with the end of each term. The content of these items was drawn from the teachers’ reflective journals or from areas of interest that arose whilst I shadowed them. While the participants were at liberty to respond in written form if that was their preferred medium, they were also encouraged to record their responses verbally and send the audio file to me for transcription or explore other forms of representation by media. It is hoped that by incorporating all three formats to some degree, the data set is imbued with their requisite strengths, and any potentially deleterious effects minimised.

Having discussed the approach, some mention should be made of the interview scheduling and logistics (see Table 4.3). Interviews were scheduled with consideration given to the teachers’ prior commitments, with exact dates and times being negotiated individually. Similarly, in the interests of empowerment, the location for each interview was agreed individually with each teacher, with my only stipulation being that they should not be conducted on school premises. This was in line with Elwood and Martin (2000) who note the potential impact of location on interview data, and it was envisaged this might facilitate freer discussion as a result of fewer interruptions, reduced exposure whilst being interviewed, and a degree of psychological detachment from the workplace. To this end, some were in the teachers’ homes, some at my residence, and some at a neutral venue which ensured
similar levels of privacy and isolation from interruption. Given the nature of the context, this was an important measure in ensuring the participants felt able to open up and discuss potentially contentious opinions with me, something additionally fostered by my having spent considerable time building rapport with each individual. The location may have additionally been relevant in this context where, despite the language barrier offering some degree of protection, the participants might have felt exposed if interviewed in a public area, with resultant inhibitions. A secluded location mitigated all such eventualities.

The interviews followed a similar procedure. Each of the pre-observation interviews would touch on progress through the academic year, and more specifically, the term. Areas of interest that naturally arose could be explored in greater detail, followed by pre-selected questions linked to the teacher’s reflective journal entries or observations I had made whilst shadowing them. In this sense, a degree of member-checking data was both informal and ongoing. Finally, some discussion of the lesson to be observed came at the end of the interview, with questions asked regarding areas such as lesson planning, aims, staging, activity types, interaction patterns and importantly, the teacher’s rationale for each of these decisions. This was in response to requests from the teachers and it was envisaged that such a focus might benefit them developmentally and foster greater reflexivity on their part.

After each observation, a post-observation interview was scheduled to take place within seven days, in order to maximise recall. At the outset of the interview, the teacher was provided with details of each of the stages and main events within the lesson. I attempted to maintain a neutral and factual tone during this lest I unduly influence the teacher’s subsequent responses. At this time, the teacher would provide self-report numerical assessments of their levels of teaching motivation at the start/end of each of the three periods, and one overall lesson appraisal. A 7-point Likert type scale was used as this would be consistent with other data collection methods (see Sections 4.4.2.2; 4.4.4). This activity served as a form of priming and stimulated recall as the teacher attempted to tap into their motivation levels at these stages in the class. A more detailed discussion of the class then followed, this being largely led by the teacher in order to touch on issues that they felt were personally relevant. Following this, the teacher was shown their own numerical self-report data and my own more fine-grained data set for the lesson (see Section 4.4.2.2). Time
was then allowed for a discussion of these two sets of data, with the onus on the teacher to first select areas that interested them. Finally, attention would shift to more directive feedback on the teaching of the lesson. This period was driven by the teachers’ requests for more developmental input from me and in response to a dearth of such individualised feedback within the education system in Solaris. These last two areas were held to be of genuine importance by, and interest to the teachers, who regularly commented as such throughout the duration of the study and afterwards.

4.4.2.2 Classroom observations and shadowing.

Burns (1999) defines classroom observation as “taking regular and conscious notice of classroom actions and occurrences which are particularly relevant to the issues or topics being investigated” (p. 80). It may not be an exaggeration to refer to classroom observation as an almost essential component of teacher-based research. A fact perhaps further amplified in studies where constructs such as teaching motivation are the focus of investigation. Bell (2010) underlines this by asserting that observations “can reveal characteristics of groups and individuals which would have been impossible to discover by other means” (p. 191). Furthermore, she additionally highlights it as a means of discerning the essential differences between behaviours that individuals report, and those which are exhibited. Given the previously discussed historical over-reliance within the field of motivation research on self-report data, classroom observations can afford a differing perspective on the field of inquiry; allow for validation of data; and help identify future research directions. It was with these three benefits in mind that classroom observations were selected as one of the central pillars of my research design. It should be noted that classroom observation as outlined here relates both to the days spent shadowing each teacher and to the formalised observations, which included pre- and post- interviews and a more structured discussion.

In her review of observations, Bell (2010) sub-divides into two main branches: structured and unstructured, with the latter being further divided into participant and non-participant. In this typology, a structured observation may be characterised as an essentially top-down approach, wherein it has previously been decided what the specific focus of the observation will be. In an educational context, examples of this might include numerical observational data being captured on student-teacher or student-student interaction patterns, or quantities of voluntary and teacher-nominated
student contributions. Whilst tending towards a quantitative bias, qualitative
examples are also possible, such as a focus on verbal and/or non-verbal teacher talk
when giving and checking instructions. In contrast, unstructured observation could
be described as a bottom-up approach wherein the focus may naturally emerge and
then be followed up (Bell, 2010). Kubanyiova (2007) notes that in comparison with
structured observational data, this type of “descriptive qualitative data” (p. 124) is
not employed as often, though she notes exceptions to this being found in studies of
language teacher cognition. With regard to differences between structured and
unstructured modes of data collection, Richards (2003) points out that “there has
been a good deal of work on observation systems, but these have their limitations
and cannot offer the rich possibilities that are inherent in freer observation” (p. 104).

In line with Wragg (1999), who conceptualised the two as being at either end
of a continuum, and in an attempt to create a more holistic view of the observed
classes, I elected to employ both structured and unstructured forms of classroom
observation data collection. An observation schedule was constructed on which I
would assign the teacher a subjective numerical assessment of their observable level
of teacher motivation at five-minute intervals using the previously noted 7-point
Likert type scale (see Section 4.4.2.1), with an additional space being included for
notes. The numerical scale utilised was the same seven-point framework that would
be applied at other points throughout the study for reasons of parity in reflecting size
of change and ergo, ease of cross-referencing. It should be recognised that this was
not intended to be an objective measurement, or any imply any form of judgement
on the teachers. Instead, the focus of the scale was to enable the illustration of
dynamic changes in observed motivation, and the strength and valence of said
changes. This approach was informed by my ongoing interactions with the teachers
and the need to establish a common language through which we could discuss
changes in motivation in greater detail. It should be recognised that such data may
only be captured once a close relationship has been developed, as this affords the
degree of insight necessary for subtle changes to be observed. These data could then
be offered up for validation by the teacher and utilised for stimulated recall purposes
in the post-observation interviews. Whilst the same numerical system was applied to
all teachers, the data for each participant were treated as discrete and not utilised for
comparisons across the sample. Each teacher was conceptualised as an individual
and only over an extended period working alongside each teacher in and out of
classes was it possible to identify the verbal and non-verbal cues which indicated changes in motivated behaviour for each specific participant. Finally, it should be noted that this practice of recording numerical data was only employed during the two scheduled observation classes with each participant. For the remainder of shadowed classes, full focus was on unstructured notetaking since there would be no opportunity for stimulated recall and by reducing such labour-intensive demands, more insightful data could be recorded.

Extensive notes were taken in addition to the structured observation data. These were designed to create a fuller description of both what occurred in class, and how it may have connected to the observed changes in motivation levels. As before, these were also utilised for stimulated recall purposes in later interviews and conversations, both face to face and virtually. One possible drawback with attempting to employ a solely structured observation schedule, as Bailey (2001) points out, is there may be an implicit epistemological stance inherent in such methods as they are rooted in attempts to minimise subjectivity and identify objective truth. In contrast to this, a complexity perspective inherently acknowledges the uniqueness of each system under observation and may therefore, be better suited to unstructured observation tasks. Moreover, it is consistent with ethnography that the context gradually reveal itself and not be artificially limited by inflexible, pre-determined conceptual boundaries. It may be reasonable to expect the initial conditions for each observed class to differ from day to day and week to week, something also be true for the teachers who naturally experience a multitude of potential variables influencing them. Adopting a more fluid approach such as this allowed for influencing factors and their resulting behaviours to be identified, with instances of nonlinearity in evidence. As a result, seemingly similar perturbations often resulted in quite different behavioural effects when the initial conditions of the context varied (see Chapter 7). Nevertheless, attractor states began to emerge and could be observed as the year progressed (see Chapter 7).

Recording the unstructured observation data in this manner is in accordance with Walcott (1994) who outlines the following four strategies for observation: (1) “observe and record everything”; (2) “observe and look for nothing […] in particular”; (3) “look for paradoxes”; and (4) “identify the key problems confronting a group” (cited in Richards, 2003, p. 134). However, there are natural limits to the quantity of information that can accurately be recorded in real-time, something
which Bell (2010) recognises, stating that “it’s impossible to record everything” (p. 196). As such, whilst attempting to capture enough detail of the lesson itself for context, I elected to focus primarily on critical events related to changes in teaching motivation. Wragg (1999) offers the following explanation of a critical event:

The observer looks for specific instances of classroom behaviour which are judged to be illustrative of some salient aspect of the teacher’s style or strategies: an element of class management, for example, perhaps a rule being established, followed, or being broken, something that reflects interpersonal relationships or some other indicative event (p. 67).

He additionally notes that such events may indicate their presence through a heightening of interest as the moment unfolds rather than being dramatically and immediately apparent, and furthermore, that they may be indicated by subtle signs such as body language (Wragg, Wikeley, Wragg & Haynes, 1996; Wragg 1999). In busy classroom environments characterised by an almost relentless cacophony of noise and movement from both students and teachers, as is typical in Solaris, identifying impending critical events was not a simple matter. This was further exacerbated as, in the overwhelming majority of instances, almost all classroom interaction and student chatter were in L1. This added a further level of challenge to my role as researcher since, in many instances, I lacked the advanced level of linguistic ability and local dialectic knowledge to keep pace. Whilst this might initially appear to be a disadvantage, it soon transpired to offer advantages also, as it allowed for a heightened degree of focus to be directed at identifying changes in teaching motivation through paralinguistic features. A further challenge was that given the nonlinear effect size of influencing factors, seemingly innocuous events could potentially result in sizeable changes in motivation. As such, effort had to be made to capture a range of detail throughout the class lest the moment later transpire to be the initial condition for a critical event. Clearly, there is a compromise that had to be struck between the quality and quantity of my unstructured notes, something which Richards (2003) suggests is very much an individual matter for the researcher to establish in the field. In line with this, my note-taking strategies evolved as my immersion in the field progressed.
4.4.3 Data collection procedure (2).

A post-observation interview with each teacher took place soon after each observation, with these to be held ideally within two days, but no later than one week, in order to maximise accuracy of recall. The post-observation interviews afforded an opportunity to engage in a semi-structured discussion of the lesson with the teachers, along with other issues relevant to the aims of the study. Elements of stimulated recall (see Section 4.4.3.1) were employed, relying primarily on the structured and unstructured data captured by the researcher during the observation. However, additional memory cues were culled from the teachers’ recent reflective journal entries etc. in order to enhance their ability to comment introspectively on their experiences (Gass & Mackey, 2000). In addition to the teachers, one small focus group interview was held with volunteer students who had participated in the first observed lesson. It was hoped that these might offer up valuable data on motivated teaching behaviour from the learners’ perspectives (Pinter, Kuchah & Smith, 2013), offer additional triangulation of data, and provide depth to the thick description of the field of study (Geertz, 1973). In order to facilitate this, local volunteer interpreters were sourced and trained, with the student focus group interviews being conducted entirely in Rioplatense Spanish and then later transcribed/translated into English for the purpose of data analysis. These interviews provided a helpful degree of data triangulation; in particular with regard to establishing what the students considered teaching motivation and its opposite to be; and how they might be recognised in the classroom. However, due to unforeseen issues related to the interpreting/translating procedure it became evident this procedure could not be repeated in the latter half of the year. As such, the student focus group interviews were replaced by in-class student questionnaires for the second phase of the data collection (see Section 4.4.4).

4.4.3.1 Stimulated recall protocol.

As stated above, in conjunction with each of the classroom observations, a stimulated recall interview was scheduled to take place with each teacher within seven days. Stimulated recall was selected as Bloom (1953) suggests that if presented with appropriate cues, “a subject may be enabled to relive an original situation with vividness and accuracy” (p. 161). The cues employed for stimulus were derived from two sources: my extensive unstructured notes, and the structured
numerical data recording real-time changes in teaching motivation. This combination of observation and stimulated recall interview was deemed appropriate as it can allow access to complex cognitive processes which interviewees may struggle to access in traditional interview formats (Gass and Mackey, 2000). In this instance, to reflect on the internal processes related to teaching motivation that often go unnoticed when one is focussed on teaching the lesson. Perhaps understandably, unless notably high or low, many teachers may not attend to their motivation levels while teaching. In addition, there may exist a range of conscious and nonconscious strategies employed by teachers to maintain their motivational equilibrium, with clear recall of such proving difficult without assistance.

I had originally planned that audio-visual cues be the basis for stimulated recall. Recent years, and technological developments, have seen an increase in the practice of video recording teachers and/or their learners, with Blomberg, Sherin, Renkl, Glogger and Seidel (2014) emphasising the positives of this, stating that “video conveys the complexity and subtlety of classroom teaching as it occurs in real-time” (p. 444). However, in my initial negotiations with the teachers, it became clear that they were uncomfortable with the prospect of being filmed in class, something understandable given my initial position of outsider with as yet unclear motives. Fuller and Manning (1973, cited in Calderhead, 1981) identify that teachers may experience increased levels of anxiety when viewing recordings of their own teaching; and I would also add that the recording process itself can be stressful for both teachers and students. Moreover, I was keen to minimise disruption where possible so that I might see something more akin to a typical class, although I acknowledge that this is never entirely achievable. After negotiation, it was agreed that an audio recording could be taken of the observations. In practice, I would place the audio recording equipment in the observation group classroom each time that I shadowed as a means of normalising its presence with the teachers and students. However, I would only activate it during the two observations. This was designed to minimise potential anxiety and to afford me a view of the teachers when not being recorded so I might gauge the impact the recording equipment might be having.

As the academic year progressed, one of the teachers approached me and requested that I video their second observation so they might view it for professional developmental purposes. It was subsequently agreed that in return for my part in the recording process, I would be granted access to the recording. In the interests of
maintaining parity across the sample, I discussed this with the remaining teachers, two more of whom elected to have their final observation video recorded. Unfortunately, both audio and video recordings proved to be of little real value and were not used extensively in the data analyses. Despite repeated attempts at finding suitable locations for the equipment, the context’s naturally high levels of ambient noise and non-stop movement around the class by students rendered the recordings largely incoherent. As a result, the previously described stimuli (see Section 4.4.2.2) were substituted and the recordings kept as a backup.

One of the main strengths of stimulated recall interviews is that they allow for the identification and analysis of processes which might otherwise remain unknown (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Moreover, the authors stipulate this type of verbal report is best employed to investigate cognitive processes, a fact which is of direct relevance to my study which concerns itself with cognitively derived perspectives on motivation. However, Bloom (1953) cautions that participants may be influenced by their perception of what is relevant, something which may differ from the researcher’s agenda. Moreover, an individual can only convey the level of mental process of which they are aware, whereas much may occur at a nonconscious level (Gass & Mackey, 2000). This may be of particular relevance when attempting to tap into latent responses to motivational threats. The authors additionally note the tendency to infer meaning where possible. As a result, the interviewee may attempt to attribute meaning to processes they do not fully understand, thereby failing to provide an unfiltered recollection of the events. Each of these points are acknowledged and were given due consideration during research design and data analysis. However, it should be noted that alternatives also have potential flaws and no perfect research tool exists.

In contrast, one advantage of my utilising stimulated recall in the post-observation interviews was the shifting of focus from what transpired within the lesson, to way it was done, and subsequently, why that course of action was chosen. In addition, this allowed me to access further detail from the teachers as they were able to reflect on the class, and more specifically their motivational changes, with an enhanced degree of clarity. By presenting the participant with a copy of my numerical data reflecting the ebb and flow of visible teaching motivation at five-minute intervals, combined with extracts from my field notes, the participants were able to recall a more granular level of detail than when questioned unaided. They
were also able to identify areas of the data which they found personally interesting and to discuss those in greater depth. Often, these moments coincided with the critical events I wished to discuss, thereby allowing the teachers to lead the discussion whilst enabling me to capture the necessary data for the study. One by-product of this process was that the participants began to develop greater awareness of their own motivational changes as the academic year progressed, leading to a richer quality of data. Finally, such an approach allowed for a form of triangulation as each teacher member checked their data, something which Creswell and Miller (2000) assert to be of fundamental importance in establishing validity.

4.4.3.2 Reflective journals.

In addition to the interviews (see Table 4.3), the teachers agreed to submit weekly reflective journal entries. Dörnyei (2007) observes that having participants compile a reflective journal “allows the researcher to capture particulars of experience in a way that is not possible using other methods” (p. 156). In this instance, the weekly entries provided a wealth of information relating to classroom experiences which occurred when I was not there to observe them, along with the teachers’ reflections thereon. Although a well-established technique in qualitative research, there has been a historical paucity of teacher-based research employing diary-writing (McDonough, 1994). More recently, McDonough and McDonough (2014) note continued scarcity of research employing teachers’ diaries, though they recognise that student diaries are frequently utilised in classroom-based studies. In spite of this, the authors state that compiling a reflective journal “is arguably one of the ways in which teachers can get closest to their own work” (p. 131). I felt this to be of particular value in a context where teachers do not regularly consider their levels of motivation to teach. Zulfikar and Mujiburrahman (2018) additionally note the value of reflective journals as a data collection tool in teacher-based research, though they clarify that much of the work previously conducted is related to action research or was designed to promote teacher development through reflection on practice. Finally, Phelps (2005), whose work, like mine, adopts a complexity perspective, argues convincingly that “journals provide key insights that can be difficult to document in other ways” (p. 42), something which also proved to be true for my core-participants.
The reflective journals were compiled through the submission of a weekly email, which we agreed would be sent to me on Saturdays. Each entry was designed to touch upon the previous week’s experiences primarily, although the teachers were free to make connections with earlier events or include forthcoming issues as well. Mercer (2015) notes that in her work, by offering loose guidelines for the submissions and providing brief directive feedback on the entries, she was able to not only improve quality and depth of reflection but also enhance rapport with her participant teachers. I initially adopted a similar practice, providing each teacher with a preformatted and dated Microsoft Word document template for each term. At the top of the first page, I included a list of prompts and hints to assist the teachers in focusing their thoughts on areas related to teaching motivation where possible. At intervals, timed to occur at the end of each of the three terms and the winter recess (break), additional questions were emailed to the teachers. This provided an opportunity for me to probe for further detail on issues that had arisen over the previous twelve weeks. In addition to this, further questions or prompts were occasionally employed, often at the request of the teachers as some participants found the writing process to be quite challenging. Unlike Mercer’s (2015) approach, feedback here was generally offered informally and face-to-face rather than in written form. This was considered to be culturally appropriate for the context and in line with the preferences of the participants.

Whilst not always a popular weekly task, with some commenting as such in their end of year feedback, each core-participant submitted a complete set of entries. For some, the writing became a cathartic Saturday morning routine, with entries provided promptly. Others required reminders to be sent on Sundays in order that the entries were submitted prior to the start of the next week’s teaching. I developed the habit of sending a short reminder via our WhatsApp group each Saturday morning, with the tone of the messages designed to be light, friendly and appreciative whilst expressing my keen interest in reading their submissions. As these became a regular feature, some teachers commented that they appreciated receiving them each week, with running jokes developing over the year. One issue which initially concerned me was whether the teachers might feel free to write candidly given the relative permanence of the written form over the spoken word. This has been previously noted with regard to learner diaries which are to be read by their teachers (Boud & Walker, 1998; Kerka, 1996; Phelps, 2005). As with the other data collection
techniques, my primary means of overcoming any issues was to listen, negotiate, and devote time and energy to building trust and rapport with the teachers, something which developed consistently and continuously throughout the period of fieldwork.

In addition to the teachers’ weekly reflective journals, I kept my own regularly updated research journal. This was generally completed daily with my observations; ideas and reflections; notes on issues that had occurred; highlighted relevant areas from the existing literature; assumptions that I had identified in myself or others; and plans for future developments. Ortlipp (2008) makes the case for the importance of the research journal as a means of foregrounding transparency and acknowledging assumptions and existing biases which may otherwise have gone unrecorded. In practice, this provided a cyclical process wherein I would often go back and re-read extracts, thereby developing renewed focus for further rumination and reflection.

4.4.4 Data collection procedure (3).

In the second half of the academic year, and as a replacement for the student focus group interviews, a short instrument was administered to the students during the second of the two classroom observations. This was intended to capture the students’ appraisals of teaching motivation levels during the lesson, and additionally, to gain insight into their own levels of motivation to learn. The procedure for this was agreed in advance with the teachers and additional paper copies of the instrument were provided in the preceding weeks so the students could be familiarised with the procedure through in-class practice. I recognise that interjecting an additional element into the observed class would inevitably impact in some manner. However, I felt this was an acceptable compromise in the interests of capturing the perspectives of the students, something with which the teachers readily agreed. Student numbers in the six classes varied from a minimum of fifteen to a maximum of twenty-three, with a total of 123 students completing the instrument (see Appendix B). A diversity of perspectives was also sought, with grades one, three, four, and six being represented.

The instrument contained four items: an assessment of teaching motivation in real-time; the reason for that opinion; a self-assessment of the student’s motivation to learn English; and the reason for that level (see Appendix C). The previously noted 7-point Likert type scale (see Sections 4.4.2.1; 4.4.2.2) was maintained for the first and third items as it could allow for direct comparisons of the perceived size and
direction of motivational changes within the class. Furthermore, a self-report of student motivation was included as this might feasibly be a factor influencing the teacher’s motivational levels, and vice versa. The set of four questions were completed on three occasions in the two-hour class, with one repetition in each of the three forty-minute periods. The timing for the first was decided by the teacher, with it having previously been agreed this should take place after the initial classroom administration had been completed and once the lesson itself had begun. The second and third iterations would occur upon my signal, with the teachers unaware at which moment that might transpire. Due consideration was given to the lesson with respect to the timing of the signal and the teachers were at liberty to postpone the questionnaire until the next opportune moment if they felt it would interrupt one of the lesson stages or be detrimental to student learning potential. It was intended that each set of answers be timed with my own numerical assessments of the teacher, and that these could also be contrasted with the teacher’s self-report data which would be captured at the outset of the subsequent interview. The instruments were translated into Rioplatense Spanish in order that there be no misunderstandings or unnecessary difficulties for the students and piloted in previous classes to check for understanding or unforeseen issues. The students were requested not to provide names or any identifying information in an attempt to protect their anonymity, and they handed the completed forms directly to me at the end of the class. At no point were the teachers given access to the completed questionnaires or data contained therein, though it must be recognized that there remained the possibility that a teacher might monitor the class while the students were writing and so it was not possible to ensure complete anonymity. In spite of the limitations, it was felt to be important to capture the students’ perspectives on teaching motivation and these data provided a useful counterpoint to the teachers, and my own data. They additionally offered validation of my own observations of visible teaching motivation.

As a final stage in the face-to-face data collection cycle, the teachers were invited to participate in an exit interview. The focus of this was on questions about the year as a whole; term 3 in particular; and their reflections on participation in the study itself. In addition to this, member checking of early findings from the data analysis took place, wherein the teachers were invited to comment on sections of their data identified as salient to the study; discuss inferences drawn by myself and note any potential areas of discrepancy. Within these discussions, a focus was given
to the dynamic changes in teaching motivation and potential patterns which had arisen from the data, including evidence of temporal nesting (see Chapter 7). Additionally, these interviews offered the participants a reference point from which to view their own trajectories across the year, both in motivational terms and their professional development as a result of their participation in the study. Whilst these were the primary functions of these interviews, a secondary benefit was that each could provide a degree of closure on the individually personalised strands of the data collection cycle. Given the close working relationships that had developed between myself and each of the teachers, along with the mentoring nature which characterised many of our interactions, I felt this was an important part of exiting the field (see Section 4.2). As such, I was able to set the tone for a change in inter-personal relationship, after which most communication would ensue via email and WhatsApp.

Once the final exam period had been completed and the teachers in Solaris had a much-reduced workload, a final set of items were compiled into an instrument for the wider English language teaching community to complete (see Appendices B; D). For the intended sample, all of the English teachers who worked at secondary schools were approached and asked for their participation. This allowed for a broadening of the focus of the study to incorporate a wider set of viewpoints and also provide validation of the data already compiled. The eight items were primarily focused on understanding the teachers’ self-appraisals of their own motivation to teach and factors which they felt might influence those levels. In the interests of clarity, it should be noted that the items were open questions and the data not designed to be analysed statistically with traditional quantitative procedures. In addition to these items, the types of schools the teachers were employed by were recorded and they were also asked for suggestions as to how their motivation levels could be improved or maintained if already high. In this regard, this aspect of the data set also allowed for consideration of bottom-up contextually relevant future recommendations for change which might aid teacher motivation levels in Solaris.

On the advice of the core-participants, it was agreed the questionnaire should be sent in electronic format via the school system. I was counselled that if it did not come through official channels, many teachers would be unlikely to complete it. As a result of this, I initially contacted all of the teachers by email and WhatsApp message, requesting their assistance and forwarding a direct link to the questionnaire, with a QR code provided for ease of access. I then enlisted the help of
the local area office of Supervision, the administrators for the provincial Ministerio who oversee each aspect of the state education system in both the rural and urban locality. It was agreed that they would forward my request for assistance to each of the schools, who would then disseminate it to the teachers in their weekly email. I recognize that this may not have been an ideal manner in which to approach participants. However, whilst seemingly unorthodox to those not familiar with the context, it did conform to local requirements and expectations, as communicated by the teachers themselves. Furthermore, I attempted to clarify any potential anonymity concerns and reinforce my position as a separate entity from the Ministerio within the text of my request. In line with Bell (2010) a period of two weeks was given for completion, after which the online survey would be closed, and reminders of this were sent via the schools in their weekly emails to the teachers. As a result of these efforts, a total of nineteen teachers eventually completed the instrument. Given the total number of English teachers was assessed to be 26, with 21 working in the secondary school system in 2016, I believe this represents a high response rate which may allow for any conclusions drawn to be considered robust.

Finally, along with ongoing discussions with the core-participants, some of which continue currently, each of the teachers were contacted after the data analysis had been completed. In order to maximise all opportunities for member checking of data, I approached the teachers via WhatsApp and asked if any would like to see, and comment on, a summary of their data and my findings. All quickly expressed interest and a willingness to do so. Accordingly, I emailed each teacher a word document with the aforementioned information and invited comments, questions, or additional details, with a deadline for responses set for two weeks. Aside from the universally high level of interest, responses from the teachers expressed agreement with the contents and also repeated their pleasure and gratitude at having been able to participate in the study. I feel that this additional layer of member checking further validates and adds enhanced credibility to the findings of this investigation and my claims to have provided a contextually appropriate, accurate interpretation of teaching motivation in Solaris.

4.5 Ethical considerations

As with any study, my fieldwork was punctuated by ongoing ethical deliberations. A distinction can be made between two strata of ethical considerations,
with Guillemin and Gillam (2004) identifying “procedural ethics” (p. 263) as the initial ethical decisions made during research design and prior to entering the field. An extension of this is provided by Kubanyiova (2008), who refers to broader “macroethical principles” (p. 504), which govern the aforementioned decisions, and incorporate the specifics of gaining approval from bodies such as university ethics committees. In addition to these more abstract perspectives, a range of contextually rooted microethical dilemmas will typically present themselves throughout the duration of studies such as this investigation. Such dilemmas can weigh heavily on the researcher, with no clear correct answers evident and no previous literature available which can reflect the individuality of the specific contextual requirements (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004; Kubanyiova, 2008). A number of such microethical instances have already been discussed in this fieldwork procedure (for example, See Section 4.2), though naturally, such a prolonged encounter as participant observer in a remote teaching community provided many more. However, limitations of space within the thesis preclude an extended discussion of all such quandaries and this section is intended to offer indications of the processes which informed my decision-making related to both macroethical and microethical problems, whether before, during, or after leaving the field.

In the first instance, all data were anonymised, and pseudonyms assigned to the participants, the schools, and the town in order to preserve anonymity (Burton, 2000). Whilst this is considered standard ethical practice (O’Reilly, 2012), there has been some debate as to whether it may be practically effective in studies such as this one. Walford (2002) questions, “why offer anonymity?” (p. 96), arguing that ethnographies often include so many easily identifiable details that attempts to obfuscate identities and locations may be of questionable real value. As such, care must be taken with matters of confidentiality and anonymity when deciding what, and how much, potentially damaging information is made public. This is particularly relevant in a small, remote, tight-knit community such as Solaris, where only a limited number of schools and English teachers exist. Within a brief period, it became common knowledge who I was, what work I was doing, and who I was working with. Moreover, my anomalous presence made me easily recognisable to the students, other subject teachers and members of the school administration who all came to recognise my continued presence within their schools. Achievable degrees of anonymity were discussed with the participants and an acceptable balance
was agreed, with the final decision given to the core-participants. I believe this to be consistent with the ethical principle of “respect for persons” (Kubanyiova, 2008, p. 505).

As previously noted, initial access to the participants was facilitated by the Ministerio-employed gatekeeper (see Sections 2.5; 4.4.1), along with the consent and assistance of the schools. As a result, the teachers may have felt a degree of obligation and perceived participation as difficult to refuse. In order to minimise this, I moved communication to the locally preferred medium of WhatsApp at the earliest opportunity and clarified that inclusion was entirely voluntary and could be curtailed at any stage, in line with the principle of informed consent (Burns, 2009). Furthermore, informed consent was sought from all involved, prior to data collection via written consent forms (see Appendix E; F; G). These outlined the rights of the individual, the uses for which the collected data were to be authorised, and any obligations they accepted. Additionally, I was conscious of any potential influence the gatekeeper might have on the participants and the resulting data. Richards (2003) cautions that gatekeepers may have their own agendas, which may conflict with that of the researcher. As such, I recognised that my introduction to the field was not made by an impartial observer and due care was taken from the outset to distance my own work from that of the gatekeeper.

An ongoing concern is noted by Hammersley and Atkinson (2007), who caution against the exploitation of research participants for the benefit of the researcher on grounds not only of ethics but also for the potential problems they may cause for future researchers attempting to gain access. Additionally, the UK Economic and Social Research Council’s (2012) framework for research ethics explicitly states that “harm to research participants and researchers must be avoided in all instances” (p. 3). As such, I was, and remain, aware that the principles of informed consent do not end once the participant has signed the written declaration, and that additionally, careful thought should always be given to potential detrimental effects of publication (Angrosino, 2007). Any such decisions have been considered on a case-by-case basis, through a process of reflexivity, reflection, and the requisite degree of careful balancing of the differing perspectives.

Furthermore, whilst an extended period in the field can afford greater insight, and with Israel & Hay (2006) highlighting the necessity of developing a bond of trust with the participants, inherent pitfalls exist. Walsh (2011) highlights the danger
of staying in the field too long and “going native” (p. 48). In effect, the perspective of the researcher becomes so closely aligned with the participants over the length of the data collection period that their ability to analyse the data with the necessary degree of objectivity becomes compromised. A carefully kept research journal and regular contact with my PhD supervisor offered safety checks against this process and allowed for periodic refocussing. In order to maximise the value-potential of the research journal, increased levels of self-awareness and reflexivity were vital, both in capturing the requisite detail, and affording an objective perspective through hindsight. It should be noted that qualitative research by nature makes truly objective interpretations impossible and therefore, the issue becomes one of identifying and acknowledging subjectivity; and attempting to mitigate their influence.

Recognition should also be made of the potential for inter-cultural conflict and misunderstanding in studies such as this. Possible effects of this were minimised through a combination of raised conscious awareness and increased sensitivity on my part in order to preclude issues where possible; aided by my previous experiences of working in alien cultural contexts (see Section 2.4). A combination of these, with enhanced levels of reflexivity through the aforementioned research journal and supervision, afforded a greater awareness of, and sensitivity to potentially problematic areas of concern. Additionally, all attempts were made to ensure that involvement in the programme did not increase the teachers’ levels of anxiety or otherwise negatively affect their ability to carry out their duties. I endeavoured to remain impartial and objective wherever possible, whilst open and encouraging, in order that a relationship be fostered wherein the teachers felt comfortable expressing themselves openly. A tension exists between these two positions and sensitivity was required in order to achieve an appropriate balance. Potential problems are inherent when participants are encouraged to reflect on areas that directly related to their professional identities, such as their pedagogy and classroom experiences. Microethical decisions had to be made on an ongoing basis regarding the level of professional developmental input that was offered to the participants so that they continued to feel their needs were being satisfied.

In addition to that which occurs in the zone of inquiry, it is also important to consider the manner in which the ethnographer leaves the field. Taylor (1991) asserts care should be given to inter-personal relationships when timing the departure, and that the potential implications of the study should be given particular attention by the
researcher. Whilst the chronological span of the data collection period was driven by the natural cycle of the phenomenon under investigation, as indicated by Hammersley (2006), careful thought was still be given to the exact timing of my departure from the field. After a prolonged period of immersion as participant observer, it is important to realise the potential effects on both the researcher and the participants at the close of the data collection phase. Whilst O’Reilly (2012) warns of the invasive nature of ethnography, it is perhaps human nature that despite the potentially intrusive, inquisitive aspects of the research process, participants may become attached to someone showing genuine interest in learning about their lives. I was conscious to exercise caution when leaving the field, signposting dates in advance and organising an end of year celebration lunch where gifts and goodbyes could be exchanged. Nevertheless, potential feelings of loss might be experienced by participants and researcher. In recognition of this and my own difficulties readjusting after such a lengthy period of fieldwork, some degree of contact was maintained via email and WhatsApp.

As a benefit for the teachers, Estanislao negotiated a reward for the core-participant teachers, in the form of an award of teacher points. Such points might typically be accrued through participation in CPD of some description and aid in moving a teacher up the applicants’ list when teaching hours become available. As such, they form a contextually relevant reward which can provide genuine ongoing career benefits for those involved. This award was not made public until it was finalised in mid-2016 and so should not be seen as a manner of inducing teachers to participate, though it is possible it may have encouraged teachers to persevere with the study. These points duly became available in the subsequent year. In addition, in December 2016, both the core-participants and their schools received a signed certificate of participation, printed on University of Warwick headed stationery and framed. Further additional areas of beneficial impact have also been identified and will be discussed in Section 8.2. Finally, it should be noted that ongoing communication with the participants allowed for additional member-checking of data and further discussions related to outcomes of the study to take place throughout the process of thesis completion.
4.6 Data analysis

Data analysis proceeded along two main paths, one concurrent to the data collection itself, and one occurring subsequent to my return from Argentina. In the first instance, I immersed myself in a constant iterative process of engaging with the data as it was captured, and thereafter. This allowed for the open and continually evolving nature of the research design to respond to issues of interest as they arose. Moreover, salient aspects of the data could be turned into lines of questioning for forthcoming interviews or incorporated into the individualised lists of questions the participants received periodically via email. In addition to this, emerging areas of interest could be identified and considered while shadowing teachers and observing their classes. As such, this initial phase of analysis could be considered to be primarily aimed at informing the ongoing development of the research design. In spite of this, initial themes began to emerge, and these were recorded in my research journal for later consideration.

On returning from the field, the amassed data were cleaned and input into a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) programme (Fielding & Lee, 1991), in this case, NVivo 11 (later 12) for Mac. In line with Richards (2003) the key aims of this post-fieldwork stage of analysis were the “identification and categorisation of key themes, perspectives and events” (p. 15). In the first instance, this followed a process of open coding, along with simultaneous coding, i.e. where excerpts were potentially relevant to more than one category, they would be coded to each (Saldaña, 2016). Coding was predominantly inductive in nature as codes were data driven and not selected prior to the start of the process. However, as Crang and Cook (1995) succinctly state, “it is virtually impossible for the researcher to banish all of her/his prior thoughts from the analysis” (p. 81), and as such, it should be recognised that some of the codes related to, and were driven, by existing theory. Whilst proving to be extremely productive in terms of generating codes and focussing my attention on the data set, unfortunately, this approach proved to be less than satisfactory. The volume of codes produced, and quantity of simultaneous coding resulted in an unwieldy and logistically complex coding scheme, which inhibited, rather than aided further insight and analysis (see Appendix B for an overview of the data set; and Appendix H for a sample of early coding nodes). Attempts were made to distil these into higher order coding categories, but this proved to be a time-consuming and unproductive venture.
In an attempt to break the deadlock and in line with the work of Braun and Clarke (2006), renewed focus was given to employing the approach of thematic analysis, which is defined as “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within the data” (p. 79). The authors outline a “recursive process” (p. 86) of six stages: “familiarising yourself with your data”; “generating initial codes”; “searching for themes”; “reviewing themes”; “defining and naming themes”; and “producing the report” (p. 87). Mann (2016) identifies this framework as being particularly useful as a method of approaching the analysis of qualitative data, something to which I can personally attest. As a result of this shift in approach, a renewed attempt was made to engage with the data in an iterative manner as themes were gradually identified and applied to the remaining data set before beginning the process once more for the process of revising, and subsequently, categorising the themes. This method proved to be altogether more fruitful and I additionally found that I was better able to work with word documents, annotations, and print outs rather than NVivo (see Appendix I for an example). Whilst I recognise the powerful utility of NVivo, for a data set of this scale, I found it presented me with an added layer of difficulty, as locating and navigating annotations, comments and links became more opaque.

These analytical procedures employed a complexity perspective, which additionally allows for the integration of multiple temporal perspectives and the identification of fractalisation (hereafter termed nesting). A range of timelines were explored to identify patterns of teaching motivation: one school period, one full lesson, one day, one week, one month, one school term, one half of the academic year, and one complete academic year. However, due to limitations of space, only the most persuasive will be discussed in this thesis (see Section 4.7). When parsing the data set in this manner, the initial conditions of the state space could be more accurately identified, with the resulting findings presenting a natural fit with the overarching motivational theoretical framework of Self-determination Theory. Furthermore, by allowing for a focus on the dynamic inter-relationships between the individual theoretical constructs and the context itself, the depth and breadth of relevant attractor, or repeller, states which are evidenced in the data illuminated both more stable networks of teacher motivation, and evidence of its inherently dynamic nature.
4.7 Overview of the remaining chapters

By this point, it is hoped that the reader will feel thoroughly grounded in the specifics of the research design. In the subsequent chapters, I will attempt to give an account of the main findings of the study and demonstrate the manner in which these build on the body of existing empirical knowledge regarding teaching motivation and extend current theoretical perceptions of self-determination theory. The organisational principle adopted is to begin with a wider view of the context before narrowing the focus until a fine-grained analysis has been provided which may afford the reader with an unrivalled vantage point on teaching motivation in the secondary schools of Solaris.

In order to achieve this, Chapter 5 presents an overview of levels of teaching motivation in Solaris, as witnessed by members of the teaching community. Subsequently, in Chapter 6, I apply a narrower lens in order to establish the specific features of context which affect the motivation to teach. In Chapter 7, closer attention is paid to the classroom itself, and the moment-by-moment motivational changes experienced by each of the core-participants. A range of time scales are employed, which additionally enable instances of nesting to be identified. Finally, having moved ever closer to the field of inquiry, a step back is taken for a broader perspective. Here, space is given to the voices of the wider teaching community, evidence of the impact of the study is presented, and the teachers offer their own suggestions as to how they feel their motivational levels might be improved most optimally in the future. It is envisaged that by the end of these chapters, the reader will have gained greater insight into the lives of the English teachers of Solaris than has previously been attempted or achieved.
5 A deeper understanding the context

It is perhaps worth restating that prior to this investigation, no system-wide exploration of state secondary school language teaching in Solaris had previously been attempted and therefore, little is known about the context. In this and the subsequent two chapters, I will attempt to provide an evidence-based analysis of the field of inquiry, beginning with a broader perspective of the context as a whole, and gradually narrowing the focus onto what occurs in specific classrooms. In order to do so, an analytical lens has been adopted, which affords room for the teacher participants’ voices to be represented, whilst additionally incorporating a wider range of views from within the system. Inherent in such an approach is the recognition that the individuals may comment from a variety of temporal perspectives. For some, the present moment is given the primary focus; for others, the near-present (both past and future) is foregrounded; and at some stages, a longer perspective may have been adopted. Employing such an approach, combining macro- and micro-perspectives, is consistent with the existing literature on CDST research design (for examples, see Henry, 2016; Lichtwarck-Aschoff, van Geert, Bosma, & Kunnen 2008). The data sources employed include: an initial focus group interview with four of the participant teachers (Ben, Gwen, Rae, and Santiago); interviews with non-participating teachers who possess extensive experience of teaching English in Solaris (Alice and Mary); an interview with a member of Supervision: the Ministry of Education appointed officials with the task of co-ordinating primary, secondary, and adult education in the region (Adam); individual interviews with the core-participants (Amber, Ben, Gwen, Rae, Santiago, and Sonya); weekly reflective journal entries from the participating teachers (Amber, Ben, Gwen, Rae, Santiago, and Sonya); my own field notes and observation data recorded while shadowing and observing each of the core-participants; extracts from personal communications, such as on-record conversations, emails, WhatsApp messages and such like; student focus group interviews, and my own research journal (see Appendix A for data sources and codes; Appendix B for an overview of the data set).

It is perhaps worth taking a moment to highlight features which Alice, Mary and Adam have in common so the reader may consider whether there might be alternative motives at play. All three have at least fifteen years of teaching experience, all of which was acquired in Solaris. In addition, all three are qualified
English language teachers and have pursued some form of career development into academic management and/or teacher training. However, none of the three were deemed suitable for selection as core-participants due to a lack of secondary teaching hours in the year under investigation. In spite of this, both Alice and Mary requested that I come and meet some of their classes so the students might benefit from the opportunity to practice their English, and they additionally showed great interest in offering their assistance whenever we interacted. Adam was similarly keen to help and become more involved but as he is now part of Supervision, he is no longer actively engaged in teaching students.

5.1 What are the experiences of English language teachers in Solaris with regard to teaching motivation at the outset of the 2016 academic year?

In this chapter, data have been selected to represent a wide-ranging array of viewpoints collected from Mid-November 2015 to the end of March 2016. The latter date was chosen as it represented the end of the first month of the academic year and is typically the point which teachers shift their focus from revision activities based on the work of the previous year, to the new content in the syllabus. In addition to this, by April 2016 my own relationships with the teachers were beginning to settle, with enhanced openness between us having been facilitated by developing rapport. As a result of these factors, preparations were beginning for the first round of observations, after which further changes in the relationship between the teachers and researcher were predicted, with possible effects to their motivational profiles. The reader should note that any deviations from the expected norms of lexis or syntax found in the reproduced data are accurate representations of the speaker’s idiolect. Corrections or conventions such as (sic) have been omitted as I believe that the meaning of the utterances are clear and such impediments to the natural flow of the text may be unhelpful and unnecessary.

What follows is divided into three sections, the first two of which focus on low, and then high, levels of teaching motivation within Solaris in early 2016. Both self-report data and discussions of the wider teaching community within the town are offered in an attempt to show both general tendencies and more personal lived experiences. In the interests of accessibility, those related to lower levels of motivation are presented first, followed by their higher counterparts. Subsequently, a discussion will be provided which is intended to aid in providing a fuller answer to
the first research question. Finally, it is not intended that the following be viewed as over-generalised assertions as to permanent or semi-permanent states. However, I do believe that it is possible through interpolation of the data to outline a relatively stable attractor basin within which English teaching motivation was located in early 2016.

5.1.1 Levels of teaching motivation.

5.1.1.1 Low levels of teaching motivation.

One consistent theme from within the data set as a whole was that of widespread low levels of teaching motivation within the secondary school system as a whole. Having personally witnessed teachers exhibiting low levels of teaching motivation, Alice recalled, “lots of teachers just sitting on their desks and like, ‘Open your books on page this’, ‘Do exercise this and that’, and this is very much it. [...] they are not preparing classes.” (AlPC/30/03/16). Mary independently corroborated this, stating that “with many teachers here, that’s the problem, they teach with the book and they don’t care [...]. That’s what I see. [...] They don’t love what they are doing. The follow the book. That’s what I think” (MaPC/15/04/16). These views exemplify many comments made by teachers in conversation, who described seeing colleagues in class, seated behind their desk, directing the students to work through the coursebook one exercise at a time, with no attempts to enliven the materials or engage their learners. As I probed for possible causes, Alice offered a glimpse into the local reality, “not caring, I think that’s also another problem [...] I don’t know, I think that, well sometimes, what sometimes happens also is that the whole system takes you that way” (AlPC/30/03/16). She completed this fairly bleak image by drawing on her, more than two decades of post-qualification, teaching experience in Solaris:

We all agree. If you talk to any English teacher here in Solaris, they will say we have to find another way of teaching English. This is not working. The way we are teaching English is not working. We have to find another way.

(Extract 5.1, AlPC/30/03/16)

This view as outlined by Alice and Mary is underlined by Adam, who in his capacity as member of Supervision has extensive first-hand experience at all levels of the system locally. He begins by lamenting, “in Solaris, is like, they teach because they
need the money, not because they like teaching” (AdPC/12/11/16). When prompted for further clarification, Adam explained:

ADAM You have to enjoy what you do. If you don’t enjoy what you are doing, you are not going to get to your students. You are going just to go to school just to get a salary and I have read some years ago, when I have attended the post-degree that 80% of the teachers that we have in the schools nowadays, it’s because of they get the job and they need the money.

IR 18 or 80?
ADAM 80. 80%.
IR That’s a lot of people.
ADAM It’s a lot of people at schools.
IR Yeah, that’s a lot of people. And that’s countrywide?
ADAM Countrywide, yes. It was a research.

(Extract 5.2, AdPC/12/11/16)

Whilst this figure is anecdotal and should be treated accordingly, it may be reasonable to posit that Adam is attempting to convey a consistent long-term problem with teaching motivation, something of systemic proportion within the country as a whole. In doing so, he dismisses the potential for this to be a small number of isolated local examples. Adam then continued:

But you have to prepare the classes and that is something that is missing at schools, not only in English but in the other subjects. There are very, very few teachers who prepare their classes. And who are interested that their students learn. That is what I see, and that I have seen when I was a headmaster at school. I went to the classroom and you notice immediately that they hadn’t prepare anything for that class.

(Extract 5.3, AdPC/12/11/16).

It is perhaps worth noting that I also witnessed examples of teaching which exhibited low levels of motivation. For example, one teacher believed that because they were not given a separate additional payment for marking student work, it was an activity should only be completed in class. As a result, they would collect student work at the start of the class and proceed to mark it while the students worked in silence through
a series of written exercises. The net result of this practice was that it would often take almost the entirety of the students’ English class time for the week, and additionally produce yet more work which would need to be marked in the following class. Seeing one such class led to my recording, “{name removed for anonymity} just seems disengaged to the point of crisis intervention point and I am really concerned by what I saw in their classes” (SNRJ/03/16). What seems consistent within each of these perspectives is the recognition that poorly motivated teachers are a feature of the state secondary schools and they are not considered to be in the minority.

5.1.1.2 High levels of teaching motivation.

As might be expected, not all the data reflected supressed levels of teaching motivation, with some reports of higher levels. After an extended discussion of challenges within the educational system in Solaris, Adam was keen to add that not all teachers in the secondary system lack motivation:

ADAM There are some teachers who are really very good in Solaris.

We have-

IR Do you mean good in terms of quality of tuition or in terms of levels of motivation?

ADAM Level of motivation. Yes, because they make their students to do different things because 80% of the teachers just teach grammar. I think that is something that happens all around Argentina, at least in public schools. They do different things, and they contextualise what they are teaching, and they get great results.

(Extract 5.4, AdPC/12/11/16)

In doing so, Adam provides a moment of insight into his perception of positively and negatively motivated teaching in a contextually relevant manner. As someone with decades of experience in Solaris, his position has afforded him the opportunity to observe many classroom interactions over the years and so his opinion may have some value in contextualising the voices of other teachers. Mary appears to offer support for the reality Adam has outlined whilst presenting a case for how she differs from many other teachers:
Similarly, Alice is keen to show that the students are capable of achieving good results if the teacher adopts a motivated approach:

I still think that when you really do things properly, things work. I mean, if you prepare classes, if you prepare material, if you worry about the students, if you set a pace of working in the classroom, they get used to it. Erm, at the (school number removed), where I work, I had second and third year and that was great because they got to meet me in the second year and so I had them like, a whole year to kind of train them on my way of working. And so, in the third year, we would, we would work through it like, you know it was fantastic. I had great results in the third grades.

(Extract 5.6, AlPC/30/03/16)

Through these examples, it is possible to clarify a picture of what characterises motivated teaching, and its less motivated counterpart, in the secondary schools of Solaris. In doing so, these teachers are keen to distinguish themselves from their less motivated colleagues.

When questioned further on what motivation might look like in the classroom, Alice explains from her own perspective:

I’m one of those teachers who really cares and er, you, if you observe one of my classes, I am like always moving, I am always asking if you, “Have you understood” “Do you need help?” (unclear false starts), I don’t know, “Take a look at this...” and I always explain, I bring flashcards and posters, and I am like, really into it. Erm, because that’s the only way I find, that’s the only way I know how to teach, yes? I cannot teach sitting on the desk, er, I can’t,
Furthermore, she is also able to offer signs of a link between her present sense of self as a teacher to her own earlier experiences as a student. Alice reflects back on motivated teaching viewed from the other side of the classroom:

Erm, what I liked a lot about the teacher I had [...] is that she was er, so strict but in a good way. I mean er, we, we would always start classes on time, we would never waste time in class. I don’t know how, she made all of us like, being there with her, all the time. Well, we were kind of afraid of her, a little bit, I have to accept it. [...] I thought she was great, I, I jus, I just loved her.

(Extract 5.8, AIPC/30/03/16)

Perhaps the most interesting of these recalled sensations are those of a younger Alice losing sense of time in the classroom and simply enjoying the pleasures of being in class with the teacher: feelings which might be considered as exemplifying a degree of intrinsic motivation. What was clear from my discussion with Alice was how much this formative experience had fed into the development of her own teacher identity as, having spoken in length and visited her in class, much of this description could be of her own approach to teaching. In addition to Alice, Amber also had comments to make about this when asked to describe what motivates her:

AMBER

Wow! I’ve never thought about that, I just like teaching, {laughs} I don’t know, errmmm, I feel motivated when my students laugh, for example, I, I’ve been told that I’m very funny when I teach [...]. But hmm when I get feedback from my students, when I have a class that is, most of it, is listening to me or answering to what I ask, or propose or, that really makes me happy, I mean OK, I’m here, I’m doing something and some people are responding. Errr, I suppose that, that is it, I don’t know, and then the kids sometimes, the other day, I had a very nice experience, I don’t know why, we were doing a kind of a psychological test, like how do people see you. Not how you see yourself, but how other people see you and
In both examples, from quite different generations of student experiences, it can be seen that a teacher who can direct the lesson is appreciated by some, though perhaps not all, of the students. If we compare this to the previous discussion of teachers lacking in motivation who sit at their desk and ask the students work through each exercise in their books without engaging, a picture begins to emerge of the type engagement perceived as a motivated teacher in action.

In fact, for many of the participants in the study, their subjective self-assessment of their levels of teaching motivation indicate a stable attractor basin, within which they feel highly motivated and resistant to threats and challenges. Mary puts it simply as, “I don’t know how to put that, to put it into words but I love teaching English” (MaPC/15/04/16). Amber is similarly enthusiastic, though tempered with a degree of pragmatism:

I don’t know, I enjoy teaching English so for me it’s kind of... Anyway, I, I, I discovered that I enjoyed teaching English through time, not from the very beginning. But then, I don’t know, I suppose it’s experience, I’ve been teaching for 30 years so I guess I, I’ve learned something along those 30
Here, Amber hints at having grown into her career as she gained experience and developed her professional skills. Given the challenges that teenagers might present for a newly qualified teacher, this seems a proportionate observation. Alice is similarly open, offering a degree of honest self-reflection:

I love teaching at secondary schools. [...] I always tell them, and I tell the counsellors and everybody erm, I, I always te, say that I, I love what I do, I love being a teacher and I know that being a teacher goes beyond teaching the language. And, I really want them to be better people so whatever is at my hand to be done, I’ll do it [...] I read a lot, and I always say that I still have a lot to learn, yes? And I think that’s very important because I don’t feel I’m like, a great teacher, you know? I..., I’m sure that I try to do my best. I always try to do my best. Sometimes, I do it. Sometimes I don’t. Sometimes, my students get really involved and sometimes they don’t. And so, but I’m aware of that and when I see that they don’t get involved, I’m like, “Jesus, they didn’t get involved this class.” or, “What could I do next class to make it more interesting?”

It is evident that Alice recognises the reality that classes do not always go as planned and the importance of continuing professional development as a means of providing new ideas to engage the students. Additionally, she demonstrates that simply enjoying teaching may not always be enough if you wish to reach your students.

With regard to the stability of attractor states, Gwen reported relatively consistent levels of motivation early in the academic year. At the end of the first week, she noted, “All in all it was a good week. I was happy to meet my students and I felt comfortable in the classroom” (GwRJ/12/03/16). By the end of the second week, she reported little in the way of real change:

I didn’t notice much difference in my motivation [...], I think all in all it was quite high, as I enjoyed both classes myself. It would be great to know if you
noticed any differences on this as well as on the students’ receptiveness.

(Extract 5.12, GwRJ/19/03/16)

For Gwen, as an early career teacher, it might be reasonable to suggest that she is occupied more with the mechanics of her classroom craft and may not have sufficient resources to consider such motivational changes in real time. However, it is noteworthy that she links her enjoyment of the class directly to her motivation and cites it as her justification for her response. Moreover, she does admit room for some doubt by requesting the opinion of myself on both her motivational level and the engagement of the students. It is perhaps worth noting that Gwen’s situation might be additionally characterised as a great deal more challenging in terms of maintaining motivation, given her arduous weekly schedule (Extract 5.13). Nonetheless, she did regularly exhibit clear indications which lent validity to her claims of high levels of motivation early in the year, for example:

Also, I’ve been meaning to tell you that for me it’s a great opportunity to have someone in the classroom who can point out mistakes and make suggestions. I know it’s not your intention or goal, but I would really appreciate it that you let me know if you notice mistakes I’m making or if you have any suggestions. I try to keep an open, learning attitude and I welcome constructive criticism. Having you in the classroom is a rare opportunity for improvement.

My timetable has been finally fully established. It’s definitely going to be a tough year with 40 hours of teaching and 30 hours attending classes per week, plus the time I need to study and prepare classes... I’m already saying goodbye to leisurely weekends L.

Anyway, I would still like to take the opportunity to carry out some tentative experiments while you are here, especially because I don’t have a background in research, so I wouldn’t even know where to start.

(Extract 5.13, GwPC/26/03/16)

At the very least, it might be fair to say that Gwen was not short of energy, commitment, and enthusiasm in spite of her taxing workload. I commented on this in my research journal:
Gwen sent me a long email full of ideas for research plans, lesson projects and other good stuff on Saturday. Further to my earlier comments about teacher motivation, this is a really strong indicator of her desire to be a better educator, I feel. Given that her timetable is now monstrous, the fact that she wants to engage with this on top is very interesting.

(Extract 5.14, SNRJ/03/16)

To her credit, this was something that she was able to maintain to an admirable degree throughout the year, still producing ideas and engaging in discussions related to pedagogy as the months progressed. As such, there was little evidence to refute the depiction from her early journal entries.

Moving away from Gwen once more, Alice outlines some additional responsibilities as she sees them for a secondary school teacher:

I devote a lot of time to, not only teaching them English but also trying to teach them values, the importance of being on time, the importance of handing homework in time, the importance of doing homework, this, the importance of respecting others when they are speaking, when I am speak, I mean, there are so many other things that teachers have to care about, to be concerned about.

(Extract 5.15, AIPC/30/03/16)

This is consistent with some of the concerns that Alice showed with regard to student motivation and engagement with schoolwork, but it could also be argued to be evidence of motivated teaching behaviour. Amber is also able to offer something of interest to the discussion:

But it’s part of your, it’s part of your job, of your career so eh, you should know that you come home and then you have, I don’t know, not only to correct, you have to plan, think, I’m thinking all the time about what to do, not only at school, at the Profesorado, at my institute, I’m reading this {holds up a photocopied book which has been assigned as group reading for a course} you see, so, so you don’t finish, you don’t have weekends, you don’t have holidays. Period.

(Extract 5.16, AmPC/11/03/16)

Such additional duties outside of the school were often highlighted by the teachers as the first to be left behind by those experiencing lower levels of motivation. A
common example might be teachers limiting their out of class exposure to optional tasks by reducing lessons to a procession of coursebook tasks alone, with few adaptations or alternative tasks (see Section 5.1.1.1). However, as indicated, more motivated examples of teaching were identifiable. Santiago offers an example of how such motivational practises can emerge:

During the last weeks of 2015 School year I discovered that some of the liveliest boys in the group were just moved by the outdoors activities they practise in the CAJ, that is the Saturday school. Particularly mountaineering activities.

I already have some classroom activities designed to the tourist area. But I had not included this particular item which is not a traditional one. And I did not know at that moment about the deep joy many of these youths had in walking and climbing in groups almost every week, including the planning and setting up of a tourist hillside path.

I could understand a little better why some of them would escape the classroom once and again, being this a common situation during the whole week, and a kind of school topic among the rest of the teachers and the principals.

Well, I realised that scenes as the one in the film might attract their attention, maybe a rescue in the mountain or something of the kind.

I also thought of their favourite activity, climbing, and that they might be interested in the names of the different devices they use.

I prepared some material, I downloaded a couple of short videos, introducing the basic pieces of equipment, for them to watch in class and to be able to listen to the words in English.

(Extract 5.17, SaRJ/19/03/16)

In fact, in response to this epiphany, Santiago then proceeded to re-design the course for the academic year. This resulted in him creating new lessons that would focus on the needs and interests of this final year group, something which would require a great deal of ongoing work as the year progressed. Whilst these teachers may not have been asked directly to provide examples of motivated teaching behaviour, they
have offered evidence that such examples do exist in Solaris and for some teachers, these are representative of the manner in which the profession should be approached.

5.1.2 Research question one: Discussion.

The previous two sections have provided an overview of English teaching motivation levels which represent the lived experiences of the teachers in Solaris. Through them, it is hoped that the reader may have already begun to discover an answer to the first of the research questions: what are the experiences of English language teachers in Solaris with regard to teaching motivation at the outset of the 2016 academic year? The aim of this section is to adopt a macro lens of analysis through which a more general sense of teaching motivation within the context can be drawn. As such, it is not intended that the focus be utilised to interpret the interactions at the level of the individuals and their context at this stage (See Chapter 6).

It is perhaps first worth commenting on the tension that exists between the characterisations of motivation that teachers self-report, and the evaluations of their peers within wider teaching community in Solaris. Those who are not full participants are unequivocal in their depiction of a system hampered by systemic low levels of motivation to teach, whereas the central participant teachers tend towards self-reporting high levels of motivation. This could be argued to simply be an example of Goffman’s (1978) impression management, wherein an individual seeks to present a version of themselves which conforms to expectations. Similarly, it could be evidence of Zerbe and Paulhus’ (1987) social desirability bias, a validity consideration in self-report research, though typically primarily a consideration with quantitative data collection instruments. Kim and Kim (2016) define this as when participants “over-report activities that are deemed to be socially or culturally desirable”, or conversely, “under-report activities that are deemed to be socially or culturally undesirable” (p. 447). These are genuine concerns to be addressed and in light of this, I would like to highlight that much of the data utilised to answer this research question was collected prior to the participants being aware that motivation was a focus of the study. For many, the questions were presented as part of larger, more wide-ranging selection of items related to the education system in Solaris. Furthermore, the data have been selected from a range of sources which offer a
narrative which is both internally and externally consistent. As such, I believe that these data may present useful insights into the reality of the local context.

Perhaps a more pressing case could be that the data appear to support the notion that motivated teachers are simply more likely to self-select for such studies and therefore these individuals may be representative of only a limited demographic within the population. Whilst there is no way to refute this beyond doubt, there is room to question whether it is a relevant consideration in this instance. Given the nature of the investigation, it is not the intention to extend these specific data beyond the sample. Instead, what is important is the ability to infer a version of reality for the teachers who provided the data and to gain deeper insight into their perceptions of the wider teaching context of Solaris. As such, whether only the more motivated teachers took part or not is less relevant than whether the information they provide is accurate and representative of the context to the best of their ability.

A further distinction can be made between the core-participants, who thus far speak mainly of their own teaching experiences; and those of the additional interviewees, who reflect on more global issues within the system that they believe to be widespread and well-rooted. Two potential reasons can be considered for this, the first is that the questions posed were directed, or perceived to have been directed, more personally by the teacher-participants. This may be entirely appropriate, given that aside from their initial interviews, all other communication was within the framework of our working together across the year and so their focus could have naturally been drawn towards centring themselves within the narrative. The second is that they might have felt exposed and less able to comment on their peers with the same degree of freedom as those who only participated in a lesser capacity. The visible nature of our relationships within the community may, on a conscious or nonconscious level, have resulted in a reluctance to be seen to criticise others openly, whereas the other three were interviewed privately. In spite of these points, it seems evident there are identifiable indicators of motivationally challenged teachers affecting the secondary school education system as a whole.

As has previously been shown, little is known about levels of motivation to teach in Argentina, with even less knowledge available in the specific field of English language teaching (see Chapter 2; Chapter 3). As such, any conclusions which follow may be difficult to discuss in relation to existing contextually relevant research. However, the reported widespread issues with low levels of motivation are
consistent with published literature in the field, where a lack of teaching motivation was identified as an issue within the Argentinian tertiary sector (Pinto & Pulido, 1997). Furthermore, similar concerns were raised more recently with respect to the Argentinian state school system (for examples see Porto, 2014; Soto, 2012). One of the impediments to developing a greater understanding of teaching motivation within the country has been a lack of willingness by teachers to participate in previous investigations, something which was mirrored in my own early experiences in the field. As a result, I feel that only through such a lengthy immersion in the field by an outsider could these results have been collated (see Section 2.4). One possible explanation for such reticence to participate might be due to fear of exposure in an educational climate where politics are never far beneath the surface. Another might be due to time pressure, with teachers working long hours and with timetables that are not conducive to efficiency (see Section 6.1.1.5), something which could also factor into discussions of motivation. A further reason might be that once already demotivated, the teachers no longer retain a degree of interest in assisting with research as they already feel somewhat jaded with the system. Finally, it has to be recognised that for many teachers in Solaris, research is an unknown quantity and as such, they possess very little real understanding of what it might entail or how it could affect them. As can be seen, the reasons may be complex and include some, or any of those offered here, in addition to others.

Nevertheless, such widespread low levels of motivation are noted consistently within the data and this was also a feature of my immersion in the local schools. Example data extracts taken from across the academic year include: his/her “motivation is at rock bottom”; “those teachers look starved of any kind of access to the sources of motivation”; “I see little in terms of motivation to do anything other than the bare minimum”; this “does not look like the actions of a motivated teacher”; he/she “was clearly quite demotivated”; “having given very clear signs of being demotivated by this”; and “that’s quite a powerful image of a demotivated teacher” (SNRJ/2016). Such observations were captured while shadowing classes; during transitions between classes; in interactions with other subject teachers or members of the school administration; or through glimpses into classrooms while walking along the corridor. Given that the previous research has only hinted at this but been unable to confirm or deny, this study offers an evidence-based confirmation
that such low levels of teaching motivation are a widespread issue within the state school system in Solaris. Such information may have been common knowledge amongst those within the immediate community of Solaris and might have additionally been suspected by those from outside. However, as a result of a lengthy immersion in the field and through gaining the trust of the teachers, these findings can now be grounded in ethnographic data and presented for wider dissemination.

With regard to the nature of such low motivation, the central characteristics are as follows: teachers failing to adequately prepare suitably engaging lessons for the students, opting instead to go through each exercise in the book one by one; a lack of engagement in class, exemplified by a teacher sat behind their desk for the much of the lesson; an unwillingness to complete teaching related tasks outside of the classroom, such as sourcing additional resources, adapting materials, marking written work or tests, etc.; and a resistance to confronting student disciplinary issues, e.g. lateness or lack of engagement with the class. The overarching characteristic amongst all of these is one of passive disengagement rather than any form of active avoidance or obstruction. For many, it would appear that what may have occurred is a gradual limiting of time, effort, attention, and energy; resulting in a teacher who may feel they are still performing adequately since they are fulfilling the minimum criteria for their position and are surrounded by others displaying similarly low levels of motivation to teach. Within this, perhaps lies a tension between the activated teacher self, which is at that moment, exhibiting low signs of motivation, or in some cases demotivation, and the sense of self-image which might present something rather different. In one instance, I spoke to a teacher who still felt they were performing well and that it was the other teachers who were exemplifying each of the aforementioned features of a poorly motivated teacher. In fact, the reality was quite different, and the teacher was showing signs of advanced disengagement from the classroom, as is consistent with amotivation. Kubanyiova (2015) explores the often-contradictory nature of teachers’ possible selves and I would argue that this specific motivational facet of identity may be an area worthy of further exploration.

Whilst a fuller discussion of the initial conditions which may result in changes to each teacher’s motivational complex system will be provided later (see Section 6.1). It may be worth momentarily considering the impact that low levels of student motivation and achievement might also have on the teachers (see Section 6.1.1.1). As has previously been noted (Banegas, 2012; Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009;
Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque, & Legault, 2002; Roth et al. 2007). Teacher and student motivation often feed into and off one another in a symbiotic relationship and in an environment such as Solaris, where there is little in the way of teaching community or school engagement for teachers, this could be a critical factor (see Section 6.1.1.6). A teacher who spends the majority of their timetable confronted by students who have little in the way of real desire to study the language and achieve only minimal gains might find themselves falling prey to the pull of demotivation. Once mired in an attractor state such as this, and in the absence of opposing forces which might create a perturbation large enough to result in further state shift, a period of relative motivation stability might ensue. As time continues and the cycle is maintained, it may be possible to imagine the attractor basin deepening and it becoming increasingly more difficult for the teacher’s complex system to be displaced. This may demonstrate the potential significance of ongoing suppression of teaching motivation levels since one might assume it would then take a more significant perturbation to dislodge it from relatively stable attractor state towards one which is far less rigidly defined. By contrast, a teacher whose attractor basin is shallower, and whose complex system is therefore more susceptible to the ebb and flow of changes in the initial conditions, would predictably have more fluid motivational levels and require smaller perturbations to result in phase shifts. If we are to imagine a teacher evidencing demotivated behaviour, who is not exposed to changes in the system’s control parameters, it is possible to envisage their poor motivation becoming gradually more entrenched. A context such as Solaris, may represent a complex system within which just such a reality could come to exist.

With regard to more positive motivational profiles and in line with Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), it is intrinsic motivation that appears to be the “main constituent” (p. 160), or primary driver of action. Within the teachers’ descriptions of their motivation, are numerous examples referring to their sense of job satisfaction and pleasure educating their students (see Sections 5.1.1.2; 6.1.3.1). Viewing these results through the lens of cognitive evaluation theory (CET) leads to an assumption that the teachers’ basic psychological needs are being met, in terms of competence, autonomy and relatedness (for a fuller discussion, see Section 3.2.2). In essence, for the teachers to be exhibiting high levels of intrinsic motivation, they should feel that their work is sufficiently challenging, yet ultimately achievable. In addition to this, they should believe they have an appropriate degree of freedom within their
professional lives, whilst operating within a stable environment which offers a degree of support. Finally, their needs in terms of relatedness, which could be met through strong collegial bonds with their peers and an awareness they, as teachers, are well-integrated and valued as part of the educational team. Research question two will subsequently allow for an examination as to whether these assumptions are borne out by further evidence (see Section 6.1).

Finally, it is possible to consider an interpretation of the data in light of the behaviours noted by the teachers as evidence of their higher teaching motivation. Given the rational premise that motivated teachers are more likely to exhibit motivating behaviour in the classroom, it may be possible to extrapolate from their data. Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) provide a framework of ten strategies for motivating language learners: “set a personal example with your own behaviour”; “create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom”; “present the tasks properly”; “develop a good relationship with the learners”; “increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence”; “make the language classes interesting”; “promote learner autonomy”; “personalize the learning process”; “increase the learners' goal-orientedness”; and “familiarize learners with the target language culture” (p. 215). In fact, when considering the data (see Section 5.1.1.2), it is possible to see many of these behaviours being exhibited. In particular, there is a consistent image of motivated teachers being those who work to develop a rapport with their students and reap the rewards of time spent creating a facilitative educational environment for their learners. The importance of setting an example with punctuality and creating expectations of the learners that they should behave similarly, along with an attention to creating engaging personalised, lesson plans which contain opportunities for the students to develop an affinity with the language, are all features that can be located in the teachers’ data. As such, it is possible to note that in spite of the cultural differences between rural Argentina and the study’s original context of Hungary, these teachers are exhibiting many of the signs of being motivating teachers for their learners. This is perhaps an important point to note as discussions of teaching motivation can often tend more towards the negative issues. Here, evidence can be seen of something altogether more positive.
6 Mapping the state space

In contrast to the previous chapter, which identified teaching motivation levels in terms of scale and valence, this chapter adopts a more granular focus, concerning itself with the initial conditions of the state space. These afford a more accurate perspective of the nature of attractor basins, additionally highlighting possible control parameters which might trigger future phase shifts. The data are presented in themes identified through data analysis (see Section 4.6), and which represent areas of perceived significance to the context under investigation. Each theme arose through systematic iterative interaction with the data and together form a rounded view of the challenges facing the teachers with respect to maintaining their levels of teaching motivation. Separate discussions are provided for the negative and positive sections as an aide to the reader, and in recognition of the large volume of data presented here.

The Argentinian context, and in particular, Solaris, represents a challenging environment for secondary school English language teachers (see Sections 6.1.1; 6.1.2). Within such surroundings, the teachers attempt to maintain a degree of stability for their motivational complex systems by mitigating the worst of said challenges whilst extracting gains from any positive influences (see Sections 6.1.2; 6.1.4). As has been previously noted, attractor states are considered to be dynamic in nature, and a wide range of positive and negative influences have the potential to trigger a state shift, resulting in changes to teaching motivation levels. What follows, is an attempt to provide a more detailed description of the context at the inception of the 2016 academic year, and in doing so, to establish a map of the state space.

6.1 What are the specific features of Solaris which are liable to affect the teaching motivation of the English teachers?

Having previously examined levels of teaching motivation in Solaris (see Chapter 5), we now turn our attention to the factors which might influence said levels. In doing so, it is hoped that a clearer understanding of the intricacies of the state space in Solaris may be formed. One net result is the reader may become more conversant with the specific initial conditions which have the potential to inspire state shifts in the motivational complex systems of the teachers. An exploration of the negatives is first provided, for the sole reason that this reflects the order in which the participants tended to formulate their responses. This will be followed by a brief
discussion in order to interpret their relevance and meaning. Next, the positive influences will be presented and once again, a brief discussion will be offered. Finally, I will attempt to draw both sets of findings together and position them in response to the second research question.

6.1.1 Initial conditions of the state space: Negative influences.

6.1.1.1 Students.

Issues of student motivation with language learning are inextricably intertwined with teacher motivation and the problem of student engagement was often raised as a concern by many within the local education system. Along with day to day classroom engagement, a wider lack of progress in language acquisition was additionally noted with regularity, as were consistent student behavioural and disciplinary issues. These three have been grouped together as there are complex inter-related cause and effect relationships between them which are beyond the constraints of the data and this investigation. As such, no further comment will be made as to such relationships. Nonetheless, it is evident that the students in each class do have the potential to impact on levels of teaching motivation.

In Solaris, student motivation tends to progressively diminish over time, with many of the teachers recognising that students are often highly motivated to begin their English language learning journey. Alice comments that, “whenever you have new students in front of you, when you start teaching, they are already eager to learn English because they all want to learn English and to speak the language, but nobody wants to do the hard job” (AIPC/30/03/16). She proceeds to offer further details:

I always say, [...] “What do you want to do with the English language?” and they are like, “Understand films and understand music.” most of them. And this is very much it [...] and when they don’t reach that point like, immediately, they get annoyed, they get bored, and they don’t find it interesting and so, that is the hard part of being a teacher.

(Extract 6.1, AIPC/30/03/16)

What can be seen here is an acknowledgement that something is going wrong within the current secondary school system, with teachers unable to arrest declining levels of motivation to learn English as the students progress through the state school
system. Alice further reflected ruefully on the types of gains that are typically seen in English language acquisition:

If you think about it, it’s amazing, students in Argentina have five years of English, yes? Six now because secondary school now is six years. And they end up secondary school without speaking a word. They do. They cannot speak fluently in the English language. The farthest they get, if they do, is the past simple, uhm... if you’re lucky [laughing wryly].

(Extract 6.2, AIPC/30/03/16)

For Alice, with her decades of teaching experience, it was clear that she found this to be a dispiriting aspect of her chosen career when contrasted with the potential gains that could be possible (Extract 5.6). Moreover, it may hint at a more widespread demotivational facet of the teaching experience in Solaris.

Such low levels of attainment were commented on frequently across the 2016 academic year, with my own experiences additionally validating the teachers’ concerns from early in the year. When shadowing one of Rae’s classes, I was surprised to find her sixth year students struggling to create grammatically simple sentence structures on familiar topics. I observed that:

After 25 minutes, the students are still working on the first task, which is to write some sentences about themselves. This is proving to be considerably more challenging for all of them than perhaps might be expected. These students have had at least five years of English language classes, after which even those that struggle might be able to begin producing a few basic sentences. From my other observations of varying ages and schools, this particular task is a fairly regular feature in the first month of each school year. As such, many of these students will have been asked to do this same task in previous years.

(Extract 6.3, RaSFN/03/16)

It should perhaps be noted that the requirements of the task were not more complex than the building blocks of a present simple sentence, e.g. I like music. Nevertheless, many of the students were unable to produce anything, despite collaborating with their friends. I recognise that there are other possible explanations for this lack of output, though having observed the class, I feel this instance was more likely the
result of a genuine lack of ability. Gwen also noted problems with progress in English for students in the state school system:

They don't really learn to communicate in English, they just cover the basics so they don't find it that interesting because a language is a tool for communication, and they can't get to that point where they can actually communicate. It's hard for them to find, to find it interesting.

(Extract 6.4, FGPC/14/11/15)

Santiago agreed and further suggested that the issue may run much deeper than just the English language, “it is a real concern to me the low interest these children showed along last year, not only in school subjects in general, but also in developing new skills and a pro-active and helpful attitude” (SaRJ/19/03/16). Here, Santiago touches on more widespread systemic problems within the community and hints at the disciplinary issues which many of the teachers face.

With regard to such behavioural challenges, Mary offers a typical example while expressing her frustration:

They put the music very loud, they talk all the time, er, you couldn’t say a word because they don’t listen to you, you start shouting and you are out of ear. You get stressed [starts laughing] eh, and you are not teaching, you are [pause] you are putting the points how they have to behave, and you are not teaching anything. That’s not teaching

(Extract 6.5, MaPC/15/04/16).

Gwen was in agreement with this, having also experienced issues with student behaviour, offering a recent example, “when I asked them to get together in groups, they spent so much time arguing and moving around that by the time they were all sitting down again and relatively settled, we only had a few minutes left.”

(GwRJ/19/03/16). Moreover, Alice had experienced similar obstructive behaviour:
For example, that always happened to me, I always start the lesson with “Hello” or “Good morning. What day is it today? Well today we’re going to do this and that” and they’re like, “NO TE ENTIENDO NADA”, “Yeah, I know. I know you haven’t understood but I’m going to tell you in Spanish later.” And I always do that, “OK, don’t worry. Now, please open your books, yes, open your books, yes, please open.” I mime it of course first and if I see that they don’t get it, I say, “Can you open (then repeats but in Spanish), yes?” and so, and then they do. But if like, it’s like they get like, kind of blocked and they don’t want to and, because if I’m miming open (mimes opening a book) yes, you know it’s like, easy to understand but they still be like, “I don’t understand what you’re saying.” “Well, look at me, yes, and try to.” I always tell them, “Try (said imploringly). Try! Because if not, it’s impossible.” […] And so, but I feel that they get annoyed and frustrated […] they sit back and they’re like, throwing things away because they cannot understand.

(Extract 6.6, AIPC/30/03/16)

Students expressing their frustrations through extremes of behaviour is not uncommon as it transpired. Mary explains, “sometimes the kids get very angry and start to shouting to you. Eh, there are situations where the, the kid, one kid want to hit me” (MaPC/15/04/16). Unfortunately, these were not the only examples of teachers receiving verbal and physical intimidation whilst in the classroom. Through the selected examples here, a picture begins to emerge of persistent behavioural issues which present challenges beyond those a teacher might reasonably expect from a typical teenage classroom. Moreover, such poor student discipline can also be considered in terms of its impact on the learning potential of the other students in their class. As such, the ramifications for both teachers and students could be considered significant.

However, not all behaviour issues are so extreme and the lack of engagement in the classroom can manifest itself in less confrontational ways. I noticed an interesting example of this while observing Rae:
There’s an interesting dynamic in the room. The students clearly have a good relationship with Rae and are comfortable, warm and friendly around her.

There is an established rapport between them. At the same time, there’s a passivity about the way they approach the class, a kind of a disinterested resistance to the lesson. They will happily engage with Rae in Spanish and chat in an informal manner. However, as soon as she tries to steer them towards an activity, they transform into a flat and listless entity, though this does not seem to be a deliberately antagonistic move. What does that kind of change to passive resistance do to a teacher’s motivation?

(Extract 6.7, RaSFN/03/16)

As my field notes show, the students were able to operate on two very distinct levels. The first level of engagement was as social equals with Rae, during which they were eager to share their lives and to learn about hers. Given that these students were at least seventeen years old, this seemed less of a traditional classroom dynamic, as all involved were members of the small-town community. With the students in their final year, there was a sense that this was a transitional stage in the inter-personal relationships between teacher and students. The second level of engagement was more consistent with Gwen’s experience (see p. 103), as the students presented a wall of passive resistance against the teacher’s attempts to engage them in the studying of English. The result of both was an inability of the teacher to build momentum within the only English lesson the students would receive that week. For me, there was a palpable sense of time ebbing away while very little of pedagogical value could be achieved. This dynamic was one that I would see repeated in many classes, of all ages, over the course of the year.

By way of summarising the disciplinary challenges faced by the teachers, I offer the final word to Alice, who had much to offer on this particular subject:

I think it is ahm, it’s really challenging, the, I think the main bad point we’ve got here, and I guess it is in most secondary schools, is that we have to deal a lot with matters that are not related to teaching the language itself, yes? When you enter the classroom, not in every school and not in every courses that I’ve had, but usually you have to deal a lot with er, behaviourism, with rules in the classroom, with erm, making them er like er, really struggling
I should note that I do not attempt to position these as issues that do not occur in secondary school language classrooms outside of Solaris. Nevertheless, they represent a significant barrier to teaching for many within the community and as such, I believe that they represent a genuine threat to their levels of teaching motivation.

6.1.1.2 Value of English.

A further initial condition within the state space of teaching motivation in Solaris is the lack of relevance and importance that is given to English language tuition. Adam comments regarding the validity of grades, which is an issue affecting both teachers and students:

We are lying to our students. I remember one of the students at the teacher trainee course saying-, because I asked them, “How are you doing with the English? With this English career? With this teacher trainee course?” They say, “I’m very sad because, at school, in English, I had nine and ten, and I thought that I was very good at English, but it was all a lie.” That is very hard to listen to. And it hurts, if you really love what you do, that is, teaching. But I think we are letting down, as an educational system, to our students. Because they think they are good, and they are not good.

(Extract 6.9, AdPC/12/11/16)

As it transpired, inaccurate assessments of ability are quite common, as Sonya discovered upon acquiring a new class for the 2016 year. My field notes from our first day of shadowing note:
Sonya tells me she is unhappy as their previous teacher was not fully honest about the students’ levels of ability and they are much weaker than she was expecting. From what I have been told, this is not an unusual discovery when taking over a new class. Is this the reason she has been so apparently demotivated?

(Extract 6.10, SoSFN/03/16)

In an attempt to provide an explanation, Amber describes where she locates the root of the problem:

Students are not motivated to pass – because they always pass – even if they don’t study. They get so many opportunities for passing that it’s not necessary for them to study. [...] So, at some time in their, their school life, they will be faced with this thing that they, they, they could have to re-attend the year. But they don’t care because one way or another, they, they can sort it out...without hard work, without study, for example, we don’t have exams like your GCSE or you’re a-levels so they don’t know what an exam is, you see. Ehmm, so, that, I think we need to change that. [...] kids don’t have any, any motivation to pass or to, to to, it’s like, they are doing it anyway. [...] I don’t know if you really get what I mean, it’s erm, like, you study a lot? OK, you get a ten. You don’t study, you get maybe a six, and then you pass anyway. And that’s it, the only motivation is that you got, for you is that you got a ten but that is nothing, nothing.

(Extract 6.11, AmPC/11/03/16)

As such, these teachers operate within an environment where grades are often not truly representative of student achievement, something which appears to offer little for the more hard-working students, or their teachers. Mary provides an example of how this can impact on her ability to teach:

MARY Sometimes they don’t want to listen to you because they don’t care because it’s easier to get to the end, not passing. It’s easier. They say, “I don’t want to sit”, “I don’t want to do an activity”, “I don’t want to do anything because I come during the summer and the teacher bring maté, bring cookies and I sit and I pass”. Do you understand what I mean?
Here, Mary is referring to the period between school years which falls in the summer. Students who have failed to successfully complete the year are given the opportunity to complete any missing work and are provided with an additional number of chances to pass an exam and successfully complete the year. The content of these remedial courses and their exams are designed individually by the teacher, who is generally not the student’s English tutor from the year in question. As such, there may not always be a direct link between the problem areas within the academic year and the contents of summer classes or exams. In addition to this, the schools may exert pressure on these teachers to ensure all the students pass so they may progress with the rest of their group to the next school year. A number of teachers raised this issue as a compounding factor resulting in further disparities in levels of ability as the students move through each year. Moreover, many students who pass via summer school classes become emboldened by its less demanding content and enter the next school year with yet further reduced interest in the need to study as a result of this experience. In this sense, the process may be unwittingly encouraging students to disengage from the struggle of learning the language and devaluing the effort of the teachers.

In addition to the above, other potential threats exist to the status and relevance of English in Solaris. Some of these are systemic, with Gwen pointing out that, “you have too little time with them, only three hours per week, which I think is very little” (FGPC/14/11/15). Here she is noting that English teachers have fewer hours in class with their students compared with the core subject teachers, i.e. 3 instead of 5
periods per week (as previously noted in Section 2.2). Rae adds that at some schools, the academic management team are explicit in their view that English is of lower priority. She states that, “principal don’t take care so much about the subject. They care more about math or language or biology [...] they think they’re more important than English” (FGPC/14/11/15). An argument might be made that within this lies an unpalatable message for the English teachers, i.e. that their work may never be valued in the same manner as other subject teachers.

Furthermore, an additional degree of ambivalence to learning English can be found more widely. A combination of the previously noted teenage disinterest in school (see Section 6.1.1.1) and the remote location of Solaris combine to challenge the relevance of the language to the students’ lives. Shortly after arriving in Solaris, in late 2015, I questioned this in my research journal:

What use do people have for the English language? What motivation could there be for them to put in the hours of effort to study it, whether at school or otherwise. And even if they did, where and when could they use this skill? Is the internet enough of a potential draw for kids? American culture e.g. films and music etc.? Certainly, in a Gardnerian sense, there is little in the way of an integrative orientation. As Dörnyei and others have said, exactly with whom are they supposed to integrate? This does raise an interesting set of questions that might resonate in a wider sense with regard to remote locations and compulsory language tuition. Is it harder to motivate students in such scenarios and do the teachers therefore have to be more motivating? How does a teacher exhibit motivated teaching behaviour in such situations? Especially if their remuneration and working conditions are not great. This will need more thought.

(Extract 6.13, SNRJ/09/15)

As can be seen, after a limited amount of time in the town, it was already evident that there might be challenges for the teachers to motivate their students, and additionally, themselves.

Echoing my own reflections, the teachers raised this issue independently. Mary spoke of the difficulty in encouraging her students, “they are reluctant to, to the English because they say, ‘I will never use it.’ ‘I don’t want to study English; I don’t want to say anything’” (MaPC/15/04/16). Gwen additionally spoke of her struggle
as a trainee teacher, “I’ve had this complaint from students like, ‘It’s so boring, this subject’ and, ‘I’m never going to use it’ and that of course makes, it starts you thinking of ‘OK, what should I do?’” (FGPC/14/11/15). It may be worth additionally considering whether an early career teacher could find such threats to their developing sense of professional identity to be even more destabilising. As a more experienced teacher, Santiago highlighted the added layer of difficulty inherent in the Latin American context:

Kids don’t even listen to English songs so it’s hard to get any exposure to the language outside the classroom. Understandable perhaps when so much of their media comes from either Spain, Mexico, or other Latin American countries.

(Extract 6.14, SNRJ/11/15)

Naturally, a secondary question arose as to whether the local heritage language or another alternative to English might be more readily accepted, given the problematic nature of Argentina’s previous relationships with the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In a focus group interview the teachers discussed why their students felt English was not relevant for them so therefore, lacked motivation for learning:

BEN The students I mean, always trying to find an excuse not to study,

GWEN, RAE & SANTIAGO {audible agreement from each}

BEN So {drawn out}, if it were Mapuche instead of English, they would have found any excuse for not studying...

GWEN Why don’t we study English! {group laughter and agreement}

RAE YES!

SANTIAGO That's right.

(Extract 6.15, FGPC/14/11/15)

Whilst this may absolve the English language from being the ultimate root of the problem, it does not reduce the scale of the challenge itself. The issue of perceived relevance remains multi-faceted, with teachers facing a variety of threats to their
teaching motivation. Such problems must be overcome if the English teachers in Solaris are to maintain their motivational balance.

6.1.1.3 Environmental factors.

Within the town of Solaris, there are a total of eight public secondary schools, though one of these (school 44) has administrative links to the church. The remaining seven are wholly administered and funded by the provincial Ministerio. Whilst one might assume that such a small remote community might be more homogenous, each of the schools exhibits distinct characteristics (as indicated in Section 2.2), with some of these differences being driven by the socio-demographics of the students. Inter-school variation has been previously documented in the work of Filmus & Kaplan (2012, cited in Banegas, 2014), who identified significant differences in the education system at both school and university levels. This has resulted in networks of schools wherein some share only the ages of the students, hours of instruction, and core subjects in the first three years of the secondary curriculum (after which elective groups of subjects are chosen for the remaining years of study). It is perhaps worth noting that this is not simply a matter of individual school identity manifesting itself. Instead, disparities may be observed in areas of tuition and administration, along with the broader profile of the student body, such as socio-economic background. When questioned on this, Rae exclaimed, “they are so different” (RaPC/22/04/16). By way of example, one institution which operates as a technical school requires the students to take part in afternoon workshops after the morning classes have been completed. Whilst the others only schedule secondary classes in the morning, in this particular school, the students are occupied for the full day and Ben comments on the students at this particular school:

I feel that the profile of the students is totally different in that, and they are really different. [...] they are so hardworking and you say, “OK, I can teach them anything and they will do it.” And I will ask them anything and they will do it. And they don’t even question when I ask.

(Extract 6.16, BePC/19/10/16).

In other schools, social care needs are foregrounded due to the disadvantaged backgrounds of many within the student body. As such, the school is considered a place of refuge where education is but one of the objectives, and not always the primary. Santiago notes that the students at one institution were “very conflicted
with real trouble behind them as a background” (SaPC/29/11/16). Ben additionally offers his own experience with some of the schools:

There is another school, it’s a medium school, you know 78? And it’s not so big but not so small either, and that case, teachers eh, head, the headmasters are really, they are concerned about the quality. But, they are more concerned about the eh, students not being, or, being included in the school, spending time in the school [...] not learning, it’s like learning, their education is uhm, eh, a second, a secondary matter I mean, for them it’s, they try, it’s more important for them to keep that student in the school, in the school system. There are students with a lot of social problems {pause} of any type, of problem, any kind of problem. And they have to be in school, inside a school, and that’s what is more important for them. That’s why the point of view there is different. See, I work in three schools and they are very different realities. I don’t get much support in, in wha, in this medium school because of, well, classrooms, they are overcrowded but the education is not their main goal and that’s why.

(Extract 6.17, FGPC/14/11/15)

Some of these differences were apparent soon after my initial arrival in 2015, when I recorded some first impressions of the schools, “one is quite new and has good facilities, one has a reputation as having more problematic’ students, one was ranked very highly but has dropped a few places this year” (SNRJ/10/15). Amber describes the differences at school 44:

I can speak English all the time in most of the classes. That, I don’t think that happens in all the other schools. Or maybe hmmmm, I don’t know, I have er, 2 or 3 rooms where I can resort to if I need a projector or something, (unclear). Today we are having classes in the SUM because we are going to do something different or, I don’t know. That is what I see different from other schools but, again, I’ve never worked in another school so... [...] It’s, we are kind of a family, we are trying to. And er... the economic level of the school is also positive because you ask for a set of
photocopies for a book, whatever, and students have it. That's another thing, I don't know public schools but from what I hear from other teachers, the kids never have their photocopies, just to give you an example.

(Extract 6.18, AmPC/11/03/16)

Even with her limited knowledge of the other seven secondary schools, Amber is quite clear about the advantages of her school in comparison. In addition to this, I noted in my research journal (SNRJ/02/16) that English lessons are divided into higher and lower levels at school 44. This is only school in Solaris which divides students by level for any subject. Furthermore, the students aim to take the Cambridge First Certificate in English exam (B2 within the Common European Framework of Reference for languages, or CEFR) by the end of their final school year, though some will have already achieved this and will attempt the Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English instead (C1 within the CEFR). This is considerably higher than the A1 (CEFR) level which students tend to typically achieve at the other schools (Extract 6.2). However, it should also be noted that School 44 students generally receive extra-curricular private tuition at the English language institutes (private language schools) in Solaris, benefitting from highly supportive parents both in financial terms and otherwise. These factors should not be considered irrelevant to the recognisably high levels of successful language acquisition when compared to their peers within the wider state school system.

However, Amber was not the only teacher with experience of a more a more positive learning environment, with Mary laying bare the differences with Solaris:

Erm, I think that all, here in Solaris, depends on the school. Eh, at the ones that I worked, that I work, erm, at 99 (the private primary school), the parents want to, to get their students to be the best students. They want to give us homework, lot of things to study at home er, they want to, they want to, to their kids to get higher degrees. They don’t, they don’t care if they have to buy lot of books. They want their kids to study. If I, for example, in English, they buy this year three books. Two for language and one for science. And, OK their parents didn’t complain about that because they know they are going to use and it they’re going to study and they’re going to learn so they want to be er, they help this, the kids with that, with
It is worth noting a feature of teaching within the town that Mary raises here. Teachers are often placed in the position of having to fund materials for the students from their salary. Mary talks of purchasing photocopies of the course book for students so they can participate in lessons, something which I witnessed a number of teachers doing in 2016. However, this can also extend to more fundamental areas. For example, one of Gwen’s students needed glasses in order to be able to read and aside from attendance, was unable to engage in any classwork for an extended period of time until the matter could be resolved through the school. Finally, it should be recognized that these examples are often a symptom of poverty levels within the community and so parents may be prioritizing the allocation of their resources through necessity, rather than simply dismissing the need for classroom materials.

Some of the problems at secondary school are thought to begin earlier, with the primary schools, and may not be solely regarded as within the domain of secondary education. In conversation, Rae informed me that:

Students come to secondary school so poorly trained, educated and motivated because of the primary school system. Rae says that she can see the difference between groups from each primary school in her class. Some are really prepared and ready to progress while others can barely read

(Extract 6.20, SNRJ/03/16).

Whilst beginning their secondary school careers with such disadvantages cannot be ignored, this should not be construed as an abrogation of the aforementioned
influences both in secondary school and outside, once the students reach that stage of their education. Gwen is pragmatic in her acknowledgement of this, stating “there are some schools that are, I don’t know, socially more conflicted than others and that’s part of the job as well” (FGPC/14/11/15). This view was reinforced by Alice:

Many of those students have lots of family problems. [...] And yeah, usually when you ask students, they don’t tell you because I remember talking to many of them, like, “Why is it that you’re always late?”, “Why are you behaving like that?”, er, “Why haven’t you brought your book?” and they, they don’t tell you. They don’t tell you. So…that’s another problem we face in state schools.

(Extract 6.21, AIPC/30/03/16)

Rae, in her reflective journal, provided an example of the manner in which such experiences can impact on the teacher:

The group i was working, had a boy from last year, i've called {name of POT removed}, last year i discovered that the boy couldn't see well, and now this year he is in the same condition, i told her we must do sthg, if the mom doesn't send him to doctor. she said he will ask for kids rights. he lost last year because his mom didn't pay attention to our messages.. that makes me bad ,, because he is a nice boy.

(Extract 6.22, RaRJ/19/03/16)

As can be seen in Extract 6.22, such exterior factors can have a significant impact on the learning potential of the students and are not easily resolved.

For teachers in Argentina, it is usual to work at multiple schools (see Section 6.1.1.5). When asked why she works at two particular schools, which reside at opposing ends of a notional cline of economic and social status, Mary replied, “many teacher ask, ask me that because they are very different. [...] Ehh, the social reality from the students is extremely different” (MaPC/15/04/16). As has been seen, in some instances, these factors can result in significant differences in academic potential for the learners. On Santiago’s first day of shadowing, the start of the class was delayed by a presentation by the CAJ (a form of youth club). After inquiring about this late-notice interruption to the timetabled classes, I recorded in my field notes:
School 33 has often focussed more on keeping the students in school and not having them roaming the streets and getting into trouble. Classes therefore can, at times, seem to unofficially be of a lower priority and are often interrupted by activities such as these. This goes double for English classes as they are not seen to be part of the core curriculum, only receiving three periods per week. [...] Santiago tells me that the school is happy to sacrifice class time with the language lab in favour of ‘more direct forms of interaction.’

(Extract 6.23, SaSFN/03/16)

As I probed further in the coming weeks and months, a larger and more concerning picture began to emerge of the challenges faced by many of the students, ergo their teachers. Mary spoke candidly, explaining that focussing on lesson content was not always possible, confiding in me that, “we have kids with sexual abuse” (MaPC/15/04/16). Further discussion revealed the following:

We have many, many girls that get pregnant in order to get a salary. It’s terrible. [...] Yes, because our last president, Cristina, gave them salary for those girls eh, who are pregnant, who has a baby. So, we have kids, because they are kids, with fourteen, fifteen years old and they get pregnant. [...] I have students with eh, t-, sorry, they are students, there are students who are mothers of four-year old kids. So, imagine, if they are in fourth year and they have a kid of four, they became, became mother at twelve. [...] So, their level of interesting of being at school, they go there because they get the salary from the kids, the get the scholarship that they government gave it them in order to be at the school because they are mothers, but they are there, but they’re not learning. They are not learning anything.

(Extract 6.24, MaPC/15/04/16)

Whilst there are clearly much larger issues at stake here, it is worth considering for a moment what impact this might have on teaching motivation. In such classes, for many of the students in the room, there are more immediately pressing concerns and language learning aims are once again subsumed. Adam affords further insight into the challenges facing the students, their teachers, and the schools:
I think that has to do with the context the student is living in. They are beaten, they are see that their father beats their mother, very difficult things. How can you expect the student in the classroom to behave properly when he sees so much violence in his or her surrounding. [...] The problems are so different that sometimes, we don’t know what to do. [...] It’s impossible. It’s impossible because we’re not prepared. We are teachers, we are prepared to teach. Not to deal with such big problems. [...] we don’t have tools how to deal with the problems.

(Extract 6.25, AdPC/12/11/16)

It is evident from his appraisal of the situation that the schools, and teachers, may feel very much under-prepared when tasked with guiding such students. Moreover, in each case, there would also be the rest of the class, each with their own individual requirements, all of whom still need to be taught. What comes through most clearly from discussing these issues with the teachers and other stakeholders was an overwhelming sense of compassion for the students, tinged with hopelessness for the future. Perhaps this may be one of the most challenging obstacles for a teacher attempting to foster their own workplace motivational levels while working in this collection of schools, each possessing such disparate needs.

6.1.1.4 Conflict avoidance.

Perhaps inextricably linked to the issues raised in previous section (see Section 6.1.1.3) is the fragile nature of the teacher-student relationship and the manner in which that facilitates successful teaching and learning interactions. Here, I present an unusual feature of the context, wherein a natural inclination towards conflict avoidance can be observed in teacher behaviour. Given the previously highlighted issues with student discipline (see Section 6.1.1.1), it was notable that many teachers seemed reluctant to confront such behaviour, despite acknowledging its negative effects on the classroom as a learning environment. I recognise that unanswered questions exist, such as what degree of autonomy-supportive strategies would best be employed by teachers in this specific context; or what the optimal level and manner of encouragement might be for a teacher to foster more concerted studying and learning efforts. However, these are not the remit of this thesis and therefore, I
would like instead to explore the nature of this conflict avoidance. To begin, I refer to my research journal:

Teachers seem to be afraid of challenging students both in terms of the level of challenge in lessons, and classroom discipline. The scale of this is really quite surprising, and it transpires from my discussions that there may be a general feeling of being unsupported by the academic administration in this regard. Schools seemingly have no disciplinary procedures in place and if the parents are informed about bad behaviour, often they will either choose to ignore the letters or even confront the school and apportion blame there, rather than accept any degree of blame for themselves. I find this quite surprising if true, but it could help to explain why classes often feel as though the students are in control and the teachers are just asking them nicely if they wouldn’t mind considering taking part occasionally. This is not to say that an overly strict or oppressive demeanour is the answer, of course. However, I see this as a potentially major demotivating factor and at least one teacher has told me that, “All you can do is try to get along with the students and have a nice relationship with them, maybe they will work and maybe they won’t.”

(Extract 6.26, SNRJ/03/16)

As a supplement, I offer an extract from my shadowing field notes:

There is a sense that the students are well aware there will be no consequences for their choosing not to work in school. I’ve seen this a lot in the last week and it seems to affect all of the schools so far.

(Extract 6.27, BeSFN/03/16)

It is important to note that these were not isolated incidents and I had been noticing a trend among the wider teaching community. As I observed Ben teach, I began to consider whether this approach to student behaviour was not entirely coincidental and whether it might be driven by something on a conscious or nonconscious level of awareness:
There is a lot of good, positive energy in this group and it seems to be carrying Ben along through the lesson. His level of teaching motivation seems to be quite good still. In spite of one or two lapses, it has been generally higher with this group throughout the class. However, He hasn’t really faced too many challenges or threats to his motivational levels so far - largely as he appears to avoid any situations where these might arise, opting for safe routes around the room wherever possible. He has rarely, if ever, pushed students to work, or to work harder; helped the weakest students who may not understand at all; attempted to engage bored or disinterested students; or engaged in any other potentially face-threatening activity in this class. This appears to be a strategy of his as he did something similar in the first class. It will be worth looking to see if that pattern is confirmed this afternoon. Does this help him to maintain a degree of motivation throughout the day? Especially on long days such as Mondays, in which he has twelve secondary school periods in his current timetable. I also wonder whether this is something he might be consciously aware is happening at all.

(Extract 6.28, BeSFN/03/16)

This was one of the first times that such a connection had occurred to me and I believe that the ability to shadow Ben for a full teaching day of four three-period classes was instrumental in its emergence. The four classes I shadowed on the day in question occurred with differing ages of students and in two schools, with this variety helping me to noticing emerging patterns of behaviour. The opportunity to engage in such extended periods of observation is rare, even more so for it to continue across one full academic year, something which I feel was extremely beneficial in terms of gathering quality data.

Ben was not the only teacher responding in this manner and the practice was altogether more widespread. While shadowing Santiago for the first time, I observed, “not for the first time this year, I wonder if the school might be setting the bar too low for these students” (SaSFN/03/16). With this comment, I was referring to levels of expectation from the students in a range of areas, from behaviour, to level of academic challenge. I additionally noted examples of similar behaviour from other teachers. While observing Sonya in her first two shadowed classes I recorded:
I’ve noticed that teachers don’t move students around at all. They let them sit wherever they like and stay in one place all class. This is unless the students decide to get up of their own accord. I wonder if anyone has thought about this and if there is a conscious rationale for the decision, or if it might reflect one made at institutional level perhaps.

(Extract 6.29, SoSFN/03/16)

It is important to recognise that these are not intended to be seen as criticisms of the teachers, the students, or the schools. In these early observations, I was attempting to gain a sense of what might be classified as typical classroom behaviour with each of the teachers and their groups as I would be seeing them regularly. Moreover, it was fundamental that I ascertain some form of baseline for each teacher with regard to their pedagogy, personality, and motivational profile as these would form the basis from which future deviations could be identified. The latter of these involved attuning myself to look for physical or verbal clues as to changes that might be occurring under the surface related to teaching motivation. Such moments could be recorded in my field notes and then followed up with each teacher to seek further information and a form of validation.

In addition to the attuning myself to the teachers, I was struggling to diminish the intrusion of my own assumptions and prejudices as an experienced teacher. This was initially more challenging than expected and I worked hard to overcome reflexive judgements when recording field notes. It was important to try and maintain an open acceptance of the context and dispassionately allow the teachers show me the norms of teaching English in Solaris. In doing so, I became aware of an interesting and surprisingly prolific contextual learner tendency. “When they require some help, local students just repeatedly shout ‘Profé!’ as loud as they can and expect to be helped immediately. It’s like there is a sense of entitlement and they do not expect to have to wait for an answer or to struggle and discover for themselves” (BeSFN/03/16). To further contextualise this, in Solaris, students refer to their teachers as Profesor (male) or Profesora (female): the Rioplatense Spanish for teacher. This is generally reduced to Profé by learners of all ages and they will shout it over the noise of the classroom whenever they wish to attract the teacher’s attention. As an aside, it may be worth considering that such an abbreviated form might additionally indicate the degree of informality and reduced social distancing.
between teachers and students in this context. In conjunction with this, I began to consider whether this prevalent attitude might be a driver for, or reaction to, the teachers’ reticence in challenging these teenage students. In essence, could it be a symptom of something deeper.

With regard to the contextualising the ongoing interactions between teacher and students, I additionally noted that:

**Ben seems to run a class like a social club where he wanders and chats to the students, people share food and drink, and teaching/learning a language is a seemingly almost a secondary consideration. Is this telling me something about pedagogy or the importance of personal relationships here in Solaris? Or something else?**

(Extract 6.30, BeSFN/03/16).

Whilst seemingly innocuous, this observation represented a link to information I had previously been given by Estanislao, Rae, and others regarding the fundamental importance of informality and social relationships in this context. As a result, it may be necessary to foreground the importance of not simply viewing these data as the story of student disengagement and teachers prizing social relationships over academic progress. In fact, they may need to be re-interpreted as offering insight into the specifics of this local context and the parameters within which the teachers must find a way to foster learning.

Returning to more traditional student behavioural issues, Gwen offered further examples to help broaden my observations on conflict avoidant behaviour. In her very first shadowed class, a situation arose:

**There was an interesting moment with a territorial student at the start of the class. My bag had been left on a desk near the back, where it had been agreed with Gwen that I would sit. A student came in late and whilst I was at the front of the class talking to Gwen, he picked up my bag and threw it onto another desk. He then dragged the desk loudly off into the farthest corner of the room and sat with his friend. He seemed quite defensive, perhaps even slightly aggressive, about this and I noted that Gwen, although aware, chose not to acknowledge it. In itself, this was not a significant event, but it does reflect a wider practice that I have noticed in Solaris of teachers abdicating control of their classes to particular types of student. Students dictate the**
pace of lessons, and also, the seating pattern in class. This appears to happen even when it is clearly detrimental to the learning environment as a whole, and this can result in an interesting tension between competing demands of autonomy and principled pedagogy. The net result can be a more challenging classroom in which the teachers try to engage the students and utilise a range of activity types. Another result is that students do not move or interact with anyone other than their chosen cliques, unless they choose to, though such occasions tend to be social in function and not related to learning activities.

(Extract 6.31, GwSFN/03/16)

A further instance of conflict avoidance affords an example of another common occurrence in the classrooms of Solaris, where secondary school classes begin at 07:40:

I can see three students who are fast asleep at their desks, one loitering by the window, and not near their seat, and yet others trying to focus on the lesson. Gwen does not seem to notice or mind this. I'm now wondering whether there might be a conscious decision to focus only on the students who choose to participate, and to ignore the others? This seems to be a common scenario in Solaris. Is it possible that this is in some way a strategy the teachers are applying, whether knowingly or otherwise, to maintain their motivation? If so, is it a conscious or nonconscious process? How aware might a teacher be of this?

(Extract 6.32, GwSFN/03/16)

As can be seen (see Extracts 6.31; 6.32), a trend seemed to have emerged quite early on in the data collection process. As previously noted, I was cautious not to append importance to isolated examples lest they be interference from my own past experiences. However, as the year progressed, similar examples would continue to present themselves, ultimately making the pattern somewhat difficult to ignore. The final word on this section goes to Ben, who offered enlightenment as we talked during his free period on the first day of shadowing:
A very interesting conversation ensued in which Ben informed me that if the school complains to parents about the behaviour of their children, they more often than not, come to school to argue and fight on their child’s behalf – regardless of their guilt or innocence. He uses the phrase, “Parents here are over-protective of their children”. By way of example, he tells me about an art teacher at his child’s primary school who used to set the students tasks to be completed at home, such as to research an artist. She had to stop doing this as parents complained about their children being given work to do at home. He went on to say that this might well be driven by Argentinian culture as parents want to sit at home and drink maté with their children in the evening and watch TV as a family. They don’t like anything that might intrude on this. A net result of such complaints is that schools no longer attempt to instil discipline the way they used to. It tends to be seen as something which carries the potential for trouble and is not worth the time and aggravation for the school principal. As such, the academic management teams tend to defer on dealing with behavioural issues for the most part and the teachers receive little real support. I feel like I may be starting to get a better understanding of why the teachers seem so afraid of pushing the students to work harder.

(Extract 6.33, BeSFN/03/16)

It might be unwise to accept this at face value and direct all criticism at the academic management team within each school, given that the reality is likely to be more complex. However, questions arise from Ben’s experiences, such as: what this might tell us about the status of teachers within society; how that might impact on a teacher’s sense of identity in both professional and private capacities, and as members of the restricted local community. The lines in a town such as Solaris might easily become blurred and the teachers could find it more challenging to separate their professional and private identities from each other.

6.1.1.5 Timetabling.

Having explored areas of the state space specifically related to the students, attention now turns to other areas of a teacher’s complex system. We begin with issues related to timetabling that may be seen as contextually relevant. Banegas
(2011) notes that “Argentinian teachers do not usually have full-time positions” (p. 21), something which results in the need for teachers to seek employment at a number of schools in order to secure a full teaching timetable and a concomitant monthly salary. Whilst there may be advantages to such a system in terms of increased autonomy and flexibility for the teachers, there simultaneously exists an inherent degree of uncertainty, and resultant stress. As a result, a tension may be identified between these two opposing forces. At the beginning of each academic year, teachers must attempt to piece together a working timetable by competing for classes become available. The teachers explain the manner in which this process occurs:

GWEN  There's a list. You have to be on a list of teachers. Priority have also those who are qualified and have {Spanish word "punta"?}. How can we say that?
RAE  Yes {unclear}
GWEN  Have points. {All speaking over the top of each other}
RAE  They score us.
GWEN  {unclear} your degree for any hmmm other course that you have taken. You, you build your score. So, if you are at the top, you will have priority over the other teachers. And there are {unclear} people like me who have a degree but not a teaching degree so you are like, below them, and then there are people who have no degree but can speak English. Because, it comes to that when errr there are some, there is a course that has no teacher, they go through the whole process and then it gets to the bottom and {unclear} fix the timetable. {agreement from other teachers} So then you can say, OK, you, eh
SANTIAGO  Apply.
GWEN  Apply for that and then they call you if you’re on top and you say, OK, I will take that course or not.

(Extract 6.34, FGPC/14/11/15)
In addition to the start of the year, this process of applying for classes may continue throughout, as classes can be opened or closed; teaching hours retracted and transferred to colleagues; and teachers signed off work for lengthy periods of illness. Each of these represent common scenarios in Solaris, and all are liable to occur at short notice. Rae offers a personal perspective on the impact of such changes:

For me, it’s a little bit messy because I start working within a school and then they say, “OK, this group will close.”, I try to find another hours, I couldn’t find. I know that every year, we have to fight for more hours, or changes the timetables, for example, they are always changing our timetables.

(Extract 6.35, RaPC/22/04/16).

This resulting lack of financial and professional stability; unsociably long hours; and inter-school commutes with little or no time between classes, could lead to increased levels of stress. As such, timetabling issues have the potential to exert a considerable impact on the stability of teaching motivation. My research journal notes the following:

The Ministry of Education employs the teachers, but they operate as pseudo-freelancers. In practice, they create a timetable for themselves by applying to teach vacant classes that have been advertised, and this generally means dividing their teaching hours between a number of schools (four is not uncommon).

(Extract 6.36, SNRJ/09/15)

In order to clarify this further, I requested further information as to the manner in which this practice functions and Gwen replied, “there are three status: titular, interino and suplente. Most teachers are suplentes or interinos as there haven’t been any titularizaciones in years” (SNRJ/11/15). Rae supplemented this in conversation:

Suplentes is the same as a substitute or supply teacher, i.e. the most temporary in nature. Interino is someone who has those teaching hours on a less temporary basis e.g. most teachers, who apply for each of their classes at the start of the academic year. Finally, titular is permanent status, i.e. you effectively own those classes, and nobody can take them away from you. Even if you decide to let them be taught by someone else for a period
of time, whenever you wish to have them back, they are made immediately available to you.

(Extract 6.37, SNRJ/11/15)

Adopting an objective stance, one might envisage both positive and negative potential outcomes of this practice in terms of motivation. In a positive sense, a teacher has a greater degree of autonomy in selecting whether to apply for a course, or one at a particular school. The result of this could potentially be the crafting a timetable which reflects the individual preferences of the teacher. However, in practice, this is often not practically possible as the teacher can only apply for those classes which are available, and they must be at the top of the list of applicants to be awarded the decision of whether to accept the class. It is reasonable to assume each teacher requires a minimum number of classes in order to satisfy their financial commitments. As such, a teacher could find themselves in a position where they must apply for and accept classes which result in challenging timetable commitments. A further potential downside is the lack of stability inherent in being required to create a timetable each year based on available classes. Santiago experienced just such an upheaval in the first week of the 2016 academic year:

As it usually happens with non-qualified English Language teachers, we do not continue in many courses. The only course I keep is 6th year in charge of Language Laboratory, framed in a Tourist Information oriented school 33. As a result of curriculum changes, the 5th year has not got that subject anymore. Some other courses call for qualified Secondary Education teachers, while at the evening school we were told our job has finished but we will restart at the beginning of April.

(Extract 6.38, SaRJ/12/03/16)

The result of this was that Santiago was tasked with rebuilding his entire timetable apart from just one class. As with Rae, this process took some considerable time and they each had to subsist on a reduced salary until such time as they could secure further teaching hours. Gwen additionally offers an example of the uncertainty inherent in the context can have additional impacts:
In these examples, it is possible to envisage an increase in job-related stress as a result of the uncertainty and its potential impacts, both financial and otherwise. Furthermore, concerns of this nature could begin long in advance of the new academic year for a teacher regularly experiencing the annual stress. Any motivational boost which might be gained during the summer holiday could be negated by the stressful nature of the early months of the academic year, thereby creating an unwelcome state of flux in their motivational state space.

A further timetabling concern voiced by the teachers was the number of hours they needed to have in their weekly timetable in order to earn an acceptable salary. Amber encapsulates the tensions inherent in this:

**AMBER**
that is a terrible drawback for Argentinian teachers, we need to work so much that we don’t have time for teaching better. So, for, for for improvement, for hmmm, we do what we can, and some teachers don’t even want to so like, they go teach the verb to be and that’s it, because that’s what they’re supposed to teach.

**IR**
Just so I understand correctly, when you say, “we, we work so much” could you explain what that means?

**AMBER**
Long hours.

**IR**
Uuhh, and this is because?

**AMBER**
We need money, to live. If you , if you work for ex, for example, suppose I worked only at the 44 school, which would be wonderful, right? Or only at the Profesorado. That would be, I don’t know, you have the the hours I work, I don’t know how many. But if you see my timetable, it’s like eh, you...
work a lot of hours. So you don’t have, like, suppose if I
worked all morning and that would be it and I could live on
that.... Wow! I would have the whole afternoon, the
weekend, I could improve a lot. But I can’t because I need to
work in the morning, in the afternoon and in the evening. [...] 
So, and that’s a, that’s a problem with Argentinian teachers,
because you need to work at this school, that school, over
there, so you work from half past seven in the morning until
ten in the evening. [...] At the weekend, you need to rest
because you have to correct, so it’s a bit complicated.

(Extract 6.40, AmPC/11/03/16)

Here Amber refers to the fact that in Solaris, many of the schools operate as a
secondary school in the morning, a primary in the afternoon, and are then used for
adult general education or teacher training in the evenings. In addition to this, there
are a number of private language schools in the town, known as private institutes. It
is quite common for a teacher to have some, or all of these incorporated in their
weekly timetable. Ben attempts to highlight a positive in this, recognising that, “we
have to work long hours in many courses in order to get a good salary. But we can
still do it. So far, we can do it.” (FGPC/14/11/15). However, the practicalities mean
that the positives are outweighed by the negatives:

In order for it to be profitable or to work enough hours to make a living, you
need to have way too many students. Each English teacher has about, or
English high school teacher has about 300 students, between 250 and 300,
which is I think, too much because you don't really get to know each student
thoroughly.

(Extract 6.41, FGPC/14/11/15)

Not only might this have an impact on the ability a teacher has to maximise their
potential for enhancing the learning capacity of each student but here may also be
nonlinear negative impacts on their motivation (see Section 6.1.2).

However, the effects of timetabling are not restricted to student-teacher
relationships and in some cases, they can have potential repercussions on health. Ben
hints at this in the second week of the academic year:
This week I began working on two new courses on Friday, what made that
day even longer than it used to be. On one hand, I’m happy because I
stopped working with first-year students, but on the other hand as I took up
two new courses on the same day, it means that I end up my day really tired
and almost voiceless.

(Extract 6.42, BeRJ/19/03/16)

For the purposes of clarity, by the end of the year, Ben would start teaching at 07:40
on Friday mornings and finish his last class at 21:20. It is entirely possible to
envisage the potential for such a timetable to impact on his motivation to teach
before, during and after that particularly lengthy day. Gwen also had a challenging
timetable, particularly on Fridays, as she combined a full teaching timetable with her
studies. She would begin with her first class at 07:40 and teach twelve periods at
secondary school, after which she would attend classes as a trainee teacher until
23:20. Gwen records that:

My groups on Friday afternoon are challenging because they have no
breaks, so I have three hours straight with them, and I’m also quite tired
already, since Fridays I spend the whole day at school, without a chance to
get back home and disconnect at some point. This is why it’s very
important that I try to keep calm, not to raise my voice as far as possible,
since I simply won’t have the energy for shouting or getting agitated. And I
certainly don’t want to end up hoarse after a week of exerting my vocal
cords. So, I try to be aware of the tone of my voice and my state of mind at
all times, so that I can maximize the use my leftover energy. Of course, it
doesn’t always work... as I ended up annoyed with the first group. But
anyway, it takes practice and a zen approach, hopefully I’ll get there.

(Extract 6.43, GwRJ/19/03/16)

Here, we can see Gwen not only acknowledging the challenging nature of her
timetable and its impact on her motivational levels, but also the manner in which she
strategically attempts to cope and maintain a sense of balance.

In addition to the stressful and tiring nature of working such extended hours,
another unwelcome impact noted by the teachers was the lack of time this left for
planning their classes. This could be envisaged as having a significant effect on both
teaching and student motivation. Alice is explicit about the impact on the students,
stating that “if you will prepare interest, good interesting planned and sequenced classes, they do get involved. But we don’t often have that time” (AlPC/30/03/16). Gwen concurs, lamenting that she does not “have the time to prepare my classes the way I think I should [...]. And I won’t have, and I know I won’t have the time unless I use my holidays for that” (FGPC/14/11/15). What is evident is that these teachers are aware of the impact of timetabling on the quality of their teaching and are vocalising a desire for more time to devote to planning. However, they are unable to do so given the systemic constraints under which they operate. A teacher explained the ethical dilemmas inherent in this scenario:

> When you are, for example, a breadwinner, you have to decide er, shall I 
> erm, devote the precise time, the necessary time for every class or shall I 
> work a bit harder and earn more in order to support my family. OK, I, I must 
> support my family. And, so in a way you make a sacrifice, you’re sacrificing 
> sometimes an important time you should devote to your classes. And that’s 
> really erm, not the ideal thing to do but you, you must do it and you have 
> no other option. Unless you have er, a partner who has a very good salary 
> and you can, you can share the, I don’t know, you know the supporting 
> of your house, which is not my case.

(Extract 6.44, FGPC/14/11/15)

In addition to this, Amber explains the frustrations that come with such compromises:

> Sometimes, I’m too tired to be creative. Errr, I know it. I mean, it’s a 
> question of conscience but definitely, I could be more creative. I could be 
> more technological. Because I don’t know, I don’t know how to handle 
> technology. Just the basis. [...] I should study that but unfortunately, I need 
> to earn money and I need to work.

(Extract 6.45, AmPC/11/03/16)

Within these frustrations, an impact can also be seen on the ability of a teacher to challenge themselves professionally. This, in turn carries the potential for an effect on their motivational levels as lessons become mundane for both teachers and students. Alice outlines the reality of this:
First of all, we usually have to follow our course book, which is supposed to be just a guide, and if you take it as that, well then things change. Errr, the problem is that usually you work many hours in many different schools and you have a lot of courses and a lots of students. So, the easiest thing to do is to follow the book.... which is usually not really interesting for students. [...] Uhm, what I see a lot is that, as I said, many many teachers just go there, because you know we have a certain amount of hours we can have, it’s like forty hours, and there are teachers who have forty or even more. And I always say, “And when do you prepare your classes?” , “And when do you have time to check?”, “And when do you have time to prepare flashcards and posters and labels and....” No time for that. The truth is that they have no time for that so they just go there, and I’ve seen that.

(Extract 6.46, AIPC/30/03/16)

In doing so, Alice succinctly encapsulates the inherent problems with such a teaching load, which is additionally spread across so many hours in the week. It has the potential to allow room for nothing else, whether professional or private.

Having examined some of the impacts of timetabling, one context specific variable remains. Adam explains, “Yes. It’s a lot. We have to work a lot. We are called Profesores Taxi, taxi teachers, because we have to go from one school to the other. At least in secondary schools.” (AdPC/12/11/16). My research journal records the following explanation:

They call them Profesor Taxi as teachers find themselves having to finish one class, leave the school and travel to their next school for their subsequent class. It is not uncommon for this to take place even when the two classes follow each other with no break in between. One by-product of this rushing to and fro may be that there is very little real sense of community among the teachers in each school, and they could find it hard to really feel part of each institution. I wonder if this is something that may be a benefit of participation in my study – they might gain a sense of shared ownership by virtue of a shared experience that binds them together.

(Extract 6.47, SNRJ/09/15)
As can be seen, this is a phenomenon that the teachers try to avoid wherever possible, as they discussed in their focus group interview:

RAE - We call them taxi teachers-
SANTIAGO {laughs}
RAE - Because we are, you are looking {looks at watch} “Oh, quickly, I must go to the other side of the city”. Yes, one you start there and then you must go to the other side.
BEN And you know that you are already late to your next class, it's really stressful.
SANTIAGO mmmmm.
BEN I have managed to avoid that this year but it's really stressful when you have to move from one school to the other in a very short period.
RAE Ten minutes.
BEN Sometimes, we have to make that in no time, I had to be from 88 to this school-
RAE - You ask, “Can I go earlier and five minutes later”-
BEN - Yes. By the time you arrive here, you have already lost ten minutes-
GWEN Mmmmm.
BEN - in an hour and forty minutes.

(Extract 6.48, FGPC/14/11/15)

As Extract 6.48 shows, the teachers are aware of the increased levels of stress that such a rush can carry in addition to the impact on the students’ class time. Given that schools tend to timetable all three of the teaching hours in one weekly class, any lost time cannot be recovered in a subsequent lesson within the week. I was able to experience a glimpse at the stressful nature of the rush between classes whilst shadowing Gwen:

At the end of the class, we have to move to the next group but there is no scheduled break and the classes are timetabled to end/begin immediately.

We quickly collect up all of Gwen’s things and carry them between the
It is worth noting that this was a relatively simple move between classes as the rooms were next door to each other on the same corridor, within one school. It is not difficult to imagine how much greater the impact could have been if it were necessary to travel to another location within the town, and if the teacher does not drive (see Appendix J for a map of school locations). An additional, and easily overlooked issue encountered when travelling between school premises without a car is the impact of the weather, in particular, wind, rain and snow. This type of stressful rush is something that the teachers are aware of and attempt to avoid whenever possible, as their timetabling options permit, though this is not always an option. Santiago recognises this:

**SANTIAGO** This year, I’m not having classes in a continuum? Eh, throughout all the day. Er, I mean, having three or four classes er, so-

**BEN** -In a row-

**SANTIAGO** -In, in a row, during the morning or during the er, the afternoon or the evening. So, I feel more comfortable to eh, to come to a classroom and eh, and, eh, feel {laughs} feel motivated-
When considering the initial conditions of the state space for English teachers in Solaris, it is clear that one should not ignore the plethora of impacts that timetabling can have on each individual, and their teaching motivation. Such threats may arise from a range of directions and the nonlinear effects of an accumulation might go far beyond that which is predicted.

6.1.1.6 Support and isolation.

The academic management team in Solaris is similar to that in many schools, i.e. principals, vice-principals and secretaries, though more than one of each is common. In the secondary schools, situated below this level, sit the preceptores and the Profesor de Orientación y Tutoría, with the latter usually referred to by the acronym POT. In theory, these positions operate on the same level as the teachers within the school hierarchy and ideally form a cohesive network through which the education and pastoral care of the students is ensured. However, the roles and duties of the positions are not clearly defined or commonly understood, leading to confusion and disagreement as to which position is afforded the final decision in instances where differences in professional opinion arise. Adam, in his role of Supervisor is able to outline the duties and responsibilities of the preceptores:

ADAM The preceptor guides the-, that’s their responsibility, they guide the books, they write the reports, they complete the marks for the students. That’s their job. And they have to check during the breaks, yes? If they behave properly. If they don’t run away from the school. That is their job. The POT

IR But during class time they have no-

ADAM In class time, they have to be in their office completing, I don’t know, the reports, receiving parents if they have problems at school. That’s their job.
Whilst this may seem perfectly clear, the situation becomes a little less so when the position of POT is introduced. Mary explains:

The Preceptor is the person who is in charge of taking care of the kids during the break, taking the attendance eh, taking all their marks in order, calling if the person doesn’t go to school. But the POT is the one who help them with any social problem that they have at home, or at school, or whatever. [...] So the POT is more involved with their social life, with their personal life. Is in charge of talking with their families eh, trying always to bring the kids to the school, to be always present.

(Extract 6.52, MaPC/15/04/16)

It seems that both the preceptores and POTs appear to have some degree of responsibility for liaising with the parents of students, something which could allow for errors, omissions, or duplications if not careful. However, Adam unifies the roles within the school by summing up a core professional objective, “The POTs, the preceptores, the head-, they all have to work together in order to help the teacher in the classroom” (AdPC/12/11/16). Whilst there may be room for misunderstanding with the specifics, the overarching aim of these positions appears to be unequivocal. There is a system in place to provide a network of support for the teachers and to alleviate some of the pressures that may be present in the position. However, in spite of such admirable intentions, Mary highlights a problem:

(Extract 6.53, MaPC/15/04/16)
Mary recognises the necessity of employing non-pedagogically trained and experienced staff into these positions due to the lack of suitably qualified individuals. Nevertheless, such a lack of relevant training and experience increases the risk of their failing to be maximally effective for either the students or the teachers. One could envisage a scenario where skills and experiences gained outside of secondary school teaching could be of genuine use, such as a background in psychology or perhaps nursing, amongst others. However, this lack of direct school-based experience does bring the potential for misunderstanding, miscommunication, and even conflict should the opposite occur. Importantly, in a context where teachers are often not integrated well into the schools by virtue of their timetables, such problems may result in feeling unsupported and even isolated from any support network whatsoever. For the teachers, this unwelcome prospect is something many have experienced first-hand. Alice recounts having mixed results when working with the preceptores:

In that last school where I was working, I liked one of the counsellors but with the other counsellor, we had very different er, ways of seeing things and different opinions and perspectives as regards to education so er, we never agreed much on what we were supposed uh, to do.

(Extract 6.54, AIPC/30/03/16)

Alice very much viewed this as a missed opportunity for collaboration which could have been beneficial for the students in her classes, through the creation of a better learning environment. Sadly, in this instance, it did not come to pass.

In addition to the role of preceptores, there are the POTs, and Adam once again provides some illuminating detail:

**ADAM** Then we have the POT That is a pedagogical job. The POT has to be with the teacher inside the classroom, but they don’t do it. They don’t do it. We have observed, or I have observed, that many teachers who apply for the POT position, it’s because they want to run away from the classroom. And, but they are very young people, that is very-, because they have just started and it’s-, we cannot believe that they run away from the-
As can be seen, the situation for the English teachers looks bleak and this effectively rules out most assistance from the POTs. Even if they were willing to make themselves available to the teachers, as Adam points out, they cannot help with English as a result of the language barrier. In this regard, they are perhaps an example of the manifold ways in which the English teachers find themselves marginalised and isolated from day-to-day school life. Adam goes further and underlines the dysfunctional nature of the system more generally, stating that, “the preceptores also have to work together with the POT They should but they don’t do it” (AdPC/12/11/16). At this point, systemic issues appear to be quite widespread and there may be deeper seated problems within the schools for more than just the English teachers. It should be noted that these wider issues are not isolated instances, being noticeable to me, as an outsider, as early as the first month of the academic year:

POTs, preceptors, co-ordinators, secretaries, vice-principals, principals, and supervisors. That seems like quite a lot of people to administer a limited number of teachers in a small district. It also seems that that the roles are
not well defined and so everyone feels it might/should be someone else’s job to do things. As a result, they don’t necessarily get done and at the end of this are the teachers and the students who have nowhere to hide from the after-effects.

(Extract 6.56, SNRJ/03/16)

A picture is starting to emerge of English teachers finding themselves treated differently to their peers. We begin to see the degree to which English teachers become othered within the school system. Okolie (2003) notes that notions of group identity are both self-formed and projected upon the group, with othering in this instance being a co-constructed reality for the English language teachers. Not only does their subject occupy a position outside of the core subject group but the English teachers are also unable to make full use of any existing support networks. This matter arose in the focus group interview with the core-participants:

**SANTIAGO** English teachers, at least here in Solaris, that we haven’t 
{pause} ehhhh, think we might be considered a bit slow-
{SANTIAGO laughs}{others laugh}-because, because, we, we, we, haven’t got to erm, the point err to agree that we should be accompanied er at, er in our classes with other erm teacher, assistant teacher as is er indeed happens with other subjects-
{some talking over the top of each other, mostly false starts rather than whole utterances}

**RAE** I only work once-

**SANTIAGO** We, you are alway, you are always alone-

**BEN** -in class-

**SANTIAGO** -with erm, er, special particular subject, which er-

**RAE** -In some schools, {unclear}, errr, we have another teacher that works with you but sometimes.

**SANTIAGO** Maths has usually an assistant, an assistant teacher err-

**BEN** -And the-
SANTIAGO - and the grammar, sometimes they get an assistant teacher because it is necessary, you have crowded groups, as BEN said, has said eh-
RAE -And the POTs-
BEN -The POTs-
SANTIAGO -The POTs-
RAE -never come to our classes [...] because they say they don’t have time, they don’t understand the language, so...-
GWEN -Yes-
{other false starts}
GWEN -I think you have to {unclear} because English feels like a barrier-
RAE -Yes-
GWEN -barrier-
SANTIAGO -Yes, that is right-
GWEN -from the rest of the school staff because if they don’t know English, they-
RAE -They don’t know English!
GWEN -so you are always alone.
SANTIAGO -And having crowded eh, groups, crowded classrooms where you will always have some in trouble children eh, it would be very nice having a kind of assistant eh, that can help you to, to accompany for a minute, one to the other-
RAE -Because you have so different levels inside the class. That sometimes you need another an, another teacher with you. It’s so difficult to teach when you have, for example, 35 students and they are quarrelling, they, you are like a referee.

(Extract 6.57, FGPC/14/11/15)

One consequence of this othering of the English teachers is they develop feelings of isolation from the academic and pedagogical community and support systems. Alice offers an example of how this manifests itself from her personal perspective:
It seems evident the predicted levels of separation from the norms of school life do indeed exist with this cohort of teachers.

However, these are not the only ways in which teachers feel isolated and unsupported. As has been hinted at already, an inherent danger in an education system which requires teachers to split their weekly timetables across multiple schools is that they are likely to feel less integrated with each of the institutions in which they work. This could be compounded if other features of the context additionally serve to amplify such feelings of isolation. In Solaris, the data indicate this may in fact be the case. Adam offers an explanation as to why teachers do not receive more support from the academic management team:

They don’t have time because we ask them so many things because we are asked from the Ministry of Education. And they have lots of problems, students who have problems at school, who have problems with their parents, who are being beaten by their girlfriends/boyfriends, who are being raped by their fathers, we have a lot of problems at school. And they have to be in charge of that and they don’t have time to go to the classroom. Some sub-heads do it, because they are organised better. I think that they don’t trust in the work in other parts of the team, that is why the headmasters, or mistresses, they want to do everything. But they can’t, it’s impossible.

(Extract 6.59, AdPC/12/11/16)

Once again, there is evidence that Solaris presents the schools with a significant number of challenges, some of which can be quite extreme, and such societal issues
are beyond the remit of this thesis. In addition to a lack of ongoing support as has been outlined, there also appear to be no systems in place with regard to behavioural issues. While shadowing Ben, I asked about this:

During the break, I ask Ben about procedure for discipline within the schools here as I am intrigued by what I have seen in the schools. He tells me that there really isn’t anything. Teachers can try to contact the parents of a student if they are experiencing problems. They can also write in the student’s book to record bad behaviour but there is no official procedure or support from the schools at all. Teachers just try to maintain a good relationship with the students. Not for the first or last time, I am struck by how this importance of good relationships may be intertwined with the reality of living in a small town where they will meet their ex-students for many years to come as they all go about their lives in close proximity.

(Extract 6.60, BeSFN/03/16)

Ben is suggesting that teachers do have a small number of options available, but they must take the initiative and act alone. One flaw with this level of autonomy is that it can create a lack of clarity and consistency as teachers set their own levels of acceptable behaviour. Another may be that some of the courses of action indicated by Ben appear to fall under the duties and responsibilities of other members of staff i.e. preceptores or POTs. Alice recounts an example where she sought help from the school to deal with a problem student in order to enforce the school rules, and received no support:

I realised that I was the only one doing that there. Uhm, and that was one of the situation where I also felt kind of stupid because I said, “I am the only one doing this kind of things in this school.”

(Extract 6.61, AIPC/30/03/16)

Alice goes further and offers another example that may be relevant to this discussion. In this recollection, it can be seen that despite there being staff on hand, e.g. POTs and preceptores, teachers remain unsupported and undermined when struggling with problem student behaviour:
I remember once I didn’t allow some students to get in because it was one special girl who would always come late to my classes […] And so, then the counsellors came and I said, “No, she’s not entering my class.” The thing is that the system now doesn’t allow you to leave your students out of the classroom. If anything happens to them because you haven’t allowed them, allowed to them to get into your classroom, it’s your responsibility. Because the counsellors are not supposed to be looking after them if you do not allow them to enter the classroom. And so then you are in big trouble.

(Extract 6.62, AIPC/30/03/16)

It could rationally be argued that the POT would be the individual to assist in such an incident. However, depending on the time of day and particular school, there may not be anyone available to do so as shift patterns do not always align with lesson times. In such an example, the teacher would be left, as Alice is describing, to fend for themselves. Alice reflects on the repercussions of such encounters, stating, “and so it’s like, sometimes as a teacher when you want to set strict rules, it’s kind of difficult because you don’t have anyone to support your decisions, let’s say” (AIPC/30/03/16). It is possible that it is exactly this lack of support which feeds into the previously noted conflict avoidance behaviour (see Section 6.1.1.4).

In order to highlight the wider ramifications of this issue, Amber shows that when the relevant degree of support is in place, it can have a positive impact. Speaking specifically about school 44, she notes that, “the headmistress at school is very helpful that whatever we need, whenever we need it, it’s there for us. So, […] I feel really comfortable in the school.” (AmPC/11/03/16). Conversely, Rae demonstrates how the opposite can be true when assistance is not forthcoming:

Sometimes, there are some students, you don’t want to see them. Really. But they don’t want to study English, language, maths {unclear}. And sometimes, you ask help for the principals and they say “well, just, no, we don’t want, or can’t...” that’s my motivation changes. Not on the days, just on the courses that I must {unclear} on because I’m thinking of the students.

(Extract 6.63, FGPC/14/11/15)

It is perhaps worth noting that in this example, Rae is not only explicitly linking this to changes in her levels of teaching motivation but also acknowledging this
downturn is linked specifically to the class and would not be expected to last for a longer period (see Chapter 7 for a fuller discussion of dynamic changes in motivation). It would be difficult to ascertain whether one or the other of these twin threats to her motivation exerts a stronger force, or if the combination might be the key. However, what can be seen is that this has a recognisable and distinct negative effect on Rae, something which Amber is not experiencing in her more supportive school environment.

Furthermore, it is not only the school administration that might be considered at fault, the teachers themselves are inconsistent in maintaining consistent behavioural expectations and setting acceptable standards for student behaviour:

If you talk to the headmasters and teachers and every time you are in a meeting with other teachers we all arrange that cell phones are not allowed, they are not allowed to wear their hoods and things but then, in the classrooms they do what they want, you know? And so, you end up being like one out of ten teachers who decides to set the rules as we had decided before. Eh, and then you are the one who is in trouble and the students get really angry and they complain.

(Extract 6.64, AIPC/30/03/16)

In this regard, it seems that there is a deeper issue within education system in Solaris. Not only are the teachers feeling isolated and not part of a team within the schools due a lack of support, they are also failing to offer each other any degree of assistance or continuity with student discipline. Given that such peer support could act as a substitute for that missing at institutional level, it is possible that the apparent level of apathy may likely be an indicator of teacher demotivation.

At this point, it is pertinent to recognise that many of the above issues continue to affect teachers of all subjects. However, it remains an unfortunate reality that the English language teachers are more isolated than their colleagues:

In conversation, Ben also confirms that English teachers are in some ways outsiders within the school system. He says that all other teachers work as a group... and then there are the English teachers who do not. As such, they do not provide each other with the same levels of support.

(Extract 6.65, BeSFN/03/16)
In addition to this sense of psychological isolation for the teachers, there exists an additional physical component which may increase the severity of any feelings for the teachers. While shadowing I noted:

I’ve been in this school all day and have yet to see any of the other English teachers anywhere. I wonder if any of them are timetabled to be in today? Language teachers often seem to be isolated in this manner. This is not to say that multiple science or history teachers are in at the same time, just that language teaching pedagogy is specific and so language teachers might be more motivated in a scenario where they could share their experiences and exchange ideas together during the day, face to face.

(Extract 6.66, BeSFN/03/16)

This was not an isolated observation and as the year progressed, I realised that it was quite rare for me to see more than one English teacher in any of the schools at the same time.

In addition to a lack of integration between English teachers, interdisciplinary collaboration is also scarce, as Alice notes:

I mean every time I’ve tried to do something, I was like, yes, yes, it’s like the only ones who work together are, I don’t know, the {starts laughing} the science teacher with the, or I don’t know, the biology teacher with the chemistry teacher and that’s it. And so it’s hard to, and we always say, and I’ve been a teacher for years and they always say the same at the beginning of the year, “Oh yeah, we should articulate!” You know? It’s that famous word articulation {Spanish} and then it never happens. That’s the truth. Once you are in the classroom, you are on your own, you do what you want, nobody observes you.

(Extract 6.67, AlPC/30/03/16)

However, Alice was not the only person to report such difficulties and my research journal notes:

Interesting conversation with Estanislao yesterday, who confided that the recent attempts to integrate a more CLIL oriented syllabus is meeting with resistance from other subject teachers. This concurs with Snow, Cortés and Pron (1998), who argued this could be a source of diminishing teaching
In all of these examples, it can be seen that the teachers, particularly English teachers, seem to have become so accustomed to operating in isolation and without any degree of support that they struggle when presented with opportunities for collaborative endeavours. This also revealed itself in relation to the organisation of my fieldwork:

I don’t know why the teachers so reluctant to talk to each other. If I ask them to agree on something via the WhatsApp group, maybe one or two will respond but they do not interact, simply stating something and then disappearing. Some of them read the group thread but then reply to me privately, despite the information being not remotely confidential. In terms of a sense of community amongst peers, they almost seem to actively resist this.

In this regard, there was an inherent degree of tension between the small-town close-knit reality of Solaris, and the isolated and isolating reality of the teachers. It often seemed as though teachers felt greater solidarity and kinship with most other people in the town, than they did with those that worked in the education system.

One final feature of the isolated nature of teaching English in Solaris is the manner in which the work of the year can often find itself being undermined during the summer school period (see Section 6.1.1.2):

IR I’ve been speaking to some teachers who have um, talked about their frustrations where they spent the year with a group of students and some of the students don’t pass the year, they don’t achieve a high enough grade to pass the year and then, they’re given to another teacher in the summer school, for example, who then passes them with often a very high grade. Uhm, is that something you’ve experienced?

MARY Yes.
In this account, one can sense the potential frustration that comes with each new academic year whereupon the teacher discovers students in their classes who may be at least one year behind in their levels of ability and who have come to see the

(Extract 6.70, MaPC/15/04/16)
summer school as a method of avoiding work for the year ahead. As Mary indicates, the summer school classes are often taught by trainee teachers and there appears to be scant communication between them and their full-time peer who taught the failed students and could thus provide valuable handover information. Alice recounts her own frustrations and sense of alienation as a result of this:

**ALICE**  
And so many times I’ve got students who haven’t passed my subject and then they go to this [unclear Spanish name], where they have two week’s classes and they pass the subject.

**IR** Is this the summer school?

**ALICE** The summer school, yeah. And so, it’s so frustrating, I’ve got students who’ve been like, “You know what teacher? I have passed your subject.” and I was like, “Really, and how did that happen?” [laughs] and I said, “What did you get?”, “I’ve got a nine.”, and I was like, “How come did you get a nine? You had a three with me.” and so I said, “Can I see you, can I see your test?” and then look at the test and I was like, “But this is wrong!” Many of the answers were wrong.-

**IR** -And they’d been marked correct?

**ALICE** They had been marked correct. And so, it is clearly frustrating, and you feel like a real stupid, I mean, it’s like, “How stupid of me!” I’ve spent so much time with this kid, because I remember some of them uh, trying to explain them the importance of... and then someone comes, gives them a good mark and you are like, and they laugh at you, yes.

(Extract 6.71, AlPC/30/03/16)

As it transpired, this is not the only frustration that exists with regard to unqualified English teachers, with a degree of systemic prejudice seen at all levels.

**6.1.1.7 Institutional prejudice.**

An easily overlooked aspect, which has the potential to be an important variable within the state space of Solaris, is that of teaching qualifications. Unlike
some contexts, not all of the English teachers are qualified to teach either the subject, the age group, or often both. What this means, in effect, is that a qualified primary school teacher might find themselves applying for and being awarded teaching hours for English classes in secondary schools, despite their lack of pedagogical training. Similarly, a qualified teacher of another subject who speaks English, might find themselves teaching the language instead of their original subject. Once again, notwithstanding their dearth of language teaching pedagogical awareness. Adam, who began his teaching career without qualifications, offers an explanation:

Well, when I finished my secondary school, I started teaching English without a degree because there were not enough teachers – now we don’t have enough teachers as well – and I guess it was three years later that the career was open, so I studied.

(Extract 6.72, AdPC/12/11/16)

In this regard, Adam is far from unusual. As I discovered, it has traditionally been quite difficult to source qualified English teachers for all of the classes in Solaris. As a result, schools have been left without option but to accept available candidates who may have no background in language teaching. Adam goes on to describe the degree of severity with which this continues to affect Solaris in 2016:

We have very, very few teachers. It’s like, ten teachers in Solaris. And there are a lot of schools. But we also have problems with Spanish teachers, we also have problems with, which other?, History teachers. All the teachers with-, all the [unclear] teachers careers which are openings because we don’t have enough teachers.

(Extract 6.73, AdPC/12/11/16)

As has previously been highlighted, there were 21 secondary school English teachers working in Solaris in 2016, plus an additional six or eight teachers (see Section 4.4.1). Adam attests to just ten of those being qualified as English language teachers, though he does not remark on whether they are certified at primary or secondary level. Nevertheless, Alice informs that, “there are only three people who have the degree to be teaching in primary school, and I’m one of them” (AlPC/30/03/16). As such, it is possible that of the 21 secondary English teachers, just seven are qualified to teach the language at that level. Mary agrees with Adam and Alice:
One question which this does raise is quite why there might be such a dearth of people qualifying as English language teachers. Whereas a simplistic response could be to link this to generally low levels of English language acquisition resulting in a limited pool of potential teacher trainees, it could also be posited that the challenging nature of the context additionally serves to ensure such a career choice is perceived to be a less attractive prospect.

With regard to potential issues with language proficiency being at the heart of such low numbers of qualified teachers, Mary offers an observation:

Nowadays, here in Solaris, I think that the teacher training programme is not as difficult as the one that I did. The students got there with very low level. I er, I am not from here. I’m from (name of place removed) and there we have a preliminary test in order to start the studies. Er, and that’s was hard because you have to get the First Certificate in order to start, and we finish with Proficiency.

This might initially be dismissed as anecdotal evidence; nevertheless, Mary does posit a question as to the added degree of challenge if a trainee teacher is attempting to learn the language at the same time as studying language pedagogy. Mary was not the only teacher to mention problems with levels of English language ability in trainee teachers, though this should not be inferred as representative of my own assessments. One issue that may not have been considered is whether there might be issues with regard to a teacher’s sense of self-efficacy if they were to find themselves untrained and unsupported in the workplace. This could potentially be compounded by feelings of isolation from any sense of community of peers to whom they might turn for guidance. Furthermore, unqualified teachers may face additional struggles in dealing with the unique challenges brought by teenage learners, something which a lack of relevant pedagogical awareness could exaggerate. One possible result of this could be a greater impact on their motivation.
One unfortunate by-product of this two-tier system is that a degree of prejudice is now inherent within the system. From an institutional perspective, this can be seen in a number of ways, for example, the manner in which timetabled classes might be retained for the coming academic year:

**SANTIAGO** Teachers, unqualified teachers, stop their work at the beginning of each year eh, for these callings er, to be made. At eh (pause) and instead qualified er secondary school teachers, English teachers, eh to continue er (overlapping)

**GWEN** Yes, then you have studying teachers. If you are a qualified teacher, you have stability because once you get (pause) ahhh a course

**SANTIAGO** Yes.

(Extract 6.76, FGPC/14/11/15)

At the time of the interview, both Gwen and Santiago were classified as unqualified, though for different reasons. As such, they were both familiar with the process of having to start each new academic year with no classes, whereas their qualified peers might be offered the opportunity to retain some of their existing timetables. Given the previously noted degree of uncertainty and competition for teaching hours, this could potentially add a high degree of stress to the onset of each new school year (see Section 6.1.1.5).

In addition to these institutional prejudices, unofficial biases are also said to exist with regard to unqualified teachers. In my research journal, I recorded that, “Santiago was commenting on the way that the qualified teachers often look down on those like himself, who are part of the system of using unqualified teachers here” (SNRJ/11/15). This sentiment can manifest itself as benign concern, such as Alice, who muses, “and not being very qualified maybe, I think that is also a problem” (AIPC/30/03/16). However, it can also be seen in more combative opinions, which seem to represent a degree of territoriality and feelings of having been invaded by imposters. Fortunately, this latter extreme is not common, though it does exist and can easily be encountered. One final comment is the inconsistency in how the system relates to these unqualified teachers and allows them to be given second-class status whilst offering no opportunity to train and qualify. All this occurs in light of these individuals often having left their careers as teachers of other
subjects or age groups to answer a call by the system in desperate need of English teachers. One might posit the notion that their being marginalised at a time when new cohorts of trained teachers are qualifying each year could be considered a wasted resource that might otherwise be harnessed. A further concern would be the manner in which such lower status can only be further entrenched as the years progress. This is because unqualified teachers are unable to accrue enough teachers’ points to earn the first-choice position for more highly sought-after classes as they become available.

6.1.1.8 CPD.

The previously discussed issues with pre-service training (see Section 6.1.1.7) are mirrored by a dearth of in-service training, including a noticeable lack of classroom observation for any purpose. This coupled with the generally low level of professional challenge for the teachers in their day-to-day work, presents another salient feature of the state space for secondary school English teachers in Solaris. Alice acknowledges the importance of being observed as a regular part of the teaching calendar, stating, “it’s so constructing, or enriching for both of us. So being observed should be implemented and should be something enriching and constructing and…” (AIPC/30/03/16). In spite of this desire, the reality for Alice has been something quite different in her career thus far:

**ALICE**

> Once you are in the classroom, you are on your own, you do what you want, nobody observes you. And that’s another thing, I, I’m like, how come nobody comes to observe my classes? How do they know if I’m doing a good job or not? Er, if I’m teaching well or not? If I er, use different strategies, if I try to involve chil, er, my students, if I er, speak to them properly in a nice and friendly way, I mean, how do they know that?

**IR**

> And that’s standard across most of the schools, some of the schools, or all of the schools?

**ALICE**

> Er, I was observed only once in my life. And I’ve been teacher for more than, no twice, I’m lying. Only twice.

**IR**

> Twice in twenty years.
Whilst this might be dismissed as an isolated example, the reality was quite the opposite. Mary shares her experience:

**ALICE**  
Twice in twenty years.  
(Extract 6.77, AIPC/30/03/16)

**IR**  
When was the last time that you were observed in the classroom.

**MARY**  
{long pause} When I finish my career er, my er studies {self-correction}.

**MARY**  
So in terms of once you qualified as an English teacher, you, you’ve never been observed?

**MARY**  
Yes, [some talk of primary schools removed] Never. Never. Because they say they don’t have time or whatever. But then they say that I don’t teach in the correct way, I don’t know how if they don’t watch, er observe, my lesson. They have to observe the lesson, three times a {false starts} per year. That’s their obligation according to the Ministry.

**IR**  
I didn’t know that, I didn’t know that.

**MARY**  
Yes.

**IR**  
And yet in the secondary system-

**MARY**  
-Yes, all.

**IR**  
-you’ve never been observed?

**MARY**  
No. {this is said in a quizzical intonation as if this is such a strange idea as to be slightly confusing} In order to get your professional concept each year, the head-teacher have to observe three times during the year and they have to make comments about your classes in order to get your mark at the end but they gave you a mark but they never observe you.

(Extract 6.78, MaPC/15/04/16)

As such, it can be seen there is an officially mandated expectation that each secondary school teacher should be observed three times in each academic year, most likely these would be scheduled to take place once in each of the three terms.
However, I was unable to find a single teacher who felt this was being complied with. In the few cases of teachers having some form of observation, this would happen perhaps once over the course of the year, with such individuals being in a very small minority. Those observations which did occur, tended to be described as a very brief spontaneous visit without any form of feedback/feedforward discussion or developmental focus, either before or after. Alice recounts her two experiences, “and they were like, ‘Oh it was great!’, ‘It was really enjoyable.’ and, and they say, ‘Well I think it was interesting.’ and things like that but they never gave me er, written feedback, let’s say” (AlPC/30/03/16). Whilst space has been given to the voices of Mary and Alice here, they were not isolated examples and have been used as representative examples of more widespread experiences amongst the teachers as a whole. Moreover, it was clear from my discussions that observations were something that none of the teachers had any experience of in a constructive sense.

The aforementioned lack of continuing professional development (CPD) is not limited to observations. Mary explains:

**MARY**  No, it’s hard. Because, here we don’t have possibilities to improve our language, we have to travel in order to improve the language. To make courses, for example.

**IR**  What about the teaching side of things?

**MARY**  I don’t understand what you say.

**IR**  Well if there isn’t any provision within the school system to improve the English teachers English language proficiency, is there anything available to help them improve their teaching?

**MARY**  No. No, I don’t think so [she sounds like this is an entirely new concept and she is trying to understand what it might mean]. To improve the language?

**IR**  To improve the teaching.

**MARY**  To improve the teaching.

**IR**  Yeah.
It may be worth reiterating that by 2016, Alice had amassed twenty years of teaching experience in Solaris. Mary had fifteen years in total, with eight of those being earned post-qualification, some of which may have been gained prior to moving to Solaris. These two individuals had additionally taught at many of the schools in Solaris, including primary, secondary, and private institutions. As such, their wide range of experiences may lend a degree of validity to any attempt at extending them to the experiences of other teachers within the system as a whole.

Further to discussions of CPD and in-service training, Ben highlights another threat to his motivation as a language teacher and user:

*And as I, I also work in a private institute, I usually, I usually try to go into a higher level of English in order not to lose my, my level of English because, you know, if you are, all the year, teaching only present continuous, past simple, present simple, and that’s all, and your vocabulary, you start forgetting about those vocabularies, those phrasal verbs, those idioms and all, everything you, it took ages for you to learn, and then you start forgetting all that. It’s really hard and it’s really, er, I know it because you spend so many years studying and use, then you want to use them, “Oh,*
how, how did you say that in English?”, I hate that, I hate losing my level so, eh, I set personal goals in order to improve and keep on doing exercises in order not to forget my grammar.

(Extract 6.80, FGPC/14/11/15)

It is instructive that Ben notes the impact of such a lack of professional challenge on his identity as an English language user. Much like Ben, Mary also speaks of her frustrations with the lack of facilities for teachers to maintain and further improve their English language skills:

MARY I love the language and I, I want to improve my English all the time but sometimes er, getting the money to travel, to go abroad is hard. So I study alone at home as I don’t know anyth, something, I try to search on the web eh, repeat it as I used, I record myself eh, and try to correct my mistakes. That’s the way. And I continue, I continue, I continue studying and I think that teachers never finish studying. But some teachers say, “OK, No!”. I get, “Why you study? Why you waste your time continue study?”. because I want to, because I think that, after you get your degree, then you start your career and then you have to improve and be a better person eh, to improve your knowledge all the time and that make you a better teacher. That’s the way I think.

(Extract 6.81, MaPC/15/04/16)

In addition to Mary’s frustration at the lack of opportunity to improve her English language proficiency, what can also be heard in the above Extract is perhaps more worrying. Within it, is the voice of another teacher questioning why Mary should want to engage in what they appear to deem a pointless endeavour, and it is also worth considering the manner in which Mary chooses to phrase this interjection. If viewed as a composite of a number of similar encounters over a period of time, it is possible to perceive this questioning voice as the embodiment of a less motivated colleague for whom Mary’s intended efforts are seen to be an unnecessary and undesirable additional workload. Adam goes some way to supporting this version of events:
Qualified teachers, they graduate and they do very little, they attend very little courses. They don’t do very-, post-graduate studies and they don’t continue studying. That is what I can see in Solaris, yes? At least in Solaris, there are very few teachers who continue their studies after graduating.

(Extract 6.82, AdPC/12/11/16)

In this Extract from his interview data, Adam is only referring to qualified teachers and therefore, a small sub-set of the teachers. However, he later clarifies this somewhat to include the rest of the teachers, noting that, ”maybe we have development, we have very little. Very little. And especially, teachers from secondary schools, they don’t attend many courses” (AdPC/12/11/16). As such, the lack of engagement in professional development now appears to a more systemic problem, raising questions as to whether a widespread atrophy of ideas may have long ago taken root.

With regard to the types of training that are available to secondary teachers in Solaris, Adam, in his role of supervisor is well placed to comment:

But there isn’t compulsory courses, for example, for English, or for Mathematics, or History. There are courses. But well, they decide if they want to attend them or not. And many teachers, they don’t do it. They graduate and they never again attend any other courses. For years

(Extract 6.83, AdPC/12/11/16).

This could perhaps be viewed in conjunction with comments from Mary above, as noting a lack of motivation from teachers to engage with non-compulsory professional development. However, Ben presents a pragmatic view with regard to the restricted options available in such a remote, small town:

Training, I mean, as we are fr-, far from the big cities, there are few possibilities of further study, eh studies. I mean if you want study errrm, further, I mean higher education, you have to leave or you can’t do it. I mean, as language teachers, nobody can possibly to study online, for example. So, that is a disadvantage, we don’t have many possibilities as if we lived in a big city.

(Extract 6.84, FGPC/14/11/15).

This raises a potentially interesting question as to whether the uptake of such courses might be higher, if they were more readily available. Adam also acknowledges the
realities of the remote context, stating that, “we don’t have any options and you have to travel a lot. It’s a lot of money if you have to Buenos Aires” (AdPC/12/11/16). Moreover, it is not the cost of transport alone that might inhibit attendance at a developmental course in the capital city, as travel to and from Buenos Aires can also require considerable time. This is especially true if air travel is too expensive and the journey is attempted by coach instead. No matter which transport option, it is unlikely that all travel and training could occur on the same day and so accommodation and other additional costs must also be included into the budget for such courses, all of which would have to be funded by the teacher alone.

In spite of the reported low uptake for CPD, some demand exists for additional types of training to supplement language-focussed improvements. Alice outlines one of these areas she feels should be addressed:

I don’t know, I just feel there are so many, mainly I feel there are so many things to be done. I think that we, as teachers, should be er, trained in a better way, not only as regards to the language skills but uhm, or proficiency, but on other areas and having more, maybe uhm, classes or when you are eh, studying to be a teacher, be better trainers on how to deal with teenagers’ problems, you know? To have more of psychology, let’s say, or I don’t know what should be. [...] Well, I think I insist on that we should, we should have more eh, training courses because those help a lot. Eh, when you get the opportunity to exchange ideas and experiences with other teachers, that is really enriching.

(Extract 6.85, AIPC/30/03/16)

Here, Alice notes the importance of engaging on a professional level with colleagues, something which might be interpreted in light of the earlier discussion on the sense of isolation felt by many teachers (see Section 6.1.1.6). The final word on this subject goes to Adam, who notes the importance of exploiting teachers’ meetings as a mode for developing and supporting teachers:

ADAM I think that if the headmaster prepares meetings where teachers enjoy the meetings and they learn from those meetings, some tools or some ways of teaching, and they fee
As can be seen, there is evidence of a consistent message on both sides of the managerial divide which foregrounds the case for CPD being a necessity. However, the situation is nuanced and there are questions about potential uptake, as well as funding, which would need to be addressed before a solution might be found.

6.1.1.9 Resources.

It might be reasonable to state that a lack of training can inhibit the range of options a teacher has available when teaching their classes. Whilst this perspective considers the manner in which variety and challenge can be incorporated into lessons, an issue with more immediate impact is that created by a lack of resources. Shortly after arriving in Solaris, I visited a class of trainee teachers, where I had my first experience of local classrooms:

IR  Do you feel that’s not happening now then?
ADAM No. No, no, no. Because the headmasters are, they have a lot of work to do, many papers to hand into Supervision. And I think that they are not prepared to deal with that. No.

(Extract 6.86, AdPC/12/11/16)
The university class that I visited yesterday was in a building similar to those I have seen in Ukraine, Russia, and other developing nations. It was quite basic, with a blackboard and chalk, very institutional and quite poorly maintained. Interestingly, it is a school during the day and then is used as a university in the evening. This dual purposing seems to be normal here and it’s quite typical for the premises to be used as a secondary school in the morning and a primary school in the afternoon.

(Extract 6.87, SNRJ/09/15)

Such usage of school buildings for multiple purposes has already been noted, as has the matter of each having their own academic management team (see Section 6.1.1.5). However, it may be salient to consider how this might affect budgets and maintenance, in addition to the planning thereof. Moreover, each of the schools which use the same building will share resources such as CD players, placing extra strain on the limited options. Alice describes her reality:

In most schools, the boards are still made of wood and we have to use chalk, Erm, so it’s like...it’s ok, I mean, I like using chalks but er, I don’t know, it’s kind of dusty er oh you know you’re still like, coughing and it doesn’t help with your throat er, so it’s not that good. Erm, that’s one thing. Well, sometimes they do have chalks but many times you don’t so you have to provide them yourself, so I usually carry a duster, some chalks and things like that or er, a piece of cloth to clean the board. Eh, then, if you want to use the CD players, er, in the school where I was working, in the secondary school where I was working the last time there were only, I don’t know, there were one or two. No, I think there was only one so you have to beg that it is available at the time you need it. And then you can also ask for the overhead projector which is also not available at all times, you have to like, er I don’t know, make a like, book it, yes? Beforehand and sometimes I remembered and I had the time to book it but sometimes for example I had given a class and I didn’t know what I was going to do in the next class and so when I was planning my, my class, my lessons at home, I
say, “Ah, I’m going to use the overhead projector!” but, then I have to go
school and book it and then it was not available so it’s not easy to get those
things um and they, it’s not um, yeah, they are not easily at hand, let’s
say.

(Extract 6.88, AIPC/30/03/16)
Here, Alice succinctly portrays the realities of such shortcomings with teaching
facilities (see Appendix K for example photographs of classrooms). Put simply, a
lack of available resources can constitute an impediment to teachers performing at
their optimal level of ability in class. One might extend this argument to posit that
teachers without a strong pedagogical background, such as those in Solaris, might
find it yet more difficult to adapt and overcome a deficit in resources. Naturally, an
opposing position can also be argued which states that effective teachers should not
rely on additional aids but this perhaps, overlooks some of the real-world challenges
inherent in teaching languages to teenagers, and does not counter the previous point.

In addition to the aforementioned classroom resources, Ben explains a further
layer of challenge:

And another problem that I find is that we have plenty of overcrowded
classrooms. As she said, you have to work with a lot of classes and they are
crowded. They, you are not in a classroom with let’s say 15, 20 students,
they are usually 28, 30-40 students. And that’s really, really, difficult for, for
us.

(Extract 6.89, FGPC/14/11/15)
It is worth noting that class size issues may be relative to the size of room the teacher
is working in and for many contexts, 30 students would not be considered an
oversized class. However, Alice highlights underlying issues which aid in
positioning Ben’s comments:

It’s impossible to move the chairs and their desks around and if you decide
to do some kind of TPR activity, and that requires kind of, movement, it is
also kind of hard to do so, most of the time, they have to be sitting on their
desks and working with the person they’ve got next to them, or hopefully
in front or round the back if they are able to move desks around, which is
not always possible. [...] And, the other thing is that the, the acoustic you say? Of the classrooms? Yes? For example, if in the other classroom they are like singing or shouting, it’s impossible to give a class because you listen to what the others are doing.

(Extract 6.90, AIPC/30/03/16)

An image of the teachers in small, overcrowded classrooms, potentially with no chalk for the board or audio/visual aids to assist them in engaging the students might be considered a threat to ongoing teaching motivation. Gwen concurs with this depiction:

They have a very small, crammed classroom. I’m not able to walk around and can’t get close to the students sitting at the back. It was very difficult moving the desks for them to work in groups. Also, I couldn’t use my projector, as there was too much light and the windows are too high for me to be able to cover them.

(Extract 6.91, GwRJ/19/03/16)

Unlike many teachers, Gwen has elected to buy her own pico projector in an attempt to circumnavigate the lack of audio/visual resources in the school but even this costly measure has been met with difficulties.

In these examples it has been seen that many teachers attempt to overcome the shortage of resources by providing their own chalk, dusters, and in one extreme case, a projector. In reality, the problem is more widespread than those examples imply, as Rae explains:

You don’t have on the library, school material to work and you have to make up your own work, eh, your own work with your own books. Eh, you have to bring on the bag {unclear} always. You don’t have, eh {pause} books, dictionaries sometimes are old or... you have to all on by your own.

Principals, they say, “Well we ask but we don’t find”. They are old, old books, we have some old books, just like that.

(Extract 6.92, FGPC/14/11/15)

Along with Rae, Ben has also experienced issues with printed materials, both for him and the students:
Errrrr, the material is really expensive if you want to buy books, if you want to work with, I don’t know, {unclear} certain specific material, you won’t find it here. Or you will find it but it’s going to be very expensive, and depending on the students’ backgrounds, they won’t be able to pay for authentic material or, original books, they usually errr, use photocopies, they don’t feel engaged with photocopies. I think that if they get the real book, they work better. [...] Well... So I, it’s very hard for me to make them get out of the book, to find resources, to find materials that make them comfortable, and make them understand that not filling a blank in er, in an exercise is also a good thing to do because, as I said, you are not going to classify verbs in the, in the future. You are just, you want to communicate. (Extract 6.93 FGPC/14/11/15)

With Ben, a sense of frustration begins to show as he admits feels that more could be achieved in the classroom if he had access to better resources. However, a more fundamental problem is that the students will not all have their photocopied course books until late in the academic year, with some never managing to obtain them at all. As Alice highlights:

Well most students when you ask them and if you make yourself like, I don’t know, if you’re kind of like strict about that like that they must have the book, mooost of them have it but it also happens that it’s er like half of I don’t know, and we’re in the middle of the year, and many students don’t have their books so....it’s really hard because they have to share and then you don’t have the chance to correct their work. Annnnd well, and the school doesn’t help, I always say we should have like, extra copies here in the library for students who don’t have them. Sometimes they do have some and well, so you have to ask them to write down in pencil so that they can be erased later on, yes? So it’s like, kind of messy. (Extract 6.94, AIPC/30/03/16)

This lack of photocopied books on the part of the learners can be driven by a range of factors. Common scenarios include it being considered an unnecessary expense which the family are unwilling to pay; or the students possessing the book but preferring not to carry it with them all day, instead bringing it only on certain occasions. A more concerning situation, and also not rare, is the student for whom
the cost of the photocopies is simply too high, and the family are unable to afford them. In the latter scenario, wherein the families may well be exhibiting symptoms of severe poverty, the teachers often find themselves paying for the materials in order to ensure these students do not fall behind (see Section 6.1.1.3). Sadly, this situation is not uncommon, and I personally witnessed such outcomes more than once whilst in Solaris. The final word goes to Mary:

I think that have, we need more material to deal with during the class, within the classroom. I think that the possibility that we have at the public school in order to solve this problem, we need a lot of materials. We need more aids, more flashcards, more pictures, more resources, in order to show them how the language works. Not empty wor-, walls, not empty desk. Eh, I think that black and white photocopy are not enough. They, they are not going to be interested in the language in that way. But in order to change that, we, as teachers have to pay for that and in my case, I have seven, nine courses. It’s impossible for me. [...] , eh, ask for God that the kids don’t break them because it costs us lot of money and I have to use it in another classroom. So, I think that’s, I think that is hard for the teachers.

(Extract 6.95, MaPC/15/04/16)

Like Ben before her, Mary outlines the ramifications of such under-resourced classrooms for the teachers and their students. Moreover, she points towards the additional costs that more motivated teachers bear both in terms of finances and time to mediate for such a dearth,

6.1.1.10 Career progression.

Something that could serve to mitigate some of the aforementioned challenges facing the teachers might be a clear pathway for career progression through which they might see recognition and reward for their efforts. It is fair to say that in theory, such a route does exist as Adam outlines:

ADAM Well, you start in the educational system as being a teacher, that is the first step. From that, you have to work at least 12 years and you can turn into a headmister or-, yes into headmaster. But you have to be 10 years, and 10 years have to be giving classes because there are a lot of teachers who
start their career and then they get ill, and they are not in
the classroom. Those teachers cannot turn into head master
or mistress.

IR  So it actually has to be ten years of classroom experience.

ADAM  Ten years in the classroom, yes. Otherwise you cannot be in
that position. Then, you can go from a vice-headmistress,
headmistress, you can also be a secretary of the school.
Those three people are the team of the school.

IR  The administrative team, yeah.

ADAM  Yes, administrative team and they have to make, to take
decisions. Yes. The secretary, the vice-headmistress, and the
mistress, or if it is a boy, it’s headmaster and...

IR  And that’s the chain of command, the headmaster, then the
vice-principal, then the secretary, then the teachers?

ADAM  Then the teachers. Yes. For example, if you are the
Preceptor, the Preceptor is the people who write down the
attendance and they are with the students, and then you
have the POTs, Profesor de Orientación y Tutoría, those are
in charge of guiding students in the school. Those two
positions, they don’t allow you to get to the positions of
headmaster, of secretary, of... How do you say, vice-
principal?

IR  You can, yeah, principal / headmaster / headmistress, the-

ADAM  Ah yeah. And then, you have to be at least nine years of
being a headmistress or headmaster in order to be a
Supervisor.

IR  Yeah.

ADAM  I don’t know if you have that position in England?

IR  Slightly different set up. Slightly different set up. We have
something similar but it’s a different way of administering.
On the surface, there does appear to be a clear and transparent system in place for facilitating upward mobility in the careers of the teachers. Moreover, the criteria needing to be satisfied are explicitly outlined and linked to teachers’ points which can be tracked as they are accrued each year, thereby allowing teachers to monitor their own progress. It seems reasonable that the Ministerio might insist on a minimum number of years practical experience as a pre-requisite for promotion to each successive role in academic management. However, such a vacancy must first exist before a teacher may apply to fill it and in a small town with a limited number of schools, those opportunities may prove to be few and far between.

Somewhat concerning, is an implicit recognition within Adam’s words. A feature of the teaching community in Solaris is that a high proportion of teachers take periods of extended leave from the classroom due to sickness, with more than one such absence not being uncommon. Moreover, he raises a question as to the degree of prevalence the issue of long-term sickness might occupy within the teaching community. Given that the issue appears to have been factored into the promotion criteria, this might serve as an indicator that the problem is not located solely in Solaris, nor is it limited in scale. It is not clear whether this decision was
made at province or national level, though whichever it might have been, the indications are there that such long-term absences from the classroom are worryingly common. I can personally attest to having experienced discussions of such situations as if it were a regular occurrence on a number of times during my stay in Solaris.

Now that the promotion procedure has been outlined from the perspective of Supervision and the Ministry of Education, it may be of value to gain the view of the teachers:

BEN Well, it depends on your qualifications. For example, if you have a teacher’s degree, you can {pause} ehhhm, acquire years of experience and become uhmmm, headmaster? {questioning whether the word is correct} And, or a vice-principal, you say? You can also become secretary at school. That would be in eh like in a school ranking.

GWEN {Unclear} {GWEN has been nodding and making noises of agreement} But not within the English ehm-

BEN -Not within you career.

GWEN -That would be like, I don’t know, stepping out of the classroom-

BEN Yes.

SAN T I A G O Yes, that’s the-

BEN There is a tendency among ehm, let’s say older teachers who have acquired a lot of experience during years and ah, in the classroom, and they want to leave the classroom side and go to another er, place within the school. But as teachers, I think we haven’t got any.

GWEN It’s just that.

BEN That’s just that.

GWEN That’s the rules.

BEN I think the most, or the first you can go is just being a coordinator-

GWEN mhhhm-
BEN -of English teachers in your, in your school but that’s all.

(Extract 6.97, FGPC/14/11/15)

Here we see an important clarification from the teachers: that only those with teaching qualifications can amass the necessary points and years of experience to earn promotion. Once again, this points toward the cul-de-sac unqualified teachers might find themselves facing in their careers and the manner in which they are sidelined within the teaching community, despite forming the majority of current English teachers in Solaris. In addition to this, there is consensus with regard to the previously noted trend of teachers wishing to leave the classroom, though no indication as to why this might be. It is possible to hypothesise that this could be linked to low levels of teaching motivation, perhaps even demotivation to the point of amotivation in extreme cases. In spite of this, one can sense that for these particular teachers, remaining in the classroom is an important aspect of their job. This is something that Amber additionally highlights when outlining career progression options as she views them:

You mean, promotion? I don’t know, I suppose it should be like any other teacher erm, I mean, you could become headmaster and then errrr, supervisor, you call it? And that’s it. Maybe, if you are very bright, the Minister of Education of the province {laughs} I, I have no idea. There’s not much er. Well, that’s the career path. Ehhh, but if you like to be a teacher, I suppose your, your place is in the classroom.

(Extract 6.98, AmPC/11/03/16)

Once again, a degree of importance is connected to retaining close ties to the students and the teaching of English. Whilst all of the teachers are conscious of larger potential future ambitions, they do not seem to consider them relevant or worthy of genuine consideration. Rae and Ben offer one indication as to why this might be the case:

RAE And sometimes becoming a principal is not profitable.  
{pause} Because you work more and you have more responsibilities ehhh-

BEN And a lower salary.
For the purposes of clarification, Ben and Rae are referring to the earning potential of a teacher if they satisfy a number of conditions. Teacher payments are rated according to points and based on factors such as: qualifications; number of years teaching experience; courses attended; and others. In this regard, the salary of a principal would be expected to be higher than the average teacher with a standard timetable. However, the teachers are suggesting that a qualified teacher, with some years of experience, and a heavy teaching load might potentially improve on this and earn more. In addition to this, a teacher without the concomitant responsibilities of a position in academic management would enjoy the full complement of holidays and few of the additional responsibilities which might result in higher degree of stress. As such, it seems that promotion opportunities lack a degree of relevance for many of the English teachers in Solaris.

6.1.11 Chaos.

A striking feature of an extended period of time researching the education system in Solaris is the regularity with which you encounter references to chaos. Given the usage of a complexity perspective in this study, I would like to highlight that the teachers are not referring to chaos in the mathematical sense, i.e. in relation to chaos theory. As Rickles, Hawe and Shiell (20017) argue, “chaotic systems are not necessarily complex, and complex systems are not necessarily chaotic” (p. 934). As a result, the term chaos as used in this section, implies its informal definition, i.e. uncontrollable and unpredictable. My research journal records:

It was interesting that when discussing the situation in Solaris with Gwen last night, she used the phrase, “It’s a form of chaos!” This phrase is used quite often, and I keep coming across it.

(Extract 6.100, SNRJ/03/16)
For many, there appears to be a sense of resignation that this is something to which one becomes accustomed. For others, this is the language they also employ to describe larger problems within the country its government, though it is beyond the remit of this study to comment on such wider notions. Perhaps interestingly, I also found myself employing the same term early in the process of data collection, noting the following:

It seems that the situation here is very chaotic and one of the reasons it can be so hard to get hold of teachers or to get them to commit to something is that they often don’t know themselves until the last minute. For the schools it seems to be acceptable to summon the teachers or cancel their classes with very little notice. We’ve seen principals and members of staff swap roles without any warning; and individuals go on sick leave for extended periods of time. Meanwhile, there are a seemingly endless array of strikes and other school closures which compete to interfere with the process of education. In spite of all of these challenges, the teachers are naturally still expected to teach the complete curriculum, regularly test the students and submit their grades by specified dates. These dates are often not revealed until the last moment by the academic administration and might yet still be subject to change without notice. As an outsider, I’ve never experienced a context that appeared to be in a constant state of flux the way Solaris is. 

(Extract 6.101, SNRJ/11/15)

This was written when I had been in Solaris for a little over two months and I was thus, developing my awareness of the context. However, this early preparatory stage before the beginning of the 2016 academic year would later prove invaluable when later dealing with the constantly shifting landscape of the field and attempting to plan a longitudinal study.

By early 2016, it became evident that the rapidly shifting nature of the context was not anomalous to 2015. My research journal one week prior to the expected start of the school year records:
Estanislao mentioned that the start of the school year may be delayed [...]. This is because the exam period from the summer session has not been fully completed and so the schools do not have the results to be able to place students. Santiago has also told me that the schools need to work further with students who haven’t yet reached the required level to continue. Additionally, there is talk of strikes if the union cannot secure a salary increase for the teachers before the start of the year. This is apparently not unusual, and teachers have gone out on strike for up to two weeks in previous years. In such cases, the academic year simply gets shortened, though the same content must still be covered.

(Extract 6.102, SNRJ/02/16)

As the week progressed, I considered ways in which the research schedule could be adapted in response to these changes, all the while, encountering other areas in which information was not easily accessed:

It’s very difficult to find out the exact term dates from the teachers. They tell me that the schools don’t release that information until the first teachers’ meeting of the year, at the earliest. The teachers report feeling frustrated because they feel the school administration could decide this much earlier and let them know but they do not. [...] The schools are waiting to see how many students have failed the summer school make up period, and will therefore need to repeat a year, before they can allocate the classes for this year. How many students could this involve and why would it need to hold up the rest of the school? I feel like everything is so reactive and poorly communicated, I don’t know how I would deal with it if I taught here.

(Extract 6.103, SNRJ/02/16)

As can be seen, at this stage, I was still struggling to disentangle my own reactions to the context and attempting to focus on how the teachers were being affected. The academic year was scheduled to begin on the 28th of February. However, a strike was to take place as a consequence of the unresolved salary dispute, so no teachers were expected:
Teachers are on strike today so no classes on the first day of the year. Also, the beginning of the academic year has been held back by one week so that all of the resit exams can be completed. As a result, only the primary schools and the first year students at secondary schools will begin this week.

(Extract 6.104, SNRJ/02/16)

As seen in Extract 6.104, the scale of the issues with examining failing students were severe enough to warrant a delay to the start of the school year. The first-year students had yet to experience the exam procedure of secondary school and were therefore able to begin as planned. Nevertheless, all other years were delayed by one week as the schools attempted to establish the grades, and therefore, the classes. It seems evident that a significant number of students were embroiled in this procedure otherwise such drastic measure may not have seemed proportionate.

Once the school year had begun, my equanimity with the uncertainty of the context was put to the test as I entered one of the more unstable points in the academic calendar. While shadowing Ben in March, I took the opportunity to discuss this with him:

In the break earlier, Ben mentioned to me that all of the upheaval with classes should settle down by April. This is the same timeframe that other teachers have referred to for groups opening, closing and changing so it seems to be system wide. The school year begins in late February but does not really crystallise into shape in many ways until sometime in April. I wonder what kind of effect that lack of certainty might have on a teacher’s levels of motivation. In Ben’s case, he does not know how many students he will have or what changes may have taken place until he arrives in the classroom. One by-product of this, for many teachers, is that they function on a kind of autopilot for the initial period, in which they focus on revision tasks as they wait for the student numbers to stabilise; their groups to be confirmed for the year; for students to buy photocopies of the book, etc. It is only once we get into April that the teaching of the material for the school year really begins. To me, that does seem like quite a lot of lost time and only time will tell what that might mean in the bigger scheme of things as the year progresses.

(Extract 6.105, BeSFN/03/16)
The question of this potential effect on teaching motivation was something which I was not alone in considering. After the end of her first interview of the year, Amber commented on this and I quickly noted her ideas:

Amber said that the uncertainty at the start of the school year is really problematic for teacher motivation. Every year begins with a potential strike e.g. 15 days at the start of last year, a few days so far this year already. That, plus the lack of stability regarding timetabling, and also whether classes stay open or are closed, contribute to teachers feeling tired, stressed and burnt out before the year has even really begun. I have noticed this change myself and they don’t look anywhere near as refreshed and invigorated as they did a week or so ago. Now that I come to reflect on it, the change is stark.

(Extract 6.106, SNRJ/03/16)

Later, I reflected on this further in light of the established notions of motivational change across the school year. The early stages of the first term after the summer holiday are predicted to be characterised by raised levels of motivation. However, the situation in Solaris raised questions:

They feel they cannot really begin the work of teaching until early April and so you have to ask what effect this all has on their motivation at the onset of the year. Contrary to the idea that it will begin higher at the start of the year and then tail off, these teachers already appear exhausted and stressed, and the year hasn’t even got going.

(Extract 6.107, SNRJ/03/16)

Rae also made note of the strains that the beginning of the school year brought, confiding that, “I know our first month is always stressful!” (RaRJ/19/03/16). Sonya was also feeling quite dispirited:

I also had in mind our current situation with the government and our salary. The tiredness of still having to fight for what we, teachers, believe is right. [...] the lack of organization at school in relation to the groups, the timetables, the teachers... I wasn’t feeling too motivated.

(Extract 6.108, SoRJ/12/03/16)

Sonya was not alone in finding the salary negotiations to be stressful, with Santiago also commenting on the nature of the issue, one that would continue throughout the year:
We the teachers are having trouble with the government in terms of our salary agreements, and we are having some trouble with the union representatives, we have meetings, uncertainties, discussions, and a complex general situation that affects many people’s feelings and understanding.

(Extract 6.109, SaRJ/12/03/16)

It should perhaps be noted that as of mid-2019, strikes of salaries and unpaid monies continue in Solaris and as such, this particular motivational threat has now been consistently present for a period of five years. Strikes continue as this thesis is written and it is not known if or when the dispute might be resolved. Returning to 2016, consensus was perhaps beginning to emerge as to the scale of the combined threats to the teachers’ motivation levels at this early stage of the year.

One area which disproportionately affects unqualified teachers is that of groups being closed or removed from their timetable, with these sometimes simply allocated to another teacher (see Sections 6.1.1.5; 6.1.1.7). For Santiago, the result is a period of increased stress as he annually contends with not knowing whether a full timetable will be possible, and therefore, if he will be able to earn enough money. He informed me that this is common until the end of April, and that “you just have the feeling you are kind of walking on air for a not-long-lasting while as the next step is coming closer” (SaRJ/19/03/16). Unfortunately, for Santiago, the situation deteriorated further:

I had a WhatsApp conversation with Santiago last night. He told me that some of his timetabled classes may not go ahead this year [...]. Those lessons account for 15 of his classes each week, that is a lot of hours to lose [...] He said, “It is a common situation for us, these first months of the years. Year [correcting himself], It feels a bit like skating or surfing!”

(Extract 6.110, SNRJ/02/16)

However, for some teachers, this lack of certainty could also be viewed in a positive sense. Gwen explained that teachers can also choose not to continue teaching a course and so this has positives and negatives for both the school and the teachers. In conversation, “she referred to these as freedom and uncertainty. However, Gwen did point out that the one group which always suffers is the students” (SNRJ/03/16). This is a poignant comment which also occurred to me in my position as outside/insider. Whilst the schools and the teachers are engaged in the struggle to
provide an education for the students, many of the decisions made and practices inherent in the system ultimately impact on the quality of that provision and therein lies an inevitable unresolved tension.

In their initial focus group, the teachers touched on this issue in open discussion, providing further detail:

**RAE**
During the year, you change the timetables so easily.

**GWEN**
Which is, I find that it’s quite good that each year you don’t know what your timetable will be. (unclear, all are speaking over the top of each other)

**BEN**
It’s another challenging...

**GWEN**
Yes! (emphatic)

**RAE**
Your mind becomes (unclear) uhhh, so you don’t know the school, you don’t know-

**GWEN**
(overlap) -You organize your life all over again.

**SANTIAGO**
On the other hand, you have (unclear) focusing on school lives em, you will have any beginning of a year, eh, many (unclear) qualified teachers eh, taking up (pause) lots of courses. And then, being eh compelled by reality to leave some courses and that means that eh-

**RAE**
(overlap) -You can change as much as you want. You can take just 45 hours... {All talking over the top of each other}

**SANTIAGO**
Yes, but I mean that er, all this, all this implies that er, er, a certain amount of courses don’t have continuity or stability erm, in terms of the people, the person, teacher, they will have throughout-

**RAE**
(overlaps) -the following year...

**GWEN**
Yes

**SANTIAGO**
-and that is a problem sometimes because if the new teacher asks for a certain book and one or two months later they leave the course, and new teacher must er-

**GWEN**
Yes. They, the students don’t have that much stability either regarding their teachers.

(Extract 6.111, FGPC/14/11/15)
As noted by Gwen, the teachers are in agreement there are benefits and drawbacks to this flexibility, though implicit in this is the same recognition any such upheaval is sub-optimal for the learners. Gwen commented on a personal experience of a class being removed from her timetable and allocated to another teacher in the previous year:

Yes. So, and that’s how it works, those are the rules of the game. We know them, we accept them, and we work with that. But the students are at a disadvantage then because they change the teacher at the end of September, which is kind of tricky, I think, it’s not fair for them, I think.

(Extract 6.112, FGPC/14/11/15)

Similarly, in the third week of the year, Rae discovered that one of her classes might be closed by the school in a matter of weeks and they would all need to await their fate. Her reflective journal reports, “today my students were sad because they new there was a chance of closing the course, they will go in the afternoon, I really like them, I tried to plan class for short term” (RaRJ/26/03/16). Whilst the focus of this study is on teaching motivation, it is perhaps worth pausing to consider the effects of such a decision on the motivation of the learners. Furthermore, if, as has been previously hypothesized, teacher and learner motivation is intertwined, what impact might such a process of uncertainty entail, and how might teacher and learner variants interact on one another.

In addition to the issue of classes being closed, or teachers being changed at short notice within the academic year, another regular feature in Solaris is lesson cancellations. These tend to occur for a wide range of reasons (as will be discussed below) and with little or no advanced notice for teachers, students, or parents. Santiago and Rae have this to say on the matter:

SANTIAGO  Erm, yeah, er, lately, we, we have been different er, for different reasons, very frequent interruptions of the teaching year and er, that, of course, eh, does not motivate you and does not motivate the children-

RAE  -Because perhaps you plan

SANTIAGO  -Yes-
RAE -So you have, for example, eh, five classes with them and then suddenly you have two and you see them once per month because there are strikes or meetings or, so you must be so flexible and always changing.

(Extract 6.113, FGPC/14/11/15)

For Santiago, this was something that had affected his ability to teach in 2015 and would be a consideration as the 2016 year began since he would teach the same group again. He was concerned that the students would now be behind with their rate of progress as a result of these constant interruptions to the timetable, stating that, “there were quite a good number of days that classes were suspended for different reasons” (SaRJ/12/03/16). Regardless, 2016 began in a similar fashion and Santiago captured an example, and the last minute nature of his being informed, in his reflective journal the following week, “the evening before, though, I was told by phone there would be a school event at the time of our class, covering the first two thirds of it” (SaRJ/19/03/16). Such disruptions did not only affect Rae and Santiago though, and Ben also experienced a degree of disruption in the early weeks of the year. “This first week has been quite long, full of expectations and changes. [...] One atypical situation was the case of one school where classes were suspended due to problems with the water supply” (BeRJ/12/03/16). Closures for building maintenance were similarly regular occurrences, with gas leaks, heating issues, and disruption to water supplies all being noted. As an example of the scale of this, my research journal captured the following:

We started the school year one week late; a one day strike on the new first day was called off the day before; in the first week, one school closed for one day and another for two days; and now no teaching will take place on the first day of the second week. [...] It comes through in drips at the very last moment and I am very lucky that the teachers share it with me. Without their assistance, I would be completely in the dark.

(Extract 6.114, SNRJ/03/16)

In fact, to give scale to the problem, I would go on to record ten teaching days in which classes were either disrupted or schools closed in the month of March alone.
Whilst such cancellations would become a regular feature across the year as a whole, I became intrigued by the manner in which such scenarios were communicated to the teachers. An early example presented itself in the preparatory stages at the end of the previous school year, “I had no idea today was a school holiday until this afternoon, and most of the teachers didn’t know it was happening until yesterday” (SNRJ/11/15). This was by no means an isolated example of such an event and I began to wonder whether this might result in childcare issues for the parents of younger children. However, this seems to reflect an immediacy that is inherent in the context, and perhaps the culture, which could often be seen in such decision-making. Reacting to events was more common than proactive forward planning and I considered whether this may be borne out of the chaotic nature of the context wherein much can change at a moment’s notice. A conversation with Santiago occurred late on a Tuesday evening, after eleven o’clock, and contained discussion of my impending visit to the school on the coming Thursday morning:

What really surprised me was that at one stage, he realised that he didn’t know if he would be teaching or doing other duties as he didn’t know if there would be any children at the school this week. So, he sent a message to the school principal and they had a bit of a chat about it, and me. He then continued talking to me, only to finish with, well, I better go and make my supper and then plan a lesson for the children tomorrow.

(Extract 6.115, SNRJ/03/16)

What struck me about this was not the lack of certainty, as I was fast becoming accustomed to this, but the relative ease and informality with which the teacher and principal dealt with this at such a late hour. Other examples as easy to find in the data and affect not just the secondary schools. “Amber told me on Wednesday that she was still waiting to find out if she had to teach at the Profesorado that evening, this was at 11:40 in the morning...” (SNRJ/03/16). In many ways, these examples tell much about the nature of reality for those that live and work here and the necessity for a high degree of flexibility and patience.

However, it was not only lesson cancellations which received short notice, or even a complete lack of advanced warning. For the teachers, this is a feature of life in a variety of ways. For example:
Ben mentioned to me in the break that he is short of copies as new students keep arriving in this class and he does not receive any prior warning that this will be happening. Instead, the academic management team make a decision to move a student and the teachers are expected to deal with it.

(Extract 6.116, BeSFN/03/16)

In such instances, the potential exists that these decisions might have a degree of impact on the quality of the lesson for all involved. However, there are instances when the potential repercussions may be far more significant for both the teacher and the students in the class:

RAE I have blind student, deaf students, and they didn’t tell me who, that they are going to be in my class. {some comments from SANTIAGO (I think) but unclear and RAE doesn’t stop speaking}

RAE I thought, “What is happening?” eh, the others “He’s deaf!” “OK.” I didn’t know. {claps once and wipes hands off each other as if to say that’s all}. So, each class, you must know-

GWEN -A box full of surprises-

RAE -Yesss.

GWEN Yes.

BEN Yeah, we had to work, remember we had to deal with a blind student, say-

RAE -What are you going to do? {rhetorical question}

BEN -How am I supposed to teach the colours? How can I teach the colours to a blind student?

(Extract 6.117, FGPC/14/11/15)

This, quite extreme example was treated as nothing extraordinary by the teachers, many of whom could had similar stories, and it was striking that there seemed to be no consideration given to this being information a teacher might need in advance so that appropriate planning decisions could be considered. The final word on this matter goes to Rae, who was unhappy about the spread of such immediacy to demands outside her classroom work with the students:
Because it isn’t just teaching, they call you, “Please, bring this paper,”, they are calling you, they are changing the, your timetable. “Please can you come earlier”, “Can you come...” So, your mind becomes so stressed.

(Extract 6.118, FGPC/14/11/15)

Here Rae gives the impression of a consistent degree of uncertainty and tension that can be predicted to impact negatively on her in terms of stress and therefore motivation to teach. Each of these alone might be enough to impact on her ability to function at the highest level with her teaching. It is difficult to predict how a variety of such incidences might affect motivation, or how long the effects could linger.

Further potential threats linked to the chaotic nature of the context exist. Some, are consistent with other challenging contexts, such as dealing with larger class sizes:

Yes, it’s too much. To much... maybe... errrr, it’s too much because sometimes you miss some of them. Errrrm, because you’re always paying attention to the ones who are noisy, who are... speaking all the time, who always raise their hands, and then, and then you miss, and that’s the, the problem, right? That maybe you’re missing someone who just needed your attention and you just, because of you have such a short time, you missed them, and...that’s what ‘m worried about. And it’s difficult to spot and then...

(Extract 6.119, AmPC/11/03/16)

For Amber, there is genuine concern that she might have left a student behind in class and this is something that she might take with her into her next class, or beyond, as part of the initial conditions for potential changes in the trajectory of her motivational complex system. Gwen additionally mentions a regular challenge for secondary teachers:

You have more than ten level classrooms, which (pause) could be an advantage but is usually a disadvantage because it's hard to work uhhhh when your students are, some of them a very proficient in English, or more proficient and others are struggling.

(Extract 6.120, FGPC/14/11/15)

Dealing with classes of quite disparate levels of ability is something to which many language teachers can relate and whist these are mentioned by the teachers, they did
not feature as some of the most significant concerns. Similarly, Amber notes a feature which she feels can impact on her own teaching motivation:

*Age, I’m getting on. And er, I always think, “OK, Amber, you must be more patient because you’re getting older and the kids are not to blame.,” especially the ones in first year. They’re kids. I am the one who’s old. So that is, that is negative. You know? And the fact that I get tired more easily. I work a lot and it’s not the same as like ten years ago. Ehhh, that could be something. Sometimes you have personal problems. I try not to take them to school or anywhere I go.*

(Extract 6.121, AmPC/11/03/16)

Whilst it might be easy to dismiss this latter feature as specific to Amber, it could also be suggested that the increased levels of stress inherent in the state space as outlined thus far, could exacerbate such feelings of tiredness and shortness of patience.

Finally, there are other which features might be considered to be more specific to the chaotic nature of the local context:

**SANTIAGO**

For the negative side at least, {pause} in my {pause} at least in my thoughts but I think it is er, part of our eh {pause} conditions. You might be considered by a young students as part of the uh international trends, you know, as part of the invasion forces that, that {unclear} {pause} that's what I could write down.

**IR**

Could you just give me a bit more information about that, like what you mean by that?

**SANTIAGO**

Well, {unclear}

**RAE**

They don't like another language, they always are asking you, ask er, why we don't learn

**SANTIAGO**

Why we don't learn Portuguese? Err

**RAE**

{unclear}
Here, we potentially see another reason as to why the English teachers might be viewed differently by some members of the community. It is difficult to disentangle such unique contextual factors and the manner in which they might resurface periodically and affect levels of teaching motivation. A final insight comes from Ben, who offers a concerning aspect of teaching in Solaris:

**When you come into the classroom with your class eh, already prepared, and you say, one of the science students come to you and say, “Oh teacher, I hate my life because I want to I want to be slimmer.“, “I want to be...”, “I dunno, I feel fat, I feel horrible, I want to kill myself”, {unclear}. You have to stop your class and be as a psychologist instead of an English teacher. Or when you see that there is someone who is crying or there is a student who can’t be out of school because he threatened by somebody else, so I think, this is not my function, this is not what I studied. What I’m going to do? Aannnd, teacher training programmes don’t prepare you for that.**

(Extract 6.123, FGPC/14/11/15)

It is impossible to predict the importance of such encounters on an emotional and psychological level for a teacher, something which could be yet more salient in a small town where personal relationships are given such a high degree of importance. The potential is certainly significant and the repercussions for the teacher might linger long after the lesson has ended. Moreover, there seems to be little in the way of training or support for such issues within the system as a whole, as Alice
previously noted (Extract 6.85). What is evident from the above extracts is that the context of Solaris presents a complex and ever-changing landscape within which the teachers attempt to maintain their teaching motivation in the face of a multitude of threats.

6.1.2 Discussion of negatives.

As has been now been outlined, the trajectory of each teacher’s motivational complex system fluctuates with dynamic stability. Within the state space of the teacher are a range of initial conditions and the interactions between them result in changes, known as emergent behaviour. Such behaviour can result in attractor states to which the system is seemingly drawn toward as a result of perturbations. The result of such perturbations, if of sufficient magnitude, is a phase shift, wherein the trajectory of the system within the state space adjusts and settles temporarily in an alternate attractor basin. Given the extensive nature of the data presented, which have thus far identified the eleven negative aspects, it may be beneficial to provide a discussion of these prior to moving on to the positive facets within the state space.

In Section 5.1.2, a broad motivational profile was established for the teachers in Solaris in the early stages of the 2016 academic year. It was seen that in spite of some highly vocal teachers outlining their high levels of teaching motivation, many English teachers within the secondary school system found their chosen career to be motivationally challenging and were exhibiting signs of suppressed levels of teaching motivation. In some cases, these low levels of motivation could be characterised as amotivation, recognisable by its concomitant degree of disengagement. It is hoped that through a discussion of the negative aspects of teaching in Solaris, a more finely grained understanding of the reasons for this situation may be identified.
Figure 6.1 A visual representation of the teachers’ state space in Solaris with negatively influencing initial conditions.

As can be seen in Figure 6.1, eleven features have been identified through interaction with the data. Each of these represents one of the salient aspects of the context which have the potential to influence teaching motivation. However, in line with complexity theory, each of these are nonlinear in nature and will result in, “effects which are disproportionate to the changes in the causal element(s)” (Byrne & Callaghan, 2014. P. 18). As such, no indications of hierarchy of influence size or sequence should be inferred from the provided visual representation. Attention will now turn to a discussion of these influential variables from a complexity perspective, which is applied to the theoretical framework of self-determination theory, more specifically, the micro-theory of cognitive evaluation theory.

6.1.2.1 Meeting the basic psychological needs of the teacher: Competence.

One of the first identifiable issues in the data was that of low levels of student attainment of the English language (see Section 6.1.1.1). Here, a picture emerged of teachers engaged with a recalcitrant student body and a repetitive syllabus, within which many of the same materials are recycled each year. Moreover, in spite of the teachers’ hopes that their students might progress through the stages of English language acquisition, developing the skills and systems that allow them to engage
with and through the language, it seems that for many learners, that destination remains at some distance after their compulsory six years of tuition. In addition to this, the restricted number of hours available to the teachers (see Section 6.1.1.2) in which to present new language input and provide opportunities for the students to work with language, as well as recycle previously studied topics, mean that growth can be difficult to achieve. Moreover, for many students who do see development in the linguistic skills of some students, this tends to be in conjunction with lessons at a private institute. As a result of this, they soon surpass the content of the state school lessons which subsequently provide few opportunities for recognisable improvements to be made.

Within this environment, it is difficult to envisage a manner in which the teachers might feel that all of their basic psychological needs might be met. As previously noted (see Section 3.2.1), within the framework of self-determination theory and its micro theory of cognitive evaluation theory, competence autonomy and relatedness are the three psychological needs which form the pillars of intrinsic motivation. Niemiec and Ryan (2009) describe competence as “the experience of behavior as effectively enacted” (p. 135), i.e. a teacher feeling that their work is sufficiently challenging, whilst still being achievable, and that such successful achievement might be recognisable. Methods by which a teacher may receive a boost to their feelings of competence might also include receiving specific positive feedback on their work or receiving certain types of reward for their professional performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000), though it should be noted that these can also have deleterious effects if misapplied (Ryan & Weinstein, 2009). Within the reality outlined in the previous paragraph, it is possible to identify areas in which this need for competence is not being fully met. Underpinning this is the sense that there is scant identifiable evidence that their work is proving to be effective.

In connection to such low expectations of student attainment, a reality of the secondary school English language lessons is the degree of content repetitiveness in lessons. Where possible, teachers will often attempt to timetable multiple classes of the same age group in order to reduce planning and enable them to repeat lesson plans (see Table 7.1 for an example). Moreover, given the challenging nature of their timetables which could see classes from early morning to late in the evening (see Section 6.1.1.5; and Table 7.1 for examples), many of the teachers struggle to find the time to plan interesting and engaging lessons. This is further compounded by a
context in which resources within the school are often difficult to access (see Section
6.1.1.9). This includes not just audio or visual equipment but also books and
teaching resources from which ideas for lessons might be adapted. A further
hindrance to the production of challenging and professionally engaging lessons for
the teachers, is the lack of professional development within Solaris (see Section
6.1.1.8). With little to no access to CPD, in addition to the above factors, it is
difficult to see where teachers might engage with new ideas, leading to
experimentation and development of their classroom craft.

Within this environment, it is worth recalling that the status of English
language teaching is often undermined, whether through parental and student
disinterest or institutional demarcation as a compulsory but not core subject (see
Section 6.1.1.2). One example of this is the manner in which students who have not
achieved the required minimum grade for the year may find themselves attending the
summer school sessions. Contrary to offering an opportunity for remedial work and
language improvement, the students tend to be given impressive grades, seemingly
for attendance alone (see Section 6.1.1.2). One potential result of any perceived
lower status to the subject could be a suppression of a teacher’s sense of self-worth
or value within the system, and this perhaps raises further questions about the
teachers’ apparent fear of confronting students about their work rates and classroom
behaviour (see Section 6.1.1.4). Given the damaging effects on their perceptions of
their ability to meet the challenges of the classroom, this might be considered as at
the heart of their psychological need for competence. Moreover, there may be
indications of a behavioural cycle in which a teacher’s undermined sense of
competence results in their retreating yet further from professional challenges,
therefore leading to additional erosion. Certainly, such a scenario could have serious
ramifications for teaching motivation.

What is evident from this discussion of the psychological need for competence
is that the context of Solaris presents a relatively hostile environment for the English
language teachers. Of the three basic needs, competence, along with autonomy, has
been deemed to exert greater influence (see Section 3.2.2). As such, the potentially
deleterious effects on more autonomous forms of teaching motivation that ensue
from this environmental impact should not be underestimated. Turning back to a
complexity perspective once more, each of these identified threats to a teacher’s
professional sense of competence may each operate both individually and in
conjunction with each other in an intricate web. Noting that the effects of each are nonlinear in nature, it would be difficult to accurately predict the wider ramifications. However, it can be posited that the motivational complex system of a teacher would need to be nestled within a strong attractor basin, whether positive or negative, for it to fully withstand such perturbations and in such a scenario, state shifts would not be unexpected.

6.1.2.2 Meeting the basic psychological needs of the teacher: Autonomy.

Along with competence, autonomy is identified as a second of the three basic psychological needs. Of the three, competence and autonomy have been identified as fundamentally necessary if intrinsic motivation is to thrive (as noted in Section 6.1.2.1), a supplementary third facet of relatedness is said to further enhance motivation if the first two needs have already been met (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). What is less clear is the manner in which recognisable areas of autonomous decision-making might, on closer inspection be undermined or impeded by conflicting forces.

As has been seen, teachers in Solaris have a larger amount of freedom with their timetabling of classes than is perhaps typical in many contexts (see Section 6.1.1.5). Depending on the availability of classes, their qualifications, and the number of teaching points the individual possesses, they have the potential to create their own personalised timetable across as many different schools as they might deem desirable or practical. In an idealised scenario, this represents an ultimate degree of autonomy over the number of classes taught; ages of students; locations of schools; types of institution e.g. primary, secondary, or private institute; and more. However, the reality for many is that they find themselves in a situation where they must apply for any and all hours that are advertised and then wait to discover what they might be offered. At that stage, a new negotiation may take place with the schools in order to find ways of fitting these hours into a timetable, as classes may overlap or conflict in other ways. To be clear, such negotiations will almost certainly affect other teachers if the timings of classes need be rescheduled and so such adaptations tend to be resisted by the schools. Once classes have been accepted, times or days might still be changed; classes could be closed down or merged; all of which would occur at short notice and with no rationale given for the decision. The situation is typically somewhat calmer for those that are qualified, as they may be given the opportunity to retain many of their classes, a luxury which is unlikely to be
afforded to unqualified teachers (see Section 6.1.1.7). As such, the early weeks of the academic year are particularly precarious. During the first six to eight weeks of the year, they must wait to learn if they will be able to secure enough classes to comprise a full timetable, or if they must keep searching for new available hours whilst in the meantime earning a diminished salary. As a result of this, Solaris may represent a context wherein autonomy as a psychological need might be notionally catered for at surface level. However, upon closer examination, the basic need for autonomy may be only partially met at best.

In addition to timetabling of classes, teachers are also theoretically given a degree of freedom in selecting their own course books for their classes, though this has in fact, been standardised across most of the schools. In this regard also, the true depth of autonomous decision-making power is thus minimised. In fact, what exists in many schools is a rigid control structure which passes down decisions with no rationale provided or discussion allowed (see Section 6.1.1.11). As a result, far from feeling autonomous as teachers, many experience an arbitrary and chaotic system in which many decisions take place in a sphere outside of their control. It is possible to consider that this might outweigh the degree of decision-making freedom that is felt since this often impedes and overrides such autonomous teaching decisions (see Section 7.1.7.1 for an example). For this specific context, these factors may point to a weakness when attempting to predicting motivated behaviour as a result of surface level autonomy and question the accepted prominence of this psychological need in this context. Within a system, such as this, it may be difficult for individuals to internalise the perceived locus of causality and engender intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

6.1.2.3 Meeting the basic psychological needs of the teacher: Relatedness.

The third and final psychological need within CET is that of relatedness, which can be defined as the need to form effective interpersonal connections (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Ryan and Deci (2000) highlight that for students, relationships which can impel the internalisation of the perceived locus of causality tend to be with figures of authority, such as teachers or parents. In the case of teachers, it might be reasonable to consider the wider collegial network, which is comprised of their peer teachers and members of the academic management team within the school system (see Section 3.2.2.3). It may additionally be helpful to limit this group to those with
whom the teacher has some form of contact, as there may be individuals for whom the relationship is too distant as to be of real influence. Of the three psychological needs, problems with relatedness are spoken of in the most explicit terms by the teachers (see Section 6.1.1.6). In many ways, the educational system in Solaris creates an inhospitable environment for the fostering of relatedness in a professional sense, as will now be demonstrated.

A primary issue is the limited manner in which teachers are able to interact with their colleagues and peer teachers. It is usual in this context for teachers to arrive at the school moments prior to the start of the class or the opening ceremony if it is the first class of the day. One explanation for this may be the lack of recognisable staff rooms in most schools, with some buildings offering shared use of the caretaker’s area or a small unused room with only the presence of a kettle demarcating it as for uses other than teaching or storage. As a result of these factors, and the nature of their timetables (see Section 6.1.1.5), teachers are unlikely to meet and discuss school related issues or work on last-minute adjustments to lesson plans prior to their classes. Instead, once in school, they tend to proceed directly to the classroom for the beginning of the lesson. Within the ten-minute breaks which occur after every second class, much of the allotted free time is occupied with moving between classes and preparing for the next period. However, for those who are working in a school which provides an allotted space for the teachers, there may be time for a brief chat and some maté tea before heading back to class. For those, who are required by their timetable to travel to another school, any such opportunities must be foregone.

In addition to the lack of opportunity to build interpersonal relationships with fellow teachers, a degree of isolation is inherent in the support networks which have been set in place for the teaching community. The preceptores and POTs may be seen to be active within the school fulfilling their official duties e.g. taking the register, delivering information to the students, or collecting and delivering items. However, whilst they may often have cause to enter the English teachers’ classrooms (see Section 7.1.7 for examples), they are seldom seen working with the English teachers to facilitate the students’ progress (see Section 6.1.1.6). Given the dearth of pedagogical support offered to the English teachers by the POTs and the often-conflicting agendas with regard to the students, it may not be altogether surprising that these teachers bemoan a sense of professional isolation. What is more, this
scarcity of support and lacking sense of institutional connectedness additionally extends to the academic management team. As has been evidenced (see Sections 6.1.1.2, 6.1.1.8), very little professional support is offered to the English teachers, with nothing provided with regard to CPD, and few classroom observations for other purposes. Moreover, there is scant evidence of systems in place to aide teachers with student behavioural issues, aside from a series of low-level interventions by the POTs when compelled. For many of the POTs, their responsibility is the students’ pastoral needs foremost and whilst they potentially provide a valuable support network in this regard, this is rarely extended to encompass the teachers. It may be fair to say that once inside the classroom, the teachers are very much alone; the feeling of which may be further compounded by the previously noted lack of genuine interaction with their peers at other times in the school day.

It is additionally perhaps noteworthy that while many of the issues noted in this thesis similarly affect educators of other subjects, the English language teachers suffer an enhanced degree of separation by virtue of their subject. Whilst there may be a degree of assistance available from the POTs for other teachers, the language barrier impedes any possibility of this occurring within the English classes (see Section 6.1.1.6). A further issue may be that by virtue of the differences between general subject pedagogy and language pedagogy, any opportunities which do exist for discussions between teachers fall short of optimal usage as a result of a lack of common pedagogical background. Put simply, the English teachers are considered by many to be part of a separate sub-group within the wider teaching community (see Section 6.1.1.2). This designation extends also to potential collaborations between subject teachers which, whilst not the norm in general, are even less likely to take place with teachers of English.

The net result of this combination of factors is an over-riding sense of isolation for the teachers. Sonya encapsulates this sentiment, commenting that the teachers, “have this feeling that we are alone, [...] you are an island in the classroom with the kids” (SoPC/10/10/16). Such a response is highly evocative of a breakdown in terms of relatedness and demonstrates that the English teachers do not feel part of an integrated, inclusive, and supportive education system. Given the aforementioned acceptance within the literature that competence, followed by autonomy are more fundamentally important psychological needs, with relatedness occupying a
supplementary role once these two have been satisfied, questions may be raised as to the importance of these findings. However, whilst Deci and Ryan (1985) adopt a clear position that self-determination theory retains its explanatory potential across cultural boundaries, highly social cultures, such as those found in Latin America, may present a method of problematising the authors’ assumptions. In Solaris, where informality and interpersonal relationships command a high degree of importance (SNRJ/09/15; SNRJ/10/15; SNRJ/11/15), it may be found that structures and systems which impede the creation and maintenance of such relationships might be seen to have a substantial deleterious impact on autonomous forms of teaching motivation. Moreover, this effect may be more influential than has previously been predicted within the published theoretical and empirical literature.

As has been seen, the state space at the outset of the 2016 academic year incorporated a variety of initial conditions which were likely to negatively affect levels of teaching motivation. These have been analysed in contextually appropriate interactional relationships; however, the predictive reliability of such nonlinear effect sizes cannot be relied on too highly. Instead, what has been provided thus far, is an account of the real-world challenges facing English language teachers which is rooted in ethnographic data and interpreted in a contextually appropriate manner. It is hoped as a result of this, the reader may now possess a clearer understanding of the challenges inherent in the context. I now turn to those features of Solaris which are seen to positively affect teaching motivation.

6.1.3 Initial conditions of the state space: Positive influences.

Thus far, there has been an extensive focus on the evidence of negative influences within the state space. However, whilst fewer in quantity, Solaris also offers evidence of initial conditions which can exert a positive influence on teaching motivation. Naturally, a deeper and more accurate understanding of the context can only be achieved through a thorough examination of data relevant to both negative and positive facets. Therefore, attention now turns to positive motivational influences.

6.1.3.1 Job satisfaction.

For many of the teachers, when discussing the roots of their motivation, the two regularly mentioned positive influences were a sense of job satisfaction and, a
love for teaching (see Sections 5.1.1.2; 5.1.2). Perhaps unsurprisingly, those same teachers also generally tended to self-report high levels of motivation to teach. When asked to quantify this on a notional cline from one to ten, no teacher suggested anything below eight (FGPC/14/11/15). It should be noted that this usage of the scale was purely as a means of aiding the teachers to communicate in more detail how they would describe their own self-perceived levels, and not intended to be used for comparisons between the participants. Gwen qualified her high score by clarifying that, “I wouldn’t give it a ten, there are lots of things I don’t like about it. But especially when I think of other people doing something else, I’d rather be doing this” (FGPC/14/11/15). Nevertheless, the teachers were quick to recognise that their levels of motivation are dynamic in nature and much would be dependent on the surrounding conditions at the moment of the question being asked. As such, it is entirely possible that a quite different answer might come on another day or at an alternative time. Whilst this might be considered a rationale for criticism and an admission of weakness for the data as an indicator of positive motivational bias, such an argument can also be refuted. Given that the question was put to the teachers within an interview positioned as wanting to learn about teaching in Solaris at a more general level, it is reasonable to proffer the theory that they were, in fact, presenting a more stable, long term evaluation of themselves and their motivation. As has previously been noted (see Section 5.1.2), such subjective data can always face allegations of inherent conscious or subconscious biases on the part of the participants, with this being a potential weakness of many studies that employ self-report items. However, it may be salient to note that these initial numerical values proved to be quite robust when compared to other data designed to capture the teachers’ perceived levels of motivation across the academic year. Whilst the data from each teacher afforded the opportunity to see changes occurring when analysed over shorter timeframes, greater stability was evidenced when viewed over longer periods of time. As such, I believe these are representative of the teachers’ experiences, as they perceived them, at the time of capture.

Naturally, more information was sought from the participants regarding the reasons for their reported high levels of motivation to teach English. A regular feature of these ensuing discussions was the sense of satisfaction that the teachers gained from their work. Santiago chose to expound on the matter:
Ehm as for the subject. Eh, and of course it is wonderful, and you feel enthusiasm from the children for eh for, any topic or any certain ehm, activity. So {pause} I think most of us are satisfied with our jobs, despite these eh {pause} negative eh, aspects we all have already said. {pause} And that is a very good thing, that we are satisfied.

(Extract 6.124, FGPC/14/11/15)

Here, Santiago, perhaps aware of the extended preceding discussion of negative aspects of teaching, may have elected to share this as a primary positive feature, and in doing so offer a degree of balance. Nevertheless, other teachers also offered their own input on the matter independently. As a teacher of both primary and secondary students, Alice noted the differences between them in terms of her teaching motivation:

The best age to teach is teenagers because when you get them really involved in what you propose and in what they’re doing, they are like the best one, the best learners [...] I think that is quite true, in fact.

(Extract 6.125, AIPC/30/03/16)

This was in response to my asking why she had chosen not to teach any secondary school classes in 2016, something which she was evidently somewhat conflicted about despite it being a necessary and voluntary decision. Additionally, Amber spoke of the need to possess autonomous motivation, framing it as advice to a hypothetical trainee teacher:

First of all, you need to know that you like teaching. The first thing you need to know. If you don’t like teaching, I don’t know, study to be a translator if you like English. So, from then on, erm, that would be my piece of advice because teaching is, is hard, is hard if you don’t like it. It’s hard if you like it so imagine if you don’t. So, I always tell them, if I had to be a lawyer, I don’t know, I would die because I, you know? So, teaching is something very special, you need to like hmmm, you need to like children, not all the time – sometimes you want to kill them, but you don’t. The next morning, you feel like, OK, well, that was yesterday. Erm, so that, that would be my piece of advice. Think about the fact that you’re going to be in
front of a class for the rest of your life. Would you like that? Would you enjoy that, more than like. I get into a classroom, and of course there are some days that I feel like I don’t want to be in the classroom, but most of the days, I do. I get up in the morning, half past six-quarter to seven, I want to go to school. I’m almost fifty-three so think about that.

(Extract 6.126, AmPC/11/03/16)

Later in the same interview, Amber added further qualification to underline the degree of importance she attaches to the satisfaction that comes from direct contact with the students:

AMBER  I wouldn’t like to be a supervisor or a headmaster or something of the sort.
IR  Why’s that?
AMBER  Why? Because I like working with, with hmmm, children, teenagers, not with grown-ups.

(Extract 6.127, AmPC/11/03/16)

For Amber, there is a very clear sense of what type of person should want to be in the classroom and notions of career progression which might lead to her moving away from the classroom do not interest her. This is perhaps relevant as she could conceivably reduce the number of secondary school hours in her timetable and increase those spent within the private institutes instead. In spite of this, she still elected to maintain a full timetable each year in the same secondary school, opting to take pleasure from watching each class progress through the school, developing as they mature.

In addition to this more generalised sense of enjoyment from working with their pupils in English, some of the teachers also derived pleasure from other aspects of their work. Gwen noted the importance of the soft skills development which is an integral part of working with teenagers:

It’s not just teaching English in many cases, you’re also teaching other things for life, like, I don’t know, uhh, listening to each other, respecting each other and I think that’s an important part as well of the job for any subject.

(Extract 6.128, FGPC/14/11/15)
Such reasoning carries additional weight for Gwen as she had previously expressed her initial dislike for teaching this age group:

But, I don’t know, I, before I started teaching, few years ago, 3 or 4 years ago, if you asked me, “Do you fo-, do you picture yourself teaching teenagers?” I would have said, “No way,”, because I didn’t like teenagers. Because I hadn’t had a chance to work with them. And then because I had to make a career shift and look at other options and I decided to, to try teaching, and I realised that I really enjoy it, so I’ve learned from that.

(Extract 6.129, FGPC/14/11/15)

Despite her earlier reservations, Gwen had quickly grown to enjoy working with secondary school students and later, shortly after completing her practicum in a primary school, expressed a preference for secondary school students. As with Gwen, Mary also derived a significant degree of satisfaction from seeing the personal development of her students, in addition to their academic improvement. This was in spite of her awareness that for many of them, progress tended to be slow:

I try to get them to be the best, that’s the only thing. [false starts] I’m always trying to get a little, to improve just a little. Step by step. My objective are not high. Not low. I try to discover each day what can I do. I prepare the lesson and I think that today I can teach this, for example. But if I think I can do more, I do more, and if I have to go back to a step, I go back to a step. I don’t care what the others say.

(Extract 6.130, MaPC/15/04/16)

This degree of expectation management appears to work well for Mary. The rewards that she obtains when her strategy shows results, serve to make light work of the additional efforts required when working with teenagers from more challenging backgrounds:

I think the kids at 33 can find, show the language that they can understand something in English. They eh, they are reluctant to, to the English because they say, “I will never use it.”, “I don’t want to study English.”, “I don’t want to say anything.”, and when they realise they can say a sentence, they can write a sentence about themselves, that for me is great.

(Extract 6.131, MaPC/15/04/16)
Similarly, Ben manages to find a degree of happiness that is personally relevant in the linguistic development of his classes. As a qualified teacher, he has been able to retain this group for a number of years and use this continuity to build on their achievements. One benefit of this longer timescale is that it allowed him to identify new developments within the group in only the second week of the new term:

I’m really happy because my Wednesday group is really making an effort to learn, and they have shown me that they have lost their fear of facing an entire explanation in L2 without having to use Spanish for them to understand. It’s really rewarding when I come to see their progress after being their teacher for two years.

(Extract 6.132, BeRJ/19/03/16)

Given that it is relatively rare for a teacher to be able to communicate an explanation in English without being forced to translate immediately into Spanish (Extract 6.6), such moments are noteworthy and genuinely valued by Ben. Having previously expressed a sense of frustration with the lack of challenge provided by the state school sector and highlighted enjoying working with higher level students (Extract 6.80), Ben noted in particular his pleasure when teaching students who do not require a reliance on translation.

Whilst there has been an attempt to provide a range of perspectives in these samples from the data set, the unifying thread which connects them is the sense of satisfaction that each teacher derives from their chosen career. An argument might be made that these do not represent initial conditions within the state space that may result in higher levels of teaching motivation. Such a line of thought would suggest that these are, in fact, evidence of such changes and not the cause. However, I feel that when conceptualising a teacher’s motivational complex system, it is necessary to note the reality of a constantly shifting landscape. As such, each change in the parameters form the initial conditions for a future version of the state space. Employing this perspective allows it to be seen that these positive experiences could result in a deepening of an attractor basin; inoculating the teacher’s motivational complex system and giving it stronger resistance to threats. A further possibility may be that what has been outlined here are the beginnings of a perturbation which may result in a state shift away from a lowering of motivation levels. Naturally, other explanations are also possible; however, I believe that the sample extracts seen in
this section have something to offer the discussion of contextually relevant positive influences for these teachers in Solaris.

6.1.3.2 Interpersonal relationships.

Whilst many of the teachers exhibited a genuine sense of satisfaction from their work as English instructors, such directly identifiable surface level responses are influenced by experiences and associations which operate on a deeper level. For many of the teachers who reported strong positive affective associations for their pedagogical work, there was an underlying influence being triggered by the interpersonal connections they shared with their students. Mary spoke passionately about the importance of this personal dimension:

The way that I teach, I always want to be involved with the kids. That’s the way I love teaching. If I couldn’t make involved with them, I put, I leave it aside. I don’t want to stay. [...] I don’t want to leave the school because of the kids because I feel comfortable with the kids, the school is near my house also, so I don’t want to leave that school because I think that socially, what I know, I can teach them something different that they can do and they can be something in the future. It’s not to pass and be, “OK, I get a secondary school degree”, and that’s all. No, they have to be someone in their life. That’s more than teaching the language.

(Extract 6.133, MaPC/15/04/16).

It seems that for Mary, this bond is not solely connected to her pedagogical work and for her, there is also a crucial social dimension with its own inherent value. Sonya also mentions the value of this personal link as something distinct from teaching in terms of its value to her:

The fact that we have three hours in a row, and that I have to provide with a break is an obstacle. I find it hard to try to monitor them all. They are a big group. Despite all these feelings, I enjoy being with them, mainly because of the relationships we can establish.

(Extract 6.134, SoRJ/19/03/16)

For Sonya, it may be in addition to, rather than as a result of, the teaching that she values the bond she has with these students. This was not an unusual response from Sonya, who I found regularly attached a particularly high level of importance to the
interpersonal dimension in the classroom. Similarly, Rae, who after discussing some of the negatives to teaching English in secondary schools, found herself momentarily searching for a positive to share. She found herself drawn toward the same direction, though it should be noted that her network also includes her colleagues in addition to her students:

The positive {pause}, well, I think er, the positive ah, we know each other, we know the principal, we know our teachers ehh, we know the schools, and as far as I have been working, I know most of the students.

(Extract 6.135, FGPC/14/11/15)

Developing the theme further, Amber notes how important a foil these interpersonal relationships are for mitigating some of the negatives of teaching:

AMBER And then the school, I enjoy the kids. It’s hard work because, it’s really hard work, I have a lot of students in each of the classes and sometimes my throat suffers, you know, my vocal folds, but uhm, but then you get the kids who come and hug you or something like that and then, so I don’t know... [...] I like the relationship with the, with the students. [...] It’s not that I have from first to sixth, all of them, high level or low level... So, it’s kind of, I have them every other year, the same students. First, not second, third, not fifth, sixth.

IR Is that a positive or a negative?

AMBER I wouldn’t know. Somethings it’s positive, some of the things, it’s negative. It’s positive because I see the changes, terrible type of changes, from first to third to sixth, they are different people. Annd, that is negative for me too because I have missed their growing up. So, it’s like, I don’t know whether that is more positive or more negative. I don’t know.

(Extract 6.136, AmPC/11/03/16)

It seemed at this point that perhaps Amber was changing her mind with regard to her orientation. This is despite her remaining convinced of the influential nature of such relationships. However, soon after the interview, she offered a further perspective in her reflective journal and it seemed that she may have been considering the matter
further as events transpired in the following day. “I felt rewarded in a way by the 6th-year students, who I hadn't met since 3rd year, as they seem to appreciate me a lot and that was rather comforting” (AmRJ/12/03/16). Not for the last time would Amber express this almost familial level of connection to her students, particularly those in higher levels who she had known for some years, and the pivotal role this had in maintaining her levels of teaching motivation.

Considering this matter further gave me pause for thought as I reflected on an early discussion with Estanislao which had occurred shortly after I arrived in Solaris for the first time. I had been seeking an insider’s perspective and some advice, prior to visiting the secondary schools in the search for potential participants. My research journal shows:

One interesting point that has been on my mind since yesterday was Estanislao’s suggestion that the teachers here really want someone to actually hear them and to understand their lives rather than simply listening in order to force an attempt at a quick fix upon them. When questioned further, he confided that he felt this may be a Latin American tendency, more generally, and that for many Latinos, being listened to and allowed to share their lives is important.

(Extract 6.137, SNRJ/09/15)

As the year progressed, I would return to this comment, and others like it, to which I attached greater relevance over time. Whilst I initially considered Estanislao to have been referring to a desire within the teachers to connect with their peers, it gradually became evident that this was not a feature of the context and that very few opportunities exist for peer bonding within the education system. Similarly, with no prior experience of involvement in research, the teachers could have few clear ideas of what engagement with myself as a researcher might entail and resultingly few preconceived notions of what they might share with me. Instead, I began to notice evidence of the teachers orienting toward their relationships with the students in a manner which afforded them an opportunity for this desire to be satisfied. Close personal bonds emerged between teachers and students, which often incorporated the sharing of personal information outside the immediate norms of teacher-student classroom interactions. It was through this recognition that I began to see the connection between the inter-relationships the teachers had with their learners and
their teaching motivation begin to crystallise in the data. Ben offered an example of the way this connection fed into his ability to maintain his sense of motivational equilibrium:

So, what I try to do in order to keep motivated is to set a personal goal or two. For example, getting to know my students, I see, well this course is a very good one so by the end of the year, I will try to make them er, film something, a short film.

(Extract 6.138, FGPC/14/11/15)

Even before each year begins, Ben is in the habit of planning ahead and considering ways that he can maintain his levels of motivation to teach English. What emerged as the year progressed, was a realisation that Ben had a number of such strategies that he would employ, something which foregrounded the importance of the bonds with his students. Similarly, for Mary, the motivational effect from these relationships was circular in nature. By taking time away from classroom activities, she could work on developing a strong sense of rapport with the students, which she could then later capitalise on for pedagogical aims:

MARRY And sometimes what I notice is they say that er, I gave them time to talk they want so I become, in some cases, I become friends with them. I become eh, their ear to any problem. And that’s the way that I can teach them then the language.

IR It’s interesting because a number of teachers have mentioned the importance, almost of the social work side of, of teaching here in Solaris. Do you think that’s er, a major part of the classroom?

MARRY Yes. Yes. You have to be, to get involved with the students so you can teach whatever you want. [...] That’s my way. For example, if in 33, I gain their love with food. Believe it or not. For example, I prepare cake and I give them, so I started the lesson with a cake and they can eat the cake while we teach, while I teach so the, the atmosphere is different and they feel that I, they are, for me they are not only students, they are persons. So that’s change the relationship. I drink maté with
them, maté tea, whatever they want. If they want to be on the floor, I sit with them on the floor and I {starts laughing} read the text on the floor with them. Yes. I play with them, play cards. Sometimes for example, with the sixth grade, I finish really late in the afternoon and they are tired, really tired so if they want to play first, we play, and then I can teach them.

(Extract 6.139, MaPC/15/04/16)

For these teachers, it seemed that perhaps Estanislao’s initial words had proven to be prophetic and the need to connect with others, to listen, and most of all to be heard, was of fundamental importance to the teachers in this context.

6.1.3.3 Other noteworthy positives.

Having now covered the most significant positively influential factors found in the data, there remain a small number of miscellaneous items which I feel are worth highlighting in an attempt to afford the reader a fuller understanding. In the first of these, Gwen, recognises that there may have been a disproportionate number of motivational negatives when compared to positives, and she attempts to redress this balance:

Well, I’m a bit embarrassed {unclear} I have quite a negatives and just one positive. {group laughter} I couldn’t think of any other positives, at the moment. Probably there are {unclear} now. So, on the positive side it’s a challenge. I like challenges.

(Extract 6.140, FGPC/14/11/15)

In reality, Gwen was generally much more positive than this might indicate, showing signs of engagement and enjoyment in her work on a regular basis. However, it is instructive that whilst in that moment, this was the only positive she was able to provide. Similarly, Ben found himself struggling to offer something other than negatives aspects:

Eh, well the positive aspects of being a language teacher in Solaris is that, I saw it through the economic point of view. {laughs} {group laugh} Uhhhh, it is a small place and there are few teachers, there are very few teachers
As with Gwen, Ben tended to speak highly of his chosen profession, and it was something of a surprise that he was unable to present any other positives to teaching English. However, it should be recognised that this should not be presented as a definitive list and the teachers may have presented more options at another time, or on another day. I would like to note that the teachers had been given preparatory time for taking notes of ideas before any discussion began, as such, there was not the sense that they had been ambushed by the topic. Santiago provides another perspective:

I should be say learning a language is good for people, in terms of intelligence development particularly. Eh, and well teaching English, by teaching English, you also help building real communication between people. Er, that's for the positive side.

This could perhaps be considered a more philosophical and less pragmatic approach, something which might be more consistent with the personality of Santiago in many ways. However, it does potentially also represent a deeper and more meaningful engagement with his career. For Santiago, the ability to communicate in English appears to be bound up with aspects of identity and self-esteem, something which may be connected to his status as an unqualified teacher at secondary level and a personal need for greater significance in his work. Finally, it should be acknowledged that my own presence in Solaris, and my ongoing engagement with the core participating teachers was not entirely without impact on their levels of motivation. Over the duration of an academic year, this could take many forms and might shift according to contextual factors and with the individual characteristics of my relationship with each teacher. Nevertheless, after a conversation in my second meeting with Sonya, I recalled the following in my research journal:

Sonya commented that she found her discussion with me to be motivating. This is may be evidence that my presence here cannot fail to affect the teachers in some way or another. I must acknowledge this as it cannot be avoided.
I feel it is important to be transparent and recognise that my presence in the lives of the teachers throughout the period from late 2015 to the end of the 2016 academic year held the potential to impact on their motivational levels. Moreover, a degree of influence may additionally still remain through virtual communication, the residual effects of my feedback, and ongoing classroom projects (see Section 8.2). I acknowledge the charge that as a direct result of my presence within the field, it could no longer be deemed a typical year in Solaris. Great efforts were expended to neutralise my impact wherever possible and to try and filter out interfering white noise while observing the field. As such, lessons gleaned from this unusual year, may still resonate with, and be of benefit to other periods in which no researcher is present. Nevertheless, it has not been an aim of this study to imply that the events that transpired in 2016 were entirely representative of other academic years. Instead, a feature of complex systems is that ever-shifting contextual factors result in self-organisation and the spontaneous emergence of new initial conditions. As such, developing an understanding of what occurred in 2016 from a pool of rich ethnographic data, may afford new insights into the lives of English teachers in Argentina, and thereby embellish the existing body of knowledge.

6.1.4 Discussion of positives.

As a result of the data analysis, the following visual representation is provided in order to aid the reader with the discussion which follows.
In the earlier discussion of research question one (see Section 5.1.2), it was noted that the data was consistent with Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), who predicted a strong intrinsic motivation profile for teachers. With regard to the initial conditions of the state space which are liable to result in a positive influence, it is noteworthy that there are considerably fewer than their negative counterparts: three as opposed to eleven (see Figure 6.1; Figure 6.2). What is more, the first of these, job satisfaction, is representative of both teaching motivation itself, and an antecedent of the same. As such, this might be considered a form of nesting, whereby positive initial conditions cause in a shift within the state space, which then results in a teacher’s complex system stabilising within a positively motivated attractor state. This new state could now be considered to be the new set of initial conditions for whatever may subsequently occur, as the complex system continues to spontaneously self-adapt to the ongoing interaction with contextual changes. As with the downward spiral noted earlier (see Section 6.1.2.1), it is also possible that positive control parameters can engender further gains in teaching motivation; with either improvements or enhanced stability as natural outcome. In this scenario, a sense of job satisfaction (see Section 6.1.3.1) can potentially result in a more motivated teacher, who finding themselves intrinsically motivated; therefore, enjoys
their career yet further. Such an outcome would naturally, be quite welcome in contrast to its more destructive opposite.

Returning to the three basic psychological needs of CET, Roth et al. (2007) state that “contextual support for teachers’ competence, relatedness, and autonomy needs may enhance motivation, whereas lack of support may have deleterious effects” (p. 43). Having presented the negative influences on the state space and employed cognitive evaluation theory as means of interpreting those results, it is germane to apply the same method to these positive influences. It is apparent from my extended analysis of the data set that there is scant evidence of data which evidences positive instances of the teachers’ basic psychological need for competence being met, whether explicitly or implicitly. One exception to this is Gwen (Extract 6.140) who notes that she finds her chosen career to be challenging, and that this is motivational for her. In doing so, she provides a rare glimpse of the potential upturn in teaching motivation that can result from having the psychological need for competence met. One possible reason for Gwen being alone in this is that she was still in the process of completing her pre-service teacher training while she worked. As such, it is possible that the exposure to new ideas and the enhanced degree of self-reflection inherent with such a course could have created conditions liable to encourage her to seek out new challenges. With other more experienced teachers, given the acknowledged lack of any CPD (see Section 6.1.1.8), they may have shown evidence that their own lack of access to such influences was an impediment to seeking an enhanced degree of challenge within their classrooms.

Similarly, autonomy support was not a feature of the educational system in Solaris (see Section 6.1.2.2). Given the nature of the context and its characterisation as offering only surface level autonomy (see Section 6.1.2.2), it is noteworthy that Ben was the only teacher to refer to a positive influence related to his psychological need for autonomy (Extract 6.141). Whilst initially discussing the importance of the remuneration his career could offer, Ben additionally noted that he enjoyed the freedom to choose where he worked. As a qualified and experienced secondary school English teacher, Ben does retain a great deal of freedom in this regard. Inherent in such freedom for a teacher like Ben, is the opportunity to retain classes across academic years and enjoy the continuity and developing rapport, which accompanies this. Furthermore, a teacher such as Ben will find himself closer to the top of the list of teachers if he were to apply for new courses; therefore, he enjoys a
greater sense of security in his career. This could be said to present him with a very different vantage point than that of an unqualified teacher and a far greater degree of professional autonomy with regard to his timetabled teaching hours.

The final of the triumvirate of basic psychological needs is relatedness and it has been established that many of the teachers feel profoundly isolated from the education system (see Section 6.1.1.6). What may be unusual is that in place of peer or institutional support from within the system, the teachers appear to have subverted the need for these traditional relationship dynamics and replaced those missing professional relationships with the personal connections they have developed with their students. Whilst a degree of such bonding is not unusual in classrooms elsewhere, the specific conditions inherent in the state space of Solaris appear to have lent this greater importance and a deeper connection is evident. For example, when Mary discusses her work with students from quite challenging backgrounds (Extract 6.1.33), competence and autonomy are given lower priority as compared to relatedness. She does note a sense of challenge in attempting to motivate her students to believe they can achieve a secondary school leaving certificate and furthermore, she takes advantage of her autonomy in the classroom to deviate from the English curriculum. However, her social and pedagogical inter-personal relationships within the school are almost all with her learners. In an environment where she had often clashed with members of the academic management team and rarely met the other English teachers as a result of her timetable, meeting her need for relatedness with her students may have been the only viable option available to Mary.

The interpersonal dimension stands out as the primary positive underlying influence within the data, with many teachers noting it as a major component of their motivation to teach (see Section 6.1.3.2). Such an outcome has been hinted at, with Muñoz and Ramirez (2015) noting that for their participant teachers in Colombia, relatedness was of greater importance than competence or autonomy. What is more, considering this from a wider contextual vantage point, it may be that with colleagues and authority figures in the schools tending to be distant and out of direct contact, the teachers may be co-adapting their relationships with their students to replace these missing connections. The teachers are attempting to create the strong social bond of relatedness which they instinctively feel are necessary to create a supportive classroom within their cultural context. In doing so, they may be
becoming more aware on a nonconscious level that this is an important facet of their professional lives which is missing. As a result, there is the potential for the teachers to grow accustomed to utilising these bonds with their students for momentary motivational boosts, and also more long-term motivational support. I would argue that this represents an altogether new finding and could provide an alternative lens through which to examine the issue of teacher motivation in Latin American contexts, and potentially farther afield.

6.1.5 Research question two: Discussion.

After careful examination of the data, it has been argued that for the participating teachers in this study, the context of Solaris presents a wide range of challenges to their teaching motivation. In spite of this, the core-participants often appeared able to locate positive influences and many expressed a strong sense of satisfaction with their profession.
Figure 6.3 offers a visual representation of the state space at the outset of the 2016 academic year. As can now be seen, both positive and negative factors interact in a sophisticated web of initial conditions which reflect the specifics of the context. However, evidence has shown that there are considerable challenges facing the teachers, with significantly more potential negative influences than positive. Whilst it is now possible to provide an overview of the initial conditions which impact on the trajectory of the teachers’ motivational state spaces, recognition must be given to the limitations in terms of predictive power. As is consistent with a complexity
perspective, each of these facets is endowed with nonlinear impact potential. As a result, it is not possible to infer simplistic assumptions with regard to future trajectories based on the quantity of positive or negative initial conditions. Whilst it may not be possible to assume that the larger number of negative initial conditions mean that lower levels of teaching motivation might be more likely, such a scenario could potentially explain the widespread low levels indicated in Chapter 5. More importantly, recognition should also be given to the impact resulting from meeting the teachers’ basic psychological needs for competence, autonomy and relatedness. In particular, these teachers, who exhibited high levels of motivation to teach, appeared to be strongly affected by their need for relatedness, and the interpersonal relationships they shared with their students were seen to be the primary driver of their teaching motivation.
7 The dynamicity of teaching motivation

In chapter five, levels of teaching motivation in Solaris were explored, with the identification of low levels being widespread, and recognition of a smaller number of positively motivated professionals. These findings were explored in greater depth in chapter six through the provision of a detailed account of the initial conditions which impact on levels of teaching motivation. In this chapter, a tighter focus is now given to understanding the changes in motivation which occurred throughout the academic year of 2016. A range of temporal perspectives is provided, and evidence of nesting offered. The data are drawn from across the year and incorporate focus group interviews with students; my own shadowing field notes; observation data from both the observed teachers and I; reflective journal entries; a focus group interview with the teachers; and individual interviews. Where appropriate, classroom data have been included from later in the data collection cycle. It is my belief that by this stage of the year, the teachers and students had spent a great deal of time working with me and their trust had been earned. One direct benefit of this is that more natural data could be captured, which accurately reflect the reality of the classroom. Moreover, having shadowed each teacher for many hours by this point, my awareness of their individual characteristics had been honed and any changes in motivation were more easily identified. It is intended that by incorporating a wide range of data sources, a degree of validation may be achieved which will lend support to the findings. The chapter begins with the views of the students, then progressing to those of the core-participant teachers. Finally, a deeper examination of the nonlinearity of effect size is provided through detailed analysis of a sample lesson. In each section, the results and discussion are combined as a means of facilitating ongoing engagement for the reader.

7.1 Is there evidence of the dynamic nature of teaching motivation?

7.1.1 Students.

Any attempt at understanding the reality of teaching motivation in the secondary school classroom environment might be open to criticism if room were not provided for the voices of the students. More than anyone, they are the beneficiaries of strongly motivated teachers and have much to gain in their language learning through the existence of such behaviours (Lamb, 2017). In order to
contextualise the students’ descriptions of changing levels of teacher motivation, each student focus group was first asked to describe how they knew when their teacher was, or was not, motivated to teach them:

**STUDENTS**  
It’s like, I had a teacher last year that she would get so mad she would end up silent.

**STUDENTS**  
But a teacher who doesn’t want to teach is like they give you the things like this and nothing more. And they don’t explain.

(Extract 7.1, SFG-Ra/06/05/16)

Here, a sense is given of a teacher that is disengaging from the classroom, whether verbally or in terms of their willingness to assist their learners. The withholding of explanations was recognised by more than one group of students:

**Besides, you realize it because a teacher who doesn’t feel like doing anything doesn’t explain anything to you or they only explain to the group that’s paying attention and instead our teacher explains everything to us, students that are talking, he asks them to be quiet. You realize that he wants to.**

(Extract 7.2, SFG-Gw/20/05/16)

In addition to helping the students understand, there is a recognition that a motivated teacher will ensure that the students are all paying attention and not interrupting those that wish to work. Moreover, the learners are quick to notice if a teacher has not planned their lessons effectively:

**STUDENTS**  
Because they don’t put any effort into the class.

**STUDENTS**  
You sit and they just give you work.

**STUDENTS**  
They just right away give you an activity from the book and done. Do it.

(Extract 7.3, SFG-Gw/20/05/16)

This attention to lesson preparation was something of a recurring theme, suggesting it may be a practice that is more widespread within the secondary school teaching community in Solaris:
In the above extracts, a sense is given that a motivated teacher is one who arrives in class with a well-planned lesson; who is ready to ensure that all of the students are listening; and who is ready to offer additional help and explanations where needed. This could be seen as consistent with the teachers’ own views (see Section 6.1.1.2). Conversely, an unmotivated teacher may be angry, disengaged and disinterested in planning or aiding the students. This was also noticeably similar to the teachers’ characterisations of low levels of motivation to teach in Solaris (see Sections 5.1.2; 6.1.1.1) and represents successful triangulation of data and support for those findings.

Next, the student focus groups were asked whether they felt their teacher’s levels of motivation changed at all during classes. In this, they were in clear agreement about both the existence of recognisable change, and its primary cause:

- **STUDENTS**  If someone continues yelling it’s like an annoyance. He gets tired.
- **STUDENTS**  In addition, we have a particular group that talks a lot.
- **STUDENTS**  It’s like we all get along well. We’re all going to talk in whatever moment. It’s like we exhaust you a lot.

For these students, they were not only aware of changes in teaching motivation but also felt responsible for its suppression. Once again, this was not an uncommon theme, with another focus group offering, “Yes, often happens that the lessons starts with enthusiasm and by the end of the lesson is like the teacher is tired and wants to leave” (SFG-So/26/05/16). A picture is now starting to emerge of teachers regularly beginning classes with energy but finding themselves worn down by the end of the class:
In addition to tiredness, or perhaps as a result of it, the ability to maintain good temper was also widely noted by the students:

STUDENTS She is a teacher who wants to teach but...

STUDENTS But we exhaust her.

STUDENTS So she arrives like this... happiness and when she finishes the class, like this (making a deflating noise with mouth).

(Extract 7.6, SFG-Ra/06/05/16)

For the learners, it seems that changes in teaching motivation tend to be noteworthy when a motivated teacher found their stamina being tested by chatting students with low levels of concentration for the lesson. This is consistent with the previously identified initial conditions for a teacher’s motivational state space (see Section 6.1.1.1) and may be seen as validation of those findings. It may be interesting to note there was no mention positive changes. Whilst this would be in line with the premise that the teachers tend to begin lessons highly motivated and see this gradually diminish, it is unlikely that this decline would be linear and constant. Instead, peaks and troughs would be expected if such a process were more closely examined and this characterisation by the students may reflect a more general trend.
7.1.2 Sonya.

Sonya had two classes on Thursday mornings, the first was new to her in 2016, though she expected to continue with them for their final year in 2017. She had already taught the second group for one year and they were now beginning their graduation year. The contrast between these two groups was often extreme and, due to my shadowing her on Thursdays, I was presented with an excellent vantage point from which to examine the visible changes in Sonya’s motivation to teach. Early in the year, it became evident that Sonya was experiencing problems with the first class:

Rapport. Yes. Was rather difficult and er, well I think it has to know with the fear of the unknown for them and for me. And erm, getting them used to the way I work and the same happens to me with them.” […] “I think that, well, the part of the, the relationship with them, the rapport with them, building that. That was a challenge. Er, I wanted to show them that they can trust me, as a teacher.

(Extract 7.8, SoSFN/05/16)

Here, Sonya recognises the importance of the interpersonal dimension to her potential success with the group. For her, it appeared that the psychological need for relatedness was the necessary foundation on which she could build. From a complexity perspective, it seems that she viewed building the rapport as the control parameter through which she could shift the trajectory of the classroom complex system within its state space. However, this process was not without its problems:

This morning, Sonya looked quite lively when she first arrived in the building but as soon as she saw the students would be late and that some didn’t have their books, her energy seemed to evaporate and she retreated to her desk. This appears to be a kind of safety blanket and a barrier between her and the class both physically and psychologically.

(Extract 7.9, SoSFN/05/16)

As exemplified in the student data (see Section 7.1.1) Sonya had arrived and begun with her motivational complex system in a positively motivated attractor basin. However, this appears to have been quite shallow as the trajectory of her complex system is soon shifted. The realisation that many of the students would be late and without books seems to have triggered a state shift into a period of disengagement.
from the class as a whole (see Section 7.1.1), something which has been seen to be characteristic of low teaching motivation in this context (see Section 5.1.2). Unfortunately, this latter position proved to be a deeper attractor state and any subsequent changes from these initial conditions were not enough to engender any further change of trajectory. For the remainder of the lesson, there was little direct contact between the teacher and the students with much of the time spent with both parties at their respective desks working in silence. This pattern was only interrupted by occasional visits to the teacher’s desk by the students to have their work corrected. It is possible to view this as a threat to Sonya’s basic psychological need for competence as late students who had not brought their books affected her ability to fulfil her lesson plan. Given that there were additional issues with rapport, and therefore linked to relatedness. This impact on her sense of competence was one from which she was appeared to be unable to recover.

As the year progressed, this group continued to present challenges, with attendant effects on Sonya’s motivation to teach the class. However, in the later stages of the year, signs began to be seen of improvement in the rapport:

[First Thursday group] I arrived at the classroom and I only had one student. I was really disappointed as time went by and nobody showed up. Little by little students started to arrive. Most of them had fallen asleep. In the end, three of the total number were absent. My lack of motivation lasted for at least 50 minutes until I saw the students were in class, but quite reluctant to work. They started making jokes among themselves and asked questions about things not related to the class. I engaged in a conversation with them, we laughed at some things but felt a bit guilty because they were not doing the activity I planned form them. I had mixed feelings. On the one hand, I was okay talking to them, but at the same time, I was worried that they were not working. I don’t know. Maybe they needed that, and me, too.

(Extract 7.10, SoRJ/17/09/16)

A tension can be witnessed here as Sonya appears to have made a decision to sacrifice meeting her psychological need for competence as an English teacher, in favour of exercising her autonomous decision-making to focus on the need for relatedness with the students. This is perhaps noteworthy as competence has often been given greater priority to relatedness in fostering intrinsic motivation. Moreover,
it hints at a stronger pull within her motivational state space toward this trajectory, and its resultant state shift.

In addition to changes across the year thus far and also within each class, Sonya also experienced changes in motivation as she transitioned between this first group and her subsequent lesson. Early in the year, I witnessed a challenging and combative first class of the day, within which Sonya had gradually appeared to become angry, detached and dismissive of the students. As we walked towards the second class, I noted:

Once again, I’m struck by the higher level of energy. [...] Sonya once again seems immediately more comfortable here. Her demeanour and voice soften and become more open and inclusive, less seemingly antagonistic or hostile. I am fascinated by this huge change and I wonder if this was always the way with this group or if at some stage, they were like the first group this morning.

(Extract 7.11, SoSFN/14/04/16)

Later in the class, recorded that:

Sonya seems to be really enjoying this stage of the lesson, she is so much more engaged and her eyes are clear and focussed now, not dead and flat as they were. The sequencing of tasks and activity types to be no different to many other classes I have seen her teach. Moreover, given that I have already seen her completely disengage in the previous class this morning, it seems the only different parameter is the students. They clearly are having a significant impact on her teaching motivation.

(Extract 7.12, SoSFN/14/04/16)

Once again, the control parameter which had triggered the perturbation seemed to be the students and her relationship with them. In fact, this change would become a regular feature on Thursdays:

The following group is always something else. I feel very comfortable among them. Although sometimes they don’t bring the book or appear to be “somewhere else”, it’s nice to work with them, and it helps my motivation. They are nice people, and we have this rapport that it’s sort of an engine for me to be there, and to do my job.

(Extract 7.13, SoRJ/1/10/16)
What is noteworthy here is that, as in the first class, the students have a tendency to arrive in class without their books or without optimal levels of attention for the lesson (Extract 7.9). However, this did not result in the same significant downturn in motivation witnessed earlier. Sonya hints at the reason for this evidence of nonlinearity:

I really enjoy being with that group. So that’s er, a big amount of my, a, a big part of my motivation. Erm, I see a lot of er, er, good (long pause) human quality in that group, let’s say, and erm, they are very respectful and in general, there’s this attitude of doing things well, or to try to learn and erm, so that helps a lot.

(Extract 7.14, SoPC/24/05/16)

Sonya now confirms the significance of relatedness to her motivation, by openly discussing the importance of her interpersonal connection to this group of students. Once again, it is noteworthy that her need for competence and autonomy appear to be relegated to a lower level of importance and it is relatedness that is driving her motivational state space to remain in its positive attractor state.

Given the importance attached to this group of students with regard to boosting Sonya’s motivation to teach, it may be interesting to examine the manner in which this manifests itself. In fact, the reality is more nuanced than has been hinted at, with further peaks and troughs of motivation evident even with this class. In the post-observation interview, I attempted to activate Sonya’s memory of the events by describing what I had seen and offering her room to comment:

IR OK, so for this period here between 11:10 and 11:20 it seemed like you’d disengaged from the class.
SONYA Mhhmm, probably.
IR [...]you’d set the activity up and then the students had been left to get on with it and-
SONYA -Mmm-
IR -there was no teacher engagement in terms of kind of monitoring-
SONYA -Mhhmm-
IR -or looking to see what was going on or visible signs of engagement.
SONYA Right.
IR And that’s why, from my perspective sat at the back of the classroom, and possibly for the students as well, this is another vantage point,-
SONYA -Mhmmm-
IR -it, it looked as if your motivation to be engaged in online active teaching had taken a drop.
SONYA -Mhmmm-
IR Does that seem fair?
SONYA Yes.
IR OK. OK. What was interesting for me here was what happened at 11:35. You can see a spike here where we went from all the way down at two, we went all the way up to six. Can you guess what happened there?
SONYA (long pause) Err, we started interacting and they began asking questions on how to say things or something like that?
IR There was a moment here, this spike in both self-efficacy and motivation, where you were marking some students’ work and handing it back to them.
SONYA -Mhmmm-
IR And there was one student who was a boy that was sat just two people down from me and he’d done particularly well. And I don’t know if this was surprisingly well or just that he’d done better than the other students but it changed you physically. As you were marking it-
Once again, for Sonya, the rapport with the students is everything. One reading of the events might consider that she was buoyed by the student’s success as it provided
evidence that she had taught him well, thereby triggering a sense of professional self-efficacy. However, a closer inspection of her framing of the events points to an alternative. By foregrounding her happiness as being on his behalf only and rooted in her strong affiliation to him as a person, a sense of familial pride resonates, as opposed to the traditional teacher-student relationship one might expect. The trajectory of her motivational complex system had been shifted as a result of this critical event in the class and she was visibly boosted from the encounter, leading to a more energetic and engaged teacher interacting with the class thereafter. I would like to acknowledge that some of these extracts might seem to present a potentially unedifying picture of Sonya as a teacher. However, it should be recognised that these extracts are a small number of samples from the academic year that have been selected as they evidence changes in her motivational levels. As such, they should not be seen as exemplifying her typical classroom approach or the events which transpired with other student groups. Moreover, irrespective of the strong challenges that she faced with her first group each Thursday, by the end of the year, Sonya had developed a much closer relationship with them and was looking forward to an altogether more positive second year teaching them. This, in itself may be seen to reflect a change in her motivational dynamic.

7.1.3 Rae.

As an unqualified English teacher, the start of the year brought a degree of stress for Rae, as she searched for classes to complete her timetable (see Section 6.1.1.5). Within this period, her observation group was unexpectedly closed down only a few weeks into the first term whilst at the same time, she was already faced with a challenging timetable that required her to teach until midnight three nights each week, and past eleven o’clock on a fourth. This period of uncertainty as she searched for more classes extended into the second half of the year, at which point she was able to secure a small number of daytime groups to supplement her timetable. In addition to the relief that came with a fuller schedule and concomitant salary increase, Rae experienced genuine joy whilst working with these new classes:

I was so happy my motivation and their motivations was so high, [...] oh they were so happy to learn new words, even they know just to write capital letters in their own language! [...] I don’t know if I can express myself how
As noted earlier (see Section 6.1.3.1), this sense of job satisfaction seems to indicate an internally located perceived locus of causality. Perhaps one explanation for this might be an increase in her sense of competence as a teacher, coming by way of the students’ own joy in the teaching and learning process. In this sense, her complex system may have been pitched into a state of flux by the introduction of these new classes, bringing with them feelings of relief. Upon finding that these would soon become her favourite groups of the week, a relatively deep and wide attractor basin was formed wherein these groups would present a motivational high point with consistent regularity. Further evidence of this can be seen with a subsequent reflective journal entry:

they want me to stay more, they are always asking me more, I said the principal if she allows me stay me more she said just 15 minutes more, I really like to teach when students want to learn! You can see my pleasure to teach when the other cares and respects us..

(Extract 7.17, RaRJ/08/10/16)

Here, Rae provides a textbook example of intrinsically motivated behaviour (Deci, 1971) by choosing to continue with the task beyond its logical moment of completion and for no other reason than the pleasure of teaching the class. Such examples were not uncommon, and Rae would regularly report high levels of motivation to teach, often arriving at the school far in advance of her classes and visibly full of energy. Later in the year when asked what helped her to feel motivated, she offered:

My motivations of, for example, I’m happy maybe when two weeks ago, some girls, they are really trying to start learning English, let’s say. {laughing}
And they brought me a cards with saw me, “OK, who help you?”, “My sisters”. Suddenly the sister and the family, they are trying to help some of them. So, OK, family changing, they’re changing. That motivates me because, OK, there’s a little bit change, even they will learn a little bit but they are changing. They are starting understanding. OK, so my motivation changed that family and that kids and it’s like a feedback.

(Extract 7.18, RaSC/29/11/16)
For Rae, who often presented something of a maternal figure in the classroom, moments such as these took on great significance. As a result, a ripple could often be perceived in her state space, with discrete critical events such as this still being felt on days, or even weeks later.

In spite of these potentially lasting boosts to Rae’s teaching motivation, maintaining a degree of motivational equilibrium was often challenging, with the dynamic nature of her motivational complex system soon evident once more. Moment by moment changes could often be experienced in real time:

I was explaining a new lesson, when the preceptora asked me if the other group could come for one hour. I said ok, oh simon I lost my mood with them, they were shouting eating crisps and having maté, I really I dont care about food but they mustn t shout when we are in class. So I said stop if you go on, you must leave the class.

(Extract 7.19, RaRJ/01/10/16)

As predicted by the students (see Section 7.1.1); recognised by Sonya (see Section 7.1.2); and noted previously in this thesis (see Section 6.2.1.1); issues with student behaviour often presented challenges to teaching motivation in Solaris. It is noteworthy that for Rae, motivation is often expressed through its affective dimension, as she reports feeling happy when positively motivated or angry when her motivational levels are under threat. Whilst these unexpected events (Extract 7.19) brought with them the potential for a phase shift within her motivational state space, regular and more predictable occurrences could also portend a change of trajectory. An annual downturn emerged in the third term, whereupon Rae found that fatigue was affecting her ability to maintain her motivational levels and remain even-tempered:

It s like they are lazy or got used that complains are their way to solve it, I became angry because I don’t want to hear parents complaining by this time of the year. I told kids it was their last chance for them to ask me whatever they needed, they didn’t use it. I asked the POT call {student’s name removed}’s parents, I m tired of his shows, sorry but I don’t want him there anymore with that behaviour. As you can see im tired, I don’t want more to hear stupid things like if they can approve in two weeks when they
At first reading, it may be apparent that this example is another incident involving poor student behaviour. However, a little more context may be helpful, and Rae was experiencing a regular downward trajectory in her motivation late in term three. As previously discussed (see Sections 6.2.1.2; 6.2.1.6), in Solaris, a consistent proportion of the students are in the habit of deferring on the business of studying English until the end of each term and/or year. For many of these learners, the summer school will afford them with an opportunity to condense the work of the year into a brief period, after which they are likely emerge with a good grade, whether successful acquisition has taken place or not. Moreover, levels of parental interest and support for teachers are often lower than optimal for teachers in the wider secondary school system (see Section 5.1.2.1). In such a scenario, it is possible to consider a double impact with a threat to Rae’s sense of autonomy, with her grades for these students ultimately being over-rulled; and competence, as a result of her seeming inability to engage these problematic learners. Moreover, the third dimension of relatedness could also be under threat as Rae is undermined by the summer school process and lacking in institutional or parental support. It is possible to view this both from a micro perspective, whereby these specific changes can be observed; or through a wider macro-lens. With the latter, a form of temporal nesting can be seen with similar events happening each term, and each year with regularity as the onset of the regular exam periods ensue. Coming late in the year when Rae is already feeling fatigued, the effect of this event appears to be much larger than those seen earlier in the year and therefore, evidence of nonlinearity can additionally be noted.

For Rae, changes in motivational scale and valence as a result of the students were a marked feature of her state space:

*That’s why in some moments I have high or lows, or maybe it depends at school, or with the kids, or if they are noisy... [...] When I’m down, really is when I start getting angry. (Both laughing) I know. Ooohhh, I’m getting angry, I’m getting angry because they are talking too much and they don’t pay me attention!*

(Extract 7.21, RaSC/29/11/16)
Moreover, a complexity perspective also allows for other contextual clues to be factored into the initial conditions of such adaptations:

> It changes moment for moment. And it depends who are in the class. The class is different. Because some days when they are few, it’s easier for me because they can listen to me and I feel they are more comfortable because they are asking me more. And when we are the 28, we can’t hear each other really. I’m thinking about the girls that they were asking me, they are always demanding, “RAE come!”, “RAE come!”, “Profé!”, “Profé!”, “Profé!”. And when I have the 28, they don’t feel so comfortable.

(Extract 7.22, RaSC/29/11/16)

Here, Rae acknowledges that small differences, such as the attendance, or absence, of a number of students, can have a marked effect on her ability to remain positively motivated.

However, not all changes are seen as a result of factors within the class itself, nor are they solely driven by student interactions. An example comes from Rae’s second observation class, in which she suffered a downturn in motivation due to an unforeseen problem:

> Rae’s class suffered as we discovered mid-way through the first period the school would have an activity for Diversity Day (this had taken place two days prior, including a day off on Monday this week). The school activity took up the entirety of the second period, thereby co-opting one third of the students’ class time for the week. It is unclear why this was not communicated to the teachers in advance, or why it was scheduled to take place in the middle of the last class of the week. Unfortunately, this meant that by the time the students got back to their lesson, they had less than 40 minutes remaining before they finished for the week. Being first year students, his had something of an impact on levels of focus and engagement, with many struggling to concentrate once they got back. Moreover, this really affected the teacher as she had been giving a lot of thought to this observed lesson, with particular focus on how to be maximally productive and time efficient during lessons.

(Extract 7.23, SNRJ/15/10/16)
As previously noted (see Section 6.1.1.11), chaotic scenes which impeded a teacher’s ability to deliver their planned lesson were not uncommon in Solaris. This is perhaps all the more problematic as the three periods which comprise the entirety of English study within the timetable tend to be scheduled as one long class. The act in question was a set of speeches, songs and dancing in recognition of Diversity Day which created a great deal of excitement for Rae’s first year students, who then found it very difficult to settle for their final period. As this had occurred on a Friday afternoon, Rae was able to offer some reflection the same day when completing her reflective journal for the week:

Friday: really I wanted a better class, and I always try my best, but I didn’t know about the act, and I knew kids would need more time, it was too noisy, but they tried, I knew five didn’t work, three girls did it so slow, but each of them with their own ways were doing it, I expect more next class.

(Extract 7.24, RaRJ/15/10/16)

In this initial reaction, it may be possible to sense disappointment in the outcome of the afternoon for Rae, though this is tempered with resilience and a desire to improve in the subsequent week. However, whilst this perturbation may not have been enough to dislodge Rae’s complex system alone, time would amplify these effects and the rippling outwards continued:

RAE They were really making a group and started working that’s why I was happy from that point of view.

IR OK.

RAE When we came back, after the act, I was even-. It, it was the worst idea to have the act in the middle, no? [...] And that’s really difficult, to work in the last period of Friday, after an act, it’s really challenge for them. And for me. [...] I know that always happens something at school (laughing wryly) and you can plan a class and always there is something, news, or whatever, and I became used to that. [...] Yes, I can’t change my face but I became angry because I thought, ‘Why they didn’t do it on-, by the end, not in the middle!’ It would be better just in this part {indicating the final period} not here {the middle period}. I don’t know why they didn’t did it this way. And I think they always send so many stupid emails telling you, and why
they didn’t tell you, ‘OK, you will have the act from this, in this period’? Maybe they didn’t know.

IR     And about that moment, when you were looking quite flustered toward the end of the class and the students were really struggling to focus by then. They wanted to go home, it was ten minutes, five minutes before the end of the class, they were ready to go. And at one point, after repeatedly asking some of the students to do some work, and to focus and to do something, you turned around to me from the opposite side of the classroom, from the front of the classroom, and you looked at me directly in the eye and you shrugged your shoulders as if to say, ‘What can I do?’

RAE     Ah! Maybe because it was five minutes... yes.

IR     Do you remember that?

RAE     Yes.

(Extract 7.25, RaPC/19/10/16)

In the post-observation interview, Rae’s initial response seems to have given way to a stronger affective reaction. Whilst she acknowledges the previously noted sense of resignation when it is put to her, she now expresses a degree of anger at the interruption to her class. It is possible to view this threat to Rae’s teaching motivation as a result of a failure to meet her basic psychological needs. In the first instance, her ability to autonomously direct the staging and pacing of her lesson was irredeemably undermined, with her only discovering the existence of the act when a student mentioned it in class. Moreover, having spent a great deal of time preparing the lesson, it is possible to consider that realising the impossibility of achieving her lesson aims might impact on Rae’s sense of teaching competence. However, the third psychological need for relatedness once again shows its integral importance to the context, with Rae offering, “I mean that whatever I do, no one cares, so in this point is frustrating” (RaRJ/22/10/16).

If these two timescales can be considered as a rippling of effects from the initial conditions of the lesson, a further perspective was offered some weeks later:
Erm, I get frustrated when I want something and I really can’t reach it or when I try to think my class and I know my kids and when I can really reach. I really want each time, I want more. I’m not satisfied with the lowest level, I want the highest level and I’m angry with myself when I can’t really reach it.

(Extract 7.26, RaSC/29/11/16)

As can be seen, the attribution for the lack of achievement within the lesson has now shifted once more, with Rae now focussing on herself as holding the ultimate responsibility in the classroom. Furthermore, what has been captured may be the shifting trajectory of Rae’s motivational complex system as it was buffeted by the rippling effects of this critical event in her observed lesson. As she moved through the changing affective responses and levels of teaching motivation, her state space re-settled once more with evidence of an attractor basin, one in which she retained the control for what was, or was not, achieved within her class.

7.1.4 Santiago.

Santiago was often characterised by his considerable work ethic and genuine belief in the transformational potential of education. As such, he generally exhibited strong evidence of motivation to teach. However, as an unqualified teacher, he would regularly find himself searching for the necessary number of classes to fill his timetable in the early months of the academic year. One unfortunate by product of this scenario was that the classes left available for him, tended to be in more difficult environments, with challenging students, and in sub-optimal circumstances. When reflecting on the events of 2016, Santiago offered:

In terms of lessons, I find it was much better than last year but at the same time, it has been too conflictive year in terms of institutions, one institution. And salary problems and Union treasons, and much energy have been taken from me by those conflicts. At certain moments- [...] It affects you, I don’t know if it is exactly in motivation but in tiredness, in tiring you. Yes. And it affects sometimes your planning or your preparing material.

(Extract 7.27, SaPC/29/11/16)

Here Santiago references some of the issues noted earlier, which, as an unqualified teacher, he experienced in 2016 (see Sections 6.1.1.3; 6.1.1.5; 6.1.1.6; 6.1.1.7). In addition to this, he notes the teachers’ salary dispute, which had already been
ongoing since the previous year, as a threat to his motivational stability. A failure to reach a mutually acceptable compromise on salaries in 2016 would go on to significantly disrupt the subsequent academic year through extended bouts of industrial action and remain unresolved by mid-2019. Moreover, Santiago recognises the effect these factors can have on his energy levels for planning classes, something which is consistent with comments made by teachers and students when describing low levels of teaching motivation (see Sections 5.1.1.1; 7.1.1).

In addition to these challenges seen across the year from a macro perspective, consistent cancellations of lessons and alterations to his timetable were regular features of the year, with one institution proving to be particularly problematic. Such instances offered a lens through which to view the events of a week. “The week as a whole has not been one of much self-esteem, or of high motivation. [...] the usual discontinued school times all over the day, and the quite different topics I deal with” (SaRJ/08/10/16). Here, Santiago is quite explicit about the manner in which his psychological need for competence is not being met as a result of these changes to his timetable. It is perhaps worth repeating that cancelled classes are not re-scheduled for a later date. Instead, for teachers and students, must then complete the same core syllabus in a reduced timeframe. Additionally, with one class per week, large gaps can appear between lessons when one or more in sequence are cancelled. This can have a deleterious effect on student motivation and levels of engagement, with corresponding impacts on the motivation to teach. Santiago reported that the effect of these gaps between classes, “might have lessened the motivation, when you discover that they don’t know some words or they don’t know how to pronounce other words but they don’t remember what something very basic means” (SaPC/10/05/16). One unfortunate result of reduced motivation can be the same shortness of temper noted previously (7.1.1; 7.1.2; 7.1.3):

And sometimes, I got angry with some of them, two or three of them. And one evening, our principal told me, “Just be calmer and don’t get so angry because you must let that to me.”, that was she’s..., “But you must live with them in every classroom and you must keep the link to them and a good relationship.”, which somehow is very simple and you may say, “Well, I
don’t anybody to tell me that.” But in actual situations, you forgot about it
or you lose your temper.

(Extract 7.28, SaPC/29/11/16)

Given this teacher’s propensity for calmness and patience, this is a surprising
reaction which is quite out of character. As such, this response may be evidence of
nonlinearity in effect size, as repeated issues, whether in or out of the classroom,
have resulted in a disproportionate response. A further feature of note in this extract
from the data is the recognition of the importance given to the relationship with the
students, as noted here by both parties. Once again, it seems that the bond between
teacher and learners is critical to maintaining motivation for both parties.

Moving closer still in terms of analytical lens, allows for further examination
of change as witnessed within a lesson. In the observed class under investigation
(Extract 7.29), Santiago had been exhibiting strong signs of teaching motivation: he
was bright, enthusiastic and engaging the students through a series of well-paced
activities types and styles. However, a critical event occurred, at which point the
already flagging teacher and a group of disinterested students seemingly
independently co-construct the initial conditions for a motivational phase shift:

The students work while Santiago monitors. He looks more tired again now
but this time much more so. It may be that the teaching persona mask is
starting to slip and his true energy levels are now showing through. He’s still
staying busy and laughing along with the students but some of the sparkle
has gone from his eyes now and there isn’t the same spring in his step. [...]
The students suddenly begin moving desks and re-setting the classroom up
in its traditional form of rows. Some of the students are deliberately
dragging desks in order to make as much noise as possible. Santiago doesn’t
address any of this. He seems a shadow of his former self. [...] The students
seem to be wandering in and out of the class with impunity now and I’m not
sure if the class has ended early or not. The POT comes in and starts
chatting to some students. More desks get moved. Santiago now starts to
board something.

(Extract 7.29, SaSFN/14/10/16)

Like many teachers, Santiago held the belief that the students should not recognise
any changes to his motivation levels. As such, he would endeavour to remain
positive throughout his classes and maintain a calm demeanour. However, as has already been recognised, (see Sections 7.1.1; 7.1.2; 7.1.3) it is not uncommon for teachers in Solaris to begin a class highly motivated and for this to decline across the three-periods of the lesson. It is impossible to know for certain if such a dissipation of motivation was noticed by the students or if their subsequent behaviour was in connection with such an event. Nevertheless, as would often transpire with this group, when Santiago tired or became mired in dealing with persistent behavioural issues, matters within the room would begin to spiral out of control. At this point, it may be that the perturbations felt in Santiago’s state space were on the verge of resulting in a phase shift and result in a change of trajectory towards a less motivated alternative attractor basin. As the lesson progressed, I recorded:

Santiago finally notices what is happening with the desks and tries to draw the students out from behind their wall of defences. They resist this strongly and we are in danger of this turning into a battle of wills. I wonder at the effect this scenario may have on his teaching motivation as he had all of these students on his side earlier and now is battling to keep them even notionally engaged. [...] Perhaps half the class have now lost interest in studying. [...] Santiago looks at me, catches my eye and smiles ruefully. He looks resigned to the new split in the class and that some of the students will no longer be taking part. His face and shrug indicate that he is just going to try and make the best of things. The dynamic in the room could not be more different than it was 30 minutes ago.

(Extract 7.30, SaSFN/14/10/16)

Within the moments captured here, it appears that depth and width of Santiago’s attractor basin, within which his complex system has been located, is finally overcome. This time, there is no sense of anger with the students, and instead the response is to reluctantly acquiesce. From here onwards, his motivational complex system would not move significantly for the remainder of the class.

Unfortunately, these types of occurrence outlined above were something of a regular feature with this particular class:
Once again, Santiago presents an example of his equanimity in the moment, despite acknowledging feelings of being provoked. Nevertheless, it is clear that this event had a negative impact upon him, if only for a brief period of time. However, in spite of these difficult moments with this challenging group of students, more positive changes were also witnessed in Santiago’s teaching motivation when working with the class. In contrast to the previously noted pattern of starting positively, followed by a steady lowering of motivation as the lesson progressed, here something quite different occurred. After experiencing printing problems on the way to class, Santiago began the observation late and in a condition of heightened stress fed partially by a stern bout of self-recrimination. I had attempted to offer a calming influence and elevate his mood when he came to me but upon starting the class, he still looked deflated. This was largely as he would no longer have time to complete his lesson plan, to which much time and effort had been devoted. As I observed the lesson unfold:

There is a nice moment where one of the students is having some fun with his dialogue and going around saying “Good morning!” to everyone with great gusto. Santiago laughs at this and the other students smile as well. I feel like there has been a breakthrough of sorts here in this class. I have never seen the group playing with the language before and I think Santiago is positively glowing now. All thoughts of the stress at the beginning of the class seem to be forgotten now. There has been a complete reversal in terms of levels of teaching motivation: from low to high. It’s been like watching a flower bloom! [...] Santiago is visibly having a lot of fun with this and it seems that the high level of student engagement has helped to keep him on a fairly high motivational plateau for a while now. The teacher that I
It is rare to see this particular group of students attempt even the simplest of words in English. As a group, they are highly risk-averse, perhaps in part, as a result of the challenging nature of circumstances in their lives outside of the school. For Santiago, this example of language play seemed to be a small but deeply significant moment. Applying a complexity perspective once more, the effect of this seemingly innocuous event was to alter the trajectory of Santiago’s complex system within its state space. The student’s actions created the initial conditions for a state shift and for Santiago’s teaching motivation to be rekindled. Such an event may offer a re-interpretation of Henry and Thorsen’s (2018) moments of contact. In their study, the students found their motivation to learn buoyed by a moment of personal interaction with their teacher. Here, a similarly powerful moment has transpired, with a student offering up their engagement with the task at a time when the teacher seemed quite low. As such, this may have been a gesture of solidarity with their teacher who was being observed.

7.1.5 Amber.

Once more, an initial macro perspective will first be adopted, with changes noticeable at the annual level being considered. Focus will then draw gradually closer, from a term, to a month, a day, and finally, within a lesson. In doing so, features of nesting will be identified, wherein patterns of behaviour can be seen to replicate at differing time scales. Early in the year, Amber offered some thoughts on the degree of upheaval that accompanies each new academic year:

Interestingly, just after the interview, she said that the uncertainty at the start of the school year is really problematic for teacher motivation. Every year begins with a potential strike e.g. 15 days at the start of last year, a few days so far this year already. That, plus the lack of stability regarding timetabling, and also whether classes stay open or are closed, contribute to teachers feeling tired, stressed and burnt out before the year has even really begun.
have noticed this myself and they don’t look anywhere near as refreshed and invigorated as they did a week or so ago. Now that I come to reflect on it, the change is stark.

(Extract 7.33, SNRJ/11/03/16)

Whilst Amber was speaking in general terms here, the core factors that she mentions validate the earlier findings of this study (see Section 6.1.1.11) and provide further evidence for the negative effects that such uncertainty can have on teaching motivation. In addition to this, Amber also corroborates the opinions of the other teachers, who have noted the impact of the final exam period on their motivation (for example, see Section 7.1.3). She reports that her, “motivation wavers from high to low as I see how my students have performed along the year. Sometimes I am really pleased with what they have accomplished and some other times I am disappointed. Ultimately, I always feel responsible” (AmJR/19/11/16). Here Amber recognises the importance of the final exam grades for the students. In doing so, she notes that positive results are attributed to the diligence of the students while negative results are deemed to be a result of a deficiency on her part as their teacher. One interpretation of this may be that Amber’s psychological need for relatedness impels her to want to share in the success of the students and their positive emotions, while shielding them from the blame that accompanies poorer results.

Another example of an annual change in motivation, though this time, one more positive. Amber’s school celebrated Teachers’ Day with a light-hearted competition for the teachers based loosely on the Olympics which was performed in front of the school:

More than 25 teachers took part and all of them were so happy to do so. But the most important thing about all this is how motivated all of us were and this went on the following day in the classrooms, in the corridors, in the teachers’ room. As for me, I’m still enjoying the moment. We should do this more often. Even though it’s difficult to get teachers together because of their crammed schedules, once they get started they are amazing. It also helps to have a feeling of belonging which is great for motivation.

(Extract 7.34, AmRJ/01/10/16)

As previously noted (see Section 6.1.1.6), the isolation that teachers experience in Solaris as a result of their timetables is recognised within the teaching community as
being detrimental. Moreover, evidence can be seen in this extract from the data of the powerful impact which activities designed to build group dynamics and foster a collective identity may have on teaching motivation. Whilst there has been some uncertainty within the literature as to the efficacy of relatedness on teaching motivation (Esdar, Gorges, Wild, 2015), Amber is unequivocal on its potency in her experience.

Moving from motivational changes seen from the perspective of the academic year, Amber now provides an example of a change in her teaching motivation when discussing the second term:

The highest point was at the beginning and the lowest point at the end. The beginning of the term is always more motivating because you have expectations on our teaching, students performances and results. By the end of the term those expectations tend to become lower, especially after testing. That’s when you need to reflect on what you’ve done.

(Extract 7.35, AmRJ/30/07/16)

Herein may lie an indication of a sense of temporal nesting, given Amber’s previous comments about the potential downturn in motivation at the regular exam periods. Perhaps this is linked to her sense of competence as a teacher, something which may be undermined by poor exam results. Moreover, by adopting a yet closer temporal perspective, a view from within the month can be afforded:

I see that they are becoming more and more talkative and there’s no way we’ve been talking with other teachers too- there’s no way, probably it’s us, that we can’t get through to them more, I don’t know, or maybe it was that week precisely that was not my week. But what I see is I need to talk to them like, every 2 or 3 weeks, trying to see what happens that they can’t kind of, stay put, just pay attention for some minutes, not much, and er, but it was one of those classes in which you couldn’t keep them quiet. Quiet or maybe- because I see that they, when you propose an activity, they want to do it and they, “Me!” “Me!” “Me!” “Me!” “Me!” But it’s like they just do it as a reflex, they don’t know exactly what they have to do because they can’t pay attention to what I’m saying. So, well, it’s a bit- and maybe because well, I’m not so young as I used to be {my motivation} just runs out really quickly.

(Extract 7.36, AmPC/23/09/16)
Amber recognises the immediacy of the demands from the students (see Section 6.1.1.11) and indicates that this may be something which is perhaps new or increasing in severity as a problem. She also notes the widespread nature of this, something which is not simply afflicting the English teachers. Interestingly, she appears to indicate that this aspect of student behaviour has a cumulative impact on her teaching motivation, though this may not be a simple linear association. Instead, each perturbation to her state space seems to gradually erode the relative stability of her attractor basin until, after two or three weeks, a phase shift occurs, and she is compelled to act in an attempt to rectify the negative impact on her motivation to teach. Nevertheless, within the period of one month, the cycle will need to be repeated once more.

As we close in and note further levels of change that occur within shorter timeframes. Amber shifts to the period of a day:

AMBER  I don’t know, everything adds up and that’s it. But yes, at the end of the year, you get tired and it’s more difficult.

IR  So does that mean that then it also takes a little longer to recover or that it’s just more difficult to recover? Or perhaps both, I don’t know.

AMBER  Maybe it’s a bit of both because it’s like, when I get up in the morning, I’m like all motivated.

IR  Mmmm, definitely. I’ve seen that when you come into school, yeah.

AMBER  But then as morning goes by, it’s like, it fades, you know?

(Extract 7.37, AmPC/23/09/16)

As previously noted, there may be an indication of nesting once more, as Amber’s motivation is gradually eroded throughout the year, term, month, and now day:

Well, I always start quite motivated and I try to keep up with that but then if things don’t go as I had planned then I tend to, my motivation tends to go down. And then if I see that I can’t quite handle the group then well, and then I hate when I have to get angry so that they keep quiet. After that, and then I see that they are ready, kind of, I easily get motivated again. It’s not something that I lose and well, it’s lost, I think. So that’s what happened
In addition to the above, I had also noted this tendency whilst shadowing her classes. In my research journal, I mused on the manner which student lack of focus and off-topic chatter tended to affect her teaching motivation over the course of a lesson:

It would be interesting to know how that is being affected when the class is obviously slipping away from her and she is trying to get them back on task and interested once again. I would imagine that this has an effect, thought it may be temporary, and I wonder how it affects her. In terms of teaching motivation, there is clearly an attempt (or this of course, could also be natural) to maintain an even, energetic pace throughout the classes and she paces with some degree of efficacy. Whether it is tiredness after already teaching one class, or it if it that the strategy is more effective with an older group, I don’t know, but it seems that this starts to come unravelled partway through the class and the students respond to it as if instinctively.

Amber speaks often of the importance of communication as the end goal for learning the language. For her, allowing the students room to employ their language resources is a key area within which they develop real-world skills. However, it is noteworthy that as her motivation becomes under threat, as hinted at here, her teaching approach becomes more traditional, more authoritarian, and is characterised by a restriction to the completion of sentence-based grammar tasks in the course book. For an observer acquainted with her as a teacher, there is a perceptible shift which occurs when her psychological need for competence is not met, and the trajectory of her complex system becomes redirected. Interpreting this in light of the above example, it may be that in order to bolster her motivation, Amber is attempting to exert her autonomy by taking control of the wayward students and directing them to tasks which can more easily be overseen. In this instance, this approach is unsuccessful, and Amber is left
at the end of the class with lower levels of teaching motivation than at the outset.
After discussing the changes in her teaching motivation over the period of an observed class, Amber offers a final comment:

Anyway, that is my usual. What you have there, I would say, is my usual class. There may be one two or three moments in the class where I am here [indicating a lower level] and then the rest of the class, most of the classes, it’s this [indicating a higher level].

(Extract 7.40, AmPC/06/05/16)

It is unclear from the above extract whether the lower motivational periods tend to arrive at regular points in the class. However, if taken in conjunction with my own observations, it would not be uncommon for Amber to begin a class with energy and drive, which are reduced by the later stages. Furthermore, given that we had been looking at the numbers which I had used to denote the changes in her motivation, this can be seen as a form of member checking and further validation of the data.

Here, Amber offers a glimpse at the autonomous nature of her motivational drive:

What I realise is that you can’t be always motivated. There are some times in which you are not motivated at all. Could be because you are tired, because you have problems, because the group you are teaching is not what you expected or- But it’s nice to know that you are-, I don’t need-, I think this motivation comes from inside. It’s like, I enter a classroom and I want to teach so that is something that is inborn, I don’t know but I think that’s why I’m a teacher.

(Extract 7.41, AmPC/23/11/16)

Comments pertaining to such strong intrinsic motivation, were a feature of Amber’s reflections, with her noting, “so holidays are over, back to class. As I said in my previous journal, I wasn’t looking forward to starting classes but it’s incredible how my mood changes once I set foot into a classroom” (AmRJ/30/07/16). This, once again, hints at a nested reality in which temporal periods are characterised by higher motivation at the outset. Here, Amber also provides the central trigger for the state shift towards a more motivated attractor basin. The final word on the source of her motivation goes to Amber:
Anyway, the most motivating fact for me is the relationship I’ve managed to build with them. The older I get the more I am convinced that teaching is not about explaining but about trying to make a connection with students and in so doing, create a sort of bond that would help learning. In the end it all comes down to human relationship and it’s very motivating to see how that grows throughout the years, then when you least expect it your students are gone and what is left is just what you managed to transmit as a human being.

(Extract 7.42, AmRJ/26/11/16)

Once again, it seems evident that for Amber, as with many of the teachers, the cornerstone of her teaching motivation is the inter-personal connection to her students. In other words, the meeting of the basic psychological need for relatedness can be considered as fundamental to teaching motivation in this context.

7.1.6 Ben.

Ben consistently reported high levels of motivation and, as with the other core-participants, tended to characterise any changes as threats leading to suppression. This could be seen as validation of the negative bias in the initial conditions within the state space (see Chapter 6). An additional similarity between Ben and the other teachers was that changes to his motivational state space were often linked to levels of student engagement and discipline (see Section 6.1.1.1). This, in turn, supports the findings of this study, which identified the students as a primary influence on teaching motivation in Solaris. Ben is a committed educator who showed great interest in his self-directed professional development and many of his classes were characterised by an affinity to communicative teaching methods. In spite of this, in 2016, Ben experienced a number of challenges with one of his groups and examples of these moments form the basis for what follows. As with all of the teachers represented here, instances have been selected to evidence changes in their motivational profiles and as such, these may reflect well, or otherwise, on the teacher. These should not be presumed to be representative of their everyday practices unless otherwise explicitly identified as such.

In the first extract selected from Ben’s data set, he hints at a number of initial conditions that foreshadow a positive change in his motivation to teach:
On Thursday, my first group students were excited as they had to start working with a new book. However, they did not present an assignment which they were supposed to present. On the other hand, my second group organised a surprise performance about a roleplay activity that we had been working on the previous week. They asked me for permission to do something for their classmates and for me, and suddenly they began acting! It was such a pleasant surprise I could not finish my day but with my motivation at its highest.

(Extract 7.43, BeRJ/24/09/19)

It appears from his reflective journal entry that Ben’s attractor basin was perhaps too wide and/or deep for these changes to the initial conditions to have any discernible effect. Nevertheless, a critical event occurs when the students request permission to perform in the second class and this results in a state shift to an alternative trajectory, whereupon Ben’s level of motivation is substantially raised. Given the decision to allow the students time to engage in activities not specifically related to language learning or in English, Ben is unlikely to have seen much in relation to satisfying his basic psychological need for competence. However, having taken the autonomous decision to allow the activity and engaging fully with the group-bonding performance, it might be posited that these form the control parameters for the ensuing change in motivation by virtue of meeting his need for relatedness. Such an outcome would be consistent with many of the examples seen thus far, which indicate that relatedness is a fundamental driver of teaching motivation in Solaris.

A further example of positive change came within an early morning class. Ben had arrived at 07:50 in complete silence and busied himself setting up his desk for the opening minutes. As this occurred, the students continued to amuse themselves by talking, listening to music, playing games on their phones, or sleeping on the desks. The lesson then began as follows:

07:57 - Ben speaks to the class for the first time, though this is directed at his preferred students in the front row and not towards the rest of the room. As he speaks, he begins to brighten up and I can see him starting to relax into what may be his teaching persona. [...] He seems to be visibly thawing and relaxing as can be seen from his demeanour. He’s less closed off and is now making eye contact and smiling occasionally when speaking
As with the first example, Ben appears to be particularly attuned to the interpersonal relationship with the students. Having studiously avoided potentially confrontational situations or interactions with the class in the earlier moments (see Section 6.1.1.4), he appeared to utilise these informal conversations with his preferred students as a way of slowly engaging with the group until he was ready to begin the lesson at hand. To what degree this activity may have been for the students benefit as much as his own is impossible to predict. However, Ben would habitually start these early morning classes in a manner quite different from his classes later in the day, with a noticeably quiet and detached initial presence. As such, these interactions may offer a useful insight into his motivational complex system.

In addition to upturns in his motivation, and in line with his own previously outlined predictions (see Section 7.1.6), Ben’s teaching motivation appeared to be vulnerable to the deleterious effects of actions of the students:

My class on Friday has been assigned the same task but they are not as engaged with the activity as my Wednesday students, which makes my motivation come a bit lower than usual for a Friday morning, but it will increase along the day.

Here, Ben recognises not just the change itself, but importantly, the central cause. Moreover, he is aware that with time, his motivation will gradually reassert itself across the day. Adopting a complexity perspective allows for this to be seen as a perturbation leading to his motivational complex system being drawn across its state space towards a lowered attractor basin as a result of the students. However, this attractor state is not well-established and as such, without further notable changes to the control parameters, the principle of self-organisation leads to his complex system being inexorably drawn back towards the initial deeper, more established fixed-point attractor state. As such, his teaching motivation is buoyed once more and reverts to its previous level as the day progressed.
For Ben, such instances of poor student engagement often carried the potential for a state shift:

Ben has been standing waiting for the students to find the correct page and ready themselves to begin. He was stood with a smile on his face initially but now, that smile has faded and looks very much forced, like some form of rictus rather than an expression of warmth and happiness. This could be the beginning of a turning point as he slips back into his usual teacher self with this group. A critical moment?

(Extract 7.46, BeSFN/24/10/16)

In this extract, another momentary suppression is noted, and it is perhaps worth considering whether a tipping point may exist where this lowering might become accelerated. An instance in a separate class offers a glimpse of this in action:

Open class feedback is still going but by now, the students have all lost interest. Ben nominates one of the students who has not engaged with the material all lesson. When the student fails to provide the correct answer, Ben visibly loses his temper. He doesn’t go as far as saying anything but his face darkens and looks like thunder. He is typically very calm and serene so this is a definite change. It’s interesting how that one student not having the answer seems to be the proverbial straw that broke the camel’s back. Although that can be seen as the result of non-linear effect sizes. At what point did the critical event begin?

(Extract 7.47, BeSFN/08/08/16)

As can be seen in Extract 7.47, a point has been reached where the effect size is no longer linear, and Ben seems to be experiencing something altogether more significant. It is possible once more to consider this as a threat to Ben’s sense of competence as a teacher, having been unable to engage the student sufficiently that they might have completed the task and as a result, potentially known the correct answer to his question. As was seen with Amber (see Section 7.1.5), it is not unusual for a teacher to attribute poor student performance to their own shortcomings and not consider it a potential failing in the student’s own ability.

An alternative outcome can be seen in the following example, in which we follow the rapid changes in Ben’s motivation:
Taken in light of the above discussion regarding the importance of competence, it may be relevant to interpret this upturn in motivation to Ben finding that his basic psychological need for competence has been met. In spite of the interpersonal challenges inherent in the feedback procedure, by virtue of his having difficult relationships with some of the students, Ben successfully navigated this stage and was able to secure evidence of the students’ ability to produce the correct answers. The net result of this may have been a bolstering of his teacher identity by virtue of his basic psychological need for professional competence being met.

However, there were also moments with this group which did not result in positive boosts to teaching motivation. Ben had selected his second Monday class to be his observation group for the year. As I would shadow him all day on Mondays, I was well placed to contextualise anything noted in these more formalised observations by witnessing what transpired in the classes before and after the observation, and also by having time to engage him in conversation before and after the classes. In 2015, Ben had taught all of the students in the observation group, though at that time, they were in two separate classes. In 2016, the students moved into their selected academic stream for their final three years of secondary school and with this change, new classes were formed. Having previously established a
strong rapport with both of these previous groups, Ben was keen to teach them this year and confident they would be a suitable for the observations. However, as things transpired, the amalgamation of the students into a new class changed the group dynamics, something which heralded the onset of significant behavioural issues and challenges to Ben’s teaching motivation. He would come to consider this class his biggest challenge of 2016 and refer to them regularly as the most significant threat to his motivation.

Having now established the background context for the group, I would like to explore this situation in more detail. We begin with the short journey between the first and second classrooms one Monday morning. This trip takes just a few moments as both rooms are located in the same school, something of benefit as there is no timetabled break between the lessons:

A very interesting comment is made as Ben and I walk to the classroom. He tells me that he does not like this group as they are too noisy and that he feels his motivation draining away with each step he takes towards the room. This is a really evocative image and it explains the way his body language changes and his face hardens as we near the class. [...] I notice that when he begins the class, he does not outwardly appear much different to the later stages of the previous class and this raises a question. Is it that he has covered this new drop in teaching motivation so it is less easy to discern, or could it be that without him consciously recognising it, his motivation began to drop in advance of having to come to the classroom. What he just felt may have been a further drop as we came here or that he was only now consciously attending to it.

(Extract 7.49, BeSFN/08/08/16)

In addition to my thoughts above, a further possibility may be that a critical point exists, beyond which changes in teaching motivation are more visible. This perhaps links at some level with Hiver and Dörnyei’s (2017) concept of language teacher immunity, wherein teachers develop a form of resistance to motivational threats as they accrue classroom experience. However, it should be noted that such a resistance is not found throughout the state school system in Solaris, with many experienced teachers becoming demotivated to the point where they remove themselves from the classroom for extended periods of time. For some, these prolonged absences may
appear to last indefinitely. Another possibility may be that some teachers visibly manifest changes in their motivation more noticeably than others, perhaps in a manner akin to the notion of a poker face, or the lack thereof. Moreover, for some teachers, they may not themselves be aware of low-level changes as a result of attending to the more pressing immediate concerns of the 30 teenage students in the classroom. However, these changes might be experienced, it is reasonable to assert that they are likely to be quite individual, perhaps connected to personality, and directly linked to the immediate context.

Continuing with the exploration of Ben’s feeling of evaporating teaching motivation as he walked towards the classroom, he considered those opening moments of the class in the post-observation interview:

BEN  They worked. That’s why, in a way, it was a surprise for good. I started with my level of motivation normal, but then I started feeling down. [...]  
IR  So, what caused that suppression, do you think?  
BEN  The fact of meeting them {bursts out laughing} {Both laughing}  
IR  Just the realisation that you had to teach them! {Joking}  
BEN  Yes.  
IR  And how long would that normally last? That shock factor.  
BEN  I think it’s while I fill in the book, the notebook that I have to fill in and as soon as we start to work, it depends on how they, or how I react to them, for example, if they start working quietly, which is something that’s very rarely happens, I do feel motivated. But in this case, {false starts} I hear the first scream, I just go down, I say, ‘OK, this is not going to be a quiet day.’ But, in a way, I could have been, it could have been worse. I’ve had worse days.

(Extract 7.50, BePC/26/10/16)

It may be worth highlighting that this practice of completing the notebook while assessing the potential student engagement for the class may be consistent with the observed behaviour previously noted (Extract 7.44). As such, it may form part of Ben’s process for establishing his teaching motivation at the start of certain classes. A further consideration may be that as the first class ends and second begins synchronously, this process might be a method of mentally refocussing from the
needs of the previous older students, to the specific challenges of this younger and more problematic class. Ben offers further information as to these regular changes:

Monday is often a long day for me, and this was not the exception. I began the morning revising for a future test and students took the chance to ask questions and clear out their doubts. This kept me motivated. I normally feel my motivation lower by the time I have to move from [class 1] to [class 2]. Despite having taken plenty of activities this time [class 2] was divided and so was my motivation as most of the students kept working quietly but a group just opted for not doing anything and play cards or talk. As I did not feel like arguing or rising my voice, I just let them do what they wanted and gave them a failing mark in their personal report. By the end of the morning my motivation was higher as the first group in the afternoon is enjoyable.

(Extract 7.51, BeRJ/08/10/16)

Here, Ben recounts a series of changes, some of which appear to be linked to his basic need for professional competence. Having assisted his students with their revision, he indicates an upturn. However, when finding himself incapable of engaging a group of students, this results in lower motivation and disengagement.

In recognition of the scale of the problems Ben experienced with this second group, he noted:

IR What would be some of the highs and the lows for you across the year?

BEN. (pause) I feel that, well, the lows are all these troubles I had with these groups, on Mondays. And probably, the first part of the year with the [class name removed] on Friday but I think that the one which affected me the most was [Monday problem class] because I really suffered I really suffered in that group.

(Extract 7.52, BePC/30/11/16)

From a complexity perspective, it is possible to envisage these negative effects forming into a relatively deep attractor state as the year progressed. With repeated transitioning to this state each week, it might become more difficult for Ben’s complex system to encounter alternative influences strong enough to alter its trajectory away from this fixed-attractor state. Moreover, Ben had also commented
that his motivation changed depending on his placement in the room and in relation to specific groups of learners. As such, there may have been a number of competing perturbations exerting opposing forces on the trajectory of his state space. I questioned Ben further about this and he outlined the extent to which his motivation was affected by the more problematic students within the class:

IR       When I was watching you in the classroom, when you were monitoring, I felt that your motivation changes depending on where you are in the classroom and which group you’re speaking to.-

BEN      Absolutely.

IR       -Is that fair?

BEN      Yes. Yes, to be honest, I just can’t erm, I won’t hide it anymore. If I have to be honest, and I said, OK, this group in the middle is the one I don’t care, that’s where my motivation goes absolutely down. I don’t feel motivated to work with those students, I don’t want them in my class. Of course, I cannot remove them from the class but if I had the chance to not work-, not to work with them, I would be happy.

IR       Yeah.

BEN      Whereas, if I work with these groups, or even with the weakest students, I feel motivated with them because even though they don’t talk much, they, I see the huge effort that they make every class to-, I don’t know if they are interested in learning English but they are certainly interested in passing the subject and I can see that they work, and they do the task, and they do their homework, and they bring their material, and they ask me questions when they don’t understand, sometimes they are very stupid questions but I still feel that they are interested in doing whatever I ask them to do. So, that really motivates me as a teacher, whereas, the strongest group motivates me as a person. Because when they notice-,
and they’re very sensible-, sensitive, they’re very sensitive when-, and they could realise when I was in a bad mood or when I was disappointed or when I was really angry, and they ask me-, and they did-, they told me, ‘Teacher, we can tell that you don’t like certain people in this classroom. It’s not us, it’s them’ ‘Yes, absolutely, yes. It’s true, I don’t like them. I don’t hate anybody but I don’t like them. I could tell that by themselves and then I confirmed their suspicion. But, yeah, they are, in a way, my engine.

(Extract 7.53, BePC/26/10/16)

Here, Ben articulates the extent to which his teaching motivation is individually specific to student groups within the class. In doing so, he appears to be describing the existence of a periodic attractor state, within which his motivation cycled through a series of outcomes related to which students he interacted with. Moreover, he offers insight into the differing forces which feed those motivational changes. With one group, it seems his psychological need for competence is most prominent, with his teacher-self being referred to as paramount. With another group, the issues are more connected to the interpersonal dimension and it appears that his need for relatedness may be in jeopardy. With yet another group, it is exactly this dimension of relatedness that underpins his intrinsic motivational drive. In this sense, Ben is not unlike Amber, who expressed similar sentiments (Extract 7.42) and I had also noted something similar in the observation:

There’s been a slight tailing off of motivation once more. He’s monitoring in a sense and physically proximal to the students so they can access his attention if they seek it but his body language is quite closed and he seems distant with the students. I’m not so sure that he is encouraging their asking for help in any way. [...] As he nears the weakest group of students in the class, Ben seems to brighten up a little. I know that he appreciates the effort these students put in even if they are not very successful language learners. It’s interesting that his teaching motivation seems to be group specific and this confirms something that he alluded to in the last interview – he gets boosted or flattened depending on where he is in the room and who he is
As can be seen in Extract 7.54, Ben’s motivation was highly changeable and many of his changes are directly linked to his interaction with the students.

However, not all of Ben’s changes in Teaching motivation were driven by the students and he was particularly affected by opportunities to experiment with new teaching ideas and lesson plans:

It is nice to see Ben experimenting with some new ideas in the classroom. The students clearly like the prospect of something new occurring too so there is an immediate bump in motivation for all in the room to one degree or another. [...] In fact, this whole lesson seems to have been a little bit experimental for Ben and has boosted him at intervals throughout.

Ben often expressed frustration at struggling to find new ideas or places to be exposed to alternative teaching methods and activity types. Perhaps more than any other teacher, He went to great lengths to mitigate the lack of opportunity for CPD in Solaris and here, the results of such ventures can be seen with positive changes to his motivational state space. Similarly, a change in the syllabus could also herald positive changes. Ben discussed a regular high point of his teaching year:

He looks quite bright this afternoon as if the lunch break has picked him up and set him ready for the afternoon/evening ahead. I am struck by the veracity of his comments in his journals about feeling much more relaxed and motivated in term 3 now that he has completed the syllabus for the year. In some ways, he now has the autonomy to change the lesson content and style some more – though it could be argued that this already existed as other than the base course book, nobody forces the teacher to work through the pages in order without adaptation or supplementation. It is interesting to consider how it is possible that a teacher can complete the syllabus so early but as Ben has told me, “it is very basic”.

(Extract 7.54, BeSFN/24/10/16)

(Extract 7.55, BeSFN/08/08/16)

(Extract 7.56, BeSFN/24/10/16)
Here, Ben cleaves somewhat closer to expectations with regard to competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Having found the syllabus not to be challenging enough for himself or the students, Ben responds by exercising his autonomous decision-making and presenting more engaging communicative projects for the students. In doing so, he creates the conditions within which his psychological needs for competence and autonomy can be met. Within this extract, relatedness is no longer given the degree of priority that is often the case in the teachers’ data sets. Furthermore, having established this pattern of over a number of years as a way of maintaining his motivation, Ben has created his own fixed-point attractor state through which the final term regularly sees surges in teaching motivation, and its counterpart student form.

One final aspect of Ben’s motivational complex system may be worthy of additional brief consideration as it presents an indication of the importance of the levels of support provided by the school (see Section 6.1.1.6). Finding himself unexpectedly ill, Ben was unable to attend the school to teach:

   Even though I did not go to school on Monday I left material and instructions for students to work with, as this is what the principals ask us to do. I prepared a set of printed copies and I also sent the same set in .pdf format with the instructions via email. However it is really annoying when you go to school and realise that they never provide the students with this material or instructions. Being asked to do something in order not to waste time while one is ill or absent for any reason, and then realising that what you do is never given to students affects my motivation tremendously. I am aware from the very beginning that what I am doing is never going to reach students’ hands which is the same as wasting my time consciously.

   (Extract 7.57, BeRJ/05/11/16)

In this final extract, a widening of the contextual factors is offered. Until now, close focus has been given to the events within the classroom and with the students. However, a lack of institutional support from within the schools was systematically identified as a demotivational factor (see Section 6.1.1.6). Here, Ben provides an example of the effect such an event had on his motivation, and once again provides evidence of a prospective attractor state given that he implies this to be a regular occurrence.
7.1.7 Gwen.

Gwen is the last of the core-participants to be examined here and provides an opportunity for an alternative vantage point from which to examine the context of Solaris. Although still a trainee teacher, Gwen had already completed two academic years as a secondary school teacher in Solaris, with some additional teaching experience gained elsewhere prior to that. While discussing her feelings about her teaching work, she pragmatically declared, “there are lots of things I don’t like about it but especially when I think of other people doing something else, I’d rather be doing this.” (GwPC/14/11/15). Moreover, when asked specifically if she could see herself still teaching English in the future, Gwen answered, “This almost 2 years of teaching have been challenging and rewarding, so unless something else comes up, I can picture myself still teaching English in 10 years’ time.” (GwPC/31/10/15). Gwen would often make reference to meeting challenges as being pivotal to her teaching motivation and when viewed through the lens of SDT, it is possible to assert this as Gwen’s foregrounding of her basic psychological need for competence within her new profession.

Moving from more general perspectives on teaching to one which encompasses the academic year as a whole, Gwen begins by addressing the notion of motivational patterns across the school year:

**GWEN** At the beginning of the year, I think you are much more motivated because you’ve been {pause}, at some points on your holidays coming up with ideas and thinking, “OK this year I’m going to do this and that”, and “This will be my approach” and, “That didn’t work last year so this year I’m going to try this”. And I think that boosts our motivation a lot so, I don’t know, there are lots of things that influence your motivation besides eh, {to the other teachers} how do we say vocación?

**SANTIAGO** Calling.

**GWEN** Calling, besides the feeling of calling, which is kind of abstract broad uh aspect there in the back all of the time.

(Extract 7.58, FGPC/14/11/15)
It is noteworthy that Gwen appears to be conscious of some of the constituent elements that drive her motivation, rather simply referring to a broad intrinsic drive. She recognises the importance of the summer break for recharging energy levels but also acknowledges the opportunity to reflect on the events of the previous year and make adjustments for the first term of the new academic year. It may also be possible to discern elements of competence and autonomy in her comments, with her making reference to gauging the efficacy of her teaching and highlighting her ability to make changes for the new year as she deems appropriate.

A further change in her motivational complex system is reported to be expected later in the academic year:

SANTIAGO: Yes, it depends, it also depends the way, on the ehm, eh, on the motivation at ehm and expectancies that our students have {laughs} along the year [...] Eh, September and October, sometimes eh, imply a ah, a raise in motivation because they are uh, in, I mean the students, are interested in saving- {laughs} {other burst out laughing too} -saving from the exams at the {laughing} at the end of, the end of the school term and so, well there is a -{others laughing}

GWEN: -All of a sudden, they realise they have to work.

SANTIAGO: -some of them become fully interested -{general laughter}- in the subject-

(Extract 7.59, FGPC/14/11/15)

Here, she refers to the previously noted upturn in student engagement as the realisation dawns that they must pass the course in order to complete the year and avoid the summer exam period. Whilst it has been recognised that some of the students utilise the summer period as an alternative to a year of study (see Section 6.1.1.1), they still typically attempt to avoid any intrusion on their summer holidays and so a clear change in attitude arrives as the end of the school year draws closer. With her recognition of this, Gwen provides evidence of an attractor state which may exert a draw on her complex system as term three progresses. Whilst the effects of teacher motivation on student behaviour is widely acknowledged (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Lamb, 2017), that of the students on the teacher, which is less well-established, can be envisaged here. Gwen recognises that she shifts to a
higher motivational gear at this stage in the year in response to the upturn in student engagement.

In addition to these individual trends at the level of the year, an instance of nesting can be seen when comparing annual and weekly motivational patterns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IR</th>
<th>So from your perspective then it’s higher at the start of the week than at the end of the week, and it’s higher at the start of the year than at the end, and then it moves about in between that.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GWEN</td>
<td>Yes, because then you a, you are tired. Dead tired. And I think being tired changes your motive, at least challenges your motivation. {laughs} {others laugh}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR</td>
<td>Would you all agree with that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SANTIAGO</td>
<td>Yes. I agree.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Extract 7.60, FGPC/14/11/15)

Along with Gwen’s previously highlighted attractor states, one more can now be added: whereby her motivation to teach tails off toward the end of the week. Furthermore, she is also aware of a greater degree of fluctuation that occurs within the week itself, often experienced as changes within the working day:

Then you have the day-to-day uh, stuff that goes on that influences you.
And then, if you have a problem in one classroom and you didn’t react the way you expected to or you wanted to, I think your motivation goes down at that point because you couldn’t manage to achieve something and then they say, you say, “OK, it wasn’t that bad”. You go, you go over it and you get over it {laughs}. You feel better and get motivated again so I think motivation moves like this, it’s not, like a straight line. And it shouldn’t be, I think.

(Extract 7.61, FGPC/14/11/15)

Once again, the basic psychological need for competence as a teacher appears to be primary in facilitating her motivation, something which may be connected to her developing sense of teacher identity. She notes the momentary impact potential of a failure to meet her aims as a perturbation which has the potential to shift the trajectory within her state space and result in a temporary diminishing of her teaching motivation. Perhaps most importantly, she is conscious of the state of flux in which
her motivational complex system operates as it responds to the ebb and flow of contextual factors, resulting in emergent behaviour and self-organisation. As a final point with regard to patterns of motivation, Gwen provides another instance of temporal nesting. Having reported higher motivation at the start of the year and at the beginning of the week, she now discusses a similar trend, seen with each lesson, and also the teaching day:

Well, as I said before, is like, you get ready for it, like, before going into the classroom you are, I think much more motivated than afterwards because afterwards you just finished! You don’t want to go- [laughs] -Like Fridays, I have... Fridays for me, I have nightmare because I have four different classes on Fridays, it’s like my eh...busiest day. Aaaand at the beginning, I’m very motivated but at the end of the last class, I can’t hardly think and I can’t hardly walk- [everyone laughs] -I’m ready to faint! So at that moment my motivation is close to zero because I don’t want to teach anymore. And if they ask me, “Could you please substitute and teach another class because someone, eh, didn’t show up?”, I would say, “no!”, “No way!”. Because my brain can’t take it. So, I think that has to do with that.

(Extract 7.62, FGPC/14/11/15)

Whilst the pattern is instructive in, and of itself, it is clear that this final trend is linked as much to physical and mental fatigue as to other potential motivational threats. Given that Gwen had a significant teaching and studying load in 2016, it is not clear whether this degree of exhaustion is as a result of the facing the day’s motivational challenges or simply a natural tiredness at the end of an arduous day. Nevertheless, it may be worth noting the regularity, and therefore the potential for an attractor basin to be in existence within her motivational complex system.

7.1.7.1 Classroom interruptions.

7.1.7.1.1 Background information.

In an attempt to provide an answer to this research question which encompasses a range of vantage points, I now adopt an alternative approach to the data. Many of the central themes have now been extensively explored through the student and core-participant data sets, and by adopting macro- and micro-perspectives (see Sections 7.1.1; 7.1.2; 7.1.3; 7.1.4; 7.1.5; 7.1.6; 7.1.7). However,
one feature of the context, which is perhaps specific to the nature of the local education system has yet to be fully articulated: classroom interruptions. Whilst the position was initially created as an aide to teachers and their students, the POT can often be seen in the classrooms of Solaris for purposes other than the provision of immediate pedagogical support. Similarly, the preceptores are also a regular feature of classrooms as they complete their duties and tasks. Unfortunately, and for reasons too broad in potential to invite speculation, these interruptions to the class are characterised by their frequency, their seeming lack of forward planning, and the intrusive manner in which they take place. In order to do provide a detailed example, a more granular lens will be applied to a series of micro events which transpired within an observed three-period class. First, I provide necessary contextual background and attempt to offer insight into the demands faced by Gwen as a result of her timetable. Once this has been presented, the events of her first observed class will be analysed with a view to identifying the initial conditions which led to observed changes in her teaching motivation.

One of the noteworthy challenges that Gwen faced as a direct consequence of her status as a teacher trainee was that while teaching full-time, she was also enrolled as a full-time student. The net result of this was that she had a particularly demanding timetable. From a teaching perspective, her timetable entailed teaching 41 40-minute periods each week; almost all of which were at secondary schools, though this did include a small number of classes at a local private institute. The classes were taught between 07:40 – 18:30. However, in addition to this, she would then attend the Profesorado each evening for an additional 21.5 clock hours of input each week, with a further new temporary class being opened at one point on a Saturday morning as a further supplement to her schedule. One consequence of this was that she was left with very little free time that could be devoted to lesson planning and deeper reflection on her teaching practice. This was something which Gwen often mentioned was an issue for her, explaining that:

I’m pressed for time always [...] I’m more tired than I should be at this time of the year but with high spirits [...] as for teaching, well I always feel a bit frustrated that I don’t have as much time as I would like to, to prepare classes and to do something different or change things from the book and,
you know, just innovate. because that takes time

(Extract 7.63, GwPC/12/05/16)

On the day under analysis, Gwen was based in one school for all four of the classes she was scheduled to teach. She would then travel to the Profesorado for her evening classes as a trainee teacher.

Table 7.1 Gwen’s timetable for the day of the observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>07:40 - 08:20</td>
<td>6th Year A</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08:20 - 09:00</td>
<td>6th Year A</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:00 - 09:10</td>
<td>10 Minute Break</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:10 - 09:50</td>
<td>6th Year A</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:50 - 10:30</td>
<td>6th Year B</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:30 - 10:40</td>
<td>10 Minute Break</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:40 - 11:20</td>
<td>6th Year B</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:20 - 12:00</td>
<td>6th Year B</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00 - 12:40</td>
<td>Free Period</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:40 - 13:20</td>
<td>3rd Year A</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:30 - 14:10</td>
<td>3rd Year A</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:10 - 14:50</td>
<td>3rd Year A</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:50 - 15:00</td>
<td>10 Minute Break</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15:00 - 15:40</td>
<td>Leading Moodle Session</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Peer Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15:40 - 16:20</td>
<td>Free Period</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:20 - 16:30</td>
<td>10 Minute Break</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:30 - 17:10</td>
<td>3rd Year B</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17:10 - 17:50</td>
<td>3rd Year B</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17:50 - 18:30</td>
<td>3rd Year B</td>
<td>School 57</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:30 - 18:40</td>
<td>10 Minute Break</td>
<td>In Transit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:40 - 19:20</td>
<td>Class A</td>
<td>Profesorado</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19:20 - 20:00*</td>
<td>Class A</td>
<td>Profesorado</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:00 - 20:40*</td>
<td>Class B</td>
<td>Profesorado</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:40 - 21:20*</td>
<td>Class B</td>
<td>Profesorado</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21:20 - 22:00*</td>
<td>Class C</td>
<td>Profesorado</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:00 - 22:40*</td>
<td>Class C</td>
<td>Profesorado</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:40 - 23:20*</td>
<td>Class C</td>
<td>Profesorado</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Evening class times are approximate as they do not conform to strict 40-minute periods
As can be seen in Table 7.1, Fridays were a particularly challenging day for Gwen. Prior to the class in question, Gwen had taught two three-period lessons within the same school to her sixth-year groups. She then had a free period of forty minutes, which she would spend at the school as a result of its location, at the opposite side of the town to her home. This was followed by the observed class with the first of her two third year groups of the afternoon, both also three forty-minute periods in duration. Following this third lesson, she would usually have a gap of one hour and forty minutes before her final class of the day as a teacher. However, the day of the observation differed slightly from the norm as the first free period after her penultimate class was devoted to her leading a training session, in which Gwen helped other teachers at the school learn how to use the Moodle platform. After completing her teaching timetable, Gwen was then scheduled to proceed directly to the Profesorado where she had a further four hours and forty minutes of teacher training classes in her capacity as a student. In her reflective journal entry at the end of this week, after having time to consider the week’s events, Gwen noted that “Friday was busy and I was quite tired even before getting started, so it was not an easy day.” (GwRJ/14/15/16). It is worth noting my previous comments about her already challenging timetable and the addition of the Moodle session to the day’s activities, along with Gwen’s own identification of a motivational lull toward the end of each week (Extract 7.60). With this class taking place on a Friday afternoon i.e. towards the end of a tiring day, it is possible that Gwen may have been feeling the effects of having already taught six classroom periods.

Earlier in the term, when describing her students in more detail, Gwen had noted:

My groups on Friday afternoon are challenging because they have no breaks, so I have three hours straight with them, and I’m also quite tired already, since Fridays I spend the whole day at school, without a chance to get back home and disconnect at some point. This is why it’s very important that I try to keep calm, not to raise my voice as far as possible, since I simply won’t have the energy for shouting or getting agitated.

(Extract 7.64, GwRJ/19/03/16)

With regard to the observation class, Gwen described them as one of “my noisier groups, or what I call my challenge groups” (GwPC/14/05/16). As is generally the
norm with the state secondary schools in Solaris, the students were timetabled to receive all of their English tuition in one three-period block each week (see Table 7.1). Moreover, and as has been previously discussed (Extract 7.64), due to the anomalous timing of the start of their class, this particular group did not have a scheduled ten-minute break within these three periods. The school teaching timetable typically affords students and staff a ten-minute interval after every second period and as a solution to this, Gwen would often allow a short break for the students at an opportune moment in the lesson. This usually occurred somewhere around the end of the second period or the start of the third, something which is consistent with the events of the day in question.

7.1.7.1.2 The observed class.

Given the previously noted demands of her timetable (see Section 7.1.1.1.1), it is reasonable to presume that Gwen might not have been operating at optimum levels of teaching motivation as the observation began. She seemed to support this in her post-observation interview, stating that, “it’s not that I came fresh to the, into the class, rested, and so I had already had a busy week and a busy morning and no free time to rest or reflect or relax or meditate or whatever” (GwPC/14/05/16). However, in spite of the adverse conditions, Gwen recalled, “so I start really high spirited” (GwPC/14/05/16), later adding, “I started like really motivated and then as I saw that things were not going as I had planned, er well, obviously my motivation started to drop” (GwPC/14/05/16). My own numerical observation data appraised Gwen as exhibiting high levels of motivation at the outset of the observation, having identified her as level six on the scale of one to seven, with seven being maximum (see Section 4.4.2.2). It may be worth re-iterating that these data were recorded with the sole purpose of aiding identification of the strength and direction of motivational changes and as such, no other value should be ascribed to them. From my vantage point, this then level remained unchanged for the first ten minutes of the class, only dipping to five in response to events which transpired within the class (SNOD/13/05/16). In her interview the following morning, I asked Gwen to characterize her own motivational levels at the start of the class, and she indicated seven, i.e. at functional maximum (GwOD/14/05/16). I would like to establish when she provided this self-evaluation, Gwen was unaware I had been collecting such numerical data, finding out later in the interview. Prior to that, she had not been
informed I would later ask her to validate my findings and as such, these might be considered independent data. It is also worth noting that when asked if she felt there were any significant deviations between my data and hers, Gwen stated, “No, I, I think they are quite similar” (GwPC/14/05/16).

Due to restrictions of space, the main period of analysis within the lesson will be the period subsequent to the unscheduled break. This decision was made as I believe it to be particularly rich in data and worthy of closer inspection in isolation. However, I would like to include a brief selection of comments regarding the first section of the class as I feel they provide additional context and are of direct relevance to what followed. In Solaris, it is quite common for the preceptores or POTs to enter classes without any prior notification and proceed to carry out their own duties with little or no interaction with the teacher. As a result, there are often unforeseen interruptions to lessons, something which is the catalyst for a variety of reactions from the teachers, ranging from equanimity to mild frustration. When later discussing this early section of the class in her post-observation interview, Gwen made direct reference to the actions of both the preceptora and the POT, recalling that, “at the end of the first period, well several things had happened already errr, a few interruptions” (GwPC/14/05/16). Interestingly, while commenting on this, she recognised her need to employ cognitive strategies to maintain her motivational levels during this earlier stage of the lesson, adding that “I did have to make a conscious effort to keep motivated but I think I managed” (GwPC/14/05/16). As it transpired, these proved not to be isolated examples of interruptions to the class.
Table 7.2 Sequence of events to be analysed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Observed Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12:40</td>
<td>Lesson begins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:59 – 13:08</td>
<td>Preceptora arrives and begins to chat with the students as a class. She makes an announcement to all of the students and then continues to hold a discussion with a smaller number of them. Subsequently, she takes the register and then departs. This process takes approximately eight to ten minutes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:08 – 14:05</td>
<td>Pre-break section of the lesson which has not been selected for more detailed analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:05 – 14:10</td>
<td>Short informal break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:10</td>
<td>Teacher calls students back into class to begin the post-break section of the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:12</td>
<td>Preceptora comes in and makes an announcement to the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:13</td>
<td>POT comes in and talks to the teacher. She then begins distributing slips of paper to some of the students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:15 – 14:30</td>
<td>Teacher struggles to settle the students down and focus them on the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:30</td>
<td>Students begin to engage with the task at hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:35</td>
<td>Teacher’s motivation appears to be recovering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:37</td>
<td>Preceptora comes in and begins handing out books to some of the students. Student focus shifts from the activity to the interruption and the books that some of them have been given.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:40</td>
<td>Teacher tries to re-focus the students back onto class work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:50</td>
<td>Class ends.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Timings are accurate to approximately 1-2 minutes of the events (SNFN/13/05/16)

Table 7.2 shows the chronology of salient classroom events, as recorded in my field notes. In the interests of brevity, I have selected only the points which bear direct relevance to the following analysis. It may be worth highlighting that I recorded the preceptora entering the class on three separate occasions, with one additional visit by the POT. However, as can be seen in the following paragraph, Gwen recalled a second visit from the POT, also in the first section of the class. This discrepancy may reflect a deficiency in the quality of my field notes, and I defer to Gwen’s recall on the matter. The subsequent analyses will be divided into two
sections, the first is focused primarily on the temporal changes in Gwen’s teaching motivation. This is then followed by a reading of these events which attempts to apply a complexity perspective in order to offer an interpretation of the events.

After the impromptu short break, at approximately 14:10, the students were called to once more re-join the class. With regard to her levels of motivation, I recorded in my field notes that Gwen called the students “back to class and looks like she needed the break as much as they did. She has much more energy about her now” (SNFN/13/05/16). Correspondingly, I accorded her a motivation rating of six at the start of this final period (SNOD/13/05/16). Interestingly, Gwen ascribed herself a five at this point in her self-report data, reflecting a minor discrepancy in our evaluations (GwOD/14/05/16). Nevertheless, her motivation was characterised as toward the upper end of the scale at this point and could therefore be described as maintaining a degree of balance within an attractor state when compared to the earlier period.

As it transpired, Gwen was not able to restart the lesson as anticipated, instead encountering a number of perturbations which threatened to unseat her state space from its attractor basin. She described the situation thus:

I decided to take a five minutes break, which ended up being longer than ten because the POT came in and started talking about something else. And it started to be really loud outside, with the children playing outside and it was very distracting for me and I, obviously, it was also distracting for the children.

(Extract 7.65, GwPC/14/05/16)

Here, Gwen recognises the immediate effects of both the noises outside the class and the intrusion of the POT. Interestingly, she does not mention the preceding announcement by the preceptora at 14:12 (Table 7.2). This could be interpreted as simply a lapse in recall with regard to the sequencing of events given that the interview took place on the following day. However, it might also be considered that having the preceptora come into class to talk to the students is such a regular occurrence that she did not deem it noteworthy at that moment in time. The latter explanation would be consistent my discussions with teachers across the year. Perhaps what may be questioned is that the discussion with the POT, at 14:13, was not with students but with Gwen herself. Given that Gwen had been in the hallway
with the students three minutes prior, one might ask whether that might potentially have been a more appropriate and less disruptive moment for the POT to engage the teacher in conversation.

After a few minutes of discussion and having additionally distributed slips of paper to some of the students, the POT left the classroom and Gwen began once more to try and focus the students on the lesson at hand. This task provided considerable difficulty and as she struggled to regain the attention of the class, Gwen noted that, “OK, you have to go on but then it’s a lot of er, there are a lot of things happening that kind of, cut your train of thought” (GwPC/14/05/16). This might at first glance appear to describe the students, who were listening to music or wandering the class, talking loudly and excitedly. However, she was in fact, referring to the external disruptions that had occurred since the attempted resumption of the class. It is perhaps interesting to note that in the period directly after the break and prior to any interruption, Gwen was beginning to regain control of the class and I recorded in my field notes that, “She looks determined and manages to do this quickly and efficiently” (SNFN/13/05/16). However, in her own account of this fifteen-minute period, Gwen recalled, “but then I didn’t count on the preceptora coming in to hand in books and ask stuff to the students and then the POT and then they then started talking” (GwPC/14/05/16). In the interests of clarity, it is worth noting that it is the students that she recalls beginning to talk and not the preceptora and the POT as they were in the classroom at different moments, thereby constituting two separate intrusions on class time.

What followed next, between 14:15 and 14:30, was a fifteen-minute struggle to settle the class and gain their attention once again. During this period, I recorded Gwen’s motivation dipping to a low of three, something which may reflect the level of difficulty which she was facing at that moment in time (SNOD/13/05/16). In spite of this, and after the aforementioned prolonged period of determined action, i.e. at approximately 14:30, Gwen had been largely successful in once more recovering control of the class and her levels of motivation were also showing signs of increasing. Within the period of 14:25 to 14:35, I noted an increase from three to five as she gradually regained control and the students began to engage with the task. However, after this brief respite and its corresponding increase in motivation, what followed seemingly had repercussions for the remainder of the lesson. In my field
notes, I recorded that at 14:37, the “preceptora comes in again and starts handing out books to some of the students. All the students’ attention shifts from the task to this new interruption and some of them start to get up and wander around” (SNFN/13/05/16). From the students’ perspective, this is perhaps understandable as they were interested to find out what might be written in their own, and their friends’ books. However, from the point of view of the teacher, the students began to walk around the classroom and discuss issues that were not related to the task at hand or of any relevance to the subject of the lesson.

Whilst it should be recognised that thereafter, Gwen was able to maintain a motivational level of four for the remainder of the class (GwOD/14/05/16; SNOD/13/05/16), and whilst this is still just above the median, it was a recognisably low level for her. Gwen was typically one of the more visibly motivated teachers that I encountered. Moreover, she had regulatory cognitive strategies which she employed to maintain her position of relative stability in a potentially deep and wide attractor state. As such, it was unusual and noteworthy for her to exhibit such tensions in the classroom and it may be worth considering whether it was as a result of these strategies that she was able to avoid a further diminished level of motivation during the final stage of the class, a period characterised by her struggling once more to re-focus the student’s on the lesson, from 14:40 to 14:50. Gwen gave some indication that this might be the case when she rounded off her review of the class as follows:

So that was about it. I ended up very tired and I, and I ended up knowing, well I was, I wasn’t like, “Oh this was a wonderful class” at the end of the class. Errrr, it was not that bad, I know that happens and it’s not the first time and it’s not going to be the last time so it’s not like, “Oh the world is about to end”.

(Extract 7.66, GwPC/14/05/16).

It is perhaps also worth noting what happened toward the end of these final ten minutes, during which Gwen was once more struggling to encourage the students to complete the task before the end of the lesson. In her post-observation interview Gwen recalled, “So I got the phone, ‘Oh my god it’s have three minutes left.’ so I said, ‘Ok, everybody stop working please listen to me’ because I had homework to give them” (GwPC/14/05/16). Here, she had been compelled to call the activity to a
halt as the class was about to end, despite the students not yet having completed the task. In addition to the incomplete task, a further consequence was that she was unable to include the final stage of her lesson plan, a computer-based activity which she had spent considerable time planning. It is perhaps in these final moments that we are able to see more clearly, the true impact on both the students and the teacher of the interruptions to the class.

What perhaps stands out in these data is the existence of two interacting sets of perturbations which endanger the stability of Gwen’s motivational complex system: those from external disruptions, i.e. the preceptora and the POT; and those from the students within the class. It is my belief that this combination of repeated threats to her teaching motivation co-mingled, growing in scale as they rippled outwards to create a nonlinear degree of effect on her motivational levels. In the first section of the class when facing one or the other of these threats individually, Gwen had been able to maintain her levels of motivation and despite experiencing fluctuations, remained between five and six, with possible instances as high as seven (GwOD/14/05/16, SNOD/13/05/16). This could be interpreted as identifying a deep and wide attractor state within which, Gwen was able to moderate the effects of the perturbations which could potentially have led to her complex system shifting trajectory toward a less motivated state. Instead, these were evidenced as short-term fluctuations in her visible motivation, with the result being a return the aforementioned relative stability of the attractor state. In those first two periods, she reached her lowest level of four on only two instances. It may be noteworthy that one of those instances occurred directly prior to the break and may therefore, may have been linked to her decision to implement the intermission (SNOD/13/05/16). However, in the final period, during which she was attempting to deal with both internal, and external threats at the same time, there appears to have been a cumulative effect which was evidenced by the events in the remainder of the class.

It was evident that soon after the break and its subsequent interruptions that undermined her attempts to focus the students on the task at hand, Gwen was consciously working to avoid the less stable repeller state which these factors were conspiring to create. When discussing the period between 14:15 and 14:30, Gwen recalled that:
I realise that er, I try not to have to force much because I know I still have another class to teach and with, the, with the last class, I know my voice will be, like my throat will be er, aching and er, I probably end up with a sore throat. So, like I try to get their attention without raising my voice, which is not always easy because it’s noisy everywhere, even if they are silent there’s noise outside, and they’re never silent anyway they’re never completely silent, there’s always someone talking. So, that was difficult, I felt that I was like, we’d say in Spanish “remando en dulce de leche”.

(Extract 7.67, GwPC/14/05/16)

In the interests of clarity, remando en dulce de leche is an Argentinian idiom which translates as rowing in dulce de leche. It is used to indicate that the speaker is mired in a difficult situation from which it will be far from easy to extract oneself. It seems clear that by this stage, Gwen had moved attempting to maintain her levels of motivation through the conscious use of cognitive strategies in the immediate sense and now begun to consider the wider potential ramifications of the present on the rest of her working day. If we compare this to her response in the section of the class prior to the break, at which point she expressed confidence in her ability to maintain her motivation, it might be reasonable to describe this as a much shallower attractor state, one which she was in danger of transitioning out of altogether as a result of the aforementioned perturbations.

It can later be seen that at approximately 14:30, the same point in time when Gwen was able to regain control of the class, she seemed to be evidencing a deepening of her attractor state and once more, experiencing a period of relative motivational stability. In my field notes, I recorded that her “body language looks brighter as the students bombard her with questions about vocabulary they can use to complete the task” (SNFN/13/05/16). When discussing the data in the post-observation interview, I described this as follows:

You quite quickly bounce back up [...]. This is when the students were on task and they were asking you for assistance and in terms of you exhibiting, a kind of energy, and physical manifestation of motivation to get involved in the class, that seemed to lift you, seeing the students get on task.

(Extract 7.68, SNPC/14/05/16)
Within this brief period, from approximately 14:30 – 14:37, she appeared to be displaying signs of her motivational complex system being within the boundaries of an attractor state, though perhaps one not quite so deep as previously mooted as we can see her continuing to encounter challenges to its relative stability. However, in spite of the aforementioned increase in motivation after 14:30 and Gwen’s motivational complex system appearing to settle in an attractor state, any evidence of stability was short-lived, and her system was soon in motion once more. At 14:37, as the preceptora arrives once again, another shift in trajectory occurs and this final interruption to the class, whether viewed as an individual instance or the culmination of all that has preceded it, forms the final perturbation from which the class does not recover. This may be analogous to Larsen-Freeman’s (1997) metaphorical individual pebble which causes the avalanche. Whilst Gwen continued to make repeated attempts to refocus the students back to the task at hand, she was ultimately unable to do so, and this event stands out from the data as a critical event. Gwen recalled:

Yeah. Yeah. Well, it was about that moment that I realised that I’m not going finish with what I had planned to and now that you mention this, there was a moment that I could feel my face changing. [...] I realised that, like, as if I were looking at myself in a mirror. I could feel my face change. [...] I could feel my muscles moving making a face, like, annoyed because of the interruption.

(Extract 7.69, GwPC/14/05/16)

In doing so, she offers an identifiable break from the manner in which she was able to respond to the earlier challenges, and what is occurring at this point in the class. At this moment, she might be described as no longer being in an attractor state at all, now gravitating rapidly towards an erratic repeller state, with its corresponding depressions in motivational levels and state of flux.

It is perhaps also worth noting the influence of these events on Gwen in light of cognitive evaluation theory. According to the existing literature, the basic psychological needs of competence and autonomy are seen to be the primary drivers of intrinsic motivation, with relatedness being an additive facet. If viewed in these terms, it may not be too hard to appreciate why Gwen’s teaching motivational complex system was experiencing such powerful perturbations. In a scenario wherein a teacher has been unable to achieve their primary aims in a lesson as a
result of poor student attention and engagement, it may be difficult to foresee a manner in which their need for teaching competency could be sated. In this instance, Gwen was also forced to forego one activity, to which she had attached real significance in her lesson planning, and bring another to a premature end, both as a result of timing issues. Moreover, along with the student behavioural problems, interruptions from other school staff members hindered Gwen in establishing momentum in her teaching and maintaining student focus. In taking decisions to enter her classroom at will and engage with the students in a disruptive manner, all without recourse to the teacher for signs of approval, each of these individuals provided repeated threats to Gwen’s sense of autonomy as a teacher. These repeated intrusions, or perturbations, stood out as ripples within the state space of Gwen’s motivational complex system. In light of these potent impacts upon her class at a stage of the week in which she may have already been motivationally challenged, it could be mooted that Gwen showed remarkable resilience to maintain the degree of teaching motivation that was evidenced in the data.
8 Uniting voices and calling for change

In chapters five, six, and seven, I have provided a depth of analysis which affords the reader a comprehensive understanding of the lived experiences of the participating teachers at the time of my fieldwork. The focus of this chapter now turns to the wider teaching community and aims to offer both validation of the findings thus far and provide a forum through which the voices of other members of the teaching community in Solaris may be heard. Subsequently, consideration is then given to the manner in which this investigation may have impacted upon the context. Finally, in recognition of the need for contextually appropriate solutions, and in acknowledgement that these are most likely to be derived through a bottom-up process of engagement with the local teaching community, space is provided for future recommendations as offered by those most familiar with the context: the teachers of Solaris. However, in order foster engagement with this change of focus, it may be helpful to first offer a brief review of the state space.

The contextually relevant, bottom-up analysis presented was developed from a body of rich ethnographic data acquired through lengthy exposure to the field. Given that such an examination of teaching motivation in Argentina has not previously been attempted, these findings represent new insights into the context. Previously, it was suggested that widespread low levels of teaching motivation may be systemic in Argentina (see Chapter 2), something which can now be confirmed within the secondary school English teaching community of Solaris. Nevertheless, evidence was seen of teachers exhibiting a strong intrinsic motivational drive to educate their students. Through a thick description of the context, a template has been provided which maps the initial conditions within the motivational complex system for language teachers in Solaris (see Figure 8.1).
As can be seen in Figure 8.1 (presented earlier in this thesis as Figure 6.3), there are significantly more negative factors than positive, something which may help to explain the aforementioned low levels of motivation within the schools. It should be recognised that the effect sizes of these initial conditions are nonlinear and as such, any attempt to predict teaching motivation levels based on the number of facets in the state space cannot offer reliability. Instead, it is recommended that the value of a tool such as this lies in its diagnostic capabilities. One method of utilisation could be
as a means of identifying problem areas within the state education system in Solaris. If used in conjunction with listening to the specific contextual needs of the local teachers, avenues for possible future improvements leading to increased motivation levels might be identified. In doing so, the lived experiences of the teacher could potentially be mapped across to create a uniquely tailored representation of their individual state space, reflecting the importance of interactions between each teacher and their surrounding context. Through the provision of such a person-in-context view of the field under investigation, schools could be assisted in identifying strategic, cost-effective measures which target increases in, and maintenance of, intrinsic motivational drive for both individual teachers and larger cohorts.

### 8.1 Voices from the wider teaching community

In an attempt to extend the findings beyond the immediate sample, all the English teachers in Solaris were asked a set of questions, at the end of the 2016 academic year (see Section 4.4.4; Appendix D). Of the 26 teachers, with 21 of these teaching in Solaris, nineteen responded in full, which I believe represents an acceptable response rate. It should be noted that these questions were extended to all of the secondary school English teachers, including the core participants. The resulting additional data provided a range of supplementary opinions and further validation for the findings of this study.
8.1.1 Negative influences.

Table 8.1 Negative influences on teaching motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influential variable</th>
<th>Sample responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Negative response on the part of the students (lack of interest, bad manners, etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some students with disruptive behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Apathetic students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the use of bad words directed to me when students don't want to follow the rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the students' aggressivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value of English</td>
<td>In general, there is a rejection of the American imperialism; they verbalize it bluntly. They say that the English language is an imposition of the imperialists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reluctance towards learning a foreign language, especially English, on the part of the students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental factors</td>
<td>The lack of a language baseground in some of the students (it's easier when the student is already going to a private English institute)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timetabling</td>
<td>lack of time, stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overwork, tiredness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We have two hours of classes a week, and I feel it's not enough for students to learn English significantly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support and isolation</td>
<td>Bad working atmosphere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>principals, supervisor, school system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not feeling valued or supported at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lack of support on the part of the families, teachers, head teachers, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>education policies that allow students to pass a class without much effort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lack of respect or acknowledgement for teachers in our society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>people who keep on interrupting your classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>where the egos are stronger than helping each other to give our students the best we can!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional prejudice</td>
<td>The idea that anyone can teach English everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I hate to be discrimated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>Old and not updated books: some of the material is about ten years old and not related to new technologies which these days surround the students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of supplies and material at schools.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(AnTQ/12/16)
As seen in Table 8.1 (see also Figure 8.1), the wider teaching community offer consistent validation of the themes identified in this study with regard to negative influences on their teaching motivation. Seven of the eleven identified negative initial conditions were mentioned. It is perhaps worth noting the prevalence of factors which relate to the teachers’ basic psychological needs for competence, and relatedness are well-represented, with autonomy less so (see Sections 6.1.2.1; 6.1.2.2; 6.1.2.3). In addition, an extrinsic factor was seen in the data: money; with responses including, “problems with my salary”, and “payment” (AnTQ/12/16). This is broadly consistent with core-participants’ data (see Section 6.1.1.5, Extract 6.40), though opposing views do exist, such as Ben who rated a teacher’s earning potential as a positive factor (FGPC/14/11/15). Given the issues with strikes related to teaching salaries across 2016, and beyond, it is possible that this may be evidence of the matter taking on a larger significance as the year progressed.

8.1.2 Positive influences.

In addition to the negative facets, evidence was also provided of positive influences on teaching.

Table 8.2 Positive influences on teaching motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influential variable</th>
<th>Sample responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job satisfaction</strong></td>
<td>passion for teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Desire to make students learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the blessing of working in my profession.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like teaching and working with teens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Having a well prepared class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observing real progress in students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My love for teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal relationships</strong></td>
<td>interaction with students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My rapport with the group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A good school working atmosphere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Most groups I work with are adorable and fulfilling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sharing with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>students' personal response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other noteworthy positives</strong></td>
<td>in my town there are not posibilities for children. I think that I can help to my students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of teachers in this area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>freedom to set varied methods</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(AnTQ/12/16)
As Table 8.2 shows, the data cohere with the identified initial conditions in this study (see Chapter 6; Figure 8.1). Job satisfaction, and interpersonal relationships were both strongly represented, along with a small number of other noteworthy positives. The strong intrinsic drive indicated here offers validation for the findings of this study (see Sections 5.1.1.2; 5.1.2). Reviewing the data in Table 8.2 illustrates that the positive motivational influences felt by the teachers are consistent with the satiation of their basic psychological needs for competence, and relatedness. However, whilst the core-participants also indicate a need for relatedness, competence was less widely noted (see Sections 6.1.3.1; 6.1.3.2). In addition to these previously identified themes, alternative perspectives were also offered, i.e. salaries, and CPD. In contrast with the data seen in Table 8.1, money featured as a positive factor, e.g. “Having a good salary” (AnTQ/12/16), suggesting the issue is somewhat more nuanced and relative to the individual’s perspective. Moreover, whereas the lack of CPD had previously been seen as a negative (see Section 6.1.1.8), here, the teachers recognise the positive motivational effects of engaging in CPD as it, “gives the chance to go on improving and gaining experience” (AnTQ/12/16). As a result, it may be germane to consider how levels of teaching motivation could be enhanced through the provision of a principled and systematic INSETT programme.

8.2 Impact

Having demonstrated resonance between the core-participants’ data and those of the wider teaching community in Solaris, I would like to consider the manner in which participation in this study resulted in impact. It should be reiterated that the research design included no direct aims regarding teacher or student development. However, in response to requests from the teachers, adaptations were made to create space for the development of a mentoring relationship. In a context where CPD is scarce, and in which classroom observations are unlikely to be a driver for professional development (see Section 6.1.1.8), participating in the study provided the teachers with access to new experiences which offered the potential for professional growth. For example, Section 6.1.3.3 offers the following:
Sonya commented that she found her discussion with me to be motivating. This is may be evidence that my presence here cannot fail to affect the teachers in some way or another. I must acknowledge this as it cannot be avoided.

(Extract 8.1, earlier presented as Extract 6.161, SNRJ/10/15)

Such a positive outcome would be consistent with the ethical principle of “beneficence” (Kubanyiova, 2008, p. 505). Similarly, it would be difficult to avoid the effect of my presence on the students, many of whom had never travelled outside of their province or met someone from outside Argentina. As such, it may be useful to explore areas in which impact can be demonstrated.

Table 8.3 Data identifying examples of impact

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Data Extract</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can say that your presence has had a positive effect on me as a teacher and you made me reflect upon many things that I didn’t take into consideration, years before, and it really helped (SoPC/28/11/16).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you for not giving up on me. Thank you for your suggestions, encouragement, time (SoRJ/10/12/16).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was really enriching and it added a lot to my learning process. Also, probably it will be the only opportunity to participate in something like this, a one-time opportunity really! (GwRJ/10/12/16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question prompt: Please list any factors which positively affect your motivation to teach English. Response: You (AnTQ/12/16).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question prompt: Which parts [of the research process] did you find most valuable? Why? Answer: Your comments and suggestions to me. Because of the effect they had on my practice. The interest you caught in the students. Because it is great they can find interest in something or someone related to education, knowledge and communication. The fact that this is an external observation, free from any intra-institutional dispute or whatever similar condition (SaRJ/10/12/16).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has been worthwhile for me since I was compelled to reflect on my teaching, something which I wouldn’t have done otherwise (AmRJ/10/12/16).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The positive thing is that you made me reflect on my teaching which I had never ever done before. […] And I got feedback which is more important because you never get to have this feedback from another person who is watching you in the classes so that was wonderful (AmPC/28/11/16).

As I mentioned before, working together, sharing ideas and receiving feedback from a competent teacher has been particularly positive (BeRJ/10/12/16).

Yes. In the sense that it was a very good, or a new, an unusual experience for them, it was something new to have someone observing in the classroom and some, in some way, it also called their attention to have a native speaker in the classroom […]. But then I realised that they felt curious and they wanted to learn and when they heard us talking to each other, in a way, it affected them because they did want to know what we were talking about, they did want to learn English to communicate the way I was communicating with you in that moment. So I think it was, it had a positive aspect (BePC/30/11/16).

It had an effect on me, on my teaching. I tried to improve. […] I think that something I will miss next year is that feedback because it is really useful for me. Really, really useful. I find it really positive. I will miss that part (BePC/30/11/16).

As can be seen in Table 8.3, further evidence exists of a desire for professional development and many of the teachers found that element of the research process to be particularly rewarding. All but one of the core-participants can be identified acknowledging the benefits, something which may evince the ethical principle of “justice” (Kubanyiova, 2008, p. 505). An identified highlight for many was the observation cycle with its structured and individually tailored feedback, something no one had previously experienced. It may be possible to consider these data as evidence that the teachers’ basic psychological needs were being met through our engagement. Competence might be linked to the manner in which their teaching practices were questioned, and new ideas offered in an autonomy-supportive manner. Finally, given the degree of isolation felt by the teachers (see Section 6.1.1.6), our close working relationships would have provided a degree of peer relatedness that may have been entirely new. The fruits of our pedagogical discussions could be seen by the end of the academic year in observable changes to classroom approaches, with further potential improvements possible after time to reflect over the summer break.

It could also be seen that my presence in the classrooms had a positive effect on some of the student body: a welcome by-product for the core-participant teachers.
It should be noted that this was not universal, and a proportion of the students were happy to ignore my presence. Nevertheless, no adverse reactions were identified by either the teachers or myself. Moreover, in their exit interviews, the teachers all recognised they were now significantly more aware of their own, and their students’ levels of motivation. Some of the teachers also expressed an ability to harness their newfound insights in order to strategically monitor their teaching motivation to mitigate threats. Finally, the teachers all stated they would be keen to learn more about how they could adapt their teaching to foster enhanced levels of student motivation.

Since leaving the field, ongoing contact has enabled me to continue offering support. In one instance, I assisted Santiago by locating a teacher in rural Poland with whom he developed a shared classroom project. As a result of this, their students have been able to utilise English as a lingua franca for authentic communicative purposes. This is ongoing in 2019 and future developments are anticipated. Gwen sought permission to utilise my recorded feedback as the basis for a reflective practice activity at the Profesorado. As such, Gwen has taken ownership of that encounter, and its developmental potential has been extended to a much larger community of trainee teachers (GwPC/19/02/19). Finally, the teachers’ points awarded to the core participants and lead translator, will continue to reward practically throughout their teaching careers by virtue of their impact on the Listado de Profesores (see Section 4.6).

8.3 Future recommendations
Having given voice to the wider teaching community and noted instances of impact, I now focus on potentially beneficial adaptations to the education system. Those presented are deemed to be both contextually relevant and representative of a bottom-up process of decision-making, something for which Banegas and Velázquez (2014) have advocated in Argentina. What follows is firmly rooted in the voices of the teachers who live and work in Solaris, interpreted through my own unique vantage point of outside/insider. Moreover, in recognition of the inherent danger of yet more top-down, foreign-derived ideas which have no relevance to the classes in Solaris, all attempts have been made to ensure this is not the case.

Change is nothing new in Solaris, with sweeping changes, often following new political appointees in the Ministry of Education hierarchy. One result of this is a
form of inertia that impedes the uptake of new practices. (SNRJ/03/16). This may be akin to the passive resistance often seen from students which hinders momentum in classes (see Section 6.1.1.1). To the teachers, changes have been characterised by their seeming arbitrariness and lack of direct relevance to the local context (SNRJ/03/16). In spite of these potential hindrances, Alice informed me, “that there is a widespread desire for systemic change here and that most teachers would most likely be receptive” (SNRJ/03/16). As such, it may be that the teachers resist change that is not felt to be relevant to their teaching context. It is not yet known if their own locally generated ideas might be greeted more openly.

In order to explore the idea of such bottom up programs of development within the secondary school system in Solaris, the core-participants were asked if there were any improvements that they felt would be beneficial.

Table 8.4 A representative selection of the core participants’ suggestions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sample recommendations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Timetabling</strong></td>
<td>I, if I were a headmaster at school, I definitely change breaks, I would make them a bit longer, like a twenty minute break would be ideal for me […] Because students also erm, they don’t even have time to go to the toilet during the break because there are so many and there is only one toilet in the whole school so, you see. And they are always interrupting you in the classroom (FGPC/14/11/15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don’t like to go from one school and then to the other school, it’s so stressful. (FGPC/14/11/15).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SANTIAGO In our timetables organisation eh, just to let teachers have some relaxing period between classes, that eh, helps. We call them sandwich period, when you have a free, a spare eh period- GWEN -Forty minutes-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SANTIAGO -then from, eh between one class and the next one. Well, that is the shame when you have three courses in, in, in the morning or in the afternoon or in the evening. (FGPC/14/11/15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Referring to mid-year teacher changes, Gwen notes that, whilst it is good to have a level of flexibility for schools and teachers […], it would be better if there were only certain times of the year when this could happen. This seems to be an eminently sensible solution as, at present, teachers can quit a class at any time, potentially leaving them without a teacher at all. Instead, perhaps there could be a window e.g. in the break between terms, or during the winter receso. Outside of those periods, it would guarantee continuity for the schools, students and teacher whilst not completely removing flexibility (SNRJ/03/16).

**Support and isolation**

- And I think that all schools should have a coordinator, but a real one, yes? And this, a, and this person, should er, make sure that things er, are done like, for example, we had said, OK, we are going to make the students from second year to read, at least a book in a year, and to watch at least one video. And then we never did it (AIPC/30/03/16).
- I think that we have to working as groups at school, that is what’s missing at schools. As well from Supervision, from the heads of the schools. They have to work in group and they have to-, We have to work in group and to help teachers to develop their classes (AdPC/12/11/16).
- If we were more erm, kind of together in that idea of changing the way of teaching English, I think we could DO {emphasised} better things (AIPC/30/03/16).
- I think that education would change if we work in group. At least in secondary school, we are not used to working with other colleagues. I think that would give us the opportunity to have different ideas and try to solve different problems and create better classes and be more creative with the classes because students get bored at school (AdPC/12/11/16).
- I think the er, government can help us just er, if they allow us to have er, another teacher with us. It would be so easy, more profitable, they will learn more (FGPC/14/11/15).

**CPD**

- I repeat, some teachers are wonderful, they are great. I think that those teachers, the headmaster should talk with those teachers and those teachers have to give, or to share creative classes to other teachers and start working that way in groups, and, I don’t know, motivating other teachers (AdPC/12/11/16).
- Well, I think I insist on that we should, we should have more eh, training courses because those help a lot. Eh, when you get the opportunity to exchange ideas and experiences with other teachers, that is really enriching (AIpc/30/03/16)
ADAM: I think that regarding to English, we should have someone in the school in charge of that position {conducting observations}. Because they have no idea. [...] English is very difficult to observe because the headmaster, heads, have no idea how English is taught because it’s quite, quite different from teaching History, from teaching Geography, because you have to know how language is acquired.

IR: Do you think that the school recognise that there’s a difference in terms of pedagogy? Between language tuition and general subject tuition.

ADAM: No. No (AdPC/12/11/16).

As Table 8.4 shows, the three main themes are in line with the earlier findings (see Chapter 6; Section 8.1). Once again, issues related to timetabling; support and isolation; and CPD have been foregrounded. With regard to timetabling, a solution has yet to be found which avoids the teacher needing to commute between schools during the working day. A further issue, also linked to stress and energy levels, was the timing of classes and breaks, with a desire for more strategic breaks. Support and isolation were mentioned, with the suggestion of establishing an English teaching coordinator in each school connecting with a desire for greater integration among the teaching community. This can be directly linked to the teachers’ basic psychological need for relatedness, with a dearth of collegiality widely acknowledged within the system. Finally, a focus on CPD was a common request, which again suggests the teachers need for professional competence is not currently being met. One interesting suggestion from the data is for teachers to lead peer developmental sessions in which successful ideas and experiences are shared. Such a project might have the potential to address deficiencies with regard to competence and relatedness, whilst taking little to implement, and could engender motivational increases. A final issue was the lack of language specific pedagogical awareness within the academic management teams. As a result, if observations did occur, they tended to offer little to the language teachers as their observers did not understand much of what occurred in the classroom. Perhaps a solution might be for language teaching coordinators to be employed to oversee the English teachers, with observations falling under their remit. Once again, this might aide in satisfying the basic psychological needs of the teachers by fostering relatedness through a sense of group identity; competence through an active developmental programme; and autonomy, as the English teachers...
would potentially have a greater degree of control over the direction of their professional environment. It is worthy of note that Adam was instrumental in some of these ideas. Given his role in Supervision, they might be considered achievable objectives, should the desire for change exist.

In addition to the participants, comments and suggestions were sought from the remaining English teachers in Solaris.

*Table 8.5* A representative selection of suggestions from the wider teaching community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sample recommendations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students</strong></td>
<td>• The lack of interests of some of my students could be changed at school. Perhaps allowing them to use the language in real situations, talking to exchange students for example. Summer school is something that cannot be changed. Unfortunately it doesn't help students, it only makes them lazier.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value of English</strong></td>
<td>• I think English as a second language should be as important as other subjects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Timetabling</strong></td>
<td>• Not being so tired. I work a lot and in different places to make ends meet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• A better salary would mean having to work fewer hours and thus being able to prepare better classes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Having more time to prepare classes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Having less groups and more time with each of them (which is an impossibility).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Instead of having 2 hrs of English once a week, I would rather have 1 hour twice a week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support and isolation</strong></td>
<td>• I think school authorities should help teachers a bit more.. we deal with stressful situations everyday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• I think teachers should work as a team and develop interesting topics, if not everything looks perfectly planned but just in paper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Having more interaction with other colleagues would really help motivation. Working collaboratively is great for motivation since you can always share, get advice and come up with new ideas when you work in a group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Having more contact with other teachers in order to exchange ideas. Feeling that there is a more or less homogeneous line of work with the previous teachers and not feeling every year that I have to start from scratch in terms of knowledge of the language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- Value our work giving us the possibility of working with other teachers to plan classes. Having our heads visiting our classes, they never do it.
- I would like that lessons were not interrupted so frequently by administrative (or any other) reasons - I would like principals were more clear about the use of mobile phones, I mean it was punished in other ways than just by scoring students at the end of each term.

**Resources**

- School supplies and devices available, such as CD player, projector, whiteboards, etc.
- I think that if students would have the possibility to have access to concrete material, colorful books, they wouldn't see boring language in black and white paper. Students need to change their mind in a way they see English.
- At first, an excellent PC network. Nowadays, without it, it's impossible to teach in the right way.
- Having at the Library real material according to the different levels, beginning for the dictionaries.
- I get bored of books, as I believe my students get bored as well. I know there are many web tools available to be used but unfortunately we don't have Internet access in our school.
- I would like to have new resources at school, for example, graded readers, DVDs, short videos with stories and activities, so students can learn in different ways, and find out which they like the most.
- To upgrade school facilities.

**CPD**

- Professional training course would help hugely, because we can get new and updated strategies to teach English.
- I would really like to continue having someone who helps us observing our lessons and discusses and makes suggestions about them as you did, though I really do not think it is possible. I do not believe that a regular teaching observation program would be useful, unless it was carried out from outside the school system, and out of the reach of principals or even supervisors. Such a thing is either a) a developing tool for teachers; or b) a power tool for authorities. It should not try to be both things at the same time. In our country, and at our schools, there are many people too prone to a control-and-punishment style. A program like that does not seem very likely to exist under these conditions. A helpful teaching-assessing mate (as you have been to us) should not have a derogative look onto others, should have really valuable inter-personal
As Table 8.5 shows, timetabling; support and isolation; and CPD are once again central to the teachers’ thoughts. In addition to these, the students, the value of English, and resources offered additional validation for the earlier findings of this study (see Chapter 6). As before, high workloads prove detrimental to energy levels and the ability to plan lessons effectively, with rushing between schools for classes also noted as problematic. A general wish for a reduced teaching load seems central to the comments. As with the core-participants, these teachers had much to say about their desire for greater integration into the school and with their peers: teacher isolation is a driver for the suggested improvements. Once again, the basic need for relatedness appears to be a central pillar underpinning the priorities. Given the acknowledged low levels of teaching motivation in Solaris (see Chapter 5), and the enhanced degree of importance given to interpersonal relationships in this context (see Section 6.1.2.2), these teachers appear to be calling for an enhanced sense of professional community. Given the consistency of the message throughout this thesis, this might be considered a priority if genuine improvements are to be found.

The lack of CPD was recognised, with a desire for training courses and developmental input. Finally, additional funds to improve the range and availability of resources were regularly requested. Given the dearth of resources in Solaris (see Section 6.1.1.9; Appendix K), this may not be altogether unexpected. It is worth noting that each of these requests foregrounded improvement to the learning experiences of the students. Noting that these same students have been seen to exert a fundamental influence on the teachers’ motivational complex systems (see Section 6.1.1.1), this might be an area were dual benefits might be seen. It seems clear that whilst a range of preferences were expressed, a central core common ground can be identified. I would argue that this represents a robust argument for the implementation of such bottom-up evidence-based policies which place the needs of the teachers and students in this specific context at their core.
9 Solaris: A culmination but not the terminus

9.1 Summary of main findings

The aim of this study was to explore the dynamic nature of teaching motivation in a sample of secondary school English teachers. The findings show there are widespread problems with teacher motivation within Solaris, though a small number of teachers do exhibit a strong intrinsic motivational drive. Correspondingly, the quantity of negative influences on motivation to teach significantly outnumber the positives. Negatives include student attitudes; the value of English; environmental factors; timetabling; isolation through lack of support; institutional prejudice; a scarcity of CPD; a lack of resources; and the chaotic nature of the system. Primary positive factors are job satisfaction and interpersonal relationships. The dynamic nature of teaching motivation was examined, with a significant degree of fluctuation found to be evident. Additionally, found in the data were patterns of nesting which illustrate motivational attractor states; and evidence of the nonlinearity of effects from exposure to repeated motivational threats.

9.2 Limitations of the study

Potential weaknesses of the study include the limitations of my Spanish language ability. It was necessary to utilise translators/interpreters when interviewing the students and this could have impacted on the quantity and quality of data voicing the students’ perspectives. Moreover, a higher level of proficiency in the language might have enabled me to engage more deeply with other teachers and members of staff in the schools, resulting in a wider range of viewpoints. Similarly, a lack of prior cultural knowledge meant I had much to acquire in the early stages of the fieldwork and it is possible that some subtleties of the context were overlooked during that initial period. A greater number of participant-teachers might have afforded alternative viewpoints and further strengthened the data. Similarly, from a methodological standpoint, the issues experienced with capturing audio/visual data in the observed classes required adaptations to be made for the stimulated recall protocols. It is possible that this meant some recollections were compromised as a result of incomplete or inaccurate recall. Finally, as with all complex dynamic systems theory research, limitations must be placed upon the scope of the state space under analysis. In doing so, there is the potential that aspects in the data may be
missed. Similarly, given the large quantity of data and limited space in a thesis, there exist other lines of inquiry to be pursued and further work will be necessary to exhaust these.

9.3 Wider significance and contributions

9.3.1 Contribution to the context

As a result of this study, an unprecedented level of understanding has been gained of the reality of working life for English teachers in Solaris. Having identified issues related to teacher motivation, along with their primary influencing factors, it is now possible for evidence-based policy discussions to be undertaken. These could be within individual schools; at the level of Supervision, ergo the district; or at the level of provincial Ministerio, to which Estanislao continues to be a potential conduit. Perhaps, most importantly, these discussions could now be informed by data which reflect the specific demands of this context and enable bottom-up solutions to be derived. The mapped state space provided in this thesis offers a diagnostic tool to decode the roots of the motivational issues, and the voices of the teachers provide suggestions for the future. Additionally, evidence of nonlinearity provided here may encourage fewer top-down sweeping revolutionary changes: it may instead be recognised that incremental evolution can result in lasting real-world improvements. Such an approach may prove to be altogether more palatable to the teachers, something which could aid uptake and implementation. The identification of the importance of the basic psychological need for relatedness offers an ideal place to begin addressing these problems. Within an education system which serves to isolate teachers, there is an absence of professionally supportive inter-personal relationships. As a result, the teachers seek to satisfy their need for relatedness through deeper personal student-teacher relationships. One by-product of this has been that student engagement and discipline have taken on great significance with regard to the teachers’ ability to maintain their motivation equilibrium.

9.3.2 Contribution to research approaches

A key strength of the investigation lies in its rich ethnographically derived data set, which was compiled over a period in excess of one academic year. Such an extended period spent working in close quarters with the participating teachers and their students allowed for the observation of more natural student-teacher
interactions, and an enhanced degree of sensitivity to small online changes in visible teacher motivation. By developing a bond of trust with both the teachers and their students, the barrier between the emic and etic perspectives could be dissolved, allowing for a richer understanding of the motivation to teach in this context. Without such a prolonged period of time in these classrooms, such observations could not have been made. Many previous studies have erroneously conceptualised motivation as a latent variable which cannot be observed. It is hoped that this thesis may encourage wider usage of ethnographic approaches to data collection, which incorporate longer stays in the language teaching classroom in order to develop contextualised understanding.

Mention should also be made of my unorthodox approach to paradigmatic boundaries. Judicious application of language and methods derived from a positivist tradition was adopted to inform aspects of this constructivist research design. This was applied in a manner consistent with qualitative research design and did not conform to the specifications of a mixed methods study. Structured observation techniques which ascribed numerical values to observations of visible teaching motivation were employed. In addition to this, similar numerical self-report data were also sought from the teachers and combined with the existing observation data to form the basis of stimulated recall protocol interviews. (see Section 4.4.2.2). It should be noted that such data could only be attempted after extensive time had been spent and a close bond developed between researcher and participants. As a result, I was attuned to subtle changes in posture or tone of voice, and other indicators of change in motivational levels. These data were not considered to be representative of an objective truth, rather examples of subjective, and contextually bound changes in motivation. Discussion of these data allowed for the development of a shared language with each individual participant, through which a deeper discussion of motivational changes could be explored, and richer data captured. Whilst I acknowledge this is at odds with accepted practice in research design, the approach was taken in response to the specifics of the context and the needs of the participants. I believe that this careful and principled borrowing of methods and approaches from outside the paradigm brought additional value to the study. This can also be seen as a call for a more nuanced view of research approaches and the degree to which they may be rigidly bound to epistemology. It is entirely possible to appropriate quantitative method for qualitative investigative work without arriving at
the unintended destination of mixed methods research. However, such an approach requires a measured and reflective approach from a practitioner conversant with the existing boundaries. This is an area which could be of direct value to future research design and considerations of what constitutes the limitations of appropriate methodology.

Finally, this thesis represents the product of a struggle to locate the natural limits of the state space under investigation. As has previously been noted, some of the difficulties of adopting a complexity perspective include delimiting the state space for analysis and representing complexity within said analysis. Such a context-centric paradigm provides the researcher with an almost overwhelming level of detail and placing outer limits on the field of inquiry is a decision that can be fraught with potential for error. In many complexity studies, the decision is made to reduce the zone of inquiry to a tightly focussed area, where limitations may be more easily defined. In this instance, a more ambitious attempt to encompass the temporal period of one year, and the case of an entire town’s state secondary school English language teaching resulted in moments of confusion and indecision before the path forwards could be identified. Further issues are inherent in any attempt to discuss the nature of complexity itself. Given that it is implicit in complexity research that interactions influence and have consequences at each level of the dataset, there can be a tendency to become overwhelmed with the detail. I believe that one of the successes of this thesis is its ability to communicate the breadth and depth of influential factors that were observable within, and without, the language teaching classrooms of Solaris. Ushioda (2019) highlights that “despite significant interest […] the amount of empirical work adopting CDST perspectives remains relatively small” (p. 201). I would call on others to embrace challenging decisions such as those outlined here, so that we might gather a wider range of differing vantage points regarding teaching motivation within the field of applied linguistics complexity research.

9.3.3 Contribution to theory

The central theoretical bases for this investigation were complex dynamic systems theory, and the macro-theory of self-determination theory. The micro-theory of cognitive evaluation theory provided the best natural fit for the data and was applied with a complexity perspective for the purposes of interpreting the data. The approach taken in this thesis is novel and has resulted in extending existing
understanding of SDT and broadened its explanatory potential. As previously outlined, the roots of SDT lie in the positivist epistemological paradigm, wherein much of the previous research has been situated (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It is additionally true that SDT has not been widely associated with research applying a complexity perspective. One rationale for this is that the quantitative research methods typically employed by SDT researchers naturally focus on linear processes, which may then be conceptualised as explaining the reality of motivation. In contrast to this, a focus on non-linearity can incorporate a wider array of possible influences and offer greater nuance to the analysis of data. I believe this is an inherent strength of complexity research and provides a route through which we may arrive at a more holistic understanding. By applying a complexity lens to SDT, this investigation has demonstrated that there exists further untapped explanatory potential. Novel insights from such an approach which have been uncovered as a result of this doctoral thesis will now be outlined.

As has previously been discussed (see Section 3.2.2), Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) is comprised of three facets, the interaction of which are said to influence the degree of intrinsic motivation experienced by the individual. Autonomy has long been recognised as one of the two primary drivers within this triumvirate, with competence cited as of similar importance (Gagné & Deci, 2005). In spite of this, there has been some debate as to which of the two may be the most fundamental, with competence often tending to be considered the priority (for example, see Ryan & Deci, 2000). Alternative viewpoints additionally exist, with some finding autonomy to be of greater importance (for example, see Noels et al., 2019). Nevertheless, there has been an acceptance that when identifying the underlying factors which influence intrinsic motivation, these two facets supersede the third element, that of relatedness. This can be seen in the typical representation of relatedness as a facilitative influence, once the twin needs for competence and autonomy have already been satisfied. Referring to the deep body of research into language learner motivation, Noels et al. (2019) demonstrate this, stating that relatedness can “support the satisfaction of […] psychological needs and, correspondingly, […] motivational orientation” (p. 101). Notwithstanding the focus on the learner, as opposed to the language teacher, some conclusions can be drawn from this literature which may help illuminate some of the contributions to theory made by this thesis.
In the first instance, relatedness within the context of language education is traditionally conceptualised as being drawn from, “significant others, including family members, the […] teacher, the TL [target language] community, and others” (Noels et al., p. 101). Muñoz & Ramirez (2015) additionally posit that authority figures within the school environment, such as the school principal, should also be included in this group. As has been noted earlier in this thesis, these figures translate neatly from the realm of the language learner, to the realm of their teacher counterparts, with friends, family members, peer teachers, and members of the academic management team being identifiable in previously published studies (for example, see Ducharme & Martin, 2000). It should also be noted that in this thesis, where the focus of the study is the motivation to teach rather than to learn the language, the lack of a target language community may be seen as having reduced significance and will not be commented on further. A key finding from this investigation is its recognition that both the immediate and wider social contexts are of primary importance to motivation, an observation which is not present in the wider body of existing theoretical literature. In this study, it was demonstrated that the students were of fundamental importance to the manner in which the teachers perceived their context, and often represented the sole source from which their need for relatedness could be satiated. This was further underlined by the pervading feelings of isolation experienced by the participating teachers, who spoke of experiencing disconnection from their teacher peers and the academic management team. Such findings can be seen as original, distinct, and provide new directions for future teacher motivation research in the field of SDT.

In addition to this, the reduced degree of influence exerted by autonomy and competence can be seen as important contributions to theory made by this study. In this context, the teachers were not seen to be experiencing satisfaction of their psychological needs for autonomy or competence. This is in direct contrast to the expected degree, given that these might be considered inherent facets of their chosen profession. As a result, for these teachers, it cannot be said that autonomy and competence are the primary influential components of their intrinsic motivational drive to teach. A context in which teachers find themselves undermined and overruled in the majority of their professional capacities can only serve to distance them from experiencing meaningful satisfaction of their psychological need for autonomy. In addition to this, the repetitive and unchallenging nature of English language
teaching in the secondary schools of Solaris has been seen to undermine feelings of professional competence for the teachers in this study. Instead, this investigation has demonstrated that satisfying teachers’ psychological need for relatedness is of considerable importance in maintaining their motivation to teach. Furthermore, and as has been previously noted, any degree of satiation experienced is derived directly from the students and not from the sources which would be traditionally expected. Such findings represent a contribution to theory and a call for re-evaluating existing understanding of SDT.

Previous conceptualisations of SDT have viewed it as a universal theory which operates above the level of cultural and contextual influences (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Moreover, within CET, relatedness has been seen to play a supplementary role in workplace motivation. In contrast to this, this study’s fine-grained analysis, made possible by a complexity perspective, has identified that the psychological need for relatedness is of critical importance. In this cultural context, far from serving only to amplify motivation that is already in existence, relatedness proved to be a key variable which is seen directly influencing the motivation to teach. Further work is needed to ascertain whether these findings apply more widely to other Latin American cultures, as has been hinted at. Given the dearth of research in the field and in this geographical region, there is much yet to learn. It is possible that culture and context may yet be seen to shift the balance of power between the three facets of CET. Finally, perhaps the most important theoretical contribution of this study is that it has extended the explanatory potential of SDT by applying a complexity perspective.

9.4 Directions for future research

A number of avenues for future research have been identified as a result of this thesis. One promising direction is to further explore evidence of visible teaching motivation. As with this study, time spent with teachers in their classrooms would be required in order to sensitise the researcher to these subtle changes. An argument exists for more case studies informed by ethnographic approaches which investigate teaching motivation, as such an approach offers ample room for such observational skills to be honed. Moreover, any such research would be urged to incorporate the perspectives of teacher, students, and researcher within the data set. Continuing with this theme, exploring the effects of changes in visible teaching motivation on the
students may prove to be illuminating. There is ample room for developments in understanding the links between teacher and student motivation and for such insights to inform pedagogy. A complexity perspective allows for the conceptualisation of the classroom as a complex system and may enable the researcher to tease apart these inextricably intertwined dimensions.

In addition, there may be diagnostic benefits in mapping out the state space of alternative contexts. Aside from increasing understanding locally, it is possible that areas with broadly similar cultural backgrounds might show similarities in their initial conditions. A case might be made for exploring other regions in Argentina, and also within Latin America. Such investigations might also uncover common nested motivational patterns, affording entirely new perspectives. Finally, it may be valid to consider aspects of motivational strategies. Learning the ways that teachers are able to maintain and/or improve their levels of teaching motivation could be of great value. Such processes may be nonconscious or conscious and might lead to transferrable skills that could be more widely disseminated.

I began this thesis with the phrase, “simplicities are enormously complex” (Moore, 1960, p. 29). Through uncovering the inherent complexities, I discovered answers for the questions with which I travelled to Argentina. It is hoped that this experience, and the outcomes, may prove to be of some value to those that work in the classrooms of the secondary schools in Solaris. From my own perspective, what remains now is to continue unpacking the simplicities and exploring their complexities in the continuing journey for deeper understanding of the motivation to teach.
References


Walford, G. (2002) ‘Why don’t researchers name their research sites?’, in G. Walford (Ed.), Debates and developments in ethnographic methodology (Studies in


### Appendices

*Appendix A.* Data referencing codes

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Appendix B. An overview of the data set

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<th>Data Collection Type</th>
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<td>Reflective Journals</td>
<td>391 (total number of pages) (Term 1=143) (Term 2=115) (Term 3=133)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>52:10:36 (total amount of time recorded)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shadowing &amp; Observations</td>
<td>278 (total number of 40-minute periods) 99 (total number of classes) 44 (total number of days) 11,120 minutes / 185 hours and 20 minutes 5 books of handwritten field notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Focus Group Interviews</td>
<td>03:01:21 (total amount of interview time recorded)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Responses to in Class Questions</td>
<td>619 [17] (total number of numerical responses [missing]) 595 [41] (total number of written responses [missing])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Responses to Questionnaire for the Wider Teaching Community</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Research Journal</td>
<td>359 (total number of pages submitted up to 22/12/16) (2015=66) (Term 1=74) (Term 2=85) (Term 3=134)</td>
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</table>
Appendix C. Student questionnaire for in-class perspectives on teaching and student motivation

(1)

A. *Cuán motivado para enseñar está ______________ ahora, en este momento / en los últimos cinco minutos?*

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Not very OK Extremely

B. *Cómo te das cuenta? Que cosas te lo indican?*

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

C. *Cuán motivado te sentís para estudiar Inglés ahora mismo? Y en los últimos cinco minutos?*

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Not very OK Extremely

D. *Por qué es eso así?*

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

(2)

A. *Cuán motivado para enseñar está ______________ ahora, en este momento / en los últimos cinco minutos?*

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Not very OK Extremely

B. *Cómo te das cuenta? Que cosas te lo indican?*

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________
C. Cuán motivado te sientes para estudiar inglés ahora mismo? Y en los últimos cinco minutos?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not very OK Extremely

D. Por qué es eso así?

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

(3)

A. Cuán motivado para enseñar está ______________ ahora, en este momento / en los últimos cinco minutos?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not very OK Extremely

B. Cómo te das cuenta? Que cosas te lo indican?

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

C. Cuán motivado te sientes para estudiar inglés ahora mismo? Y en los últimos cinco minutos?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not very OK Extremely

D. Por qué es eso así?

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

¡Muchas Gracias!
**Questionnaire for English Teachers in Solaris**

I'd like to ask for your help in answering the following questions about language teaching motivation. This is not a test in any way so there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers and all your responses are 100% anonymous. I'm interested in learning about your own experiences and opinions to help me understand your situation a little better. Please be as honest as possible when answering as only this can guarantee a successful investigation.

There are only 8 questions so it shouldn't take up too much of your time. :o)

Thanks very much for your help!
Simon

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 1</th>
<th>How many years have you been teaching English?</th>
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<tr>
<td>Question 2</td>
<td>How many years have you taught English at secondary schools?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 3</td>
<td>Would you please list your qualifications?</td>
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<td>Question 4</td>
<td>Are you teaching English at secondary school in Solaris this year? If yes, please include which schools in your answer (do not add any other identifying information e.g. which classes).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 5</td>
<td>Please list any factors which positively affect your motivation to teach English (minimum of three items but please add as many as you can think of).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Question 6</td>
<td>Please list any factors which negatively affect your motivation to teach English (minimum of three items but please add as many as you can think of).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question 7
We all feel low levels of motivation sometimes. What strategies do you have to raise your levels of motivation to teach English?

Question 8
What would help to improve your levels of motivation to teach English? Is there anything that you would like to see changed? Please list any ideas that you have and give as much information as possible e.g. why.

Thanks ever so much for taking the time to complete this, I really do appreciate it. If you think there’s something that I should have asked or if you’d like to add any other comments, please feel free to contact me. If you choose to do so, please rest assured that all information shared will be treated as confidential unless explicitly stated otherwise.

Cheers!
Simon

email: (email address removed)
WhatsApp: (number removed)

* The online instrument can be found at:
Formulario de consentimiento de participación (profesores)

Nombre provisional del proyecto: Estudio etnográfico longitudinal de profesores de inglés en Argentina utilizando un sistema dinámico complejo.

Nombre del investigador: Simon Ness

Nombre de la supervisora: Dr. Ema Ushioda

Propósito del estudio: Explorar y conocer la vida de los profesores de inglés en Argentina en escuelas secundarias en la ciudad de Solaris.

Consentimiento de participación:
Confirmo que he recibido la información relativa a la naturaleza de este estudio y que he tenido la oportunidad de aclarar cualquier duda que al respecto hubiere tenido.

Acepto participar en este estudio y comprendo que mi participación es enteramente voluntaria y que dado el caso podría dejar de participar en cualquier etapa del proyecto sin consecuencia alguna para mi persona.

Entiendo que toda información recopilada a través de este estudio será utilizada para los propósitos de la tesis doctoral del investigador, subsecuentes conferencias o presentaciones así como para informar futuras políticas y prácticas.

Estoy enterado de que mi anonimato será preservado diligentemente a través del uso de pseudónimos y de que los datos recopilados serán mantenidos en dispositivos de almacenamiento encriptados a los cuales solo tendrá acceso el investigador.

Entiendo que mis intereses personales y profesionales siempre tendrán prioridad sobre los intereses del investigador y su proyecto.

Estoy de acuerdo en participar en el proyecto y estoy dispuesto (a) a:

1. Ser entrevistado.
2. Que mis entrevistas sean audio-grabadas.
3. Ser observado dando clases y que mis lecciones sean audio-grabadas.
4. Ser fotografiado mientras llevo a cabo mis labores profesionales.
5. Entregar un reporte semanal con reflexiones sobre mi experiencia docente de la semana anterior.
6. Participar por periodos cortos en recopilación de datos utilizando mi teléfono móvil (SMS).
7. Validar los datos recopilados y analizados.
Por favor indique su consentimiento del uso de los siguientes medios:

1. Uso de los datos recopilados en la tesis del investigador.
   - Audio
   - Transcripciones
   - Fotografías
   - Ninguno

2. Uso de los datos recopilados en presentaciones académicas y publicaciones profesionales.
   - Audio
   - Transcripciones
   - Fotografías
   - Ninguno

3. Uso de los datos recopilados para propósitos educativos.
   - Audio
   - Transcripciones
   - Fotografías
   - Ninguno

4. Uso de los datos recopilados para ser mostrados en reuniones académicas y profesionales de asuntos relevantes.
   - Audio
   - Transcripciones
   - Fotografías
   - Ninguno

5. Uso de los datos recopilados para otros propósitos de investigación académica.
   - Audio
   - Transcripciones
   - Fotografías
   - Ninguno

---

Nombre del participante: ____________________________  Fecha: ____________________________  Firma: ____________________________

Nombre del investigador: ____________________________  Fecha: ____________________________  Firma: ____________________________

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Formulario de consentimiento de participación (estudiantes)

Nombre provisional del proyecto: Estudio etnográfico longitudinal de profesores de inglés en Argentina utilizando un sistema dinámico complejo.

Nombre del investigador: Simon Ness

Nombre de la supervisora: Dr. Ema Ushioda

Propósito del estudio: Explorar y conocer la vida de los profesores de inglés en Argentina en escuelas secundarias en la ciudad de Solaris.

Consentimiento de participación:
Confirmo que he recibido la información relativa a la naturaleza de este estudio y que he tenido la oportunidad de aclarar cualquier duda que al respecto hubiere tenido.

Acepto participar en este estudio y comprendo que mi participación es enteramente voluntaria y que dado el caso podría dejar de participar en cualquier etapa del proyecto sin consecuencia alguna para mi persona.

Entiendo que toda información recopilada a través de este estudio será utilizada para los propósitos de la tesis doctoral del investigador, subsecuentes conferencias o presentaciones así como para informar futuras políticas y prácticas.

Estoy enterado de que mi anonimato será preservado diligentemente a través del uso de pseudónimos y de que los datos recopilados serán mantenidos en dispositivos de almacenamiento encriptados a los cuales solo tendrá acceso el investigador.

Entiendo que mis intereses personales y profesionales siempre tendrán prioridad sobre los intereses del investigador y su proyecto.

Estoy de acuerdo en participar en el proyecto y estoy dispuesto (a) a:

1. Ser entrevistado.
2. Que mis entrevistas sean audio-grabadas.
3. Ser observado en clase y que mis clases sean audio-grabadas.
4. Ser fotografiado en clase.
5. Validar los datos recopilados y analizados.
Por favor indique su consentimiento del uso de los siguientes medios:

1. Uso de los datos recopilados en la tesis del investigador.
   - Audio  
   - Transcripciones.  
   - Fotografías.  
   - Ninguno.

2. Uso de los datos recopilados en presentaciones académicas y publicaciones profesionales.
   - Audio.  
   - Transcripciones.  
   - Fotografías.  
   - Ninguno.

3. Uso de los datos recopilados para propósitos educativos
   - Audio.  
   - Transcripciones.  
   - Fotografías.  
   - Ninguno.

4. Uso de los datos recopilados para ser mostrados en reuniones académicas y profesionales de asuntos relevantes.
   - Audio.  
   - Transcripciones.  
   - Fotografías.  
   - Ninguno.

5. Uso de los datos recopilados para otros propósitos de investigación académica.
   - Audio.  
   - Transcripciones.  
   - Fotografías.  
   - Ninguno.

____________________    ___________    __________________________
Nombre del participante      Fecha                Firma de la madre / padre o tutor

____________________    ___________    __________________________
Nombre del investigador     Fecha                Firma

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Appendix G. Participation consent forms for interpreters / translators

Participation Consent Form for Research Assistants

Working Title of the Project: A longitudinal ethnographic study of Argentinian English teachers utilising a complex dynamic systems approach.

Name of Researcher: Simon Ness
Name of Supervisor: Dr. Ema Ushioda

Purpose of the Study: To explore and learn about the lives of Argentinian English teachers working in secondary schools within Solaris.

Participant Consent: I confirm that I have received information regarding the nature of this study and that I have had the opportunity to ask any questions that I may have.

I understand that any information collected throughout this study is to be used for the purpose of the researcher’s doctoral thesis, any subsequent papers or presentations, and to inform future policy and practice.

I recognise that at all times, due care and attention must be given to preserving the right to anonymity of the interviewees. As a result, I agree not to divulge any information that I learn through my participation in the study with individuals who are not part of the research team.

I agree to take part in this project and I am willing to:

1. Assist the researcher with interpreting, translating and transcribing interviews.
2. Have the interviews audio-recorded.
3. Be photographed while interviewing.
4. Validate the data collected and analysed

______________________   ____________________   _______________________
Name of research assistant           Date                                     Signature

______________________   ____________________   _______________________
Name of researcher                       Date                                     Signature

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### Appendix H. Sample of early data analysis

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- **CPD**

- Parent Container Node (level 1)

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- **Environmental Differences**

- Parent Container Node (level 1)

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- **Instability**

- Parent Container Node (level 1)

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Example coding extract of an interview transcription to demonstrate the process of refining themes.
Appendix J. Location of schools in Solaris
Appendix K. Example pictures of typical classrooms from schools in Solaris