

Chapter 6

Teachers' Motivation in the Classroom

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Introduction

Over the last 50 years, researchers in educational psychology have directed most of their attention to the study of students' motivation for the purpose of understanding the ways in which teachers can enhance or undermine students' motivation, well-being, and functioning (Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2009; Wang & Holcombe, 2010; Zimmerman, 2008). Traditionally, teachers have not been the central focus of this research and there has been little systematic and theory-driven attention dedicated to teachers' motivation. The focus on students' motivation and their experience in the classroom has tended to overlook the centrality of teachers' motivation as a critical determinant of teachers' own experience and the interpersonal behaviors directed at students and thereby to students' motivation and the quality of their learning.

As society increasingly holds teachers accountable for students' performances, and given the role that teachers play in students' motivation, there has been a recent surge of interest in applying well-developed theories of motivation, to the domain of teaching. The purpose has been to determine if the educational context has a positive or negative effect on teachers' motivation to teach, their well-being, and the climate being created in the classroom. Since a teacher's ultimate purpose is to work with the students, a large majority of this research has continued to examine teachers within the context of their behavior and interactions with their students. More specifically, motivation researchers have turned their attention to several aspects of the complex educational environment to determine if some of the factors associated

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with that environment could have a positive or a negative impact on teachers' interpersonal behaviors with their students and ultimately on student's motivation (Pelletier & Patry, 2006; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009).

More recently, motivation researchers who have developed robust theories in relation to student learning in educational contexts have turned their attention to teachers' motivation, to see whether the same principles that have guided the research on students' motivation might have the same explanatory power with regard to teachers. Motivational psychology has provided a comprehensive framework for examining the factors acting on teachers, while taking into consideration their teaching behaviors, and speaks to the conditions that lead to a successful or unsuccessful experience (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2007).

Putting the Educational Context in Context

Teaching is a very complex vocation that requires many talents and skills. Teachers not only translate educational philosophy and objective into knowledge and skills and transfer them to students in the classroom; they are also responsible for the climate in which these activities take place. Depending on the context, teachers are not only required to teach their students, but they are also expected to be motivators, leaders, administrators, life coaches, planners, performers, and negotiators.

Teachers' motivation is influenced by several factors affecting the global school climate, such as teachers' attitude to work, their desire to participate in the pedagogical processes within the school environment, their participation in extracurricular activities, and, more specifically, their interest in students' motivation inside and outside of the classroom. Therefore, teachers are responsible for the improvement of knowledge; the physical conditions of the classroom through orderliness, discipline, and control; and the diagnosis of student's feelings, attitudes, and motivation inferred by their behavior and response in the classroom environment.

Research has shown that teachers have the capacity to create environments that help foster their students' motivation toward learning, which also helps them achieve their potential (Ryan & Deci, 2009). Research examining the specific mechanics of the teacher-student relationship has found that this relationship influences engagement (Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002), well-being (Van Petegem, Aelterman, Van Keer, & Rosseel, 2008), and motivation (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999).

In recent years, research has examined the factors that influence teachers directly. Self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2009), a leading theory of motivation, can provide important insight into the understanding of teachers' motivation, including the reasons they choose to become teachers, continue to teach, experience success, and enjoy what they do, and it can guide future research in this area.

Self-Determination Theory: A Brief Overview

SDT is a theory of motivation, built on the assumption that all humans, including both students and teachers, have innate tendencies to grow and to integrate ongoing life experiences (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2009). As we have seen throughout this book, according to SDT, there are three distinct types of motivation (amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation) that lead to different affective, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes based on the degree to which the behavior has been internalized and integrated into the self. Internalization refers to the assimilation of values or external demands, while integration refers to the final step of this process when the values or external demands become an integral part of the personality of the person. This process can be viewed in terms of a continuum where types of motivation are divided into behavioral regulations that are placed from the least internalized (or self-determined) to the most (Ryan, 1995).

When considering the continuum, Deci and Ryan (2000) propose that the least internalized (or self-determined) form of motivation is amotivation, which consists of nonregulation. It is marked by a lack of intention to act (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Moving along the continuum toward more self-determined forms of motivation is extrinsic motivation, in which Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) suggest it can be divided into four types of regulation, from the least internalized to the most: external, introjected, identified, and integrated. Finally, the most self-determined motivation orientation is intrinsic regulation, where pleasure derived from the behavior is found in the behavior itself. It is characterized by a spontaneous engagement in the activity that is fuelled by interest, curiosity, and the difficulty of the task (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

It is important to note that although the process of internalization is a natural human tendency, SDT posits that the extent it will occur depends on the satisfaction of the three basic needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness). Autonomy is seen when an individual acts in line with his or her own interests and values. In this case, behavior is an expression of the self, and the origin of behaviors comes from within. Competence is seen in an individual's interactions with the environment, when they have the opportunity to seek challenges, express their capacities, and develop their confidence. Finally, relatedness is seen as a sense of belonging with others and the community as a whole. It is achieved through interpersonal connections and reciprocal care between others. These three needs are said to be innate, universal across cultures, and evident in all development periods (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Contextual Motivation for Teaching

Extensive research using the SDT framework has examined individuals' motivation in specific life domains and contexts, and teaching is no exception. SDT posits, through the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, that there is a sequence to explain the interactions between social environments, motivation, and

behaviors. Specifically, factors within the social context of an activity will impact someone's motivation quality for that activity. Then, depending on the quality, this motivation will lead to different behavioral or psychological outcomes for that person (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Vallerand, 1997). The contextual factors do not necessarily impact motivation directly; instead their influence can be indirect through the extent to which they satisfy or thwart the basic psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981; Vallerand, 1997). Contextual factors include the structure of a specific environment, like the educational environment (i.e., educational policies), as well as the people within it (i.e., the colleagues, the principal, the administrators). When considering other people, the extent to which they will support teachers' basic psychological needs is dependent on the extent they engage in need-supportive interpersonal behaviors (Deci & Ryan, 1985), that is, how their interpersonal behaviors support others' need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. An environment that supports the three basic psychological needs will promote improved motivation quality, while an environment that thwarts psychological needs leads to decreased motivation quality.

Next, looking at the quality of motivation, SDT has examined the outcomes associated with different motivation qualities. In general, the higher-quality or more self-determined types of motivation (identified, integrated, and intrinsic regulation) are considered optimal when compared with the lower-quality or least self-determined types of motivation (amotivation, external, and introjected regulation). Specifically, the more self-determined motivation styles are found to lead to improved psychological outcomes like self-esteem, life satisfaction, well-being, and health and improved behavioral outcomes such as increased learning, interest, performance, and persistence (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Alternatively, less self-determined motivation styles are associated with negative psychological outcomes like decreased health and vitality and decreased behavioral outcomes like persistence, effort, and success (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Since humans are interdependent and social beings and interpersonal interactions are a key part of the human experience, SDT takes into account how motivation relates to people's behavior with others, where the focus has been on need-supportive interpersonal behaviors. When considering need-supportive and need-thwarting interpersonal behaviors, autonomy-supportive behaviors have received by far the most empirical attention (e.g., Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, & Brière, 2001; Standage, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2005). These behaviors are described as providing choice, providing a rationale for tasks, acknowledging others' perspectives, giving opportunities for initiative, and promoting task involvement (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). The opposite of an autonomy-supportive interpersonal style would be a controlling style (or autonomy-thwarting style). When someone engages in controlling interpersonal behaviors, they use rewards, incorporate intimidating feedback, make demands without providing a rationale, use conditional regard, and use excessive personal control (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2009). Next, competence-supportive behaviors include using positive expectancies, encouraging learning, providing positive feedback, acknowledging improvements, believing others

can meet their goals, and encouraging their others to improve (Sheldon & Filak, 2008; Taylor, Ntoumanis, & Standage, 2008). The opposite would involve using a competence-thwarting style and would include emphasizing others' faults, discouraging others from trying difficult tasks, focusing on what they do wrong, sending them the messages that are inadequate, and doubting their capacity to improve (Sheldon & Filak, 2008). Finally, relatedness-supportive interpersonal behaviors occur when someone understands, supports, and cares for others. They would do this by being warm, showing they are interested in what others do, relating to them, and showing that they genuinely like them (Jones, Armour, & Potrac, 2004). Alternatively, someone would not be supporting others' need for relatedness if they were distant, did not connect with them, did not include them in activities, did not listen, and were not available when they needed them (Sheldon & Filak, 2008).

Research in SDT has suggested that increased motivation quality is associated with increased use of need-supportive interpersonal behaviors, while decreased motivation quality is associated with increased need-thwarting interpersonal behaviors (Sheldon & Filak, 2008). In the educational context, this suggests that when someone like a teacher experiences high-quality motivation for an activity or life domain, they are more likely to engage in need-supportive interpersonal behaviors (autonomy, competence, and relatedness support) that will create an environment that promotes an increase in motivation quality for students (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Alternatively, a teacher who experiences lower-quality motivation for teaching is more likely to engage in need-thwarting interpersonal behaviors and create an environment that undermines motivation quality in students (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, Bosch, & Thogersen-Ntoumani, 2011). Findings suggest that this sequence is especially relevant in supervisor-subordinate relationships (i.e., teacher-student, parent-child, coach-athlete) as the supervisor plays a major role in setting the interpersonal climate for the subordinate (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003).

As discussed previously, the primary role of a teacher is to instruct and influence students. Therefore, a large majority of research examining the teaching context in SDT has focused on the extent teachers' behaviors help improve the motivation quality of their students. More recently, researchers have begun to examine teachers' motivation separately (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Fernet, Senécal, Guay, March, & Dowson, 2008; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007; Sørrebø, Halvari, Gulli, & Kristiansen, 2009; Spittle, Jackson, & Casey, 2009; Wang & Liu, 2008; Wilkesmann & Schmid, 2014). This research provides support for assessing teachers' motivation toward teaching as a whole (Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque, & Legault, 2002; Taylor et al., 2008) or as specific job tasks (Fernet et al., 2008; i.e., class preparation, teaching, evaluation of students, classroom management, administrative tasks, and complementary tasks) as defined by SDT. Also, this research has shown that a teacher who is intrinsically motivated may undertake a task like teaching for its own sake, for the satisfaction it provides, or for the feeling of accomplishment and self-actualization, while an extrinsically motivated teacher may perform the activity of teaching as a duty in order to obtain some reward such as salary, avoid sanction, or comply with request from administrators.

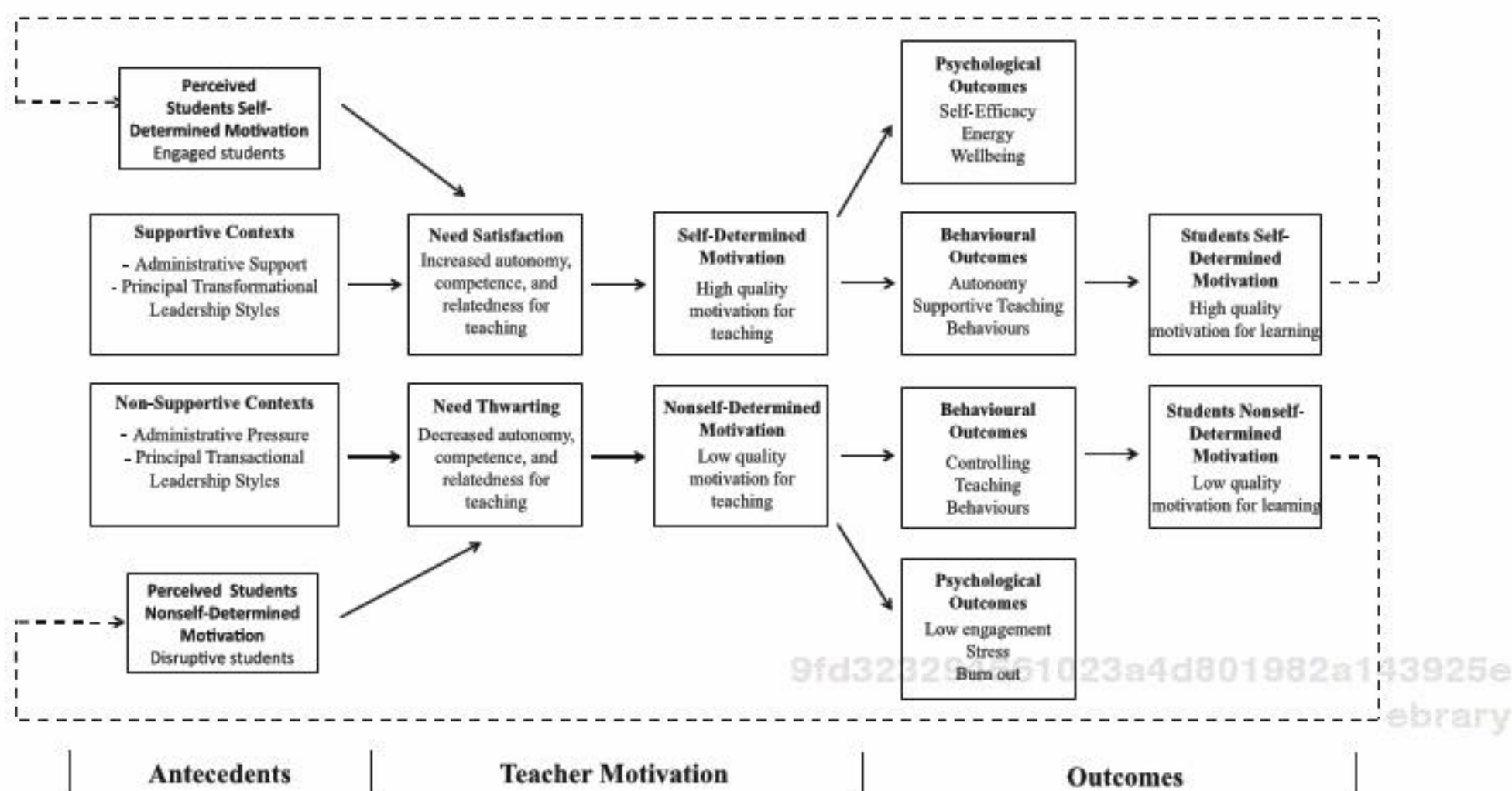


Fig. 6.1 A process model of the effects of the educational context on teachers' motivation, teachers' outcomes, teachers' interpersonal behaviors, and students' motivation

Through this research, the antecedents (i.e., contextual factors) of teachers' motivation, as well as the behavioral and psychological outcomes of their motivation, have begun to be identified. This growing body of literature focuses on the teachers' themselves and how the social context affects their need satisfaction and their motivation for teaching, their well-being, and their teaching behaviors. More specifically, as illustrated in Fig. 6.1, the school administration (i.e., the structure of the school system, the administrators, the principal), as part of teachers' social context, can satisfy or thwart teachers' basic psychological needs (i.e., being autonomy supportive or controlling with them). This in turn leads to teachers being more or less self-determined in their motivation for teaching, which results in corresponding positive or negative outcomes related to teachers' psychological experiences and behaviors with their students. At this point, an element of reciprocity is introduced because teachers and students are part of a common social context (i.e., the classroom context) and they are each part of each other's social context. Thus, as autonomy-supportive teachers positively affect students' self-determined motivation, the teachers' motivation and the quality of their experience are also positively affected by the students' motivation and behavior. Inversely, as controlling teachers negatively affect students' self-determined motivation, the teachers' motivation and the quality of their experience are also affected by the students' motivation and behavior. Almost all the components of this hypothesized sequence have been tested and will be described below.

Antecedents of Teachers' Motivation

According to SDT, contextual factors will influence teachers' motivation quality either directly or through the extent to which they help teachers meet their psychological needs while teaching. Previous research has identified a number of contextual factors related to either the structure of the teaching environment or the people within it that have an impact on teachers' motivation. These factors are discussed in details below.

Administrative Pressure

One area of the teaching context that has received a lot of attention is the impact of administrative pressure on teachers. This pressure can take many forms including imposing demands such as time constraints or deadlines, performance evaluations, pressures to conform to certain teaching methods, or making teachers accountable for their students' level of performance (Pelletier et al., 2002; Reeve, 2002). These pressures can originate directly from the school administration or indirectly from school boards and parents that demand results.

The first studies on administrative pressures within the SDT framework examined how they affected teachers' interpersonal behaviors directly. Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner, and Kauffman (1982) provided the first test of the relations between the pressure that came from above, interpersonal behaviors, and intrinsic motivation. Participants in this study were instructed to help students learn to become better problem solvers, and some were further instructed that it was their job to ensure that their students performed "up to high standards." The results showed that teachers who had been pressured to have their students achieve high standards were more critical of the students, used more hints and more directive language, and were more controlling than teachers who did not have to face such performance standards. In a field experiment of this question, Flink, Boggiano, and Barrett (1990) looked at a school-based curriculum for elementary students. The results were similar to those of the laboratory study: teachers who faced external pressure toward higher standards were shown to be more likely to engage in controlling and instructing behaviors in their classrooms. The pressured teachers were also less effective: their students showed poorer performance on objective test-score outcomes.

Once the initial studies found an important link between administrative pressures and teachers' interpersonal behaviors, a subsequent series of studies examined whether these effects occurred through the processes proposed by SDT. In a study of 254 teachers, Pelletier and colleagues (2002) showed that the relationship between administrative pressures in the workplace and teachers' autonomy-supportive behaviors was mediated by the effect of these pressures on their motivation. More specifically, the more teachers felt pressured by colleagues, the administration,

and constraints of the curriculum, the less self-determined was their motivation and, in turn, the less autonomy support they showed their students.

Fernet, Guay, and Senecal, (2004) identified additional sources of administrative pressure for teachers. They examined the relationship between job demands (work stressors like overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, and stress), job control (a measure of perceived autonomy at work), and teacher's motivation and its subsequent impact on burnout. The results found that job control (perceived autonomy) moderates the relationship between job demands and burnout for teachers who have a self-determined motivation for teaching.

Recent studies included one more step to this link, finding that administrative pressures led teachers to feel less need satisfaction. In a study, Taylor and colleagues (2008) reported that the more teachers perceived job pressure (defined as time constraints, pressure from school authorities, and evaluation based on students' performance), the less they felt that their basic needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness were satisfied. The level of need satisfaction was directly linked to teachers' self-determined motivation, which in turn impacted the extent to which they provided meaningful rationales, instrumental help, and support and gained an understanding of the students. In a separate study, through a series of interviews, teachers confirm that pressures from above affect their choice of motivational strategies and behaviors in class (Taylor, Ntoumanis, & Smith, 2009). They said that factors such as time constraints, performance evaluations, and pressure from the school administration to conform to certain teaching methods impacted their use of motivational teaching strategies. Teachers reported being more controlling when they felt pressured to conform to certain teaching methods. They also felt that they were less autonomy supportive when they felt pressured by time constraints in lessons.

In more recent studies that focused on teacher burnout and well-being, Fernet, Guay, Senécal, and Austin (2012) examined the impacts of a number of factors, including perceptions of classroom overload, on teachers' motivation and burnout during the course of a school year. The results suggest that perceptions of classroom overload had a negative impact on teachers' motivation for teaching. Alternatively, Bartholomew and colleagues (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Cuevas, & Lonsdale, 2014) found that perceptions of time constraints, school authorities, and colleagues had a negative impact on psychological need satisfaction and well-being. In a study that examined perceptions of administrative support, instead of pressure, Carson and Chase (2009) found that administrative support had a significant positive impact on teachers' need for relatedness, which was significantly related to an increase in motivation for teaching.

The association between pressure at work and teachers' self-determined motivation is consistent with several studies inspired by SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to SDT, the effect of external events on intrinsic motivation and self-determination depends on whether an individual perceives contexts as supportive of autonomy or controlling. Thus, these studies show that teachers do indeed perceive administrative pressures as controlling, which lead to lower need satisfaction and higher levels of controlled motivation (or non-self-determined) toward teaching.

Principals

School principals play a key role in determining the overall culture and environment of a school; they can be perceived as being part of the administration or, because of their leadership position, they can play a critical role in teachers' motivation. For instance, despite "the pressure that could come from above," principals can help teachers in a number of different ways including providing pedagogical resources, reducing administrative tasks, and providing emotional support (Fernet et al., 2012). Previous research in SDT has shown that leadership styles have an impact on an individual's need for autonomy and, subsequently, their motivation quality (e.g., Sheldon, Turban, Brown, Barrick, & Judge, 2003). Research using the full-range model of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994) has examined transformational and transactional leadership styles. Results have shown that transformational leadership styles are associated with increased motivation quality, while transactional styles are associated with a decrease in motivation quality (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Transformational leadership occurs when an individual in a position of power provides subordinates with a clear vision and opportunities for intellectual stimulation and demonstrates concern for each individual. Alternatively, transactional leadership styles are characterized by controlling behavior, offering contingent rewards, and complying with rules and policies. Eyal and Roth (2011) examined principals' leadership styles and the subsequent impact on teachers' motivation for teaching and teacher burnout. This study examined 122 elementary school teachers and asked them to report on their principal's leadership behaviors, their motivation for teaching, and their emotional exhaustion (burnout). The results suggested principals' transformational leadership styles (focus on empowerment and an organizational vision) were negatively associated with burnout and that this relationship was partially mediated by self-determined motivation for teaching. Alternatively, transactional leadership styles (controlling practices, monitoring, and enforcing compliance) were positively associated with burnout and non-self-determined motivation for teaching.

Students' Motivation

Significant amounts of research have focused on how teachers' behaviors impact students; however, since the teaching and learning social environments are intertwined, the motivational sequences for teachers and students become reciprocal.

When someone in a position of authority believes that the subordinate is intrinsically motivated, or highly self-determined, they are more likely to experience an increase in their own quality of motivation and they may become more autonomy supportive (Pelletier et al., 2002; Pelletier & Vallerand, 1996). For example, several studies have shown that teachers or individuals in a supervising role behave differently depending on the subordinate's performance or productivity. Barrow (1976)

and Lowin and Craig (1968) examined supervisors' reactions following an increase or decrease in the subordinate's performance and productivity. They observed that supervisors were more supportive, kind, and considerate when subordinates were perceived as productive. When subordinates were perceived as unproductive, supervisors became more controlling and relied on punishment to motivate them.

Regarding self-determination more specifically, studies in the laboratory and in the classroom have shown that when teachers believed that students were autonomously motivated, they were more autonomy supportive and less controlling (Pelletier & Vallerand, 1996; Skinner & Belmont, 1993) and that the impact of students' motivation on teachers' interpersonal behaviors was actually mediated by teachers' motivation (Pelletier et al., 2002; Taylor & Ntoumanis, 2007; Taylor et al., 2008). In sum, these results support the idea that when teachers interact with students, they often rely on their perceptions on the students' motivation as guides to their interpersonal behaviors. In turn, their interpersonal behaviors may influence their students' motivation in such a way that it may create the motivation that was perceived and then confirmed the teachers' initial perceptions whether it was accurate or inaccurate because it was based on false beliefs (Pelletier & Vallerand, 1996).

In a more recent study, Fernet and colleagues (Fernet et al., 2012) examined a different dimension of students' motivation and its relationship with teachers' motivation. They examined the extent to which teachers reported that their students were disruptive (i.e., how much noise they made) and its relationship with teachers' motivation. Results suggest that perceptions of disruptive behavior had a significant negative relationship with motivation for teaching.

It is important to note that students may impact teachers indirectly through the school administration. In some contexts, teachers feel that they are responsible for students who may not be motivated or able to meet the administration's standards. In these instances teachers should experience a pressure from students because their lack of motivation or their low performance reinforces the administration's perception that something needs to be done. Then teachers may perceive a pressure to behave in a controlling manner to be sure that the administration's standards are achieved.

Outcomes of Teachers' Motivation

Several studies have examined the outcomes of teachers' motivation for the purposes of understanding their behavior in the classroom or their psychological experiences related to teaching. In line with previous research in SDT, research in the teaching context has demonstrated that high-quality motivation leads to positive behavioral and psychological outcomes, while lower-quality motivation leads to negative psychological and behavioral outcomes.

Behavioral Outcomes

One area of teacher behavioral outcomes that has received a lot of attention is teachers' use of need-supportive interpersonal behaviors. The majority of studies have focused on autonomy support and thwarting (control) and have examined the relationship between motivation quality and the use of these behaviors. Autonomy-supportive teachers are responsive (spend time listening, acknowledge the student's feelings and perspective) and supportive (praise the quality of performance), explicative (provide a rationale for tasks and limits); they provide opportunities for choice, initiative taking, and independent work; and they offer student discussion time. In opposition, controlling teachers take charge (hold the instructional materials, use directives/commands), shape students toward a right answer (give solutions), motivate through pressure (threats, criticisms, and deadlines), and do not allow students to work at their own pace or voice opinions contrary to their own (Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymom, & Roth, 2005; Reeve, 2002; Reeve & Jang, 2006; Sarrazin, Tessier, Pelletier, Trouilloud, & Chanal, 2006). Results have shown that teachers who have an autonomy-supporting style (as opposed to a controlling style) facilitate intrinsic motivation and self-determination in their students. This is associated with many positive consequences for students, such as increased positive emotions, decreased feelings of distraction and anxiety in class, increased prolonged effort, learning centered on comprehension, improved grades, and less likelihood of dropout (Reeve, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Ryan & Brown, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2009).

In order to understand why some teachers engage in need-supportive behaviors and others do not, research began to examine the relationship between teachers' motivation quality and their use of autonomy-supportive interpersonal behaviors (e.g., Pelletier et al., 2002; Taylor et al., 2008). In line with SDT, they found that self-determined motivation for teaching predicted an increase in reported use of autonomy-supportive interpersonal behaviors with students.

Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, and Kaplan (2007) believe the relationship between teachers' motivation, autonomy-supportive interpersonal behaviors with students, and students' motivation occurs for at least two reasons. First, high-quality motivation for teaching should increase the teachers' interest in the subjects they teach, which should lead to a better mastery of the subjects and to the provision of better rationale or examples in their teaching, more creativity in teaching, and more involvement in their teaching activities. Second, teachers with higher-quality motivation for teaching should have a better understanding of the benefits associated with an autonomous orientation and recognize its potential to foster quality learning. For this reason, they should prefer that their students learn in a context that is conducive to that type of motivation and the type of values associated with it. In a similar study, Taylor and Ntoumanis (2007) suggested that the link between teachers' motivation and their students' motivation may occur because teachers' motivation translates into different behaviors as viewed by their students. Students rated self-determined teachers as supporting their autonomy more and providing more

structured teaching and more involvement, which in turn was associated with higher-quality motivation for learning. They found that non-self-determined motivation for teaching leads to controlling teaching, which in turn contributes to lower-quality motivation among students.

Other behavioral outcomes of teachers' motivation have also begun to be examined. For example, Gorozidis and Papaioannou (2014) tested a model looking at whether teachers' motivation quality predicted their intentions to participate in training activities. They found that autonomous motivation had a positive relationship with intentions to participate, while controlled motivation had a significant negative relationship.

Social Contagion of Motivation

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It is also possible that the association between the teacher's motivation and students' motivation may be explained by a social phenomenon called *Social Contagion of Motivation*. As shown by Wild, Enzle, Nix, and Deci (1997) and Radel, Sarrazin, Legrain, and Wild (2010), participants who were taught a skill by a non-self-determined teacher reported lower interest in learning and lower task enjoyment than those taught by a self-determined teacher, despite receiving the same standardized lesson. A study by Garbarino (1975) suggests that this may be related to changes in subtle change in teacher's behavior that are related to their motivation. This study found that rewarded teachers were more critical and demanding of their students than volunteer teachers. Consequently, students who were taught by rewarded teachers made more errors while learning a specific skill. Recent studies by Roth and colleagues (2007) and Taylor and Ntoumanis (2007) suggest that the link between teachers' motivation and their students' motivation may occur because teachers' motivation translates into different levels of autonomy-supportive behaviors, as viewed by their students (e.g., "The teacher encourages me to work in my own way," "The teacher explains why it is important to study certain subjects in school"), higher perceived involvement, and time spent with their students. As discussed in the previous section, this leads to more autonomous motivation for learning, while controlled motivation for teaching leads to controlling teaching, which, in turn, contributes to lower levels of self-determined motivation among students.

Psychological

A number of studies have investigated the relationship between teachers' motivation quality and their likelihood of experiencing a burnout from teaching. When teachers experience burnout, they typically suffer from emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased feelings of personal accomplishments (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Teachers will often describe not having the capacity to provide

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meaningful contributions and feeling like they cannot make a positive impact on their students or in their work (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009).

In a study examining the relationship between the six different types of behavioral regulation according to SDT and burnout, Fernet and colleagues (Fernet et al., 2008) found that there was a significant relationship between the different subtypes of teachers' motivation and burnout, as described by depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. They found a simplex-like pattern where the autonomous types of regulation (internal, integrated, and identified) had a negative relationship with burnout, while the controlled types of regulation (introjected, external, and nonregulation) had a positive relationship with reported burnout. In line with these findings, Eyal and Roth (2011) found a significant relationship between controlled motivation for teaching and emotional exhaustion, and Fernet and colleagues (Fernet et al., 2012) found a negative relationship between autonomous motivation and emotional exhaustion.

In two studies examining motivational clusters for teachers, Van den Berghe and colleagues (den Berghe et al., 2013; Van den Berghe et al., 2014) found that both the high-quality (high autonomous motivation) and high-quantity (high autonomous and high controlled motivation) motivation profiles experienced less burnout than the other groups. Since the high-quantity group also experienced less likelihood of burnout, this suggests that autonomous motivation may have an energizing effect on the teachers and helps them circumvent burnout. On a more positive note, Fernet and colleagues (Fernet et al., 2008) also found a positive relationship between autonomous motivation for teaching and teachers' reported self-efficacy for teaching.

Discussion and Future Directions

SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2009) can provide important insight into the understanding of teachers' motivation including the reasons they do different tasks related to their work, continue to teach, experience success, and impact their students' motivation. The study of teachers' motivation represents not only another sector where research in SDT can be applied, but this sector also represents a domain with its own challenging characteristics that could improve our knowledge on the causes, consequences, and mechanisms of students' motivation. More specifically, in agreement with research in other life domains, research has examined how environmental and contextual factors influence teachers and how their impressions of the teaching environment, their need satisfaction or dissatisfaction, their motivation for teaching, and their use of need-supportive or need-thwarting behaviors with students and psychological outcomes are related. Research has shown that when the administration imposes restrictions, makes teachers responsible for their students' performance, and pressures or rewards teachers to produce good student performance and teachers believe that their students are extrinsically motivated or not motivated, it is likely that these factors may undermine teachers' own psychological

needs for teaching. This undermines their motivation quality toward their own work which, in turn, may lead them to be more controlling with their students. As such, teachers' motivation plays an important role in promoting a healthy teaching environment, and this review can inform school administrations by demonstrating why they should take care to ensure that their teachers are supported and having a psychologically sound experience. This review focused on some of the key environmental factors that are relevant to teachers, and it provides school administrations some key areas they can work on specifically to promote, within their own organizations, more motivated teaching and better outcomes for students.

Although the studies described in this chapter are consistent with SDT, more studies on the entire sequence illustrated in Fig. 6.1 are required to demonstrate how the factors relate to each other and how these relationships unfold over time. It would also be important to consider how some factors may be more important than others, that they may explain more variance in teachers' motivation, and that they may represent a more strategic battle to fight. For example, even if teachers learn to use autonomy-supportive strategies, these efforts could be in vain if no efforts are made to reduce the pressure that comes from the school administration or the educational system.

Although the proposed model could be useful for understanding how factors like educational policies or administrative decisions may make their way through the school system and impact teachers' and eventually students' motivation, it may be important to consider that all teachers are not necessarily affected by the *pressure that could come from above* and the *pressure that could come from below* in the same way. More specifically, although some teachers may be exposed to administrative pressure and students that are less motivated, they may not become less self-determined toward teaching and turn toward controlling strategies when interacting with their students. Therefore, it is important for future research to examine how individual factors like dispositions, experience, personal characteristics, social factors like support from colleagues, and cultural factors (e.g., countries with different philosophy of education) may help teachers become more or less resilient toward factors that could otherwise undermine their motivation quality.

We also need more research that assesses the outcomes of teachers' motivation and the implications that a perception of decline in teachers' motivation may have for the educational system and the school administrators. Like the research on the relationship between teachers' perception of their students' motivation and the self-fulfilling consequences that these perceptions have on teachers' interpersonal behaviors toward their students, research should also examine this relationship with administrative pressure. Specifically, it would be important to examine whether teachers' low motivation for teaching that results from administrative pressure leads administrators to rely more and more on controlling strategies (e.g., making teachers accountable) to motivate teachers and if that leads administrators of the school system to make decisions that undermine their attempts to improve the situation.

Practical Suggestions

Motivating teachers to be fully engaged in teaching represents a challenging task. Below are some practical implications and key lessons learned from the present research on teachers' motivation and self-determination theory regarding the optimal ways to deal with the factors that could affect teachers' motivation.

How can administrations help? Research has shown that when the administration imposes restrictions about a curriculum, makes teachers responsible for their students' performance, and pressures or rewards teachers to produce good student performance, it is likely that teachers will become controlling with students. It is possible that these conditions may directly affect teachers' behaviors or that they may undermine teachers' psychological needs (mainly autonomy) and motivation toward their own work that leads them to be more controlling with their students. How might administrations be more need supportive? Evidently, they cannot eliminate all time constraints or performance evaluations, nor would they necessarily want to; however, administrations should carefully consider the objectives of any constraints or evaluations they have in place and ensure that they achieve the desired results. A first practical implication of the research discussed in the present chapter is that school administrators (and teachers as well) should be mindful of the factors that can undermine teachers' motivation, and when possible, administrators should consider whether or not the factors they have in place contribute unintentionally to the low levels of motivation in teachers.

A second implication has to do with the factors that have been shown to affect directly teachers' motivation. School administrators and school principals play a key role in determining the overall culture and environment of a school; because of their leadership position, they can play a critical role in teachers' motivation. For instance, principals can help teachers in a number of different ways including providing pedagogical resources, reducing administrative tasks, and providing emotional support. If administrators, and more specifically principals, realize that they do contribute to teachers' low motivation, they should consider directly minimizing the impact of some factors by (a) considering ways to reduce teachers' workload or giving them options about how they want to structure it, (b) providing them with options about the ways they want to organize and communicate the educational curriculum, (c) providing constructive feedback to teachers about the ways they teach and the ways they could be autonomy supportive with their students, (d) providing step-by-step procedures (i.e., implementation goals and implementation intentions), and (e) means of tracking progress and providing constructive feedback about their teaching.

A third practical implication is related to the way that administrators could implement the administrative structure in a school environment. SDT suggests that having structure is important, but the way in which limits are set and communicated within a given structure can make it controlling. Research suggests that the provision of a rationale is a particularly important element of communicating justifications for an activity in an autonomy-supportive way (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994).

Research also suggests communicating this rationale in the form of a clear mission and vision framed in terms of intrinsic goals (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006), as opposed to high-stakes standards (Ryan & Brown, 2005), may serve this role in an organizational context and then may promote a supportive climate for teaching. One study of Australian teachers provides an initial hint that this may prove a fruitful avenue: the more teachers understood and agreed with the school mission and its associated goals, the more personal accomplishment they felt, and the less they suffered from emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Dorman, 2003). This suggests that in the long run, less administrative pressure may not only be beneficial for the students' motivation, it may also be beneficial for the teachers' well-being as well.

The last implication deals with students' motivation. A critical factor that could affect teachers' motivation is their perceptions of their students' motivation. One way to overcome this is to train teachers to ensure that they are need supportive with their students. A few recent studies have shown that teachers can learn how to increase their use of autonomy-supportive behaviors with their students through teaching (Tessier, Sarrazin, & Ntoumanis, 2008), by being shown how to be autonomy supportive (Tessier, Sarrazin, & Ntoumanis, 2010), and by being educated about SDT (Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004). Although this strategy is covered in more details in other chapters of this book, it may be important to consider three different reasons for doing this. That is, by being autonomy supportive with their students, teachers may not only increase the motivation of their students, they may also impact their own motivation in three different ways. First, teachers should feel more motivated because they are more competent and effective in promoting more motivation and engagement in their students. Next, the increase motivation in their students should lead teachers to have a positive perception that students are motivated, and this, in turn, should create more motivation in teachers. Finally, the increase motivation in students should reduce the need from the administration to put pressure on the teachers to produce motivated and engaged students, and this in turn should foster more motivation in teachers.

Summary of Practical Implications

- School administrations and teachers should be mindful of the factors that can undermine teachers' motivation, and when possible, administrators should consider whether or not the factors they have in place contribute unintentionally to the low levels of motivation in teachers.
- Administrators should review the objectives of any constraints or evaluations they have in place to motivate teachers and ensure that they are not perceived as being controlling by teachers and that they are achieving the desired results.
- Because of their leadership position, school administrators and school principals can have an impact on teachers' motivation by determining the overall culture and environment of a school and by determining the resources that could be

available for teachers. When it is possible, principals can help teachers in a number of different ways by (a) providing pedagogical resources, (b) reducing administrative tasks, and (c) providing emotional support.

- Administrators and principals can minimize the impact of several factors that affect teachers' motivation. They can (a) reduce teachers' workload or give them options about how they want to structure it, (b) provide teachers with options about the ways they want to organize and communicate the educational curriculum, (c) provide constructive feedback to teachers about the ways they teach and the ways they could be autonomy supportive with their students, (d) provide step-by-step procedures and means of tracking their progress as teachers, and (e) provide constructive feedback about their teaching.
- Administrators can facilitate the implementation of the administrative structure in a school environment (a) by communicating justifications and providing a rationale for an activity and (b) by communicating this rationale in the form of a clear mission and vision framed in terms of intrinsic goals as opposed to high-stakes standards.
- A critical factor that could affect teachers' motivation is their perceptions of their students' motivation. As indicated in other chapters of this book, one way to increase students' motivation is to train teachers to be need supportive with their students. Teachers can learn to increase their use of autonomy-supportive behaviors by learning how to be autonomy supportive and by being educated about SDT.
- By being autonomy supportive with their students, teachers may not only increase the motivation of their students, they may also impact their own motivation in three different ways: (a) teachers may feel more motivated because they are more competent and effective in promoting more motivation and engagement in their students; (b) the increase motivation in their students should lead teachers to have a positive perception that their students are motivated, and this, in turn, should create more motivation in teachers; (c) the increase motivation in students should reduce the need from the administration to put pressure on the teachers to produce motivated and engaged students, and this in turn should foster more motivation in teachers.

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