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An Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis of ESL Teachers' Motivational Beliefs in Developing Different Pedagogical Strategies

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Motivated teachers affect not only the quality of their own teaching and job satisfaction but also the motivation and learning outcomes of their students and the development of the whole school. While the significance of teacher motivation in pedagogical development is an increasingly important factor in the evaluation of teachers in higher educational institutions, little effort has been made to strengthen their motivation.

The research question guiding this study was "How do teachers of English as a second language (ESL) in a private tertiary college in Hong Kong make sense of their motivational beliefs in developing or adopting different pedagogical strategies?" The study used interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) to investigate the motivational beliefs about the pedagogical development of ESL teachers in higher education. In a qualitative inquiry, this study employed semi-structured interviews to explore the motivational beliefs of four full-time ESL teachers working in the Department of English at the research site.

Three superordinate themes and their respective sub-themes emerged from the data analysis: 1) Students as the Major Driving Force, with sub-themes a) Turning Students' ESL Needs into Teachers' Motivation, b) Higher Education Students' Learning Attitudes and Characteristics, and c) Students' Satisfaction; 2) Perceptions of Teachers' Teaching Abilities, with sub-themes a) Evaluations of Their Teaching, b) Teachers' Role Models, and c) Peer Observation; and 3) Perceptions of the Administration, with sub-themes a) Adherence to or Autonomy from Departmental Guidelines, and b) Perceived Effectiveness or Ineffectiveness of College Practices.

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The findings in this study are relevant for the motivation of higher education faculty members by learning about students' academic needs, personalities, and satisfaction needs, and of teachers' pedagogical strengths and weaknesses. Higher education administrators can also tailor professional development programs to meet faculty members' individual needs. Additional research is needed to explore the perspectives of teachers of other subjects or in different types of higher educational institutions who may receive and react to different sources of motivation.

Introduction

Motivation provides an incentive that results in the imitation of learnt behavior (Bandura, 1977). Not only does it trigger an action, but it also affects individuals' choice of action, their commitment to the action, and the effort devoted to accomplishing the action (Bandura, 1994). In education, empirical studies have suggested that a high level of teacher motivation is positively linked not only to teachers' teaching quality and job satisfaction (Evans, 1998; Shoshani & Eldor, 2016; Wang et al., 2020) but also to students' motivation, learning, achievement outcomes (Dörnyei, 2003; Haruthaithanasan, 2018; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Lazarides et al., 2021; Naz & Rashid, 2021; Roshandel et al., 2018), and school development as a whole (Ames, 1990; Osman & Warner, 2020). Teacher motivation, as reflected in their cognitive teaching behavior, therefore, has been gaining increasing attention in education research.

Higher education institutions have also become invested in teacher motivation. Some even include this in their staff appraisal criteria. In other words, teachers' cognitive motivation (Bandura, 1994) to develop different pedagogical strategies is becoming just as important in evaluating teachers' performance as their actual teaching behavior, if not more so. However, teacher motivation for pedagogical development might not be properly addressed, despite occasional seminars organized by institutions. It should also be noted that professional development or training for teachers in pedagogical change, if there is any, may not necessarily translate into new teaching practices, because some teachers may not see the need to change in the first place (Ertmer et al., 2012; Le Fevre, 2014; Goodyear & Casey, 2015).

For faculty, members' appraisal criteria not being aligned with the institution's practice could put them at a disadvantage, as they are being

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evaluated based on "one of the most elusive concepts in the whole domain of the social sciences" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 2)—motivation. This study addressed the discrepancy between the criteria used to evaluate faculty performance and institutional policies by investigating teachers' motivation to be pedagogically innovative. Particular attention should be paid to the motivation of teachers of English as a second language (ESL) because many tertiary ESL students have limited proficiency and low learning motivation (Evans & Green, 2007; Meng, 2021). The need for motivated teachers is acute to enhance such students' engagement in learning through a wide variety of teaching and learning activities (Bernaus et al., 2009; Ganapathy & Seetharam, 2016). This study explored which motivational beliefs held by ESL teachers contribute to pedagogical innovation.

Self-Efficacy Theory

To explore the motivational beliefs of ESL teachers in developing and adopting different pedagogical strategies, this study adopted Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory as its theoretical framework, specifically its concept of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The self-efficacy theory is a useful tool for understanding teachers' perceptions of their motivation to make pedagogical assessments and improvements because it focuses on individuals' views of their capacity to act (Bandura, 1977). In the context of this study, teachers' self-efficacy refers to teachers' perception of their motivation to evaluate and improve their teaching in English language classrooms. The theoretical underpinning of self-efficacy theory can be found in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). The social cognitive theory posits that individuals are able to choose and pursue particular courses of action; this is known as the human agency (Bandura, 1982). This agency works through a mechanism that Bandura called "triadic reciprocal causation": an individual's past and current behaviors, cognitive factors (such as motivation), and the environment exerting causal effects on each other (Bandura, 1997; Henson, 2001). The inter-relationships between these three influences then affect how individuals perceive their ability to achieve a goal. This cognitive appraisal is at the core of self-efficacy theory.

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Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Motivation

This study focused on the self-efficacy of teachers, defined as their self-perception of competence in performing a particular teaching task and affecting student performance (Berman et al., 1977). This conceptual foundation is important for this study because its focus on human agency gives a voice to teachers themselves. Skinner (1996) posited that Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory is one of the few studies of human control that makes a clear distinction between agent–means beliefs (the belief that one can use a particular method) and means–end beliefs (the belief that a particular method will lead to a certain result). Skinner (1996) also commended Bandura's (1977) attempt to shift the focus from the distinction between the two beliefs to a missing link: the agent's response to the means and how it may affect the result. This missing link is crucial because it serves as a more reliable predictor of behavior (Bandura, 1977) than simply examining the agent–means or the means–end relationship in isolation. For example, teachers' beliefs in the effectiveness of a teaching practice may not necessarily translate into its adoption if the teachers lack confidence in their ability to implement the practice (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Furthermore, examining teachers' perceptions of their abilities may reveal more, such as their past training or their experience of adopting a new teaching practice, or contextual factors and their feelings about that practice. For example, in a quantitative study assessing 168 teachers' self-efficacy using the Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and the Big Five Inventory for personality dimensions (Djigic et al., 2014), teachers with higher self-efficacy were more actively engaged in devising innovative lesson plans than their counterparts. That is, teachers' behavior, their cognitive evaluation of their abilities, and the environment (triadic reciprocal causation) all play an important role in affecting their choices of pedagogical methods and their execution.

The four sources of efficacy expectations in Bandura's (1986, 1997) theory of self-efficacy beliefs provided this study with a clear way of determining the development of college teachers' motivation. Bandura (1986, 1997) proposed the following sources of self-efficacy beliefs: mastery experience (prediction of performance based on successful or failed experiences); vicarious experience (changes in self-efficacy based on observation of others' performance); social or verbal persuasion (changes in self-efficacy based on performance feedback); and physiological feedback (the influence of feelings such as anxiety or

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excitement on forming positive or negative self-efficacy). These four sources were important to this study because they helped to explain the root of teachers' motivational beliefs in adopting and developing different pedagogical strategies. Simply labelling a teacher as having high or low self-efficacy, without examining the sources of such self-efficacy beliefs, is not enough. Even teachers who are equally efficacious may react very differently to the idea of adopting different pedagogies. For example, empirical studies have revealed that efficacious teachers are more committed to evaluating their pedagogy and experimenting with new instructional practices than less efficacious teachers (Allinder, 1994; Goodyear & Casey, 2015; Lamb, 2017; Stein & Wang, 1988). However, some efficacious teachers may still resist new teaching methods because they do not see the need to change their already successful methods (Avidov-Ungar & Forkosh-Baruch, 2018; Wheatley, 2005). This leads to a less-discussed aspect of the study of motivation: the motivation to sustain past accomplishments (Crocker, 2002; Raynor & Brown, 1985). As a result, a more comprehensive interpretation can be reached by judging which sources of self-efficacy are the most influential in developing self-efficacy, and how these sources interact (Morris & Usher, 2011), instead of definitively attributing strong motivation for pedagogical improvement to highly efficacious teachers.

Leading Motivational Theories and Their Limitations

One of the most influential and commonly used definitions of motivation is derived from Porter and Lawler's (1968) expectancy theory. Porter and Lawler, drawing on Vroom's (1964) expectancy–valence theory of work motivation, divided motivation into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. Overwhelmingly, studies employing expectancy theory have revealed that teachers draw motivation and job satisfaction from intrinsic factors, such as student achievement and professional recognition and development (Scott et al., 2003; Slemp et al., 2020; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). In contrast, extrinsic motivators, such as salary, school administration, and job security, are only treated as basic needs (Fernet et al., 2017; Shoaib, 2004). Only intrinsic motivators, such as an inherent desire to help students learn, could explain why teachers join the profession (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Pennington, 1995; Pennington & Ho, 1995; Utomo, 2018).

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Despite its wide adoption in studies of teacher motivation, Porter and Lawler's categorization has been criticized as presuming an accretive relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, while neglecting the possibility that other kinds of motivation are at work (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Deci and Ryan (1985), in their self-determination theory, therefore suggested two other types of motivation: autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Similar to Porter and Lawler's categorization, if teachers choose to pursue a goal that they find worthwhile, they are considered autonomously motivated. Alternatively, if teachers only react to factors like school rules, rewards, or punishments, their behaviors are induced by controlled motivation (Verhagen et al., 2012). In other words, the most significant difference between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation is the availability of choice.

However, many critics have attacked this schema as a false dichotomy. Nias (1981) argued against this unnecessary polarization, urging greater consideration of the complex context of teaching itself. Amabile (1993) concurred, criticizing the labelling of motivation as overly rigid; he pointed out that there is a synergistic relationship between different kinds of motivation. The importance of such a relationship, or more precisely the absence of such synergy, has also been raised in quantitative studies of teacher motivation. While quantitative research on teacher motivation is limited, Hanna et al. (2019) still managed to analyze 20 such studies and identified six major constructs of teacher identity. Motivation and self-efficacy were on the list, together with self-image, commitment, task perception, and job satisfaction. However, other researchers have also noted the limitations of the overlapping categories or definitions found in qualitative studies of teacher motivation: the neglect of contextual, cultural, or subject-specific nuances (Hartnett et al., 2011; Watt & Richardson, 2007), and teachers' cognitive or social satisfaction and needs (Wighting et al., 2008). These limitations point to the fact that researchers should start to look at how teachers interpret their own motivational needs in a specific context, rather than treating them as passive agents who react to the same motivational factor in the same way in any situation.

Current Trends in Teacher Motivation Research

Researchers into teacher motivation in the 21st century have begun to factor in teachers' cognitive evaluation of themselves and of other parties.

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For example, one category of motivation noted in the study by Wighting et al. (2008) was the perception of one's own ability to execute a task. This work was rooted in Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, the current study's theoretical framework. Wighting et al.'s research extended the discussion of motivation from qualifying motivational factors as intrinsic or extrinsic to examining individuals' perception of their own competence. Hernandez et al. (2011) proposed the concept of social motivation, highlighting an individual's need to establish reciprocal relationships, such as gaining a sense of community and recognition from others. This approach was supported by Inman and Marlow's (2004) study of the attitudes of novice teachers towards staying in the profession. These researchers identified a supportive community and school environment as the most important factors in teacher retention, using examples such as the presence of teaching mentors, cooperative colleagues, encouraging school administrators, and an education-oriented community.

This body of literature on the development of teacher motivation research reveals a new research trend: rather than assuming that teachers are passive agents only influenced by various motivational factors, researchers are now recognizing the active role teachers themselves and their beliefs play in motivation. The trend finds its theoretical root in self-efficacy theory, which deals with individuals' perceptions of their abilities to attain an expected result from a goal (Bandura, 1997). The finding that, for teachers, intrinsic rewards are the most motivating factor, and the most substantial source of job satisfaction (Dörnyei, 2003) is the impetus to investigate the problem of practice in this study. School administrators may rely on the assumption that because teachers were motivated to join the profession, they will stay motivated on their own. For instance, management in higher educational institutions may well assume that its faculty should have an inherent desire for pedagogical development and that members' motivation does not need to be nurtured. However, at the same time, a greater value may be put on teacher motivation in the criteria used in performance appraisal. The contradiction between management's expectations of its teachers and its practice constituted the problem of practice in this study.

Teacher motivation has always received less attention in the literature than student motivation (Sharabyan, 2011a, 2011b; Sugino, 2010b), and even less has been written on the motivation of higher education faculty (Visser-Wijnveen et al., 2012) and specifically on the motivation of language teachers (Dörnyei, 1994).

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Scholars have argued that understanding how teachers make sense of their own motivational beliefs can explain why diverse teachers react differently to the same source of motivation, considering the interconnected relationships between school context, behavior, and cognition. Therefore, this study aimed to gain a deeper understanding of ESL teachers' perceptions of whether they were motivated to develop different pedagogical strategies. Drawing on Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy beliefs, this study asked the central question: How do ESL teachers in a private tertiary college in Hong Kong make sense of their motivational beliefs in developing or adopting different pedagogical strategies?

The primary purpose of this question was to fulfil the objective of Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, that is, to understand an individual's perceived ability to execute a particular course of action. This study aimed to understand ESL teachers' perceptions of the factors motivating them when making decisions contributing to pedagogical innovation. The term "pedagogical strategies" in the central question included, but was not limited to, a variety of classroom activities that teachers should consider when planning instruction. This term also covered the methods used to achieve the following: elucidating task values, designing engaging tasks, fostering students' intellectual capacity, devising multidimensional tasks, promoting students' self-learning through interesting and complex tasks, and varying tasks over time (Peng & Xie, 2021; Stipek, 2002).

Methodology

The methodology used in this study was interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), which analyses how individuals make sense of their personal and social worlds (Smith et al., 2009). Developed in the mid-1990s by Jonathan Smith, a professor of Psychology at the University of London, IPA has its philosophical underpinnings in phenomenology and symbolic interactionism. The phenomenological assumption of IPA is based on Edmund Husserl's (1859–1938) philosophical foundation, which theorizes experience as consisting of individuals making meanings in their lifeworld (Ashworth, 2003). As a result, only through individuals' personal and subjective accounts can IPA researchers arrive at the lived experiences of their research participants.

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Symbolic interactionism, another philosophical foundation of IPA, posits that the analysis should be able to interpret the meaning-making and sense-making processes of individuals (Smith, 1996). This reveals the hermeneutic phenomenological tradition of IPA, with key theorists including Martin Heidegger (1889–1976) and Hans-Georg Gadamer (1900–2002). In hermeneutics, the importance of knowing through interpretation has significantly informed the development of IPA, with Smith et al. (2009) using a double hermeneutic, or two-way interpretation. The double hermeneutic starts with the research participants interpreting their lived experiences; in turn, the researcher analyses the participants' interpretations (Smith & Osborn, 2003).

Given that IPA focuses on offering a detailed descriptive and interpretative account of individual experiences, Smith et al. (2009) recommended using a limited number of participants (three to six) in a study and obtaining data from semi-structured interviews. In this study, four teachers were invited to take part in an interview and all agreed. A purposive and criterion sampling strategy was employed to select a homogenous population of participants. To be aligned with the principle of phenomenological studies, in which research participants should share experiences of the same phenomenon and meet certain criteria (Miles & Huberman, 1994), the four participants were full-time teachers at the Department of English in a self-financed higher educational institution in Hong Kong, delivering at least one mandatory English course for undergraduates. Age range, gender, highest educational qualification, and accumulated teaching experiences were collected as their demographic data, although these were not part of the sampling criteria.

- Brenda, in her late 30s, started working as a Lecturer in the Department of English in the institution 6.5 years ago. She had taught English Language to senior secondary students (Forms 6 and 7) in the institution when it was primarily a secondary school. In 2010, the institution started to offer self-financed bachelor's degree programs, and Brenda began to deliver ESL courses to undergraduates. Before joining this institution, Brenda had six years of teaching experience in secondary schools. Of the four participants, she had the most teaching experience, both in the institution and in teaching.
- Alex, in her mid-30s, had a similar teaching background to Brenda. Alex started working at the institution as a senior secondary teacher in September 2007 and had been part of the ESL teaching unit in the

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department since 2010. She had six years of teaching experience, the second most in the institution, and had five years of secondary school teaching experience before joining the institution.

- Joe, in her late 20s, joined the institution as a Lecturer when the secondary school curriculum was abandoned completely and only degree programs for undergraduates were offered. Joe had been a tutorial school teacher for 1.5 years before joining the institution in September 2012.
- Of the four participants, Kelly, also in her late 20s, was the only teacher who started to work as a part-time Lecturer. After joining the institution in September 2012, she became a full-time Lecturer in September 2013. She was the only doctoral degree holder; the other three teachers had master's degrees listed as their highest educational qualification at the time this study was conducted.

This study employed semi-structured, individual, face-to-face interviews. A 30-minute member-checking interview was conducted after the data analysis process. The interview took place in the participants' own offices at the college or in a private conference room, to offer them the most secure environment. Each semi-structured interview lasted between 45 and 60 minutes.

The interviews began with several icebreaker questions and five to seven open-ended questions (Appendix A). The responsive interviewing model (Rubin & Rubin, 2012) was followed, wherein the interviews were considered a natural exchange between the researcher and the participants. The interview questions were modified, depending on the personality, emotion, and input of the participants during each interview (Smith & Osborn, 2003).

Data Analysis

As recommended by Smith et al. (2009), data analysis was conducted in an iterative and inductive cycle. An iterative process permits non-linear lines of thought and the creative assessment of such thoughts (Smith et al., 2009). The process is also inductive because it starts with broad research questions instead of bounded hypotheses or theories, allowing unexpected themes to emerge during analysis (Reid et al., 2005). The researcher then undertook the six-step data analysis recommended by

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Smith et al. (2009) to interpret each set of interview data. These steps are 1) reading and re-reading; 2) initial noting; 3) developing emergent themes; 4) searching for connections across emergent themes; 5) moving to the next cases; and 6) looking for patterns across cases.

In qualitative studies, dependability can be an issue due to the changing nature of the phenomenon being investigated (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). However, the researcher reiterated IPA's idiographic nature so that the research findings did not constitute a single definitive report but a credible one (Smith et al., 2009). Dependability was further ensured through the provision of supporting interpretations backed by quotes from the participants, and the full interview transcripts in the research. While only one phenomenon was discussed, various perspectives were explored to present a detailed and multifaceted account of that phenomenon (Reid et al., 2005). The researcher also followed a code-recode procedure in which the researcher waited at least two weeks after the first coding activity, and then recoded the same data and checked for consistency (Krefting, 1991).

When admitting that researcher bias was inevitable, Patton (1990) suggested that in a qualitative study, researchers should focus on confirmability to ensure objectivity. As suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994), the researcher clarified her predispositions in conducting this study, such as the choice of IPA, the interpretivist paradigm, and the detailed methodological description, from the outset. The researcher also conducted an ongoing reflective analysis through her field journal to corroborate the results. In tandem with the IPA idiographic nature of the research, the researcher first extracted the common themes from each participant's interview data and then looked for patterns across all four cases.

Findings and Analysis

Table 1 provides a list of the three superordinate themes and eight sub-themes that emerged from the transcript analysis, as well as the recurrence of each theme across the four participants. The emergent themes were present in each of their accounts but were experienced in both similar and divergent ways. In addition to the concentrated summaries and thick descriptions, the findings are supported by quotations from the interview transcripts.

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Table 1. Identification of Recurring Themes

Superordinate Themes ***Nesting Themes***	**Joe**	**Brenda**	**Kelly**	**Alex**
1) Students as Major Driving Force	YES	YES	YES	YES
1.1 Turning Students' ESL Needs into Teachers' Motivation	YES	YES	YES	YES
1.2 Higher Education Students' Learning Attitudes and Characteristics	YES	YES	YES	YES
1.3 Students' Satisfaction	YES	YES	YES	YES
2) Perceptions of Teachers' Teaching Abilities	YES	YES	YES	YES
2.1 Evaluations of Their Teaching	YES	YES	YES	YES
2.2 Teachers' Role Models	YES	NO	YES	YES
2.3 Peer Observation	YES	YES	YES	YES
3) Perceptions of the Administration	YES	YES	YES	YES
3.1 Adherence to or Autonomy from Departmental Guidelines	YES	YES	YES	YES
3.2 Perceived Effectiveness or Ineffectiveness of Institutional Practices	YES	NO	YES	YES

Students as a Major Driving Force

Turning Students' ESL Needs into Teachers' Motivation

The four participants concurred that their students' need to learn ESL functioned as a reliable guide for their teaching. Of the four participants, Kelly provided the richest descriptions of the weak grammatical foundations of her students. She stated that, "I'm not a grammar person but yes, it seems to me that there's a need for me to highlight some of the grammar points as well." The learning needs of her students in grammar overrode her concerns about her teaching expertise. The participants all mentioned their students' poor grammar and limited vocabularies. However, Kelly described these aspects in the most vivid and specific detail, citing as examples the inability of her students to master the use of adjectival or noun clauses, relative clauses, sentence patterns such as "not only… but also" and parallel structure, the correct usage of "concern," and the construction of thesis statements and topic sentences when writing essays. To illustrate her effort at addressing the weaknesses of her students in ESL, Kelly provided another rich description of her pedagogical change and development. She mentioned more than once in her interview that she produced "a pile of grammar notes" and "a package of grammar quizzes." Through hand gestures, she proudly showed the

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researcher the considerable thickness of the additional notes and quizzes she had created for her students. When Brenda was asked about the occasions on which she had decided to change her teaching style or activity during a lesson, she said (in a manner similar to Kelly's) that her decision had been based on her students' observed difficulties in completing their tasks, their unfamiliarity with the vocabulary, and inadequate knowledge of the task context. Joe and Alex shared more details of how they defined and emphasized the needs of their students over their own personal needs. Joe described how she would immediately modify her teaching once "they (her students) are falling asleep, or if one student yawns." Both Joe and Alex valued casual talks with their students outside the classroom to acquire information about their learning needs. "Through social networking sites or informal meetings outside classrooms," Alex stated, "they will intentionally or subconsciously talk about how they feel about the school, or how they feel about other subjects. That kind of implicitly gives me a message on how to change my lessons or modify my lessons."

Higher Education Students' Learning Attitudes and Characteristics

All of the participants ascribed the need to adjust their teaching practices to the learning attitudes and characteristics of their students. Brenda linked the ages of students in higher education with their maturity levels. Age and maturity accord students autonomy in selecting the subjects to study in college. Brenda attributed the academic freedom enjoyed by students in higher education to their motivation to study. The age and maturity of students in higher education also surfaced as a theme when Kelly explained how she encouraged her students to review each other's work in class, correlating age with their ability to render fair evaluations. The fact that she awarded bonus marks to students making presentations partly based on the evaluations of other students exemplified her respect for their opinions, her confidence in their fair judgment, and the efficacy of her pedagogy.

Joe spoke about her students' attitudes towards learning, which guided her teaching routine. She further explained how she chose group work for her students. "Maybe the Asian mentality will make them care more about the class," she explained. A Chinese national who received her education in Hong Kong, Joe took advantage of her cultural

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understanding of the Chinese inclination towards collective behavior and responsibility. She translated this understanding into a resource enabling her to choose the most suitable teaching mode. In addition to drawing on her cultural resources, Joe drew on her knowledge of students' behaviors on social media, particularly blaming the popularity of Instagram, an online networking platform used mainly for sharing photos and videos. "They just look at pictures and [there are] no words at all. So quite a bad thing," she said. She stated she was confused about her students' preference for audio-visual materials, adding "I don't know how we develop our course materials." However, her bafflement led her to reflect on the development of ESL courses for higher education students, suggesting that teachers and institutions should plan courses such as "English in the Digital Age." Similarly, Alex stated that if her students "look puzzled and lost during the lesson," she would intentionally choose "the least desirable approach" in teaching, which required "showing them step by step" and "asking heavily guided questions such as yes or no questions, or questions with options provided to inspire them to think about a task or to complete a task." Alex justified her adoption of "the least desirable approach" by taking the learning attitudes of her students at a particular moment in class as the primary consideration.

Students' Satisfaction

Unlike the previous two sub-themes, which focused on students' academic needs, this sub-theme illustrated how the participants valued their students' feelings, such as pleasure and the need to be respected, how the feelings of their students affected the feelings of the teachers, and most importantly, how these last two elements increased the motivation of the participants to develop different teaching strategies. Joe remarked that she encouraged her students to decide whether to work individually or as a group so that they could work "under no pressure." This reveals that she considered the choice of her students rather than the effectiveness of her teaching routine as the factor that could motivate her to change her teaching strategies. Joe employed other tactics to ensure that her students were satisfied and engaged with her lessons. "I like asking them questions if they're falling asleep. So, remembering all their names is important, even though I may shortly forget their names after the course." Additionally, she was mindful of what her students got up to in their spare time and determining why they

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were not paying attention to her lessons. "Maybe he or she has got something to do with their clubs (committee work) and stuff. Sometimes they might stay up late… He's interested in the course but [it's] just that he's tired or that he's not feeling well." This description shows that Joe had to play the role of a parent to understand that her students' physical and mental well-being required her attention.

Alex had a similar view of the non-academic needs of her students, but she directly associated this with her teaching materials. When she explained the importance of having a deeper understanding of her students' daily lives, Alex stated, "We assume they know something but actually they don't. So, if I know their interests, I can choose relevant examples, which can facilitate my teaching."

Brenda and Kelly described how their desire to keep their students happy and satisfied affected their motivation to improve their teaching. However, Brenda did not stop at ensuring the happiness of her students but asked for more from them. "If they are happy and they know what to do, they give me positive responses in terms of knowing how to do the assignments well, or just saying thank you," she said. Kelly went one step further by reiterating her principle of aligning teaching and grading with clear rubrics. She explained, "I don't like people arguing with me about blah, blah, blah. It's not objective. I'm not a subjective person, to be honest. I love everything to be objective." According to Kelly, student satisfaction is always intrinsic in the objectivity and fairness of her assessment of her students' work.

Perceptions of Teachers' Teaching Abilities

Evaluations of Their Teaching

The participants evaluated their teaching performance based on different factors, including teaching experience, educational background, strengths, and weaknesses. Kelly cited her private tutoring experience in her interview, going back more than once to when she was herself a senior student in secondary school. "So, it adds to my teaching experience as well." Kelly defined pedagogical development as a "continuous process" and "from time to time, some new pedagogies actually emerge." In addition to her teaching experience, Kelly was the only one of the four participants who made a clear and positive connection between educational background and teaching ability. "I think most of us actually

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were English majors, right? We did actually know something about linguistics and teaching pedagogy theories." Despite having less teaching experience than the other participants, Joe demonstrated the most confidence when evaluating her strengths and weaknesses. In terms of strengths, she repeatedly used the word "flexibility" in describing her teaching style. She was certain of the effectiveness of her "personal touches" because these were formulated "from the viewpoint of a student."

One or two of the participants cast doubt on their teaching abilities when evaluating their performance. However, they turned this self-doubt into a motivation to improve their teaching or to adopt different strategies. This awareness motivated Brenda "to do better because I know good preparation usually results in good lessons." Similarly, Alex explicitly discussed her limitations when asked to evaluate her teaching ability. "I don't think I am good at telling stories… I'm not the kind of person who has a strong sense of humor." However, she turned this realization into a motivation. "I know what I'm lacking and so I'm trying to polish that kind of skill, so that I can make my class more interesting."

Teachers' Role Models

Except for one participant, everyone gave credit to their own teachers and others they met in the workplace when asked to explain their strengths in teaching. Joe appreciated how her teacher had encouraged her to "think outside the box." Learning from role models was a core value in Joe's teaching philosophy. "I think the key is continuous learning because in this way I can always remember that I am a student, and I can see teaching from a student's perspective." Similarly, Kelly expressed her gratitude to a professor she met as a student, especially for something the professor once said. "Even though you only have 5 or 6 students out of 40 listening to you, you still need to be happy because you are still saving someone." This helped Kelly to understand that teachers do not have to be recognized, but that their work is valuable in that it is of importance to at least one student. This "teacher as a savior" conviction significantly influenced Kelly, who insisted on asking her students to submit their thesis statements and topic sentences in their essay assignments before the submission deadline. Kelly remarked that her professor explained that a marking method focused on grammatical

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features was widely adopted by Western educational institutions. The participants' role models also included colleagues. In particular, Alex appreciated learning by observing "how they mark an assignment or how they view a presentation through informal chit-chatting, talking about student performance or how they think about their conduct." While Brenda did not mention any role models, she mentioned that the experience of being considered a role model could boost her confidence in her teaching ability. "I can gain a sense of reassurance and recognition when somebody says, 'Okay, it works.'"

Peer Observation

All four participants expressed negative feelings about other teachers with little motivation for pedagogical development. Both Brenda and Alex cited time, specifically the limited time some teachers devote to teaching, as a factor that may weaken their motivation to develop different teaching strategies. Brenda contrasted teachers in higher education with those in secondary schools who were "so distracted because they may need to take up so many different areas of teaching and administrative work." Alex shared the same thought and added that "dealing with student discipline" compounds the already heavy workload of secondary school teachers. However, Joe explained that time was not a concern in understanding a motivated teacher, arguing that students' level of interest, not only the time spent in school or on teaching, was a more reliable indicator of teaching ability. She treated teachers who spent long hours each day at school or in class as her counterexamples. She elaborated on her definition of peer observation by taking what she called "hobby classes." Instead of the amount of time, Joe perceived the quality of time spent on teaching ESL, as well as on developing a teacher's personal interests, as a better embodiment of teaching ability. When asked to contribute their thoughts on the phrase "teacher motivation," both Alex and Joe ended their interview on a negative note. Alex responded that "most of the teachers in Hong Kong lack motivation." Joe shared a similar thought, saying that "motivation is quite a heavy word" to describe teachers in Hong Kong. Two participants viewed the unwillingness of a few teachers to innovate in their pedagogy as a flaw. When asked to describe what a motivated ESL teacher should be, Alex offered the idea that a teacher should be experimental. Kelly agreed. "The existing teachers… used to say, 'We can't change the

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world.'" Neither participant viewed adherence to established teaching practice as the reflection of a capable teacher. In a changing world, adopting different teaching strategies is necessary, not an option.

Perceptions of the Administration

Adherence to or Autonomy from Departmental Guidelines

Two participants struggled between following the teaching schedule with the materials set by their department and acquiring autonomy in their teaching. The teachers perceived this struggle as a motivational factor in their attempt to use different teaching practices without significantly violating departmental guidelines. However, the participants all agreed that the teaching packages used by the department allowed both teachers and students to arrive at the same understanding of the courses. Joe especially gave credit to the "standardized, centralized materials" as a source of security, on top of their practical values, particularly for new teachers. While the participants welcomed the standardized course outlines and materials offered by the department, their desire to have the autonomy needed to modify their daily teaching practices was evident. Kelly expressed her belief in the effectiveness of applying process writing when teaching essay writing. However, "to be fair we can't do it." Despite the concern for fairness, Kelly continued to ask her students to submit thesis statements and topic sentences in addition to their completed essays. Joe was more straightforward in her criticism of the materials provided by the department. She remarked that using a textbook that both she and her students were not interested in "made me quite stressed out in a way, because I prefer having flexibility." Labelling this teaching experience as "traumatic," she dealt with the issue by supplementing the textbook with her own materials and activities. This struggle between abiding by departmental standardization and seeking pedagogical autonomy was evident in all of the participants and provided Joe with a spur for pedagogical improvement.

Perceived Effectiveness or Ineffectiveness of Institutional Practices

While all of the participants expressed mixed feelings about the departmental guidelines, the three participants who mentioned college practices underplayed the importance of the guidelines in relation to

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their motivations for pedagogical development. When asked about the expectations on the part of students, colleagues, or the school that could increase their motivation, Kelly recognized the roles played by her students and colleagues but said, "I'm never concerned about the school administration, sorry about that." In response to a question about the effectiveness of the seminars for faculty members held by the college, Alex said, "I'm inspired not because of the content but because of the speakers. They are lecturers, professors, actually teachers and they are role models." Joe also responded to the effectiveness of the seminars after commenting that several were merely "stating the obvious," saying "it would be nice to look at how other teachers teach." In addition to these college seminars, Joe was critical of another college practice, namely the end-of-semester evaluations written by students. She welcomed the negative comments because they could help improve her teaching. However, she noted that, "You can only get student evaluations at the end of the semester, and I think it's quite hard to change things after everything has ended." This observation explained why she had developed her own mid-term evaluation, where her students could anonymously give feedback on her and her teaching methods.

Discussion

This section discusses each theme with a focus on how it connects to the theoretical framework and the literature, the significance and limitations of the findings, and the implications for the educational community.

Students as a Major Driving Force

Students' weaknesses in ESL and their associated learning needs fueled the teachers' pedagogical development. This finding confirmed the conclusions of most teacher motivation studies, namely that teachers are most motivated by intrinsic rewards, such as satisfaction from witnessing student progress (Dörnyei, 1994; Matsumoto, 2011; Scott et al., 2003; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Yunus et al., 2011; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Yunus et al. (2011), for example, underlined the importance for teachers to learn about their students' individual needs because students come from different backgrounds. The four participants in this study were able to consider their undergraduate students' secondary school English learning backgrounds and articulate the

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weaknesses of the students in their own classes, ranging from grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure, and understanding of task contexts.

Other than the role of a teacher sharing ESL knowledge with students, the findings revealed the social responsibility felt by the teachers, who viewed teaching as a socially important and worthwhile calling and a chance to be a part of students' lives. This finding confirmed a consensus in the literature on second-language teachers' motivation about teachers' additional roles. This consensus holds that teachers are expected to help students identify with the second-language community, including its culture and mindset (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Gardner et al., 2004). The participants playing a savior role substantiated the study by Flores et al. (2011) of bilingual Latino candidate teachers who saw altruistic motivation, such as giving back to society and making a difference as a role model, as a reason to join the teaching profession.

The findings also corroborated the importance of human agency in Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, which was a fundamental paradigm for this study. Human agency refers to the idea that individuals create incentives to act by believing in their abilities to arrive at desirable results and prevent undesirable outcomes (Pajares, 1996; Solberg et al., 1995). In the case of some of the participants in this study, their pedagogical decisions depended on their students' willingness to learn and their ability to manifest that willingness in class. The finding that individuals were able to choose and pursue a particular course of action, instead of reacting passively to stimuli, underlined the importance of human agency in self-efficacy theory.

When making pedagogical decisions, the participants considered their students' age, as well as their autonomy in the choice of their preferred subjects given the context of higher education, when asking them to perform challenging activities in class. The findings corroborated the arguments advanced by Hartnett et al. (2011) and Watt and Richardson (2007) that the scholarship on teacher motivation has long neglected the importance of contextual, cultural, or subject-specific nuances. These researchers suggested investigating how teachers take into consideration specific contexts when interpreting any given motivation, rather than being passive agents who react to the same motivational factor in the same way in any situation.

Similar to this study's findings, Karaman et al. (2012) suggested that second-language teachers carry out three types of mental negotiations

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about adopting a new pedagogy, including dealing with students' cultural identities. One participant remarked that her students' "Asian mentality," which she perceived as a Chinese preference for collective action and responsibility, was a reason she conducted group work with them. Her use of culture to modify her pedagogy was the result of her identity as a teacher being developed not only through her status as a teacher but also through her Chinese heritage.

The agent–means–end interrelationship in Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory effectively explained the participants' responses to different teaching strategies based on how these affected student outcomes. Skinner (1996) credited Bandura's focus on the agent–means–end interrelationship with filling the gap left by the distinction between agent–means beliefs and means–end beliefs found in most human control studies. In the current study, despite admitting that changing teaching practices and facilitating students' independent learning would be better pedagogy (the means), the teachers (the agents) deemed that such practices would not achieve the best learning outcomes (the agents' response to the means) because of their students' learning attitudes and characteristics. The result was the use of less favorable approaches to teaching (the end).

As shown in this study, teachers' motivation for pedagogical development did not necessarily involve looking for the most innovative or latest teaching approach. This finding was contrary to the positive association between higher teacher efficacy and teachers' willingness to adopt pedagogical innovations found in leading empirical studies (Allinder, 1994; Berman et al., 1977; Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997; Guskey, 1984; Smylie, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). In contrast, some of the participants in this study shunned pedagogical innovations not because of a low level of self-efficacy but because of their analysis of their students' learning needs. This finding affirmed, once again, the role played by mental negotiations (Karaman et al., 2012) and human agency (Pajares, 1996; Solberg et al., 1995) in teachers' pedagogical decisions.

Beyond their students' academic needs, the participants' desire to ensure that their students were satisfied with their teaching and lessons was the driving force behind these teachers' pedagogical changes. Talking to students about their extracurricular activities and interests helped to develop a friendly relationship between the participants and their students. This finding was consistent with the studies by Bakadorova and Raufelder

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(2018), Pinner (2019), Wu and Hung (2011), and Yunus et al. (2011), who pointed to the importance of a close and positive relationship with students in improving classroom behavior, study motivation, and academic performance.

While this study found that all of the participants were motivated to change their teaching practices to keep their students happy and interested in lessons, two participants valued their own mental well-being as much as that of their students. For example, one participant said that she would be less motivated to create tailor-made teaching materials without her students expressing gratitude. Another participant said that she insisted on presenting clear criteria to her students when explaining and grading assignments because she always wanted to avoid arguments. These findings supported those of studies of teachers' cognitive or social satisfaction needs (Granziera & Perera, 2019; Hobbs & Putnam, 2016; Wighting et al., 2008). The need to address teachers' own satisfaction was also important because it confirmed the significant effect of teachers' beliefs on their motivations to execute particular teaching tasks (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

The fact that their students were in higher education also influenced the participants' pedagogical decisions. The teachers were encouraged to develop teaching strategies based on their adult students' maturity, limited attention span, preferences for group work, and socialization behaviors. However, it was worth noting that a teacher's motivation for pedagogical development was evident in their decision, given their students' learning needs, to repeat certain teaching practices rather than always searching for the latest or most innovative approach. These findings helped address the limitation in Sugino's (2010a) study of Japanese schools in which he failed to acknowledge either the commonalities and differences in the motivational factors identified by teachers in three kinds of institutions: defense academies, and private and national universities. The findings of the present study pointed to the influence exerted by different types of curricula (ESL learning in higher education) and a specific student body composition (higher education students in a private tertiary college). The student population of the institution in question also resulted in the teachers seeking to ensure their students' affective perceptions of their teaching and lessons when considering pedagogical changes.

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Perceptions of Teachers' Teaching Abilities

All of the participants reported that both their teaching strengths and weaknesses contributed to their motivation to improve their methods of instruction. This finding confirmed, once again, the central role of human agency in Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy, as well as the bidirectional interactive relationships between behavior, cognition and other personal factors, and the environment (Dellinger et al., 2008). One participant exercised her human agency by choosing not to dwell on any negative feedback but to use this energy to build an image of herself as an assertive teacher who wanted to ensure that her students met her high standards. This finding was aligned with the assertion of Dellinger et al. (2008) that the causal interactions between behavior, personal factors, and the environment influenced teachers' beliefs about how they accomplished teaching tasks. In the participant's case, the change in her personal factors (from frustration to optimism) altered her pedagogical behavior and her classroom environment.

With the teachers' own perceptions of their teaching abilities being the focus, the findings of this second superordinate theme in particular echoed the four sources of self-efficacy beliefs identified in this study's theoretical framework (Bandura, 1977). All of the participants attributed their successful teaching experiences to an increase in their teaching abilities. The finding was congruent with the important influence of mastery experience noted by self-efficacy researchers. This referred to how individuals' perceptions of their own capabilities and their predictions of how they would perform a given task were based on their successful or failed experiences (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). The sources of mastery experience of the participants in this study included their teaching experiences before joining the institution, their educational backgrounds, and their successful implementation of instructional methods, proven by positive feedback from students and by their self-evaluations.

However, the literature suggested that teachers' self-efficacy increased with teaching experience (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). In this study, two of the participants were less experienced than the other two. However, neither of them found their limited teaching experience to be an obstacle. Instead, both made a point of reflecting upon the failures they had experienced in their first year of teaching and made significant improvements in their second year

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because of these setbacks. Both cases showed that even a novice teacher could have a high level of self-efficacy as long as other sources of mastery experience were available.

Contrary to the novice teachers' certainty about their teaching abilities, the two more seasoned teachers were candid about the limitations and shortcomings of their teaching. These findings challenged the numerous empirical studies that associated higher teacher efficacy with a greater willingness to adopt pedagogical innovations and to experiment with different instructional methods (Allinder, 1994; Berman et al., 1977; Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997; Guskey, 1984; Smylie, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). In addition, the findings supported Wheatley's (1997, 2002, 2005) more contemporary assertion underlining the benefits of teachers doubting their efficacy. The benefits included encouraging teacher reflection, strengthening teachers' motivation to learn, and fostering an openness to diversity in instructional methods, as shown by these two seasoned teachers' assessment of their own teaching abilities.

All but one of the participants in this study were motivated to implement instructional strategies successfully adopted by their own teachers or to adopt the teaching philosophy of a teacher the participant admired. This was a type of vicarious experience, a change of self-efficacy by observing others' performance (Labone, 2004). The findings further strengthened the argument advanced by Abrami et al. (2004), Foley (2011), and Wozney et al. (2006) that an increase in a teacher's expectation of success resulted in a motivational boost to use a teaching strategy.

Verbal persuasion, one of the four sources of self-efficacy, refers to a change in confidence stemming from positive or negative feedback (Usher & Pajares, 2008). While the sources of verbal persuasion for teachers usually included administrators, supervisors, colleagues, parents, and other members of the teaching community (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007), for some of the participants in this study, the findings complicated the definition of "important others" in the teaching context (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Some of the participants gave considerable weight to their students' feedback, especially negative comments, on their teaching performance, which they regarded as suggestions for improvement. Because teacher motivation and student motivation were shown to be positively associated in the literature, it was worth investigating the effect of students' positive and negative

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verbal assessments on teachers' behavioral and cognitive reactions and changes, especially in higher education.

Although the four participants in this study were women, the findings discussed above were compatible with studies that examined whether men and women were influenced differently by the four sources of information in self-efficacy beliefs. Establishing the influence of vicarious experience and verbal persuasion on the participants' motives for pedagogical development in this study was based on the research of Pajares and Zeldin (1999) and Zeldin and Pajares (2000). These researchers demonstrated how these two sources of self-efficacy beliefs were critical for women who gained confidence primarily from observing and listening to messages from the important parties in their lives. However, such a comparison must be treated with caution. The 15 women interviewed by Zeldin and Pajares (2000) had careers in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM), which were generally male-dominated sectors at that time. Gender equality has progressed since then, affecting the importance of gender in STEM careers, as well as the sources of women's confidence. A gap also existed in comparing the four female participants in this study with those in Zeldin and Pajares (2000), as teaching showed no significant gender preference where this study's participants were located. The four teachers in this study worked in a department where women were the majority. Further research is warranted on a mixed male and female sample to examine how they process the four sources of self-efficacy beliefs.

Physiological or psychological arousal, when applied to the formation of teachers' self-efficacy, refers to the joy or excitement experienced by teachers from a successful lesson, which may contribute to their self-efficacy beliefs (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Negative psychological and emotional arousal, such as stress or anxiety from a particular instructional method, may lower teachers' confidence in using the method again. All of the participants in this study expressed negative feelings towards the concept of teacher motivation in Hong Kong, arguing that in the eyes of the public and even the participants themselves, most teachers in the city were not motivated. This echoed the main finding of teacher motivation studies suggesting that teachers were most demotivated by extrinsic factors (Doyle & Kim, 1999; Gheralis-Roussos, 2003; Shoaib, 2004; Pennington, 1995). In this study, the extrinsic factors undermining teachers' pedagogical motivation

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included the heavy non-teaching workload (such as administration), dealing with issues of student discipline, and the failure to maintain a healthy work-life balance. This finding was aligned with the perceived lack of social respect, which was identified as a common negative motivational factor in the literature on teacher motivation. However, the causal relationship between poor teacher motivation and the public's disrespectful attitude towards teachers should be treated with caution. Two participants remarked that some teachers were actually at fault in the first place, being reluctant to change and pessimistic about their ability to innovate. The two participants considered these teachers' lack of motivation as the reason for the public's negative image of teachers, on the assumption that all teachers are able—and ought—to be experimental and open-minded about pedagogical innovation. Regional factors in Hong Kong should be considered in future research to better explain this undesirable image of teachers.

Perceptions of the Administration

The teachers being closely tied to departmental guidelines and policies can be explained by Weick's (1976) discussion of the way educational institutions work as loosely coupled systems, which is because departments in educational organizations are not tightly linked (Meyer, 2002; Pajak & Green, 2003). The many independently functioning sub-units are still coupled to a certain extent, some with a stronger connection while others are understood as being "circumscribed, infrequent, weak in [their] mutual affects, unimportant and/or slow to respond" (Weick, 1976, p. 3). The relationship between the teachers in this study and their department was stronger than that between the teachers and their institution for two reasons. First, the departmental policies mentioned by the participants had a direct effect on their daily teaching, including their teaching schedule, materials, and assignments. Second, the majority of ESL course panels in the department consisted of more than one teacher, with a course coordinator overseeing operations such as standardization and mark adjustment.

The participants, however, both desired and exercised their autonomy in making teaching decisions, especially when departmental policies conflicted with their teaching philosophies. This finding was consistent with those of Hu's (2002) and Savignon (2007)'s studies demonstrating that the local needs and experiences of both students and

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teachers should be considered when adopting a pedagogy. In this study, several participants acknowledged the need for instructional change when they found that the teaching schedule or textbook provided did not achieve the best outcomes. Their pedagogical judgment was comparable to Hu's and Savignon's analysis that even with an instructional strategy widely understood as effective, teachers were still able to make professional decisions concerning its execution. This decision-making process also echoed this study's theoretical framework, which asserted that teachers' perceptions of their ability to execute a teaching task were a more reliable predictor of their behavior than their actual ability (Berman et al., 1977).

Of the four participants, the three who mentioned college-level practices played down the importance of activities like teacher seminars and end-of-semester evaluations as ways of motivating teachers to improve their pedagogy. The seminars, however, had unintentionally beneficial side effects as the teachers acknowledged being inspired by observing the speakers' delivery. This finding supported Smylie's (1988) argument that professional development was associated with self-efficacy, in that teachers' self-perceptions functioned as "a professional filter through which new ideas and innovations must pass before teachers internalise them and change their behaviours" (p. 148). Smylie's assertion also found support in Collopy's (2003) findings that established the effectiveness of curriculum materials as a professional development tool for teachers but recognized teachers' identity and beliefs in measuring their influence on the activity of teaching. In this study, the participants' professional filters took effect and resulted in their observation of the seminar speakers, which then turned into a motivation for pedagogical development.

The above findings indicate the need for additional research that goes beyond the literature to analyze the important roles played by the administration in higher education in promoting teaching and instructional development (Bess, 1997; Feldman & Paulsen, 1999; Kızıltepe, 2008; Macfarlane & Hughes, 2009). The participants' accounts of the college seminars should be viewed with caution because they might not have attended all of the seminars and their opinions may only be relevant to the seminars they joined. Furthermore, it is the content or direction of the institution's professional development programs that should be reviewed, as consistency between knowledge of the subject matter and pedagogy is essential (Ball, 2000).

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Conclusion and Directions for Future Research

There was an overwhelming consensus among the four participants in the study about helping their students to identify and overcome their weaknesses in ESL. This was one of these teachers' main motivations to improve their teaching. All ESL learners could sit an entry test as first-year undergraduates. ESL teachers in higher education would benefit from learning about students' academic needs through online platforms. The participants in this study recognized that helping their students overcome weaknesses was a major motivation in their pedagogical development. They also noted their students' preference for using informal communication channels and the importance of an amicable teacher-student relationship. An online teaching and learning platform tailored for each ESL course would offer teachers personalized communication with each student in a class. Two to three of the original school weeks when face-to-face lessons take place could be set aside for virtual meetings using webcams or instant messaging between teachers and their students.

The participants in this study were dismissive of the college's efforts in pedagogical development, indicating that the seminars and workshops organized so far had not met their needs. Higher education administrators, especially those responsible for teachers' professional development, could seek ways to collect faculty members' preferences for formats, topics, and speakers for future seminars and workshops. In addition to improving professional development programs, a teaching center could be set up to facilitate professional development for in-service faculty and to prepare new teachers.

Similar studies could be replicated with different teacher populations and in different types of higher education institutions. Some of the participants in this study felt that time allocation was a concern in a teacher's pedagogical development. Given that the four teachers in this study were on a teaching track and were assessed on their teaching, administration, and service to the college, faculty members on a professorial track—whose assessments are based on teaching, administration, service, and (most importantly) research—were not represented. It is natural to expect that their interpretation of time and their motivational beliefs will differ significantly because of their involvement in research and their publication commitments.

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Appendix

Interview Questions

Topic: An Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis of English as a second language (ESL) Teachers' Motivational Beliefs in Developing Different Pedagogical Strategies

Interview Questions

1. Can you describe your pedagogical development in teaching English as a second language?

   Follow-up/modified questions based on the participants' responses:
   Can you tell me how you prepare for your lessons? Can you describe any instant changes you made, which deviated from your planned teaching routine during a class? Can you share your experiences in conducting follow-up teaching activities after lessons?

2. Can you describe the role(s) played by pedagogical development in ESL teaching in your institution?

   Follow-up/modified questions based on the participants' responses:
   Can you tell me about the similarities or differences in the role(s) in other subjects? Can you tell me about the similarities or differences in the role(s) in other higher educational institutions?

3. Can you describe the qualities of an ESL teacher who is motivated for pedagogical development?

4. Can you describe an occasion/occasions when you were motivated to develop different teaching practices when teaching ESL in your institution?

   Follow-up/modified questions based on the participants' responses:
   What do you think brought this about? How did you feel on the occasion(s) you described?

5. In what ways do you think your ESL teaching abilities influence your motivation for pedagogical development?

   Follow-up/modified questions based on the participants' responses:
   Can you describe the successful execution of a new teaching practice?

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6. Can you describe any changes in your motivation for pedagogical development in teaching ESL?
7. Can you tell me about how you could increase your motivation to improve your teaching practices?