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Motivation and Satisfaction with Choosing a Teaching Career as Perceived by Students and Teachers

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Abstract

Research Aim: The aim of the study was to identify differences in motivation for and satisfaction with choosing the teaching profession between working teachers and students preparing to become teachers.

Research Methods: The study used an original survey created by the author and a motivation questionnaire based on Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory, adapted to the teaching profession. The questionnaire consisted of 19 items measuring three dimensions of motivation for choosing the teaching profession: autonomous motivation (intrinsic motivation, integration, and identification), controlled motivation (extrinsic motivation and introjection), and amotivation (lack of motivation). The questionnaire also included two other questions, about satisfaction with the choice of profession and the extent to which the choice of the career had been thought over. The statistical analysis was performed using TIBCO Statistica 13.3 software.

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Brief Description of the Issue Context: The self-determination theory (SDT) allows for extensive research on human motivation (Liu et al., 2016). In this context, fostering the autonomy of both teachers and students has significant advantages in terms of educational outcomes compared to control-oriented strategies, i.e., those which rely more on extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2016).

Research Results: There were no statistically significant differences in the individual dimensions of motivation between working teachers and students. Among the respondents, autonomous forms of motivation were at the highest level, controlled motivation was at a slightly lower level, and amotivation reached the lowest level. However, it was noted that as many as one third of the teachers were not satisfied with their chosen career and were thinking of changing jobs. Those studying preschool and early childhood pedagogy had higher levels of autonomous and controlled forms of motivation and lower levels of amotivation compared to female students of speech therapy.

Conclusions and Recommendations: Due to the high percentage of people thinking about changing their profession, changes are needed that could increase the sense of satisfaction among teachers. It is also worth designing behavioral interventions that could encourage behavior that supports autonomous forms of student motivation.

***Keywords*:** motivation, job satisfaction, teacher, SDT theory

Introduction

The pace and scope of changes that are taking place in the modern world can be seen in all areas of our lives. As a consequence, education is a space full of challenges for all the subjects involved: teaching staff, students, and parents (Tchorzewski, 2018, pp. 178–181). The study examines teachers and students preparing for this profession, who—in deciding to choose this career path—should constantly improve their work, develop their skills of organizing the educational space in the changing reality, and, above all, try not to forget that their profession is perceived "as a vocation

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and mission, and passion which is above the average level" (Kwiatkowski, 2008, pp. 27–28). This article analyzes the motives behind the decision to follow a teaching career and examines how the challenges of the changing reality affect job satisfaction in those who have taken it up.

The Teaching Profession

Over the centuries, the role and significance of the teacher in society has changed. This has been conditioned primarily by the needs of the society creating an ideal image of those performing this function (Dąbrowska, 1999). As Bogdan Suchodolski pointed out, the teacher's role in the didactic/educational process is unique because

> all didactic ideas, aims, content, methods and principles of education and upbringing do not work automatically, but are fulfilled and brought to life thanks to the teacher […] for he/she is the organizer, the manager, and the guardian of this process. (Suchodolski, 1980, p. 698)

However, in the contemporary world, there is "a dissonance between social expectations of the teaching profession and the possibilities of meeting them" (Królikowska & Topij-Stepmińska, 2014). As the authors point out, it would be necessary to make expectations towards teachers more realistic, which, in practice, would mean lowering societal expectations and moving away from "the traditional role of the teacher as an 'information tube': an expert with a monopoly on the truth about the world and life who eagerly 'distributes' ready-made scenarios for successfully pursuing a career in life" (Królikowska & Topij-Stepmińska, 2014, p. 22). Remaining in such a model may lead to the total collapse of the profession' prestige.

As indicated by reports from the Center for Public Opinion Research (CBOS), the prestige of the teaching profession has been decreasing since the end of the 1990s. As late as 1999, it occupied third place in the classification (CBOS, 1999). In the 2013 research, out of 30 professions, the teacher

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was already in seventh place (CBOS, 2013), which was also true in 2019 (CBOS, 2019). In turn, research conducted in 2023 by the SW Research Institute on the most respected professions shows that teachers are in 11th place among the 40 professions on the list (SW Research Institute, 2023). As the results of the research show, unfortunately, the prestige of the teaching profession is decreasing with each decade and, although it still oscillates around the top ten, a downward trend is noticeable.

In 2015, the Educational Research Institute presented a report on the social and professional position of teachers. According to the data they presented, apart from the above-mentioned social change, the factors (mentioned by teachers) that reduce the prestige of the teaching profession include

> the lack of knowledge among the majority of society about the specific features of the job; teachers' self-presentation; the negative role of the media; low economic status; the low quality of teachers' education and work; the system of professional promotion; the lack of approval for increasing students' rights; the perception of the teaching profession in the eyes of students' parents; the relationships within the teaching community; and the role of trade unions. (Smak & Walczak, 2015)

The long list of factors lowering the prestige of the profession according to teachers participating in the research shows how multifaceted is the problem we are facing today. It is also worth emphasizing that this research noted the existence of a hierarchy of prestige within the teaching profession.

> Factors that differentiate respect for teachers include the size of the town or village, institutional factors embedded in the educational system (e.g., the importance of particular subjects or the specific features of educational stages), the organizational culture of the school (management style, relationships with the headmaster, or atmosphere within the teaching community), contact with others, student performance, and the personal characteristics of teachers. (Smak & Walczak, 2015)

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Given the numerous factors that lower the prestige of the profession and differentiate the respect towards its members, it is worth considering the sense of satisfaction from work among this professional group. The aforementioned factors may affect "the emotional reaction of pleasure or annoyance experienced in connection with the performance of specific tasks, functions, and roles" (Bańka, 2000, p. 329). Although professional satisfaction among teachers is primarily related to the sense of doing work that is helpful to others, treating the profession as a social mission, and an individual belief in their special professional role (Bajcar et al., 2011), in the current educational climate in Poland, many teachers may lose their sense of professional satisfaction, and, as a consequence, their motivation as well.

Motivation to Work

Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory of self-determination (SDT) assumes that there are three basic human needs: competence, autonomy, and relationship with others. The need for competence refers to effectiveness in performing tasks and achieving goals; the need for autonomy is the willingness to act according to one's own preferences, values, and goals, without external pressure; and the need for relationships is related to being with other people and experiencing acceptance and support from others. These needs are combined with the individual's own goals, which can be extrinsic or intrinsic, which is why it is important to differentiate intrinsic motivation from extrinsic motivation (Gillet et al., 2012).

Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000a) distinguished motivation from the lack of motivation, a lack of desire to act (Ryan, 2006), a lack of a sense of competence to act (Bandura, 1986; Deci, 1975), or a perceived inability to achieve a desired goal (Seligman, 1975). Motivation occurs when an individual believes that involvement in a behavior will lead to a desired outcome (Eyal & Roth, 2011). Motivation in the SDT is seen as a kind of fluid process of interpenetration of motivational impulses, from fully autonomous internal regulation to non-autonomous external regulation

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(Ryan & Deci, 2000a). We can further distinguish between partially controlled introjection, when an individual performs an activity in order to increase or maintain self-esteem, and partially autonomous identification and integration, which are associated with increasing internalization of motives (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b). Research indicates that extrinsic motivation and introjection are associated with negative psychological consequences even when the assumed task has been completed (Ryan et al., 1983), whereas autonomous types of motivation are associated with better performance and the individual's well-being (Baard et al., 2004; Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Taking into account the positive outcomes of employees' autonomous motivation and the costs associated with controlled motivation, it seems important to identify what may contribute to motivation of a particular type. Research within the SDT indicates that autonomous motivation increases in environments that support autonomy. They can be called democratic because they provide choice, encourage critical thinking, and communicate one's opinion (Assor et al., 2002; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Roth et al., 2009). In work environments characterized by pressure to behave in a certain way and not allowing for critical thinking, extrinsic motivation is more likely to be encountered (Stone et al., 2009). Teacher motivation determines the quality of teaching (Ahmadi et al., 2023; Colares et al., 2019). The more autonomous the teacher's motivation, the more democratic the teacher's teaching style (Pelletier et al., 2002), the higher the students' autonomous motivation to learn (Roth et al., 2007), and the lower the risk of the teacher suffering burnout (Roth et al., 2007).

Research Methodology

The aim of the study was to identify differences in motivation for the teaching profession and satisfaction with the choice of the career between working teachers and students preparing to become teachers. The following research questions were formulated:

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1. Does the level of autonomous, controlled motivation and the level of amotivation differ between future teachers and working teachers?
2. Does the level of satisfaction with the choice of the career differ between future teachers and working teachers?
3. What are the relationships between age, work experience, place of residence, degree of professional advancement, degree of consideration of the decision to choose a teaching profession, and the type of teaching specialization with the level of autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and amotivation?

A total of 138 women participated in the study: 75 students preparing to be teachers (53 students of preschool and early childhood pedagogy and 22 students of pedagogy with a specialization in speech therapy) and 63 teachers (15 working in preschools and 48 working in primary schools). The group selection resulted from the desire to learn about the motivation to pursue the teaching profession among people who work with children at the first stage of education and with those with special educational needs. The average age of the study group was 32±12.95 years, 22±1.75 in the student group and 43±11.50 in the teacher group. The teachers represented all three levels of professional promotion: 13 (20.63%) held the rank of a teacher trainee, 18 (28.57%) a nominated teacher, and 32 (50.8%) a diploma teacher.

The study used an original survey created by the author and a motivation questionnaire based on Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory and relating to the teaching profession. Self-report questionnaires are the most common method of measuring motivation in studies based on the SDT theory. The questionnaire consisted of 19 items that measured three dimensions of motivation for the teaching profession: autonomous motivation (intrinsic motivation, integration, and identification), controlled motivation (extrinsic motivation and introjection), and amotivation (lack of motivation). The autonomous motivation scale consisted of 10 items (for example: intrinsic motivation—"Teaching makes me happy"; identification—"Teaching allows me to shape values in children and young people"; integration—"Because teaching others has a personal

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meaning for me"). Its internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) had a value of 0.82. The controlled motivation scale consisted of six items (for example: extrinsic motivation—"Being a teacher provides a steady income"; introjection—"Because I would feel bad about not giving anything of myself to others"). Its internal consistency value was 0.53. The amotivation scale consisted of three items (for example, "I don't know why I do this job, as it serves no purpose"), and its internal consistency value was 0.63.

The respondents rated each of the 19 statements on how much it applied to them, using a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 meant "definitely not true about me" and 5 meant "definitely true about me." The questionnaire consisted of eight or nine questions related to the place of work (teachers) or residence (students); age; the type of school/type of studies; years in the profession (teachers) or year of study (students); coming from a family with a teaching tradition; satisfaction with the choice of the profession (two questions, including one descriptive question); the degree to which the choice of the career path was considered (scale of 1 to 5); and the degree of professional promotion (teachers).

The research was conducted in January 2024. All the participating students are studying at two Krakow pedagogical universities. Forty-four of the teachers (69.84%) who completed the questionnaire work in Krakow kindergartens and schools. The remaining respondents work in smaller towns and villages near Krakow. The respondents were personally asked to complete the questionnaires anonymously, each doing so at their own pace with unlimited time to share their reflections.

Statistical analysis was performed using TIBCO Statistica 13.3. Basic descriptive statistics of the research variables (mean, median, minimum, maximum, standard deviation, count, and percentage) were performed, along with chi-square tests for comparisons of the proportion of responses in a given category. Due to the non-normal distributions of the research variables, non-parametric analysis was carried out. The non-parametric Mann–Whitney U test (for comparisons between two groups) and non-parametric Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA (for comparisons between more than two groups) were used to determine differences between groups. Friedman's non-parametric analysis of variance, along with Wilcoxon's paired t-test comparisons,

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were used to determine differences in the dimensions of individual motivation (Bonferroni correction was applied for three comparisons; the established significance level for Wilcoxon's paired t-test was 0.017). Spearman's non-parametric correlation analysis was used to determine the relationships between variables. A significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ was adopted.

Research Results

Due to the non-normality of the distribution of all variables under study, median was chosen as the measure of central tendency. Among the teachers surveyed, the average length of service in the profession was 14 years; across the group, the degree of thinking over the decision to choose the teaching profession averaged 4 on a five-point scale, indicating a usually well-thought-out decision (Table 1). Variation was observed in the dimensions of individual motivation (Friedman's ANOVA = 206.17, n = 138, df = 2, $p < 0.001$). A detailed analysis comparing all dimensions of motivation showed that autonomous motivation was the highest, controlled motivation reached a significantly lower level, and amotivation, or the lack of motivation, was the lowest among the three dimensions of motivation.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Variables	n	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation
Autonomous motivation	138	41.80 (4.18)	**43.00 (4.30)**	23.00	55.00	6.88
Controlled motivation	138	18.99 (3.16)	**19.00 (3.17)**	9.00	28.00	3.91
Amotivation	138	5.18 (1.33)	**4.00 (1.33)**	3.00	12.00	2.42
Consideration before deciding	138	3.54	**4.00**	1.00	5.00	1.07
Age	138	31.58	**24.00**	20.00	71.00	12.95
Number of years in the profession	63	16.19	**14.00**	1.00	40.00	11.43

Values in brackets are given for the totals divided by the number of items.

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Traditions of teaching were more frequent among the working teachers than among the students (Table 2). Rural areas were more often indicated as students' place of residence, while large cities were more often indicated by teachers (Table 3). In general, most of the respondents were satisfied with their choice of career, but there were more such respondents among the students than among the teachers (Table 4). The majority of the respondents did not express a desire to change their job/discipline, but one in three teachers and one in five students considered such a possibility (Table 5).

Table 2. Number of Respondents Coming from a Family with Teaching Traditions

Teaching tradition	Total		Teachers		Students		Difference of proportions	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Chi-square	p-value
No	88	63.77	32	50.79	56	74.67	8.45	0.004
Yes	50	36.23	31	49.21	19	25.33		
Missing	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00		

Table 3 Number of respondents by place of work/residence

Place	Total		Teachers, Work/Residence		Students, Origin		Difference of proportions	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Chi-square	p-value
Village	55	39.86	6	9.52	49	65.33	61.86	<0.001
Small town	13	9.42	4	6.35	9	12.00		
Medium-sized city	19	13.77	9	14.29	10	13.33		
Large city	51	36.96	44	69.84	7	9.33		
Missing	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00		

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Table 4. Number of respondents satisfied with their career choice

Satisfied	Total		Teachers		Students		Difference of proportions	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Chi-square	p-value
No	23	16.67	20	31.75	3	4.00	18.38	<0.001
Yes	113	81.88	43	68.25	70	93.33		
Missing	2	1.45	0	0.00	2	2.67		

Table 5. Number of Respondents Willing to Change Job/Specialization

Willing to change	Total		Teachers		Students		Difference of proportions	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	Chi-square	p-value
No	102	73.91	42	66.67	60	80.00	3.16	0.076
Yes	36	26.09	21	33.33	15	20.00		
Missing	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00		

No differences were noted in the level of motivation or the degree of thinking over the career decision between the teachers and the students (Table 6).

Table 6. Differences in Motivation and Degree of Thinking over the Decision Between Teachers and Students

Motivation	Teachers, median	Students, median	U	Z	p-value	Teachers, n	Students, n
Autonomous	44.00	42.00	2144.00	0.93	0.351	63	75
Controlled	19.00	20.00	2087.50	-1.17	0.241	63	75
Amotivation	4.00	5.00	2130.50	-0.99	0.322	63	75
Decision to choose the profession	**Teachers, median**	**Students, median**	**U**	**Z**	**p-value**	**Teachers, n**	**Students, n**
	4.00	4.00	2249.00	0.48	0.629	63	75

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Among the teachers, there were no statistically significant differences in the individual dimensions of motivation or the degree to which the career decision was considered between those teaching in kindergartens and primary schools (Table 7).

Table 7. Motivation and Degree of Thinking over the Career Decision by Type of School

Motivation	Kindergarten teachers, median	Primary school teachers, median	U	Z	p-value	Kinder-garten teachers, n	Primary school teachers, n
Autonomous	44.00	42.52	345.50	-0.23	0.821	15	48
Controlled	19.00	18.65	357.00	0.04	0.968	15	48
Amotivation	6.00	4.73	271.00	1.43	0.153	15	48
Decision to choose the profession	**Kindergarten teachers, median**	**Primary school teachers, median**	**U**	**Z**	**p-value**	**Kinder-garten teachers, n**	**Primary school teachers, n**
	3.60	4	340.00	-0.31	0.753	15	48

Among the pedagogy students, however, differences in all dimensions of motivation and the degree of thinking over the decision to choose the teaching profession were observed between those studying preschool and early childhood pedagogy and students of pedagogy with a specialization in speech therapy (Table 8). Students of preschool and early childhood pedagogy had higher levels of autonomous and controlled motivation, lower levels of amotivation (lack of motivation), and a higher degree of considering the career choice than students of pedagogy with a specialization in speech therapy.

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Table 8. Motivation and Degree of Thinking over The Career Decision by Field of Study

Motivation	PECE, median	ST, median	U	Z	p-value	PECE, n	ST, n
Autonomous	43.00	37.50	309.00	3.18	0.001	53	22
Controlled	21.00	16.50	257.00	3.79	<0.001	53	22
Amotivation	4.00	5.50	398.50	-2.14	0.032	53	22
Decision to choose the profession	**PECE, median**	**ST, median**	**U**	**Z**	**p-value**	**PECE, n**	**ST, n**
	4.00	3.00	388.00	2.26	0.024	53	22

PECE – preschool and early childhood education; ST – pedagogy, specialization in speech therapy.

Those who expressed a desire to change jobs/specializations had lower levels of autonomous and controlled motivation and significantly higher levels of amotivation (lack of motivation) than those who had not considered such a change (Table 9).

Table 9. Motivation and Degree of Thinking over the Career Decision by Willingness to Change Jobs/Specializations

Motivation	Willingness to change		U	Z	p-value	Willingness to change	
	No, median	Yes, median				No, n	Yes, n
Autonomous	44.00	38.00	1144.50	3.35	0.001	102	36
Controlled	20.00	17.00	1046.00	3.83	0.000	102	36
Amotivation	4.00	7.00	1122.00	-3.46	0.001	102	36
Decision to choose the profession	**No, median**	**Yes, median**	**U**	**Z**	**p-value**	**No, n**	**Yes, n**
	4.00	3.50	1586.00	1.21	0.226	102	36

It was also noted that the higher the degree of thinking over the decision to choose the teaching profession, the lower the level of amotivation (lack of motivation) and the higher the level of autonomous and controlled motivation (Table 10). The age and number of years

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in the teaching profession were not statistically significantly related to motivation in the study group.

Table 10. Motivation vs. Age, Degree of Thinking over the Career Choice, and the Number of Years in the Profession

Variables	n	Spearman's Rho	t(N-2)	p-value
Age & Autonomous	138	0.06	0.74	0.462
Age & Controlled	138	-0.09	-1.06	0.291
Age & Amotivation	138	-0.08	-0.95	0.342
Decision to choose the profession & Autonomous	138	0.27	3.29	0.001
Decision to choose the profession & Controlled	138	0.31	3.83	<0.001
Decision to choose the profession & Amotivation	138	-0.20	-2.35	0.020
Number of years in the profession & Autonomous	63	0.02	0.17	0.865
Number of years in the profession & Controlled	63	0.14	1.09	0.281
Number of years in the profession &Amotivation	63	0.07	0.53	0.597

Among teachers, differences in levels of autonomous motivation ($H = 9.55$, $df = 3$, $n = 63$, $p = 0.023$) and amotivation ($H = 8.83$, $df = 3$, $n = 63$, $p = 0.032$) were found depending on the size of the town/village in which they worked. Those working in medium-sized towns had the lowest levels of autonomous motivation and the highest levels of amotivation (lack of motivation). There were no significant differences in the level of motivation according to the level of career promotion (autonomous motivation: $H = 3.84$, $df = 2$, $n = 63$, $p = 0.146$; controlled motivation: $H = 0.15$, $df = 2$, $n = 63$, $p = 0.928$; amotivation: $H = 5.69$, $df = 2$, $n = 63$, $p = 0.058$). Among the students, differences were found in the level of controlled motivation according to place of residence ($H = 7.82$, $df = 3$, $n = 75$, $p = 0.049$). Those living in rural areas and medium-sized cities had higher levels of this dimension of motivation than those living in small and large cities.

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Discussion

Understanding the role of motivation in human behavior is particularly important in education, as we prepare children to be autonomous and meet the challenges of living in the 21st century. The self-determination theory (SDT) allows for extensive research on human motivation (Liu et al., 2016). In the context of the SDT, fostering the autonomy of both teachers and students has significant advantages in terms of educational outcomes over control-oriented strategies, i.e., those that rely more on extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2016). Autonomous motivation was the largest contributor for the respondents, which leads us to believe that individuals with such motivation can enhance their students' intrinsic motivation. Research indicates that autonomously motivated students are more engaged, satisfied, and happy and less bored, anxious, and depressed (Howard et al., 2021); they are also able to learn more and they enjoy school (Taylor et al., 2014; Vasconcellos et al., 2020). It also indicates that most of the respondents are people for whom teaching is a passion (Vallerand, 2016). Interestingly, no statistically significant differences were noted in the individual dimensions of motivation between working teachers and students preparing to become teachers. The differentiation was only apparent after taking into account the place of work or residence of the respondents, which may be related to the socioeconomic conditions of the given locations. Particularly in the case of students, it can be seen that levels of extrinsic motivation and introjection were higher in rural areas, suggesting that in those locations the teaching profession is more likely to provide social recognition and satisfying financial gratification than in large cities. Perhaps greater differentiation would be visible when considering all five types of motivation or the needs that are key to the SDT: the need for autonomy, competence, and relationships with others (Deci & Ryan, 1985). However, we can also consider the possibility that the teaching profession allows us to meet these needs, which is why autonomous motivation was so high in the study group. It is worth adapting the methods of educating future teachers to the changing world, e.g., introducing more distance learning methods and using advanced

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technologies and activation methods, so that the need for competences is met at an increasingly higher level.

An interesting result was obtained with regard to satisfaction with having chosen the teaching career path. Among the working teachers, as many as one third of the respondents were not satisfied, while it was only four percent among students.

It is worth quoting a few statements from the teachers who are less satisfied with their career choice after years of work:

"I enjoy working with children; it gives me satisfaction, but, at the same time, the demands, e.g., from parents, and the imposed pace of work, make me feel overloaded, so this job satisfaction is not a constant" (teacher trainee; 3 years of experience)

"The current educational situation in Poland is very disappointing to me. When I started my job, I had enthusiasm and joy for what I was doing, I still love the contact with the young generation, but it is killing me to hear in the media what people think of us. The reality has nothing to do with it: although the salary is fixed, it is ridiculously low; I would prefer not to have two months of holiday, but to take holidays when I feel like it, not when I have to. And the frustrations of parents and their demanding attitude is the 'icing on the cake'!!!" (nominated teacher; 8 years of experience)

"The earnings are inadequate for the commitment, preparation time, and responsibility" (nominated teacher; 14 years of experience)

"There are pros and cons; the work is difficult, and the motivation is weak. People judge us more often by seeing our failures than our successes. I think if there was more support from the parents' community, it would be more pleasant to work" (diploma teacher; 18 years of experience)

These statements may indicate diminishing satisfaction as the teachers clash with the reality of schools, or the reality of the whole education

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system in Poland. In recent years, a number of developments have made Polish teachers feel increasingly uncomfortable in their role. The factors that have contributed to this situation include frequently changing regulations, frequent and large-scale reforms, low salaries compared to the average salary in the country, and the COVID-19 pandemic, which separated teachers from their students and forced them to deliver the school curriculum in a way they had not been prepared for, i.e., through remote teaching. Those who are studying pedagogy may have a more idealized image of the teacher's work that has not yet been verified. The finding that one third of teachers are unsatisfied is an alarm bell for the system, as exactly this percentage of people are considering changing their jobs. In large cities, there is already a shortage of teachers and many vacancies. In smaller towns, the situation is less acute for the time being, but, without change it will only get worse. Also, one cannot assume that young people will stay in the profession for long: there may be an increase in teachers resigning after a few months on the job. The quality of education is also important. If teachers stay in the job but do not find it a source of satisfaction, it will be difficult for them to trigger autonomous forms of motivation, which will result in the students' performing poorly at school (Deci & Ryan, 2016; Pelletier & Rocchi, 2016).

Limitations and Future Research

The research was conducted on a small sample of people, which means that it was not possible to achieve a wide diversity of respondents in terms of the type of workplace, place of residence, and field of studies. In such a situation, it is also more difficult to identify weaker effects (Cohen, 1992). Cross-gender comparisons would also be of interest, especially with regard to gender stereotypes and the declining prestige of the teaching profession.

Generalizing the results to the general population of teachers and students should be approached with caution, also because the respondents may have avoided giving very frank answers. Such objections may

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have been the result of uncertainty about the actual anonymity of the research, as the respondents knew that one of the authors was not only a school teacher, but also an instructor of pedagogy. This may have shifted the responses towards what the respondents consider positive.

It would also be important to tailor the motivation questionnaire more to the teaching profession, because only the autonomous motivation scale showed high reliability in this study. It would be worth creating a tool that would allow for the proper examination of all five types of motivation and amotivation in the context of the teaching profession and to develop standards for assessing a particular type of motivation in a particular individual with reference to the population. The tool could then serve as a self-reporting tool and could be used for preventing burnout or for interventions to enhance autonomous motivation. Such behavioral interventions are highly beneficial in relation to teachers since they have a strong influence on students and because teachers' behavior is susceptible to change (Reeve & Cheon, 2021; Ryan & Deci, 2020; Su & Reeve, 2011).

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