Teacher emotion, emotional labor and teacher identity

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A growing number of researchers suggest that teachers leave the profession at high rates during the first few years of teaching (Achinstein, 2006; Kersaint et al., 2007). These estimates are even higher in schools that serve minorities and English Language Learners (ELL) (Jacob, 2007). Excessive teacher turnover is costly to society, schools, and most importantly to students. Researchers have suggested that one explanation for this exodus is the emotional nature of the teaching profession (e.g., Schutz and Zembylas, 2009). They suggest that teaching involves considerable emotional labor, which involves the effort, planning, and control teachers need to express “appropriate” emotions. Emotional labor has been associated with job dissatisfaction, health symptoms and emotional exhaustion, which are key components of professional burnout. In this chapter we will discuss how teachers’ emotional experiences and emotional labor associated with those experiences are intimately related to their emerging teacher identities. In addition, we will discuss the importance of social, emotional, contextual factors and how those factors may influence teachers’ identity development and their decisions to stay or leave the profession.

[I was talking to a] kid last night and I told him about my experiences, my life, and I told him this is one of the hardest jobs I have ever done, being a teacher. And he looked at me and was like, really sir, and I was like yeah I never realized how difficult it is to be teacher. And I think it’s because of all those things, those emotions that you deal with. (Mr. Guerrero quoted in Schutz et al., 2012)

1 Introduction

Every year a large number of early career teachers enter classrooms around the world. Like Mr. Guerrero, these early career teachers enter the teaching profession armed with, among other things, their goal to be a teacher, the training they received, and an emerging idea of whom they are as a teacher (Schutz et al., 2001). Unfortunately, there are also a number of reports that suggest that many of those same teachers are leaving the profession at high rates (Achinstein, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 1999; Kersaint et al., 2007; Ulvik et al., 2009). In the USA these reports suggest that nearly 30% to 50% of teachers leave the profession within the first five years (Alliance for Excellent Education 2004; Ingersoll, 2003; Quality Counts 2000). Even more problematic, these attrition rates tend to be higher in schools that serve students of color and English language learners (Jacob, 2007).
A number of researchers are now suggesting the high level of teacher exodus may be related to the emotional nature of the teaching process (see Schutz and Pekrun, 2007; Schutz and Zembylas, 2009). Teaching, among other things, involves managing complex emotional classrooms transactions that tend to be even more pressing for novice teachers who are rarely prepared to manage the emotional events that are an endemic part of teaching and working within school contexts. Therefore, it is not surprising that many teachers leave early in their career: some are simply ill equipped to deal with the emotional transactions involved in their profession. As such, this exodus tends to be higher among early career teachers in part because of the potential emotionality of teaching, which may lead to job dissatisfaction, health symptoms, and emotional exhaustion (Jackson et al., 1986; Maslach, 1982; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Schaubroek and Jones, 2000).

Excessive teacher turnover during the first few years is problematic for many reasons. First and foremost, it hurts students. It takes years for teachers to fully develop their craft and yet too many students (especially our high needs students) repeatedly encounter newer, less prepared, and less knowledgeable teachers. In addition, teacher turnover also results in lost revenue from the cost of professional development for new teachers; it results in the dissolution of relationships with families, the community, and the school; and, finally, high turn over makes long-term educational reform efforts difficult (Schutz et al., 2012). As such, Cowie (2011), who explored how language teachers experience their teaching environment, contended that the emotional aspects in language teaching is important to consider and a key aspect of becoming a successful teacher.

In this chapter we discuss how teachers’ emotional experiences and emotional labor associated with those experiences are intimately related to their emerging teacher identities. In addition, we will discuss emotions episodes in the language classroom and how those episodes may influence teachers’ identity development and their decisions to stay or leave the profession. Finally we will offer some conclusions regarding teacher emotions.

2 Teacher emotion episodes

Generally researchers suggest that emotional episodes consist of cognitive appraisals, physiological responses, affective feeling, and behavioral tendencies (e.g. Frijda, 2000; Izard, 2007; Russell and Barrett, 1999; Schutz et al., in press; Smith, 1991). Schutz et al., (2006) further elaborated on this view by also emphasizing social and historical aspects that shape an emotional episode. They described emotional experiences as “socially constructed, personally enacted ways of being that emerge from conscious and/or unconscious judgments regarding perceived successes at attaining
goals or maintaining standards or beliefs during transactions as part of social-historical contexts (p. 344).”

As indicated emotions involve judgments or appraisals about what is occurring during a particular classroom event (Pekrun et al., 2007; Schutz et al., 2007). Basically, teachers’ goals, values, and beliefs, act as referent points used to judge where they are in relation to where they want to be (Carver and Scheier, 2000; Schutz and Davis, 2000). These goals, values, and beliefs represent ways teachers’ position themselves during classroom activities (Schutz et al., 2010).

These appraisals involve teachers’ perceptions of how the activity is going, related to their goals and plans for that activity. In most cases, these judgments occur outside of awareness, yet they are key to an emotional episode (Frijda, 2000; Lazarus, 1991; Pekrun et al., 2007; Schutz and Davis, 2000; Smith, 1991). Researchers have found it useful to make a distinction between primary and secondary appraisals (Lazarus, 1991; Schutz and Davis, 2000). Primary appraisals are related to how important teachers perceive the outcome to be. For primary appraisal, Lazarus (1991) talks about judgments related to goal relevance (i.e., is it important to the teachers’ goals?), goal congruence (i.e., is the activity going how the teacher thought it would?), and the type of ego or identity involvement (i.e., how much of the teachers’ self or one’s identity is involved?). For example, if a particular teacher thinks that preparing students for standardized tests is an important aspect of their role as teacher -- a student’s slight off task behavior during an “important” test preparation activity may be scrutinized more closely resulting in judgments that the event was not going as planned, which may result in the emergence of unpleasant teacher emotions. On the other hand, if the test preparation activity was going as planned, it is more likely that pleasant emotions would emerge.

Secondary appraisals are judgments that teachers make about their potential to handle what is occurring during a particular activity. Two secondary appraisals that are key to our discussion here are perceptions of autonomy (Lazarus, 1991; Schutz & Davis, 2000; Pekrun et al., 2007) (i.e., Am I in control of this situation?) and problem efficacy (Schutz and Davis, 2000), (i.e., Am I confident I will be able to handle this situation?). These secondary appraisals help differentiate among potential emotion episodes. Consequently, a situation that has been appraised as goal important (i.e., “It’s important for my students to do well on this standardized test”) and goal incongruent (i.e., “My students did really badly on that practice test”), with secondary appraisals of self-blame (i.e., “I knew I should have done a better job of teaching”) may result in shame. Alternatively, the same situation with secondary appraisals of other blame (i.e., “These standardized tests don’t measure what my students know”) may result in anger. In terms of pleasant emotions, if the situation was appraised as goal important (i.e.,
It’s important for my students to do well on this standardized test’’) and goal congruent (i.e., ‘‘My students did really well on that practice test’’), with secondary appraisals of being in control and able to handle any problems (i.e., ‘‘I thought those teaching strategies would help my students!’’) may result in pride and enjoyment.

It is important to also indicate that these emotions are also related to teacher motivation. Schumann (2001) argued that teacher motivation is, in part related to how language teacher appraisals events in the classroom. For instance, appraising oneself as being in control and able to handle the situation tends to facilitate successful outcomes and pleasant emotions such as pride and joy, whereas appraising oneself as not able to handle the situation may facilitate failure outcomes and unpleasant emotions such as frustration and anger; thus, influencing to the potential for success in second language learning classrooms.

3 Emotional labor

As indicated, for teachers as well as students, the classroom has the potential for a variety of emotional episodes that range from the overwhelming enjoyment of seeing your students understand a difficult concept to the intense frustration of attempting to deal with the constraints of a student’s challenging home life. However, Williams-Johnson and her colleagues (2008) also found that teachers sometime find it necessary to suppress or avoid displaying certain emotions in the classroom. Other researchers have also suggested, that within the context of classroom activity settings, teachers are expected to display emotions in particular ways (Morris and Feldman, 1996; Williams-Johnson et al., 2008; Zembylas, 2003, 2005). These emotional display rules can be defined as the standards or norms for the appropriate emotional expression during classroom transactions. Thus, emotional labor is the work or effort teachers use to present various roles or identities during school related transactions. Which means that, during transactions in the school context teachers’ express, repress, or generate emotions based on perceived needs during particular activities (William-Johnson et al., 2008). In other words, there are certain expected social-historical based ways of expressing emotion. For teacher this generally means that during most transactions with students, they are expected to show pleasant emotions and suppress their unpleasant felt emotions (Schaubroek and Jones, 2000; Williams-Johnson et al, 2008).

The expectation to that teachers expected to show some emotions and suppress others creates the potential for emotional dissonance or a conflict between what a teacher is actually feeling and the perceived display rules expected to follow. Hochschild (1983) referred to act of having feeling one way while trying to portray a different feeling as “surface acting.” In other
words, when teachers try to wear a “mask” in a effort to show their students one emotions, they are suppressing their real feelings and, instead, present a facade as if they feel them. On the other hand, deep acting refers to the teachers attempt to actually feel the emotions that they need to express and spend effort to regulate their own genuine emotions.

The expectation that teachers are obliged to follow particular display rules has been associated with the idea of emotional labor (Morris and Feldman, 1996; Zembylas, 2005). Morris and Feldman (1996) define emotional labor “as the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (p. 987). In the area of occupational psychology, researchers have suggested that emotional labor is related to emotional exhaustion (a key component of burnout), job satisfaction, and health symptoms (Maslach, 1982; Jackson et al, 1986; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Schaubroek & Jones, 2000). Research into emotional labor in teaching and other aspects of teachers’ emotions is becoming increasingly important not only because of the growing number of teachers leaving the profession, but also because unpleasant classroom emotions have considerable implications for student learning, school climate and the quality of education in general. In addition, these emotional episodes and the emotional labor associated with them have the potential to influence how teachers see themselves as teachers – or their teacher identities.

4 Teacher identities

Teachers’ identities involve both the ways in which teachers perceive themselves (as teachers) and the ways they portray themselves to their students (Schutz et al., 2007). These identities continuously change, evolve, and emerge as teachers transact among social historical contexts over the course of their teaching lives (Danielewicz, 2001; Zembylas, 2003; Cross and Hong, 2009; Hong, 2010). This construction and reconstruction of their identities is based not only on the continually changing self-knowing of teachers, but also on teachers’ continually changing perceptions of the profession itself. Thus, what teachers know about themselves, their perception of the characteristics and nature of the teaching profession, and their beliefs about their roles are all interrelated in forming and transforming their teacher identities.

A key aspect of teachers’ changing identities revolves around the emotions associated with the teaching process. For example, Nias (1996) indicated that teachers invest their “selves” in their work. This investment includes emotional episodes that provide salient evidence regarding one’s evolving identity commitments. During emotional transactions, teachers’ emerging identities not only influence their actions and emotions, but their actions and emotions also influence their professional identity formation. As such,
teacher identities and emotion are not linear or unidirectional; rather, they are inextricably related to each other through an ongoing, multidirectional, transactional process. For example, some unpleasant emotions may represent a challenge to existing identity-related beliefs and goals about student learning, whereas, pleasant emotional episodes about student learning may suggest a confirmation of emerging identities. In English language class, teachers may feel frustrated when students’ performance did not reach teachers’ academic goals for their outcomes, especially given that performance in English is important for students’ academic careers. In this situation, teachers might reconsider their teacher identity, by asking themselves: ‘can I do good job as an English teacher?’ On the other hand, teachers may experience enjoyment or pride, when they see their students being successful while explaining difficult vocabulary items using the words they learned in class, without giving up. These successes might provide teachers with an opportunity to reinforce their identity as English teacher. New teachers begin with beliefs and goals about their students and the roles they will be “playing” as a teacher (Cross and Hong, 2009; Van Veen and Sleegers, 2009; Hong, 2010; Schutz et al., 2012). These beliefs and goals can range from being useful to not useful and yet they act as reference points or standards used by teachers to judge what happens during classroom transactions. For example, students’ actions and reactions may be compared to idealized versions of how students “should” act in the classroom (Flores and Day, 2006). When students’ behaviors are in line with teachers’ perceptions of how the classroom should be and are associated with pleasant emotions and those salient identities may be strengthened. However, when there is a discrepancy among a teacher’s current identity beliefs and what is actually occurring in the classroom, there is the potential for those identities to be challenged, resulting in potential changes in those identities (Schutz et al., 2007; Cross and Hong, 2009). When students are compliant, it confirms pleasant emotions about being respected. When students are defiant, frustration can lead to doubt about emergent teacher roles. Thus, it is important to keep in mind that it is difficult to separate teachers’ professional identities from teachers’ emotional experiences, how they display those emotions, and the contexts in which those emotions arise (Schutz et al., 2007).

Recently, scholars have elaborated on the role that emotions play in changing and maintaining teacher identities (Carlyle and Woods, 2002; Flores and Day, 2006; Schutz et al., 2007; Cross and Hong, 2009; Schutz et al., 2009; Schutz et al., 2012; Van den berg, 2002). These researchers provide evidence for relationships between unpleasant emotions and the adjustment of teacher identities. In one example, Carlyle and Wood (2002: 77) quote Morag, a 25-year-old arts teacher, who said, ‘‘the stress of teaching splits you up so you don’t know who you are any more.’’ Thus teachers’ identities can
be constructed and reconstructed through changing beliefs related to the experience of pleasant emotions such as enjoyment and pride in one’s student accomplishments as well as unpleasant emotions, such as anger and frustration leading to feelings of being burned out.

In language education, Varghese and colleagues (2005) argue that, “in order to understand language teaching and learning we need to understand teachers: the professional, cultural, political, and individual identities, which they claim or which are assigned to them” (p. 22). As mentioned, recently researchers have investigated language teacher identity. For example, Miller (2009) “places identity and discourse at the heart of language teaching and learning” (p. 172). Yet, teacher identity related to English language learning has received little attention by researchers (Varghese et al., 2005; Reeves, 2009; Farrell, 2011). Existing studies have heavily focused on novice teachers (e.g., Amin, 1997; Varghese et al., 2005; Park, 2007; Farrell, 2012), while scholars have paid little attention to the identity of experienced language teachers. Consideration of language teacher identity for both novice teachers and experienced teachers is important in professional development since their identities are fundamental to the beliefs, assumptions, values, and practices (Farrell, 2011), which will be also crucially taken into the pre-service teacher training.

In particular, the issue of teacher identity in relation to English language learners may need to be considered differently compared to other subject areas, given that English language learners may be a more heterogeneous group (Reeves, 2009). For example, their students are linguistically as well as cultural newcomers from potentially a variety of countries, creating multilingual and multicultural classroom environments. In fact, the enrollment of English language learners to public schools in English speaking countries (e.g., the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand) is rapidly increasing (Reeves, 2009). These dynamic situations demand that English language teachers change their instructional practices, which in turn generates dilemmas in that they may not been prepared during their professional training (Arkoudis and Davison, 2002). Without question, English language teachers will experience challenges to their emerging identities from their unique circumstances.

Recently, Farrell (2011) categorized three main clusters in professional role identities of English language teachers: Teacher as Manager (Attempt to control everything that happens in classroom), Teacher as Acculturator (Helps students get accustomed to life outside class), and Teacher as Professional (Teachers dedicated to their work; take it seriously). Probably the identities of, Teacher as Manager and Teacher as Professional, can be applied to teachers of all subjects. However, the role identity of Teacher as Acculturator is something that may make English language professionals somewhat unique (Farrell, 2011). To illustrate, when students move to a new
country, they tend to start with language learning, as such, language teachers may be the students’ first contacts and tend to be expected to provide advice and support to students on top of the language lessons. Thus, these teachers may also develop a caregiver role for students in this respect, which may be a less likely expectation for other subject teachers who may not be fluent in the student’s first language.

In addition, Duff and Uchida (1997) describes language teachers as cultural workers, because teachers “play a key role in the construction of the learners’ views of their homes; their understandings of unfamiliar belief systems, values and practices; and their negotiations of new social relationships” (Hawkins and Norton, 2009: 32) for students who just come into their new school and new community. In essence, the role of “Teacher as Acculturator” is not just for the long-term educational needs of their students but also the short-term entry into a new culture – a role that teachers of other subjects may not feel as acutely.

As such, it is evident that in order to understand English language teaching and learning as well as to help students learn their target language (English) more effectively, understanding teachers in the first place is essential. In order to understand teachers, we should have a clear perspective of who they are: “the professional, cultural, political, and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned them” (Varghese et al., 2005: 22). In other words, we have to pay attention to comprehend how language teachers shape their identities among others in their teacher education program, and with students in their schools and classrooms (Varghese et al., 2005).

5 Emotions episodes in the language classroom

Consideration of the importance of affective factors in students’ language learning is not new (Arnold, 2011). In fact, two affective domains have received considerable attention from researchers in the field of language learning: student language anxiety and second language motivation. First, in foreign language learning anxiety has been considered as an influential emotional factor (Oxford, 1999); accordingly, numerous studies on language anxiety have been conducted (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994; Truitt, 1995; Price, 1999; Horwitz, 2001). For example, Horwitz and colleagues (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). They proposed that three components of foreign language anxiety are communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Most studies on foreign language anxiety demonstrated negative impacts of anxiety on performance in language learning, focusing on emotions from students’ perspectives. Nevertheless, we can assume that
teacher emotional experiences will be affected by student emotional sufferings in language class, which might lead teachers to reconsider about their roles as teachers. To illustrate, if teachers face students suffering high test anxiety, they might feel sympathy or caring for these students, and accordingly considering themselves as a caregiver role.

Another area of research on affective factors in foreign language learning is second language motivation. Scholars in second language motivation research have concentrated on the combinations of two motivation dichotomies: integrative (learning a second language to integrate into a community or a cultural group where the second language is being spoken) vs. instrumental (learning a second language for specific purposes, for example, to get admitted to a post-secondary institution), and intrinsic (learning a second language with enjoyment for one’s own self-fulfillment without any external pressure) vs. extrinsic motivation (learning a second language forced by others such as parents, society, or schools, and often influenced by some sort of rewards such as grades) (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Dörnyei, 1998; Noels et al., 2001). These researchers suggest that integrative and intrinsic motivation constructs are the most important predictors for successful language learning, because learners with high integrative and intrinsic motivation demonstrate more positive perceptions of their academic competency, perceived autonomy, persistence, lower language anxiety and positive attitudes towards language learning, which influences their academic achievement positively. When teachers have the highly motivated students in their class, they might experience more pleasant emotions such as enjoyment or pride in themselves and their students, whereas they might have sympathy, frustration, or anger for students with lower motivation. According to students (with higher motivation or lower motivation), teachers will have to adapt their roles differently. However, as noted, these studies focused on affective variables from language learners’ perspectives and not the teachers’ side. In fact, although recently researchers are beginning to pay attention to teacher emotions (e.g., Hargreaves, 1998; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Cross and Hong, 2009; Frenzel et al., 2009; Schutz et al., 2009), they have been implementing studies in general education contexts rather than within the ELL context (Cowie, 2011). With a few exceptions (Horwitz, 1996; Stanley, 1999; Bress, 2006; Mousavi, 2007), there has been little research on investigating comprehensive emotions and English language teaching. For example, Horwitz (1996) and Mousavi (2007) investigated the anxiety of nonnative speaker teachers due to their possible language deficiency. Stanley (1999) maintains that unpleasant emotions can have a negative influence on teachers’ teaching abilities. In addition, Bress (2006) found that English language teachers experience stress mainly because of lack of time, unwanted classroom observation, and uncooperative relationships with colleagues.
However, even from these studies it is difficult to understand a clear research outline or consistent approach (Cowie, 2011). With a few exceptions, there has been little empirical research investigating how language teachers’ approach or perceive the affective domain in the classroom. For instance, Aydin (2009) demonstrated that English language teachers in Turkey gave importance to the affective side in their classes in general, but this study has a limitation to demonstrate whether the teachers really apply what they believe to make effective language teaching. More recently, Saeidi and Jabbarpour (2011) explored the relationship between teachers’ social and affective strategy use and students’ academic performance in English language class. They argue that language teachers should use affective strategies (e.g., sense of humor, positive attitude, fairness, encouragement, and politeness) in order to lead successful teaching and to improve students’ achievement.

As such, there is a gap in studies on the affective domain focusing on teachers’ perspectives, although it is clear that investigating how teachers approach the affective domain of language teaching will provide understanding their attitudes toward students, which greatly influences the way they teach to promote more efficient learning and teaching environments. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that researchers pay more attention to studies on how teachers approach the affective domain, in particular emotions, in the language classroom.

6 Conclusions

Overall it is clear that classrooms are emotional places and the language learning classroom, because of it unique role in the education process, is no exception. As indicated, over the last ten years there has been increased interest in the teacher emotion in the classroom. As a result of these research efforts, we are beginning to develop some understandings of emotions, emotional labor and their influence on teachers’ developing identities. As noted earlier, although recently researchers have investigated teacher identity related to English language learning, existing studies have mostly focused on novice teachers with a conspicuous lack of research on the identity of experienced language teachers who may be useful in understanding how to be successful in those classroom. For future studies, researchers might give more empirical attention to language teacher identity for not only novice teachers but also experienced teachers, since teacher identities are central to their beliefs, assumptions, values, and practices (Farrell, 2011), which will be also crucially taken into consideration for the professional development training for pre-service teachers.

In particular, the professional training for language teachers might be considered differently compared with the training for other subject teachers,
given that English classroom environments are more dynamic with multilingual and multicultural learners. English language teachers should be prepared to deal with these dynamic situations because these special teaching environments might require English language teachers to modify their instructional practices a great deal. We suggest that most of all, it would be important to make some sort of collaboration (e.g., connection programs) among language teacher educators, teachers, and school administrators. Through this collaboration, teachers can be better supported for more successful management in these dynamic teaching environments (Farrell, 2012). This consideration might be even more crucial for novice teachers who suddenly have no further connection with their previous educators. If they still have contacts with teacher educators, the support from their educators can help make a smooth transition of their challenging first years teaching and experience joy of teaching, before they think about leaving their teaching career.

Teachers also need to be encouraged to share their experiences, especially with their fellow teachers, their teacher educators, and school administrators. As it is shown in a Cowie’s (2011) recent study, teachers reported that although sometimes they wanted to change or leave their profession as an English language teacher, they have decided to stay because they collaborated with their colleagues, and shared some sense of identity as a fellow professional, which means were getting emotional support from one another. Writing reflective stories about their own experiences in real classrooms also could be a good way to make sense of their experiences (Farrell, 2011, 2012). These reports can be used in pre-service teacher training so that pre-service teachers can be better prepared for their teaching in real classrooms. This would be possible when there exists effective collaboration between teachers and teacher educators.

In addition, it might be necessary to include a supplementary course in language teacher programs that especially explores these kinds of dynamic classroom environment, given that there is still no agreement for what specific courses to be offered in the field of teaching English as a second language (Farrell, 2012). In this supplementary course, for example, the reports from in-service teachers can be used as part of course materials.

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8 Recommended reading


The author describes the role of identity development of experienced ESL teachers, therefore providing insights into the influence of identity and reflective practice on the teaching process.


The authors provide strong theoretical and empirical evidence for the emotional lives of teachers.


The author provides evidence and insight into the beginning teachers identities and how those developing identities transact with feeling and thoughts about dropping out of the profession.


In this chapter the authors unpack the relationships among identities, beliefs and goals and how those transactions are related to classroom emotions.

9 Questions for reflection and discussion

- Do you know people who have left the teaching profession? What sort of reasons did provide as to why they decided to quit teaching?
- The authors suggest that emotions emerge from how we think about and make judgments about our daily events. Think about the last time you were angry – what appraisal or judgments did you make?
- When you think about your own identities – Who are you? How have your identities changed over time? Would you describe yourself the same way as you would have ten years ago?
- What are some of the reasons why you think the emotions that emerge in a language classroom are different than a regular classroom? In what ways are they the same?
technology-enhanced context. She has published in French and in English, as
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classroom discourse analysis and learning, learning and communicating
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autonomous and distance learning, the role of L1 in FL learning, assessment
and certification, adult foreign language education as well as teacher
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News and Comment*, a lead journal for the American Educational Research
Association. He recently published two co-edited books that highlight current
research on emotion: *Emotion in education* (2007) with Reinhard Pekrun
(Academic Press) and *Advances in teacher emotion research: The impact on

**Mikyoung Lee** is a PhD student in the Department of Educational
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