Abstract: The onset of the COVID-19 pandemic prompted a rapid shift to Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT). Social networks had a key role in supporting the educational community in facing challenges and opportunities. A quantitative study was conducted to assess the Greek teachers’ perceptions of social network support. Findings indicated that teachers turned to universities, educational institutions, the Ministry of Education, school support groups, and virtual communities for support. Additionally, the study revealed the barriers faced by teachers, including infrastructure limitations, technical difficulties, skill deficiencies, problems with students’ engagement, and school policies. Teachers’ evaluation of support regarding ERT provided fruitful insight. The results illustrate teachers’ perspectives on ERT, contributing to the ongoing discourse on educational resilience to unpredictable disruptions. In conclusion, the role of social networks was considered as critical for the teachers to overcome barriers during ERT with the formation of social communities for support and the sharing of common experiences. Expertise in internet use and social networking played a significant role in readiness for the abrupt shift to distance education. The present study uniquely contributes to the educational field by emphasizing the role of teachers’ support as an innovative approach to holistically enhance teachers’ performance in ERT.

Keywords: social networks; pedagogy; emergency remote teaching; support; obstacles; sources of support

1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic affected countries worldwide and forced governments to full or partial lockdowns, accompanied by stringent containment measures. Citizens stayed at home. In many countries, educational organizations were encouraged to switch from face-to-face education to Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT) to ensure the continuity of the teaching process and prevent educational loss [1]. Due to the national lockdown in Greece, educational institutions were forced to shut down, including universities and schools. Face-to-face instruction was replaced by remote instruction through online learning systems. Teachers’ success in ERT depended on support that addressed their technological, pedagogical, and psychological needs [2–4].

The abrupt shift to remote education during the COVID-19 pandemic highlighted various challenges. Teachers expressed concerns and faced an increased workload due to the sudden shift to e-learning, insufficient training in online teaching methodologies, and the emotional strain of adapting to a new teaching environment [5–7]. This resulted in reduced professional involvement [8] and increased attrition levels [5,9], which negatively impacted students’ academic performance [10].
As a result, there was a pressing need to determine the type of support that should be provided to teachers during the pandemic crisis. Additionally, it was crucial to identify the challenges/obstacles teachers encountered during the ERT implementation. It was also important to understand where teachers searched for support during this period and to evaluate their experiences. To obtain these insights, a questionnaire was administered to collect teachers’ opinions during the first three months of the physical closure of the school. The results provide a valuable foundation for enhancing ERT in post-pandemic pedagogy.

The primary objective of this exploratory study was to analyze the support requirements of teachers, the challenges they encounter, and the available support sources. Moreover, the study also aimed to assess teachers’ overall evaluation of the importance of ERT. To ensure a thorough investigation, a comprehensive approach was adopted to capture the needs as reported by the teachers. The central concern was to gain a deeper understanding of how teachers cope with the challenges of the pandemic and sustain their professional development. Focus areas of exploration that guided this study were as follows:

1. Identify teachers’ needs for support: The study aimed to understand and document the specific needs of teachers during the transition to ERT. These needs encompassed technological, psychological, and pedagogical support.

2. Explore obstacles and difficulties: The research sought to uncover the obstacles and difficulties faced by the teachers while implementing ERT. These challenges included issues related to infrastructure, technical difficulties, lack of skills, student participation, and school policies.

3. Examine support sources: The study investigated the various sources of support available to teachers during ERT, including universities, educational institutions, the Ministry of Education, school support groups, and virtual communities.

4. Evaluate teachers’ perceptions and preferences: The research delved into teachers’ perceptions regarding the support they received and their technological capabilities. The study also examined their satisfaction with students’ participation and their overall perception of the significance of ERT.

In summary, this study sought to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the needs, challenges, and role of teacher support and support sources during the ERT transition. Through an in-depth examination of teachers’ needs, obstacles, and support sources, this research holds promise in providing valuable guidance and recommendations to enhance their proficiency in online teaching and to effectively cope with the personal repercussions of emergency situations. Overall, this research contributes to a thorough comprehension of ERT, furnishing insights aimed at enhancing teachers’ effectiveness in emergency teaching situations. Ultimately, the findings contribute to the development of effective strategies to enhance teachers’ performance and well-being during ERT.

2. Related Work
2.1. Types of Support

The main types of support addressed in the present study were technology, pedagogy, and psychology.

Technological support: In response to the critical emergency conditions, ERT was adopted as a temporary measure to facilitate the continuation of coursework in a virtual environment [11]. According to Moorhouse and Kohnke [12], ERT entailed the adaptation of courses for online instruction under critical circumstances, utilizing technology to enable remote interaction between teachers and students. However, despite the potential benefits of ERT in ensuring continuity of online teaching, educators encountered various and significant challenges during the implementation process. These challenges included inadequate infrastructure, insufficient experience and support, increased workload and stress, limited access to resources and limited professional development opportunities, as well as connectivity problems [13–16]. In Trust and Whalen’s [17] research, teachers argued that they struggled to teach with technological tools remotely without being adequately prepared. Furthermore, the study implied that teachers who had previous experience with
digital technologies reported a more seamless transition to ERT, while those without such experience faced challenges and had to learn new methodologies on the fly. As a result, reinforcing teachers’ digital skills could improve the effectiveness of online and distance education and fortify the digital readiness in education [18]. Bagdy and Stefaniak [19] proposed that teachers should undertake a rapid needs assessment to identify immediate needs and challenges related to teaching, learning and environmental affordances, as well as limitations to infrastructural support required for ERT environments.

Despite remote teaching being considered as a viable alternative mode of instruction, the sudden shift from traditional in-person classrooms to online learning has proven to exacerbate the digital divide in rural areas [20].

**Pedagogical support:** Pedagogy is concerned with the transfer of knowledge and skills within a learning environment [21]. Digital pedagogy is a flexible educational framework that can adapt to changes in sociocultural norms, economy, and technology. By utilizing digital pedagogy, a strong bond can be established between technology, teachers, and students as highlighted by [22]. Howell [23] suggested that digital pedagogy could be used to describe the study of teaching with digital tools. Digital pedagogy emphasizes technology-enabled learning, and the relationship between technology and pedagogy. After the pandemic onset, Kaden [24] advocated that the preparation for online teaching was focused more on incorporating multimedia and digital resources rather than on online teaching pedagogy. Teachers with limited working experience faced significant challenges in designing and implementing effective pedagogies during ERT. The challenge of shifting teaching practices online with a pedagogical orientation was attributed to lack of preparedness and training [25]. The researchers found that teachers expressed the need to improve their pedagogical methods [25].

To promote pedagogical transformation in line with learning theories, it is necessary to have learner-centered instruction and adaptable learning environments [26]. Nevertheless, teachers’ perspectives on technology integration demonstrate that technology has often been used for basic content delivery and lacking proper pedagogical alignment [27]. Digital pedagogy training is a critical factor for ERT, facilitating effective ERT. This training is essential in equipping instructors with the necessary skills and knowledge to deliver quality education in digital classrooms.

**Psychological support:** ERT has caused educators to feel a sense of loneliness and isolation due to lack of real-time support [28]. Maas et al. [29] emphasized the importance of social support in enhancing teachers’ well-being. Furthermore, the emotional and social dimension, including a sense of belonging and colleague support, proved indispensable due to the additional pressure that abrupt remote teaching imposed on teachers [30].

Donham et al. [31] research highlighted the crucial role of mental and emotional support, encompassing aids that helped educators cope with the heightened stress and emotional strain of adapting to remote teaching under unfamiliar circumstances. Teachers described multiple obstacles including the struggle of the social-emotional support [32]. During this unprecedented time, teachers faced heightened stress coming from COVID-19 related anxiety, teaching demands, and the need for administrative support. To alleviate burnout, schools and districts should consistently monitor and offer support to teachers during the ongoing challenges posed by the pandemic. Teachers required assistance encompassing instructional guidance, technological aid, and emotional support to navigate these unprecedented circumstances effectively [33].

2.2. Obstacles/Challenges

The efficacy of digital classes was heavily influenced by the level of the teachers’ digital literacy and their ability to create and deliver online content. Teachers were confronted with obstacles in terms of the significant amount of time required to prepare and generate higher-quality web material for online instruction, which proved to be overwhelming for them [34]. Furthermore, several studies highlighted that a considerable number of educators have not received any training in remote teaching [35,36]. The limited avail-
ability of digital technology and network connectivity issues forced teachers to manage their remote teaching independently [37]. Other researchers underscored the general lack of support that teachers received in developing the requisite digital skills and creating adequate learning materials [34]. The significance of professional development programs in enhancing teachers’ skills in remote teaching was highlighted in Garet et al. [38] nationwide survey. The research indicated that teachers’ knowledge and skills were enhanced, leading to modifications in their instructional practices.

Teachers often faced various challenges regarding addressing and accommodating students’ participation. Notably, older teachers obviously faced difficulties in remote teaching due to the lack of technical skills, which hindered their ability to engage in activities that required high levels of digital competency, such as delivering online lessons, creating video materials, and interacting with students online [39]. The lack of professional development opportunities for teachers to navigate online ambiguity was the primary obstacle faced by teachers worldwide during the ERT phase.

While previous research has acknowledged the significant role of mentors in teacher’s professional development [40–42], educators often had to overcome the challenges posed by uncertainty and the sudden transition to emergency remote teaching without adequate support. The implementation of subject-specific strategies to effectively address the unique challenges faced by teachers in different specialties was highlighted by Shauly and Avargil [43]. In contrast, the non-uniformity in class modality in public schools resulted in diverging pedagogical experiences [44]. Despite the increasing popularity of online delivery methods in recent years, teachers have not been provided with systematic guidance or training on how to design high-quality course content and create online interactive experiences [45].

2.3. Sources of Support

Despite these hurdles, numerous sources of support emerged. Educators accessed professional development webinars, collaborated through online forums, and engaged in mentoring programs designed to enhance their digital skills and pedagogical approaches. Psychological support networks, including counseling and peer discussions, played a vital role in alleviating the emotional burden of navigating these unprecedented changes in the educational landscape. Teachers often found themselves unprepared to meet the new demands of their profession, such as designing and delivering remote online courses [46]. They also demonstrated their resourcefulness by actively managing their own professional development. They struggled to address the gaps left by unsupported policies within their professional communities [46].

The COVID-19 pandemic had an impact not on the quantity but on the quality of social connections, which are crucial for people’s well-being, resilience, and effectiveness of individuals [47]. To address the needs of teachers during this period, mentoring programs should have been implemented immediately. These programs can provide support to teachers in engaging learners via collaborative, learner-centered activities [48], expand the use of technological applications through pedagogical approaches [17], and offer comprehensive support and professional multi-modal teacher preparation [49]. These programs outperformed the traditional technology workshops, as they provided support to teachers in coping with the uncertainties and difficulties that arise from organizational change [50]. Forbes [51] study revealed that novice science instructors who engaged in reliable peer mentoring relationships felt more likely to attempt new pedagogical approaches, resulting in improved teacher retention and self-efficacy. It is noteworthy that Pérez Berbain et al.’s [52] research findings revealed that mentoring improved teaching practice and professional development, irrespective of the instructor’s teaching experience.

Given the limited in-service training and support, peer collaboration was a significant element, which contributed to providing teachers the opportunity to address the obstacles associated with the shift to e-learning and offered practical guidance in effective online instruction [53]. Virtual communities have been demonstrated as a valuable platform
for teachers to share ideas on pedagogical approaches that enhance student interest and motivation, interact with colleagues to reduce anxiety and promote learner-centered instruction [54–56]. Virtual learning communities can also be a place for support and overcoming obstacles in schoolish behavior [57,58]. Moreover, instructors are encouraged to actively participate in interactive learning activities, support each other, and collaborate to create instructional artifacts [59].

In a study by Pongsakdi et al. [60], researchers investigated the effects of a short-term training course on in-service teachers. The results indicated that professional development activities enhanced teachers’ ICT confidence and expanded teachers’ digital skills. Similarly, Sun and Du [61] claimed that targeted teacher training in online instruction could lead to improvements in the quality of digital classes. Insufficient resources for online course development and technical support were also identified as pressing concerns by Al-Naabi et al. [62]. Moreover, Verma et al. [63] claimed that several institutions failed to train teachers to work remotely, thereby impeding their ability to effectively use the necessary technology in a remote teaching environment. Research suggests that collaboration among teachers is an effective approach for enhancing their digital proficiency. According to Slavit et al. [64], teachers who collaborate with their colleagues experience several benefits such as increased motivation, reduced workload, and improved technological skills. Knopik and Domagała-Zyśk [65] found that teachers’ job satisfaction was positively influenced by working in teams with colleagues, planning collaboratively, and achieving goals collaboratively, resulting in their sense of security in their work. Teachers who were supported by colleagues were more able to handle difficult situations and had improved resilience. It was also ascertained that online peer support enhanced teachers’ preference for team-based learning and their self-efficacy for integrating technology [65].

Additionally, teachers’ perceptions revealed that inadequate government support was a significant hindrance to effective emergency remote teaching [66]. Moreover, the institutional policies governing ERT had an impact on the development and engagement of teachers’ digital competences [34]. Sutton et al. [67] highlighted the importance of school leadership in supporting teachers’ efficacy. In terms of professional development, Pennanen’s [68] findings illustrated that teachers’ advocacy increased when they collaborated with their peers at school through peer-mentoring. Finally, virtual mentoring can provide a secure environment for teachers and administrators to address their professional concerns about their careers and professional objectives [69].

In conclusion, the COVID-19 pandemic highlighted the significance of supporting teachers’ technological, pedagogical, and psychological efficacy. Policy makers need to consider that initiatives aimed at overcoming barriers to ERT are key to strengthening it. As strategies to address the challenges facing distance education evolve and differentiated sources of support emerge, teaching methods are gradually evolving in terms of their effectiveness and efficiency.

Our research provides fruitful insight as the results enlighten teachers’ perspectives on ERT, contributing this way to the ongoing discourse on educational resilience to unpredictable disruptions. Unlike previous work, the role of social networks was considered as critical for the teachers to overcome the barriers during ERT implementation with the formation of social communities for support with the sharing of common experiences. At the same time, expertise in internet use and social networking played a significant role in the readiness level for the abrupt shift to distance education. The present study, however, uniquely contributes to the educational field by emphasizing the role of teachers’ support as an innovative approach to holistically enhance teachers’ performance in ERT.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Procedure and Participants

Data for the present study were collected through a questionnaire completed by primary and secondary school teachers in Greece immediately after the first lockdown period (2020). The questionnaire was addressed to K-12 teachers (snowball sampling)
Informative e-mails regarding the research aim and the questionnaire were sent to a mailing list that included all the primary and secondary schools in Greece. Consequently, the directors of each school forwarded them to the teachers. Additionally, similar announcements for the research were posted on social media (LinkedIn), as well as in forums or groups of teachers on the internet. The questionnaire included twenty-seven questions consisting of three sections. The first one was about the demographics of the participants, while the last question of this section was about determining whether the teachers had used ERT or not. Educators who confirmed that they participated in ERT during the school closure were directed to the second section of the questionnaire. This section entailed questions about ERT perception. The third section of the questionnaire was about their experiences with distance learning. All the participants received the same survey, and the ERT section was only completed by those who participated in the ERT.

In this way, sections one and three of the survey questionnaires were completed by all the participants (1120), while the second section was only delivered to those involved in ERT (1077). The questionnaire was designed based on the study requirements and related literature. Questions aiming at capturing the teachers’ experience were quantified on a 5-point Likert scale. Pre-testing was conducted by using pilot testing, i.e., the survey questionnaire was first implemented using a sample of 10 teachers. The pilot data were gathered and analyzed. The results of this implementation, along with the participants’ comments, were taken into consideration for the final formation of the questionnaire.

The majority of the participants (1120) were female (833), revealing the gender ratio of teachers in Greece. Participants holding a Ph.D. degree were 3.1%, while those holding a master’s degree were 34.7%. The vast majority of participants who completed the survey were teachers in primary education schools (678—60.5%), while the rest, 39.5% (442), were occupied in secondary education schools. Primary education teachers (339—30.3%), kindergarten teachers (169—15.1%), philologists (127—11.3%), foreign language (English, French, German) teachers (129—11.6%), and computer science teachers (60—5.4%) also contributed to the research project. Special education teachers, physical education teachers, technical education teachers, theologists, mathematicians, physicists, art teachers, sociology teachers, musicians, economists, and theatrologists made up the remaining 26.3% (296).

Most of the teachers worked mainly in public schools (1070—95.5%), while the rest, 4.5% (50), worked in private schools. In addition, 56.6% (634) worked mainly in urban area (town) schools, 17.6% (197) worked in small town schools (2000–10,000 inhabitants) and 25.8% (289) in village schools [70].

3.2. Data Analysis

Initially, descriptive statistics were conducted to screen the data. Questionnaire variables were assessed for normality [71]. The correlation coefficient between variables (e.g., demographics with perceptions) was applied through statistical tests in order to identify whether there was a significant relationship between variables (e.g., gender and technical difficulties). The Pearson correlation coefficient was implemented for the normally distributed variables, whereas the Spearman correlation coefficient was used for the rest [72]. In cases when a significant correlation coefficient was identified, wherever there were multiple groups present in the variable (different categorical values, e.g., gender), statistical tests were carried out to compare those groups and determine if there was a statistically significant difference between them.

Student’s t-test was conducted for the normally distributed variables, while non-normally distributed variables were analyzed using the Mann–Whitney U nonparametric test [73].

4. Results

The current study investigated the following: (i) Teachers’ needs for support; (ii) Obstacles/difficulties faced; (iii) The support sources during ERT. Furthermore, an assessment of
the provided support, as perceived by the educators, illuminates the factors that influence teachers’ perceptions and preferences in the context of ERT (Table 1).

Table 1. Preferences for type of support (descriptive statistics).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support Type</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technological</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1. Types of Support

The focus areas of the research aimed to identify the types of support (technological, psychological, and pedagogical) that teachers needed during ERT. Five questions regarding the support were contained in the questionnaire. One of them was focused specifically on the desired support type, while another one referred to the level of satisfaction with the support they received. The conceptual framework was consistent with the systematic literature review by [74], who examined the challenges and potential strategies in K-12 education during the first two years of the pandemic.

4.1.1. Technological Support

In terms of technological support, the analysis included a broad set of variables such as gender, grade, study level, school area, and previous experience in distance education (Table 2). In particular, female teachers needed adequate technological support more than males ($t_{1075} = -2.79, p = 0.005$). The same observation was pointed out between teachers serving in primary schools compared with those serving in secondary schools ($t_{1075} = -2.40, p = 0.017$). Our results also revealed that educators with a bachelor’s degree required intensive technological support compared to those holding a Ph.D. degree ($t_{699} = 3.41, p = 0.001$).

Furthermore, technological support proved to be more crucial in the province than in urban areas ($t_{886} = -2.50, p = 0.012$). Teachers who used the internet and social media 3 to 5 h per day were more efficient in the transition to ERT than those who did so only a few hours a week ($t_{577} = -1.99, p = 0.046$). This clearly adds to the discussion of the positive impact of expertise in internet use and social networking in the effective transition to digital educational practices. Participants with previous experience in distance learning activities were more familiar with remote teaching than those with no experience ($t_{556} = -2.26, p = 0.024$). The type of school (private–public) did not have a significant correlation with the technological support required by teachers; this factor may not have a significant effect on teachers’ technological perceptions. However, it is noteworthy that private schools appeared to provide more effective support to their educators compared to public schools ($U = -3094, p = 0.002$). It is also important that age had no significant correlation with technological support, indicating that the influence of age on individuals’ perceptions of technological assistance may be limited.
Table 2. Correlation coefficient significance between support types and teachers’ characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Technological Support</th>
<th>Psychological</th>
<th>Pedagogical</th>
<th>Needs of Inter-Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.085 **</td>
<td>0.114 **</td>
<td>0.100 **</td>
<td>0.114 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>-0.076 *</td>
<td>-0.075 *</td>
<td>0.145 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of employment</td>
<td>-0.073 *</td>
<td>-0.080 **</td>
<td>-0.033</td>
<td>-0.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ specialty</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of employment</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>-0.075 *</td>
<td>-0.083 **</td>
<td>0.128 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working relationship</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>-0.093 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of school (private–public)</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>-0.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study level</td>
<td>-0.123 **</td>
<td>-0.028</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>-0.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Area</td>
<td>0.072 *</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.075 *</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of internet use</td>
<td>-0.056</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>-0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous experience (distance learning)</td>
<td>-0.088 **</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01.

4.1.2. Psychological Support

The pandemic posed significant challenges for the teachers, adversely affecting their psychological well-being and highlighting the necessity for psychological support. According to our findings, gender was a significantly correlated factor with psychological perceptions. Concretely, female teachers seemed to need more psychological support than males (t [1118] = -4.05, p = 0.001). Age influenced psychological awareness, too. Teachers in the 50–67 age group had more needs for support than those in the 36–50 age group (t [997] = -2.86, p = 0.004). The grade of employment (teachers working in primary or secondary schools) had a notable correlation with psychological aspects, indicating that higher grades could be linked to less favorable psychological perceptions (t [1118] = 2.39, p = 0.017). In the same line, years of employment were strongly correlated with psychological aspects, suggesting that longer employment tenure (21+ years) may lead to higher psychological needs compared to people with fewer years of employment (0–10 years) (t [661] = 2.38, p = 0.017). Conversely, the working relationship type, the type of school (private–public), and the level of study were not significantly correlated with psychological needs. Similarly, school area and the frequency of internet use did not strongly impact psychological perceptions.

4.1.3. Pedagogical Support

Analysis of the data revealed a strong relationship between certain demographic factors and individuals’ perceptions of pedagogical aspects. In particular, a significant correlation was found between gender and needs for pedagogical support. It was observed that female teachers reported higher needs for pedagogical support compared to their male counterparts (t [1118] = -3.56, p = 0.001). Interestingly, the age of the teachers appeared to have a substantial influence on pedagogical perceptions. Teachers in the 36–50 age group had a greater need for pedagogical support than those in the 50–67 age group (t [997] = 3.30, p = 0.001). Association between years of employment and pedagogical support needs revealed a strong correlation, suggesting that teachers with 0–10 years of employment had more intensive needs for pedagogical support than those with 21+ years (t [661] = -2.48, p = 0.013). This result underlines that the modern pedagogical methodologies or practices embraced by novice educators proved to be insufficient within the ERT context. Notably, the geographical location of schools exhibited a statistically significant correlation with pedagogical facets. This suggests that teachers working in rural areas had more pronounced pedagogical needs compared to those working in urban areas (t [921] = -2.55, p = 0.011). Contrary to initial expectations, the level of education did not seem to have a significant
impact on pedagogical perceptions. Finally, it is worth noting that grade of employment, type of school (private–public), working relationship, and frequency of internet usage did not have a strong correlation with pedagogical support needs.

4.1.4. Needs of Social Contact/Communication

The need for social contact and communication among participants demonstrates distinct correlations with various factors. Both gender and age appeared to have positive associations, highlighting potential gender-related and age-related differences. Specifically, females exhibited a greater need for communication and social contact compared to their male counterparts ($t [1118] = -3.96, p = 0.001$). Moreover, teachers in the age of 50–67 expressed a greater need for social contact and communication than those in 36–50 ($t [997] = -3.38, p = 0.001$). Furthermore, years of employment demonstrated a notable correlation with this type of need, indicating that teachers with 21+ years of employment had more intensive needs than those with 0–10 ($t [661] = -4.09, p = 0.001$).

On the contrary, the nature of the working relationship, previous experience with distance learning activities, and study level had negative correlations. These variables might inversely affect the extent to which individuals emphasize on certain needs. Other factors, such as grade of employment, type of school, school area, and frequency of internet use, do not exhibit a significant correlation with this need.

4.2. Obstacles/Difficulties during ERT

The sudden transition to ERT raised several obstacles and difficulties that teachers and students had to overcome. This research focuses on the obstacles and difficulties that teachers encountered in Greece while implementing ERT (Table 3).

4.2.1. Lack of Infrastructure

The abrupt shift from face-to-face to online teaching highlighted the technological inadequacies that most teachers faced. The presence of inadequate infrastructure shows noteworthy correlations with various factors. Among these variables, gender, age, grade of employment, years of employment, working relationship, and school area stand out as positive influences.

Consequently, female educators experienced more challenges compared to their male counterparts ($t [1118] = -2.26, p = 0.024$). Young teachers aged 25–35 faced greater difficulties than their older counterparts aged 35–50 ($t [587] = 2.62, p = 0.009$). Furthermore, educators working in primary schools encountered more obstacles than those working in secondary schools ($t [1118] = 4.48, p = 0.001$).

In addition, teachers with 0–10 years of employment faced challenges due to insufficient resources compared to those with 21+ years of employment ($t [661] = 2.68, p = 0.008$). Similarly, educators with no permanent employment status faced greater difficulties compared to their permanent counterparts ($t [1107] = -2.84, p = 0.005$). Moreover, schools situated in rural areas faced more technology-related challenges than those situated in urban locations ($t [829] = 2.66, p = 0.008$).

4.2.2. Technical Difficulties

The results of this study underline the significant correlation between technical difficulties and specific variables. Among these variables, gender, age, grade of employment, years of employment, working relationship, and school area emerged as influential factors. Consequently, female educators experienced more challenges with technical issues compared to their male counterparts ($t [1118] = 4.14, p = 0.001$). Young teachers aged 25–35 faced greater obstacles than their older counterparts aged 35–50 ($t [587] = 2.25, p = 0.025$).

Furthermore, primary school teachers encountered a greater number of obstacles compared to those in secondary schools ($t [1118] = 3.67, p = 0.001$). In addition, teachers with 0–10 years of experience were more likely to face challenges stemming from technical issues than their colleagues with 21+ years of experience ($t [661] = 2.90, p = 0.004$). Similarly,
educators without permanent employment status experienced greater difficulties compared to their permanent counterparts ($t_{[1107]} = -2.66, p = 0.008$). In addition, schools located in rural areas faced barriers due to technical challenges when compared to schools located in urban areas ($t_{[921]} = -3.20, p = 0.001$). These findings suggest that participants sharing certain characteristics were more likely to report a need for support due to technical difficulties and lack of infrastructure during ERT.

Table 3. Correlation coefficient significance between difficulties/obstacles and teachers’ characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lack of Infrastructure</th>
<th>Technical Difficulties</th>
<th>Lack of Skills</th>
<th>Students Participation</th>
<th>Pedagogical Reasons</th>
<th>School Policy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.068 *</td>
<td>0.123 **</td>
<td>0.135 **</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.060 *</td>
<td>0.068 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.093 **</td>
<td>-0.080 **</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.134 **</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of employment</td>
<td>-0.133 **</td>
<td>-0.109 **</td>
<td>-0.079 **</td>
<td>-0.134 **</td>
<td>0.067 *</td>
<td>0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ specialty</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.090 **</td>
<td>-0.062 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of employment</td>
<td>-0.081 **</td>
<td>-0.087 **</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.105 **</td>
<td>0.073 **</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working relationship</td>
<td>0.076 *</td>
<td>0.081 **</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>-0.35 **</td>
<td>-0.086 **</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(private–public)</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>0.135 **</td>
<td>-0.028</td>
<td>0.161 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study level</td>
<td>-0.098</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Area</td>
<td>0.120 **</td>
<td>0.069 **</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>-0.064 *</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>-0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of internet use</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
<td>-0.014</td>
<td>0.135 **</td>
<td>0.080 **</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(distance learning)</td>
<td>-0.008</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.132 **</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

4.2.3. Lack of Skills

A comprehensive analysis of the survey responses revealed correlations between lack of skills and critical variables. Notably, gender and grade of employment emerged as the most prominent factors contributing to the challenges of ERT. In particular, the results indicated that females were more likely to face difficulties due to a lack of skills compared to their male counterparts ($t_{[1118]} = -4.55, p = 0.001$). Another critical factor was the grade of employment, which was strongly related to the lack of skills. Teachers serving in primary schools were more likely to experience difficulties compared to teachers in secondary schools ($t_{[1118]} = 2.65, p = 0.008$). While gender and grade of employment emerged as prominent factors, other variables, although less strongly associated, still demonstrated meaningful connections.

4.2.4. Students’ Participation

Our study investigated teachers’ difficulties in engaging students during ERT. The results demonstrated that student participation was influenced by a multitude of variables. Grade of employment, years of employment, working relationship, type of school (private–public), school area, frequency of internet use, and previous experience in distance learning activities emerged as pivotal determinants of teachers’ ability to foster students’ participation. Specifically, teachers serving in primary schools encountered more challenges in enhancing student participation compared to their counterparts in secondary schools ($t_{[1075]} = 4.43, p = 0.001$). Teachers with 21+ years of experience were more effective in fostering student engagement compared to teachers with 0–10 years of experience ($t_{[635]} = -3.44, p = 0.001$). Additionally, educators holding a permanent job status facilitated greater student involvement in distance learning activities than those lacking job stability ($U = -3322, p = 0.001$).

Furthermore, private schools exhibited a higher level of student engagement with distance learning activities compared to public schools ($U = -4445, p = 0.001$). Students living in urban areas showed higher engagement than those in rural areas ($t_{[886]} = 2.00, p = 0.045$). Teachers who used the internet for 3–5 h per day demonstrated more effective
student participation during ERT compared to those who used the internet only occasionally within a week ($t\ [577] = -3.57, p = 0.001$). Similarly, teachers with prior experience in distance learning activities were better equipped to engage students than those without such experience ($t\ [616] = -4.32, p = 0.001$).

Contrary to our expectations, gender, age, teachers’ specialty, and study level appeared to have a less substantial influence on students’ engagement during ERT. This finding suggests that these factors may not be the primary determinants of student engagement and may have a less direct impact on the adaptation of pedagogical methods for remote teaching. These findings can be valuable for teachers seeking ways to enhance student participation in ERT.

4.2.5. School Policy

School policies incorporate a range of decisions, such as technology integration plans, communication strategies, and teachers’ support. This study unveiled school policy as a noteworthy factor that can influence ERT implementation, having a correlation with various variables. Gender, teacher’s specialty, and type of school were crucial factors that intertwined with the challenges encountered during ERT. Specifically, female teachers faced difficulties, potentially stemming from variations in adaptability and coping strategies, compared to their male counterparts ($t\ [1075] = -2.24, p = 0.025$). Moreover, the nuances of teacher specialty contributed to the ERT challenges. Theologists faced greater challenges compared to their physicists’ counterparts ($U = -2224, p = 0.026$). Finally, private schools utilized a different ERT strategy than public schools, compelling teachers to implement ERT ($U = -5279, p = 0.001$).

4.3. Sources of Support

In the changing and challenging landscape of ERT, a variety of support sources such as universities, educational institutions (formal or informal), Ministry of Education, school support groups, and virtual communities shaped a dynamic network for enriching teaching experience (Tables 4 and 5).

Table 4. Sources of support (descriptive statistics).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support Sources</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Virtual communities</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Institution of Government</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Institutions</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School support groups</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.1. University

Universities hold a pivotal role within the educational ecosystem, functioning as robust hubs of specialized support. Our study underscored statistical correlations between various factors and the support provided by universities. Among these factors, teachers’ specialty, study level, frequency of internet use, and prior experience in distance learning activities emerged as particularly significant contributors. Specifically, teachers who sought support from university sources were exclusively those with elevated academic profiles. Among them, teachers holding a Ph.D. engaged with university support significantly more than their counterparts with a bachelor’s degree ($t\ [699] = -4.17, p = 0.001$). Moreover, extensive frequency of internet use ($t\ [577] = -2.81, p = 0.005$) and greater prior experience of distance learning prompted educators to turn to universities for support, in contrast
to those who used the internet less frequently and had limited familiarity with distance learning ($t\ [361] = -6.75, p = 0.001$).

Unexpectedly, both age and years of employment did not emerge as significant contributors. Contrary to our anticipation, we had presumed that young, less experienced educators might seek university support.

### Table 5. Correlation coefficient significance between sources of support and teachers’ characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>University</th>
<th>Educational Institution of Government</th>
<th>Educational Institutions</th>
<th>Ministry of Education</th>
<th>School Support Groups</th>
<th>Virtual Communities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.069 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.015</td>
<td>0.062 *</td>
<td>0.073 *</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.080 **</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of employment</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
<td>0.125 **</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>-0.043</td>
<td>-0.089 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ specialty</td>
<td>0.081 **</td>
<td>-0.062 *</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of employment</td>
<td>-0.036</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.076 *</td>
<td>-0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working relationship</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>-0.051</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>-0.061 *</td>
<td>-0.018</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of school</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>-0.053</td>
<td>-0.065 *</td>
<td>-0.103 **</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(private–public)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study level</td>
<td>0.187 **</td>
<td>0.090 **</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>0.061 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Area</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>-0.056</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of internet use</td>
<td>0.151 **</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.144 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous experience (distance learning)</td>
<td>0.296 **</td>
<td>0.186 **</td>
<td>0.102 **</td>
<td>0.139 **</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.134 **</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

### 4.3.2. Educational Institution of Government and Educational Institutions

The study’s findings underscored the dynamic role of educational institutions (formal or informal) in influencing educators’ patterns of seeking support. Notably, the correlations unveiled significant associations between factors such as age, grade of employment, teachers’ specialty, type of school, and study level. Moreover, a correlation was observed between the prior experience in distance learning activities and the reliance on educational institutions for support.

Specifically, teachers in the age group of 50–67 exhibited a preference for seeking support from both the Educational Institution of Government and educational institutions compared to their younger counterparts in the 25–35 age group ($t\ [620] = -2.53, p = 0.011$), ($t\ [620] = -2.07, p = 0.038$). Furthermore, educators with extensive experience in distance learning activities exhibited a preference for seeking support from both the Educational Institution of Government and educational institutions in contrast to their counterparts with limited experience in distance learning activities ($t\ [616] = -6.03, p = 0.001$), ($t\ [616] = -3.49, p = 0.001$). Educators serving in secondary schools exhibited a preference for the support offered by the Educational Institution of Government compared to their counterparts serving in primary schools ($t\ [1075] = -4.14, p = 0.001$). In the same line, educators holding a master’s degree preferred the support provided by the Educational Institution of Government in comparison to their counterparts with a bachelor’s degree ($t\ [1049] = -3.14, p = 0.002$). On the other hand, teachers serving in public schools demonstrated a preference for support provided by educational institutions compared to their counterparts serving in private schools ($U = -2125, p = 0.034$).

### 4.3.3. Social Network Groups

In line with our study, participants emphasized the necessity for immediate support while shifting their teaching practices. Consequently, they predominantly turned to informal, self-directed learning methods within their professional networks. Our research illustrated that support groups formed within schools played a significant role in providing assistance to older teachers compared to their younger counterparts ($t\ [962] = -2.67, p = 0.008$). Likewise, results on years of employment indicated that teachers with 21+ years...
of service expressed greater satisfaction with school support groups than those with fewer years of service ($t [909] = -2.74, p = 0.006$). Whenever teachers needed intensive psychological support, they turned to their social network (school) support groups. This can be attributed to the fact that teachers anticipated finding tailored solutions, shared experiences, and a supportive community to fulfill their requirements within their networks.

4.3.4. Virtual Communities

Due to the official entities’ failure to address the actual needs of the teachers regarding ERT, online communities emerged to fill this gap, enhancing collaboration, providing solutions, and facilitating the sharing of knowledge among educators. In terms of support, virtual communities played a great role, especially for the female teachers ($t [1075] = -2.26, p = 0.024$). In addition, teachers serving in primary schools had more technologically benefited from virtual communities ($t [1075] = -2.93, p = 0.003$). Along the same lines, the frequency of internet use and previous experience in distance learning activities proved to be critical factors influencing teachers seeking support in virtual communities. Teachers who used the internet more extensively and had more experience in distance education activities had more significantly benefited from the support of virtual communities than their colleagues who had limited internet use and limited experience ($t [577] = -3.46, p = 0.001$; $t [361] = -3.09, p = 0.002$). Therefore, participants noted that engaging in social, learner-centered activities, like virtual communities, was a very helpful way to adapt their practice in emergency situations.

4.4. Teachers’ Evaluation

The outcomes of our study unveiled an interesting array of findings concerning the assessment of support, technological aptitude, teachers’ satisfaction with student engagement, and the significance of ERT, as well as how these factors were influenced by diverse demographic and contextual variables (Table 6).

4.4.1. Evaluation of Support

The correlation analysis of the evaluation of support highlighted several noteworthy evaluations. Notably, there was a correlation between the type of school (private–public) and the perceived level of support. Particularly, teachers in private schools tended to perceive higher level of support compared to their counterparts in public schools ($U = -3094, p = 0.002$). Additionally, a marginal correlation was observed between the frequency of internet use and the perception of support. Teachers who used the internet more frequently tended to report higher levels of support compared to those who did not ($t [577] = -1.99, p = 0.046$). Furthermore, a robust correlation was found between prior experience in distance learning activities and support evaluation. Educators with previous experience in distance learning activities tended to rate their support levels more favorably compared to those who did not have ($t [556] = -2.25, p = 0.024$). However, study level and school area revealed minimal correlations, suggesting a limited influence on the perceived level of support in this context.

4.4.2. Evaluation of Technological Capabilities

The results of teachers’ evaluations of technological capabilities provide valuable insights into the impact of different variables on the way teachers perceive their technological capabilities and technological competencies. Specifically, the analysis suggests that several factors, including grade of employment, type of school, school area, study level, frequency of internet use, and previous experience in distance learning, significantly influence teachers’ evaluations. Teachers serving in secondary schools appear to have significantly different perceived technological capabilities compared to teachers serving in primary schools ($t [1075] = -3.14, p = 0.002$). Furthermore, the type of school (private or public) and school area substantially influenced teachers’ technological evaluations. Private schools and schools situated in urban areas demonstrated a higher level of technological readiness.
than public schools and schools situated in villages, respectively (U = \(-4445, \ p = 0.001\)), (t [886] = 2.56, \ p = 0.010\). Likewise, educators holding a master’s degree tended to provide more favorable ratings of technological capabilities compared to their counterparts holding a bachelor’s degree (t [1040] = \(-2.99, \ p = 0.003\)). Similarly, teachers who frequently used the internet and had previous experience in distance learning tended to provide more positive evaluations of technological capabilities compared to educators with limited internet usage and no prior experience in distance learning (t [577] = \(-3.88, \ p = 0.001\)), (t [556] = \(-4.87, \ p = 0.001\)).

Table 6. Correlation coefficient significance between teachers’ evaluation and their characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Evaluation of Support</th>
<th>Evaluation of Technological Capabilities</th>
<th>Satisfaction of Students’ Participation</th>
<th>Importance of ERT</th>
<th>Will You Implement ERT in the Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>(-0.001)</td>
<td>(-0.040)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>(-0.022)</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.087 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of employment</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.095 **</td>
<td>(-0.166)</td>
<td>0.106 **</td>
<td>0.097 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ specialty</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>(-0.071)</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>(-0.048)</td>
<td>(-0.012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of employment</td>
<td>(-0.033)</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.071 *</td>
<td>0.070 *</td>
<td>0.083 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working relationship</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>(-0.034)</td>
<td>(-0.051)</td>
<td>(-0.080) **</td>
<td>(-0.095) **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of school</td>
<td>0.094 **</td>
<td>0.136 **</td>
<td>0.145 **</td>
<td>0.072 *</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(private–public)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study level</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.116 **</td>
<td>0.060 *</td>
<td>0.180 **</td>
<td>0.156 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Area</td>
<td>(-0.030)</td>
<td>(-0.076)</td>
<td>(-0.045)</td>
<td>(-0.095) **</td>
<td>(-0.078) *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of internet use</td>
<td>0.064 *</td>
<td>0.148 **</td>
<td>0.104 **</td>
<td>0.205 **</td>
<td>0.201 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous experience</td>
<td>0.080 **</td>
<td>0.217 **</td>
<td>0.098 **</td>
<td>0.277 **</td>
<td>0.232 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(distance learning)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\* \(p < 0.05\), ** \(p < 0.01\).

4.4.3. Satisfaction with Students’ Participation

Several factors are statistically significant in influencing teachers’ satisfaction with student participation, including grade of employment, years of employment, type of school, study level, frequency of internet use, and previous experience with distance learning. Teachers serving in primary schools were more satisfied compared to teachers in secondary schools (t [1075] = 5.52, \(p = 0.001\)). Furthermore, years of employment have proven to be a critical factor for teachers’ satisfaction with students’ participation. More experienced educators tend to be slightly more satisfied with student participation compared to less experienced ones (t [635] = \(-2.29, \ p = 0.022\)). Moreover, teachers serving in private schools were more satisfied compared to their counterparts serving in public schools (U = \(-4742, \ p = 0.001\)). Another statistically significant factor involved teachers’ educational level. Teachers with a master’s degree were more satisfied compared to those with a bachelor’s degree (t [1040] = \(-2.00, \ p = 0.045\)). Finally, the frequency of internet use and previous experience with distance learning were shown to be statistically significant factors influencing teachers’ satisfaction with students’ participation. Teachers who frequently used the internet and had more prior experience tended to be more satisfied with students’ participation compared to those with limited internet usage and limited previous experience, respectively (t [592] = \(-2.19, \ p = 0.029\)), (t [616] = \(-2.89, \ p = 0.004\)).

4.4.4. Significance of ERT

ERT is indispensable for emergency preparedness and response. The study aims to reveal the variables that influence teachers’ perceptions regarding the importance of ERT. Notably, teachers serving in secondary schools appeared to perceive ERT as more important than their counterparts in primary schools (t [1075] = \(-3.50, \ p = 0.001\)). Additionally, experience and working relationships were found to be crucial factors. Teachers with 21+ years of experience emphasized the importance of ERT more significantly compared to teachers with less than ten years of experience (t [635] = \(-2.58, \ p = 0.010\)). Similarly, teachers with
stable employment expressed a greater emphasis on ERT’s importance compared to their counterparts with unstable job situations ($U = -2810, p = 0.005$). Additionally, teachers employed in private schools acknowledged the greater importance of ERT compared to their peers in public schools ($U = -2348, p = 0.019$). Moreover, teachers possessing a master’s degree recognized ERT as more important than their counterparts holding a bachelor’s degree ($t[1040] = -4.92, p = 0.001$). Another crucial factor emerged as the geographical location of the school. Teachers working in urban areas considered ERT as more significant than those serving in villages ($t[886] = 3.00, p = 0.003$). Finally, the frequency of internet use and previous experience in distance learning were pivotal factors affecting the perception of the significance of ERT. Teachers who frequently used the internet and had more prior experience tended to perceive ERT as more important compared to those with limited internet usage and limited previous experience, respectively ($t[577] = -4.58, p = 0.001$), ($t[616] = -8.15, p = 0.001$).

5. Discussion

In this work, a quantitative study was conducted to assess Greek teachers’ perceptions of the support they required, the obstacles they faced, and the sources of support associated with emergency online teaching. The types of support teachers required were clarified, the obstacles faced were unveiled, and the sources of support they sought were identified, i.e., universities, the Educational Institution of Government and educational institutions, the Ministry of Education, school support groups, and online virtual communities. Overall, teachers’ evaluation of support, digital capabilities, satisfaction with students’ participation, and the importance of ERT gave insight into the teachers’ perception of the ERT experience.

Regarding technological support, tagged as crucial within ERT [75,76], it was not adequately offered. Past experience with online activities, digital skills, and the level of education are the most important factors correlating with technological support.

Regarding psychological support, it has been found to hinder the professional development of teachers during ERT [77]. The present study showed that the need for psychological support is strongly correlated with the teacher’s gender, age, years of experience, fear of administrative penalties, and the school’s lack of technological infrastructure, facilities, and connectivity trustworthiness. Findings are consistent with state-of-the-art studies, such as [78,79]. When it comes to pedagogical support, the need is correlated to the teacher’s demographics (location, age, gender, and years of experience), which is in line with [20,80]. Communication and social support needs relied heavily on gender, age, and years of service. Effectively overcoming these generational disparities demands adaptable communication tactics and acknowledging variations in technological proficiency across generations.

Regarding the key obstacles encountered during ERT, young female participants were disproportionately affected by the lack of technical infrastructure and skills, as were contracted, less experienced participants, and participants living in rural areas. The need for tailored support is highlighted, emphasizing the effectiveness of professional development programs, especially in private schools. Student participation, influenced by factors like school type and location, years of teacher experience, and internet usage frequency, presents another hurdle, requiring creative approaches and specialized strategies for novice teachers. Lastly, school policy challenges, including the absence of clear guidance and support during the sudden transition to ERT, particularly for female teachers, underscore the importance of tailored support systems and subject-specific strategies to address the diverse challenges faced by teachers. Finally, regarding the sources of support sought, a significant finding was the crucial role that universities played as sources of support for teachers during the ERT. Universities and higher learning and research were able to provide specialized guidance and resources tailored to the unique challenges faced by teachers. Furthermore, we discovered that the extent of internet usage and teachers’ previous involvement in distance learning activities played a central role in shaping their choice of support channels. Our results are in line with [20,79,80].
The present study emphasizes on the critical importance of providing teachers not only with the essential infrastructure but also with formal, timely, and relevant professional development opportunities. The findings align with the research conducted by [51], illustrating that teachers who had established peer mentoring relationships and trusted their colleagues were more likely to feel comfortable when experimenting with new pedagogical practices. This highlights the potential of informal support networks to fill the void left by the absence of comprehensive pedagogical instructions from governmental and informal institutional entities. Teachers who had a stronger sense of personal attachment to the school were more likely to seek support from school group teams, especially when they encountered more technical difficulties and lacked the necessary skills. This finding is consistent with previous studies that emphasize the role of social support in promoting teachers’ well-being and resilience [81]. As support from social networks was identified as a key indicator of quality online teaching and a critical factor for a successful ICT integration with pedagogy, stakeholders should prioritize mentoring and peer mentoring since they contribute to the teachers’ growth and professional development and well-being [82,83].

6. Conclusions and Implications

The present study uniquely contributes to the educational field by emphasizing the role of teachers’ support as an innovative approach to holistically enhance teachers’ performance in ERT. The findings of our study indicated that teachers sought technological, psychological, pedagogical, and communication-related support. Additionally, the results confirmed recent findings concerning the obstacles faced by teachers, including infrastructure limitations, technical difficulties, skill deficiencies, problems with students’ participation, and school policies. Inevitably, teachers reached out for support from universities, the Educational Institution of Government and educational institutions, the Ministry of Education, school support groups, and online virtual communities. In summary, teachers’ evaluation of support, digital capabilities, satisfaction with students’ participation, and the importance of ERT provided insight into their experience. In conclusion, these findings shed light on teachers’ perspectives regarding ERT, contributing to the ongoing discourse about educational resilience in the face of unpredictable disruptions. This study is mainly focused on ERT, which is different than distance learning. Distance learning heavily relies on the learner’s self-regulation. They find their ways of learning through structured and tailored learning environments designed with time flexibility and content adaptability. Despite this limitation, current research has the potential to lay the groundwork for further research and the development of strategies to enhance teacher preparedness and support. The necessity for programs offering technical support to teachers, as well as training in pedagogical teaching methodologies and increasing the effectiveness of teaching efficiency through mentorship was shown. The integration of preventive strategies, such as incorporating technology support into instructional coaching, as well as implementing a system for delivering assistance based on stakeholder requests, data, or feedback, would be a valuable development. In addition, forthcoming research should prioritize the provision of support and guidance for teachers to adapt to novel teaching environments and technologies like path tracking systems to collect data while a particular software or application is being used and to foster their continued professional development and welfare.


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Informed Consent Statement: As the institutional licensing ethics committee was not still created at the time of the research design, all experimental protocols were approved by Prof. Aggeliki Tsohou (Ionian University, Department of Informatics) who is an expert in the domain of Security and Privacy.
Data Availability Statement: The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors on request.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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