

**An Investigation of Teachers' Motivations for Entering the
Teaching Profession in Saudi Arabia**

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Abstract

This cross-sectional study comes as a response to the global calls to improve the quality of education and teachers and the increasing international need for qualified teachers. Few researchers have examined this issue from the context of developing countries, including Saudi Arabia. The present study seeks to examine the factors motivating Saudi teachers when choosing teaching as a profession and their commitment to teaching. Using a concurrent mixed-method approach, 793 pre-service and in-service teachers responded to a questionnaire survey which was adapted from the theoretical model of factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice) along with a brief measurement of occupational commitment. Qualitative data were gathered from 16 in-service teachers through semi-structured interviews. For the quantitative analysis, correlation tests, independent samples t-tests, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) of stepwise regression analyses were conducted using SPSS, while the interview data were analysed thematically. The findings indicated that altruistic (i.e., social utility values) and extrinsic motivations (i.e., job security/salary, prior positive teaching and learning experiences), followed by one's perceived teaching ability, played an important role in shaping the choice to become teachers. Moreover, the participants perceived teaching to be a highly challenging job of low social status. The interview data indicated that culturally relevant factors, such as religion and teaching as a preferable choice for women, were additional motives. A comparison of the motivations was made across the different factors and teacher sub-groups. Overall, female teachers were more satisfied and showed stronger motivations toward the profession, while in-service teachers, who expressed higher teaching abilities, valued social utility factors and job security more than pre-service teachers. Finally, intrinsic motivations, followed by social utility values and the ability to teach, were key factors contributing to occupational commitment among pre-service teachers. This study concludes with the implications of the findings and recommendations for future research.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that no portion of the work referred to in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning. I further declare that this thesis is my own original work, except where reference is made in the text of the thesis to the work of others.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This introductory chapter establishes the background, primary aims, and intentions of the thesis, its objectives, and the questions that it will seek to answer, along with a preliminary explanation of the general research method adopted.

1.2 Background

In 2016, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia unveiled a substantial national reform program aspiring to give the kingdom a significant role in major the vital fields such as economic and education. This program, Saudi Arabia's Vision 2030, considers all vital sectors in the country and, therefore, includes improving educational services (Arabia's Vision 2030, 2017). Several challenges confront the educational system in Saudi Arabia, including the lack of teacher skills and assessment, as shown in the national teachers' competency tests (Al-Issa, 2009). The MoE's main goal in reassessing teachers' abilities was to improve student outcomes. (Ministry of Education, 2017a). This study is, therefore, in line with efforts by the Saudi Government to meet its commitment to offer quality education to all students. Generally, to improve the quality of education, leaders and policymakers need to increase their efforts to develop new effective strategies that motivate committed teachers, who are crucial to education in schools and have a direct impact on student outcomes.

Limited research regarding motivations for becoming a teacher has been conducted in developing countries. However, there is a universal need to address motivation among teachers. Several western countries, such as the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, and Germany, report teacher shortages and attrition, and it has become a serious problem for education systems in many other countries (Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; Richardson & Watt, 2016; Yuan & Zhang, 2017). Educational psychologists have emphasised the

importance of individual motivation as a major factor in the education process. Conceptually, motivation is a construct that is used to understand one's persistence, initiation, and quality of behaviour (Maehr & Meyer, 1997).

Studying the concept of motivation can help us answer the questions of what people are doing and why. In the teaching context, it provides a better understanding of teachers' characteristics and why some teachers have low levels of commitment or do not stay in the profession. Indeed, there has been increasing interest in the study of motivation in general and in the area of teachers' motivation in particular (Richardson & Watt, 2016).

Students' motivation to learn is influenced by teachers' motivation to teach, which, when at high levels, improves overall education outcomes. Research has found a significant relationship between teachers' motivation and students' motivation (Han & Yin, 2016). On a similar note, Brookhart and Freeman (1992) found that levels of commitment to teaching careers were high overall and not primarily associated with academic ability among pre-service teachers. Klassen and Kim (2019) have recently contended that educational leaders should pay more attention to teachers' motivation as an essential non-cognitive component for enhancing classroom effectiveness, meaning that highly motivated teachers are more likely to provide a good quality of instruction in the classroom than are those whose motivation to teach is low. For these reasons, the present study will contribute to exploring the positive and negative effects of motivation and commitment on pre-service and in-service teachers in the Saudi context.

Pre-service teachers' motivations to teach, which are highlighted to a greater degree in the current study, have been studied in general; however, their motivations for entering teaching as a career within particular sociocultural and contextual settings, such as in an eastern culture, have not been investigated in depth (Klassen et al., 2011).

Hence, this study aims to examine the motivational factors influencing the choice of teaching as a lifelong career across various groups of teachers in the Saudi context.

Furthermore, the study seeks to explore teachers' perceptions of the profession and the factors influencing their motivation across the different stages of their professional development.

The researcher believes that this study will enhance the efforts already under way as well as making a significant contribution by adding novel knowledge to the existing literature on motivation as a vital element for teachers (Klassen et al., 2011; Richardson & Watt, 2016). In addition, it is hoped that this study will help to explain how a specific cultural context can influence career choices.

1.3 Statement of Problem

The past decade has seen intense global interest in the area of teachers' motivation from various perspectives. It has become an important component that is closely related to several variables in the educational context, including work commitment, student motivation, teachers' well-being and psychological fulfilment (Han & Yin, 2016). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the motivation for choosing teaching as a career has been extensively investigated, particularly in developed countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, and the United States (Klassen et al., 2011; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Watt & Richardson, 2007; Weiss, 1999). However, limited research has been conducted in developing countries. According to Richardson and Watt (2016), attention should turn to exploring teachers' motivations for selecting teaching as a profession within different social and cultural contexts. Similarly, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) assert that further research should be conducted to determine whether there exists a certain pattern of motivation to choose teaching in the context of developing countries.

In 2016, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) identified a dramatic teacher shortage at primary and secondary levels across international education communities. Interestingly, it is expected that roughly 69 million teachers worldwide will be needed by 2030 to ensure quality education for every pupil (UIS, 2016). The remarkable growth in the global population is placing increased demands on initial teacher preparation and training systems to meet the sustainable development goals of individual countries. Over the decades, policymakers and researchers have been confronted with the pressing issue of how to attract and identify high-quality teachers as a crucial indicator of the quality of instruction in the classroom. Even in developed countries, teaching has become an undesirable job for many graduating students. In the United Kingdom, for instance, it was recently reported that 40% of teachers leave the profession within 5 years, and that number is increasing (House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, 2017), whereas in the United States, 30% of new teachers leave teaching for another profession in their first five years (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). This leads to the inevitable question of how to prepare and retain high-quality teachers in order to meet the rising demand.

Although extensive research has been published on teachers' motivations to teach in developed countries (Watt et al., 2012), only a few researchers have been able to address this topic in developing countries. In fact, there is no single study that has investigated teachers' motivations for choosing teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia. The Saudi setting stands in contrast to many western countries in regards to culture and the education system; the only qualification required for teaching in Saudi Arabia is a bachelor's degree, which takes four years (including professional training). Moreover, most Saudi teachers choose the teaching career as a lifelong profession, which reflects the importance of this study for improving the quality of teacher requirements through the lens of the sociocultural context. Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) highlight that future research from particular cultural

perspectives is necessary in order to explore the extent to which the motivational factors related to teaching choice differ from context to context. Thus, the present study will offer an original contribution to the international body of knowledge, while also bridging a gap in the literature concerning such studies in developing countries.

Another reason for choosing this topic was personal interest. The researcher has worked closely in the education field as a special education teacher in Saudi Arabia. Through conversations with many teachers who have different levels of experience, he learned of the contrasting motivational factors that can have a direct impact on performance in the classroom. Ultimately, a number of conversations with both in-service and pre-service teachers led the researcher to undertake some exploration of Saudis' motivational profiles for choosing teaching as a career.

Further, the current study aims to bridge the gap in the existing literature on the motivations for becoming a teacher in the Saudi Arabian context. It will explore to what extent these motivational factors can predict the occupational commitment of teachers.

By addressing the motivational factors influencing both male and female pre-service teachers for selecting this career, the research provides a valuable contribution to educators and policymakers looking to enhance the effectiveness of teaching in Saudi Arabia. It is hoped that the results of this study will improve the capacity of teacher education organisations to meet the high standards required for qualified teachers. In addition, it responds to the national reforms seeking to put Saudi Arabia at the forefront of all vital sectors, including education.

1.4 Objectives

The specific objectives of this study are listed below:

- To examine a range of general motivational factors contributing to teacher career choices
- To determine whether there are differences in the motivations for becoming a teacher between male and female students
- To determine whether there are differences in the motivations for becoming a teacher between pre-service and in-service teachers
- To examine the best motivational factors associated with the commitment to teach among pre-service teachers
- To explore in-service teachers' motivations to teach and whether there are variations in motivations between in-service teachers at different stages of teaching experience
- To make recommendations to policymakers and Ministry of Education leaders for the design of better teacher education courses that take into account those motivational factors that prompt teachers to commit to teaching as a career

1.5 Research Questions

- 1) What are the motivations and perceptions of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 2) Is there a difference between males and females (in general) regarding their motivations for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 3) How do pre-service and in-service teachers' motivations and perceptions vary (or not vary at all) for choosing teaching as a career in the Saudi setting?
- 4) Which motivating factors are the most related/associated with commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia?
- 5) What are the motivating factors that influence in-service teachers' decisions to pursue a career in teaching?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The present study provides an important opportunity to advance the understanding of motivation in teaching by adding novel knowledge to the existing literature. The importance of this study can be summed up in the following six points: First, it primarily seeks to explore the motivations for teachers' career choice and to what extent these motivations are related to the commitment to teaching. The study is believed to be the first study to do so in a Saudi context; it will also be the first study to use the full model of Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice) scale in the Gulf region. Second, it falls in line with the reform efforts of the Saudi Government in general and the education sector in particular to enhance teaching quality in schools, which in turn, improves students' learning outcomes. Third, the present study aims to address the global teacher shortage, which continues to worsen, by enhancing the understanding of factors influencing entry into the profession, teacher retention, and attrition. Fourth, the study will contribute to filling the gap in the literature regarding this topic in developing countries; because the majority of prior studies were conducted in developed countries, few have investigated the impact of the cultural context. Fifth, it is hoped that the findings of the study will help to formulate new educational policies in order to enhance motivation and commitment among teachers, particularly among early career teachers, who are a crucial part of organisational learning. Finally, it is hoped that the study will provide worthwhile information and work as a foundation for future research related to teachers' motivation in general and Saudi teachers' motivation in particular for choosing teaching as a profession.

1.7 Participants and Methods

This cross-sectional study has employed mixed methodology as the approach for obtaining data. The study consisted of two stages: qualitative and quantitative. Questionnaires and interviews were used simultaneously.

For the quantitative stage, a sample of 793 participants took part. Students in the beginning and final year of their academic course (the first academic year versus the fourth academic year) who were studying in the College of Education at King Faisal University (KFU), as well as new teachers (one to five years of teaching experience), made up the sample group.

As the sample involved subgroups, a stratified sampling strategy was used to create an adequately representative sample of the given population. The reason for this choice was to measure the students' motivational trends for becoming teachers across their academic years as well as after beginning actual teaching. The sample size of this phase was 793 teachers who had one to five teaching experience. Data were measured using a validated scale called the Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice) adapted by Watt and Richardson (2007). The FIT-Choice scale was developed to measure a motivational profile among Australian students for choosing teaching as a career (discussed in details in Chapter Four, Section 4.3.1)

Additionally, in order to examine the relationship between the motivations and commitment to teaching for pre-service teachers, a validated measure of occupational commitment was used, which was originally developed by Hackett et al. to investigate commitment to work in the field of nursing; it is designed to examine the level of attachment to a particular career role (Hackett et al., 2001). Klassen and Chiu (2011) adapted the scale for use with the teaching profession; thus, occupational commitment was measured according to Klassen and Chiu's review of Hackett et al.'s 2001 scale. It consists of six items using a

nine-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 9 = strongly agree). The scale is reliable, with a measure of internal consistency of $\alpha = .82$.

Along with the quantitative phase, three cohorts of teachers were interviewed to acquire the qualitative data. The sample size of this phase was 16 teachers (approximately five teachers in each of three groups). The participants were chosen based on different stages of teaching experience (see Table 1.1). This part of the research focused on teachers’

Table 1.1. Data Collection Techniques Used in the Study

Qes	Data collection methods	Design	Sample	Sampling strategy
Q 1 Q 2 Q 3 Q 4	Questionnaire (FIT-choice scale and occupational commitment) (Watt & Richardson, 2007& Klassen & Chiu, 2011)	Quantitative	<i>n</i> = 793 including, first year students, final year students, and new teachers (male - female)	Stratified random sampling
Q 5	Semi-structured interview	Qualitative	<i>n</i> = 16 Including, novice teachers – mid-career teachers – late career teachers (male-female)	Purposive sampling

attitudes towards teaching, their experience in teaching, and factors influencing their motivation to teach. To obtain the best information and help to answer the research questions related to the specific characteristics of the participants, a purposive sampling strategy was utilised in the qualitative phase of this study. According to Denscombe (2010), by using purposive sampling in a social study, one can effectively obtain rich information based on personal attitudes, beliefs, and opinions from a small number of carefully selected cases. The teachers in the present study were selected based on their teaching experience; novices with one to three years of teaching experience, mid-career teachers with 12 to 20 years of teaching experience, and late-career teachers with over 21 years’ experience. The researcher obtained the required information about the participants and was given access to them by the Local

Department of Education, thus giving the sample a convenience aspect. More detail about the current research method and characteristics of the study sample is presented in Chapter Three.

1.8 Ethical Considerations

This study was given ethical approval before commencement of data collection. All data collected were stored in the researcher's personal computer with a secure password to prevent unauthorised access. To guard against data loss, he also maintained backup storage on a personal external hard disk. Subsequently, all data will be destroyed as requested in the University of York ethical guidelines. All the participants' consent forms and written data were stored in a locked cabinet.

1.9 Organisation of the Thesis

The present thesis comprises eight chapters, including this chapter. The remaining chapters are organised as follows:

Chapter 2 examines the background of the study context by introducing an overview of Saudi Arabia, including its education system as well as recent investments in teacher developments and education reforms in general.

Chapter 3 introduces the existing literature and theories regarding teachers' motivations for choosing teaching as a career and commitment to teaching. It also reviews factors influencing teaching as a career choice across different contexts, taking into account studies in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, it highlights some relevant issues, such as teaching career stages, the impact of culture and gender difference.

Chapter 4 addresses the research methodology. It begins with restating the research questions and then explaining the research design and methodology, later parts of the chapter

discuss diverse issues related to the choice of data collection instruments and tools translation procedure, as well as aspects concerning the validity and reliability of the research. It also offers a presentation of the methods of data analysis adopted in this study.

Chapter 5 and **Chapter 6** are devoted to presenting and analysing the quantitative and qualitative findings from questionnaires and interviews, which are guided by the research questions. Data tables, charts, and graphs are provided within the two chapters.

Chapter 7 is a discussion of the findings presented in the prior two chapters. It offers an interpretation of the important outcomes gained from the quantitative and qualitative data structured based on the above research questions. It also compares the results of the present study to the existing literature.

Chapter 8 summarises this study and highlights the key findings. This is followed by a discussion of some limitations related to the study. It also considers its implications and recommendations for policy-makers and educators in Saudi Arabia as well as educational researchers around the world. The last part of the chapter presents suggestions for future research.

Chapter Two: Research Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a general background about the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, where this research was carried out, and sheds light on specific features of the country's education system. The first two sections place the study within its geographical and historical context, with a brief overview of the development of Saudi education. The following section discusses the education system. It then looks at the procedure for entering teaching, including the nature of this profession in the country. Finally, the last sections deal with the national plans for educational reforms and highlighted particularly in Saudi Vision 2030 and its link with the improvement of the teaching profession.

2.2 Brief Background of Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia is the third largest-country in Asia after India and China and occupies 2,240,000 square kilometers (Figure 2.1). It is known as one of the biggest oil exporters in the world. The modern Saudi state was founded in 1932 by King Abdulaziz Ibn Saud, who unified the tribes of the Arabian Peninsula under the rule of one state after a 30-year campaign. Islam is the official religion in the kingdom and it plays a central role in Saudi society; accordingly, education legislation is derived from Islamic values and beliefs (Saudi Arabia country handbook, 1993).

The Saudi education system's key objective is to teach students Islamic values in a correct and comprehensive way and enable students to gain a variety of knowledge and skills, developing constructive behavioural trends, developing society economically, socially and culturally, and preparing the individual to be effective in building his/her society. The kingdom's official language is Arabic, but students also learn English from an early age.

Recently, Saudi education authorities introduced Chinese as a language to be taught in state schools (Arab News, 2020).



Figure 2.1. Map of Saudi Arabia

2.3 Brief History of the Development of Saudi Education

Although there were earlier attempts to provide formal and non-formal education in the country, the Ministry of Education (formerly named the Ministry of Knowledge) was officially established in 1951 to take over supervision tasks. More specifically, it was set up to oversee the education of male students across different levels of educational - pre-school education, primary education, secondary education and higher education. As early as 1960, the first school for girls was established in Riyadh. Gradually, a separate education system for females was developed under the supervision of the General Presidency for Girls' Education. By 2002, the body was formally incorporated into the Ministry of Education (MoE) in order to monitor and regulate the learning process across the country and to improve the quality of the education system, while keeping schools separated by gender at all educational levels up to today (Alamri, 2011; Baki, 2004).

The Ministry of Education has 47 Local Departments of Education in different regions of the kingdom (Ministry of Education, 2017b). This research is carried out in one of them as mentioned earlier (. They locally oversee the implementation of educational plans, programs, professional development and the teaching process in the light of national educational objectives, rules, regulations, and policies (Ministry of Education, 2019).

In higher education, due to the increasing numbers of students, there arose a need to educate Saudi students in Saudi Arabia rather than sending them abroad. Consequently, in 1957, King Saud University was established in Riyadh (the capital) as the first institution to provide higher education in the kingdom (Alamri, 2011). Six other universities were then founded over a period of 20 years, of which King Faisal University (KFU), which was established in 1975 (KFU, 2019), was one. As discussed earlier in Chapter Three, the pre-service sample of this study was selected from the College of Education at KFU.

As the number of universities rose to seven, there was a need to establish the Ministry of Higher Education to “supervise, plan, and coordinate KSA’s needs in the area of higher education with a view to provide national cadres who are specialized in administrative and scientific areas and who would serve the national development objective” (Ministry of Education, 2019, Government higher education, para.1). In 2015, the Ministry of Higher Education was merged into the Ministry of Education to form one entity, in an attempt to improve the education system by integrating all educational plans under one administrative body. Between 2005 and 2015, the number of universities increased by 86% (Pavan, 2017). Based on the latest statistics, the higher education institutions registered in the KSA include 40 universities, of which ten are private. There are also 41 private colleges (Ministry of Education, 2019). According to the Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia (2019), over one million students are currently registered at Saudi universities, more than half of whom are female. The number has, therefore, dramatically increased compared to 7,000 in 1970.

2.3.1 The Education System in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia's education system is highly centralised under the control and administration of the Ministry of Education (MoE). One of the central purposes of the system is to provide a comprehensive understanding of Islamic values, to allow students to acquire knowledge and skills, and to prepare them to be productive members of their society by helping to build it, loving their country and being proud of its history (Ministry of Education, 2017b).

As well as the whole country's principles and policies being based on the Islamic faith, the educational system is also based in Islam. Gender segregation is a major feature of the Saudi educational system; this includes students and staff alike (Alwedini, 2016). Recently, some activists in the country have begun promoting the notion that female teachers should teach both sexes in primary schools. They argue that children feel more comfortable with mothers than fathers as well as females being more suitable for children's psychological needs. With these demands, the MoE recently allowed female teachers to educate boys in the first three years of primary school (boys between aged six and eight years).

Since the system is hierarchical (i.e., 'top-down'), the educational policies, plans, strategies, the national education budget, and the process of education administration are all established at a senior governmental level (Ministry of Education, 2019). It also determines the aspects related to professional training for in-service teachers in all levels of education. This is followed up by the local education departments in every region (as mentioned earlier). At the present, the role of local education departments is to oversee the implementation of educational policies and evaluate the educational programs and teaching-learning process in schools in their respective geographical regions, as well as offering a range of professional development opportunities for in-service teachers. They also provide the MoE with developmental proposals and recommendations for the future.

On the basis of the above, the high degree of centralisation seen in Saudi’s education system has provided stable education across all levels. However, this approach has meant limited autonomy and intervention for schools.

All levels of general education schools are free for Saudis and non-Saudis students between six and 18 years of age (see Table 2.1). Additionally, students studying on any of the bachelor’s programs at any university receive a monthly stipend to encourage them to complete their course.

Table 2.1. Saudi general education levels

Level	Age (years)	Length of level in years	Official document
Primary school	6-12	6	Primary education certificate
Secondary school	12-15	3	Secondary education certificate
High school	15-18	3	High education certificate

(Adopted from the website of the MoE, 2017: The Establishment page)

2.4 The Teaching Profession in Saudi Arabia

Students who complete their high school education and aspire to be teachers can study for a bachelor’s degree at university; this usually takes four years and is also free from tuition fees (Alamri, 2011). Prior to starting their studies at university, students have to choose their desired major, such as history, religion, English language, and so on. Teacher training programs in the kingdom concentrate on three domains: general training (to provide students with general information about Islamic/society culture and related issues), professional training (to provide students with modules that focus on teaching methods, pedagogy and education, and developmental psychology in addition teaching practice), and academic training (to provide students with a deep knowledge of their chosen speciality) such as

history, Arabian and Saudi literature, Islam and so on (Alghamdi & Li, 2012).

Recently, the MoE has launched a compulsory standardised test (Teachers' competency test) for university students who wish to join the teaching profession. Students must score at least 50% in the entrance test to be qualified teachers. Meeting minimum standards in academic skills and basic knowledge of the profession are the major aims for this entrance test. However, this requirement has been substituted with the "teacher certification license" as part of the national reforms that the Kingdom is witnessing. The next section will discuss these reforms in details.

At the same time, students are taught and trained based on their selected major. During the final semester of their undergraduate programs, they are subject to pre-service training, which qualifies them to work as official teachers for all school stages. Universities are committed to pursuing and assessing student training as pre-service teachers (Alghamdi & Li, 2012). Fifty per cent of a teaching practice's score is usually assessed by the university supervisor and the remaining per cent by the principal of the school. After graduation, newly qualified teachers (as well as all career stages of in-service teachers) receive in-service training provided by the MoE, which enables them to improve their understanding and knowledge of specific subjects and to develop professionally in general.

It is important to highlight that the Saudi system does not provide a flexible way of entering into the teaching profession via different pathways, meaning that it is not easy for any individual to move into teaching from another career. Additionally, KSA is different from many other countries in terms of offering jobs to qualified teachers where the MoE is responsible for their recruitment and appointing these teachers in public schools according to the needs of each administrative region.

2.5 National Plans and Reforms

Education systems around the world are constantly seeking to review every dimension relevant to the education process. Undoubtedly, the teacher is a key element of the learning process. The words of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) statement that “teachers are a critical factor affecting the quality of education and are key in enhancing student learning and improving performance” (UNESCO, 2014, p.22) highlight the importance of the teacher’s role and emphasise that teaching is a demanding career in the 21st century.

Since the quality of teachers is inseparable from the quality of education (OECD, 2005), the Saudi Government stressed its commitment to comprehensive educational reforms by boosting its national education budget year after year until it reached record levels. For example, the education sector received the largest proportion of the total national budget, with an investment of over 193 billion Saudi Riyals (18.9 % of the annual budgeted expenditure) for the expenditure budget for the fiscal year 2020 (Ministry of Finance, 2019).

Several modifications were made, However, King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz’s reign witnessed significant changes in the kingdom’s social infrastructure, including education. In 2007, the King Abdullah Public Education Development Project, or ‘*Tatweer*’ as it is known in Arabic (literally meaning *development*), was launched to improve teachers’ professional development and the quality of educational programs. The project’s primary goals are:

- 1- Providing professional development initiatives for teachers
- 2- Improving the learning environment and bringing new learning technologies to the classrooms
- 3- Developing a standardised system to evaluate education quality
- 4- Enhancing teacher autonomy in schools.

The *Tatweer* project was a response to the criticisms of the Saudi education system at that time. There was near-consensus among Saudi and Western scholars regarding the education system in the kingdom that it did not appear to be preparing young people well for the labour market (Tayan, 2017). Again, it should be noted that KSA was one of the lowest scoring countries in international comparative tests (Allmnakrah & Evers, 2019). Allmnakrah and Evers (2019) stress the need for essential changes in the education system to enable young Saudis to compete for 21st-century jobs. Therefore, teacher quality was one of the issues on the table of the educational reform package.

In addressing this issue, *Tatweer* introduced professional development workshops to enhance teachers' skills and self-development strategies, and school management, as well as to create a classroom environment that would facilitate the job of teachers by providing them with modern technological tools. The project also set training programs oriented particularly towards new teachers, aiming to prepare them to positively contribute in state schools (Tayan, 2017). According to Abdul Ghafour (2017), more than 400,000 teachers benefited from these workshops and training programs. Although this substantial project was founded to reform and enhance the quality of education in all of its components, including teachers, there was little evidence that the Saudi education system had improved by the year of 2015.

As Al-Issa (2009) previously argues that the absence of political vision and the lack of effective management, including those in charge of these projects, were the main reasons for the failure of the project. Similarly, Al Shibani (2015) attributes the "limited success" of the *Tatweer* project to insufficient teacher training. Another noteworthy criticism was the absence of participation from Saudi teachers in the establishment of this reform project before it was announced. Al-Issa (2009) emphasises that these reforms went against what the literature on teachers concluded that teachers must be included as an essential element in

developing the educational process rather than being passive recipients instructed by “supreme authority” (Levinson, Blackwood, & Cross, 2013; OECD, 2005).

Despite these criticisms, the modest progress of these reforms paved the way for the implementation of the economic vision for 2030 (Vision 2030) and its direct link to the education sector. The next section discusses the Saudi economic vision for 2030.

2.5.1 Saudi Vision 2030

As mentioned in the introduction to this study, the ambitious roadmap, Saudi Vision 2030, was launched in April 2016 to reduce Saudi Arabia's dependence on oil by diversifying its economic and social development, including public service sectors such as social services, health, infrastructure, and tourism. Regarding education, Prince Mohammad bin Salman (the Crown Prince) discussed the government's contribution to the 2030 agenda on education and stressed the link between education and the economy:

We will continue investing in education and training so that our young men and women are equipped for the jobs of the future. We want Saudi children, wherever they live, to enjoy higher quality, multi-faceted education. We will invest particularly in developing early childhood education, refining our national curriculum, and training our teachers and educational leaders. We will also redouble efforts to ensure that the outcomes of our education system are in line with market needs... We will also help our students make careful career decisions, while at the same time training them and facilitating their transition between different educational pathways.

(2030 Vision, 2016, An education that contributes to economic growth para. 1).

It is clear from the above statement that Vision 2030 proposes an integration between economic and education reforms (see Figure 2.2 for further detail). Because the “teacher is one of the most powerful driving forces for achieving economic growth” (Allmnakrah & Evers, 2019, p. 13), Hargreaves and Fullan (2015) argue that recruiting and the retention of good teachers play a vital role in the quality of education. As a result, one of the central goals of Saudi Arabia’s vision is developing qualified human resources and fulfilling labour market

requirements (Ministry of Education, 2019), including pre-service and in-service teachers (Allmnakrah & Evers, 2019).



Figure 2.2. The three themes of KSA's Vision 2030

Although this national transformation has not yet achieved its goals on the education front, there are indications that such a shift is already in progress. For example, universities have started to suspend admissions in some humanities majors, which were usually characterised by an over-supply of teachers (discussed in greater detail in Chapter Seven) and focused more on other important fields in seeking to “shift from the quantitative to the qualitative perspective” (Pavan, 2017, p. 10) that serve the labour market's needs. Furthermore, Ahmed Al-Issa (The former Saudi Minister of Education) issued a decree to temporarily suspend all teacher training programs offered by universities in order to develop and restructure these programs due to their shortcomings in equipping graduate students for

the labour market. One indication of this was the low pass rate on the teachers' competency test, according to the MoE, the average test score for candidates joining the teaching profession was 43% in 2016. Therefore, the MoE stressed the importance of reassessing these programs to keep up with Vision 2030, as stated in the second strategic objective within the objectives of the Ministry of Education: "improving the recruitment, preparation, qualification, and development of teachers" while the seventh strategic objective also spoke of "enhancing the capacity of the education system to meet the requirements of development and the needs of the labour market" (Ministry of Education, 2019, para. 2). However, new teacher training programs are still under development and have not yet been launched.

Additionally, in mid-2019, the Education and Training Evaluation Commission (ETEC) launched a teacher certification license along with a new pay scale (particularly as regards the annual pay rise). This certificate was introduced as a replacement for the previous version of the standard test (teachers' competency test), which was required for those wishing to join the profession. This is along with the annual pay rise, which is based on each teacher's performance (not yet applied).

The Saudi teacher certification license was introduced for both pre-service and in-service teachers, and it lasts five years. This means that teachers must apply for a teacher license test every five years. There are four major aims of the teacher certification or license, which are as follows:

- 1- Contributing to improve the quality of teachers' performance in accordance with professional standards and professional educational licensing requirements
- 2- Fostering professional development for teachers and self-learning
- 3- The application of professional standards in the various educational disciplines
- 4- Ensuring that teachers meet the acceptable minimum professional competency standards (Education and Training Evaluation Commission, 2020)

The ETEC determined three types of teachers' license according to teaching experience and teachers' score on the test: "Practicing teacher", "Advanced teacher" and "Expert teacher". It is worth noting that some teachers did not welcome this new structure due to their concern about its impact on their annual pay rise in the case of failure to obtain the certification. In this context, Al-Saraj (2019) states that it is not intended that Saudi teachers are motivated only by money: "*We are all different human beings motivated by different things. No one is better than the other. The main thing is that we all meet our objectives and fulfil our desire, be it money or recognition*" (para. 9). However, she asserts that "our children's education comes first and foremost" (para. 8), and teachers should be more motivated to teach and be creative in their teaching style to improve students' performance.

As mentioned earlier, all these new actions are still in the final stages of development and have not been formally applied yet. Therefore, it is too early to see the implications of these educational reforms.

2.6 Summary

This chapter has provided a general overview of Saudi Arabia and its education system. It has presented evidence of the substantial efforts by the government to improve the quality of education and, within education, faith in teacher quality as a core for achieving the desired reform in education and improving learning outcomes. Despite the great efforts by the authorities to reform the education system, the overall quality of education remains low, particularly with regard to teacher performance in teaching competency tests, and student performance in international comparative tests. Nevertheless, the trend toward national education reform is moving rapidly in order to contribute to the achievement of the goals outlined in Vision 2030. Given all of the above, findings in the present Saudi context can provide worthwhile new insights into teachers' motivations for choosing teaching as a career.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter illustrates the theoretical foundations of the current study and reviews the literature on the main areas that are connected to the topics under study, factors influencing teaching choice in particular. It begins with a discussion of teacher motivation in general and related theories. It then highlights motivation to teach. The following section deals with the main theories that closely relate to this study; Expectancy-Value Theory (EVT) and the FIT-Choice model. Based on the theoretical framework, it discusses the variables of interest, and then the relationship of occupational commitment with motivation to teach. The chapter next moves on to discuss aspects related to stages of teacher development and cultural influences on the decision to join teaching. It concludes with issues concerning gender differences in the teaching profession.

3.2 Motivation

The concept of motivation has been viewed as an energy that stimulates or drives an individual to do something in a particular task (Brophy, 2010). In terms of teacher motivation, Sinclair (2008) proposes that motivation could be determined based on attraction, retention and concentration. This means that the salient motivations for teachers could effectively determine “what attracts individuals to teaching, how long they remain in their initial teacher education courses and subsequently the teaching profession, and the extent to which they engage with their courses and the teaching profession” (Sinclair, 2008, p. 80).

However, due to the reforms over the last ten years, there is an increasing interest in research on teacher motivations, which has shown a number of vital variables related to this concept, such as teaching practice, student motivation and teachers’ commitment and their engagement in teaching (Han & Yin, 2016).

Researchers and educators have stressed the need to explore the motives behind the choice of the teaching profession in many educational contexts. These calls came after the results of pieces of research in different settings, which conclude that there is a reluctance among many people to join the teaching profession. Several western countries, such as the US, Australia, the UK, and Germany, have reported increasing teacher shortages with a high attrition rate of in-service teachers, which has become a serious issue for the international education community (Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; Richardson & Watt, 2016; Yuan & Zhang, 2017). Interestingly, according to global estimates revealed in 2016, over sixty-nine million new teachers will be needed by 2030 to achieve Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG4) (UIS, 2016). Due to the growing population, especially at school age, twenty-five million primary school-aged children may not have a study space in a classroom in 2030. Sub-Saharan Africa faces a particularly severe shortage of teachers; here, some 14 million new teachers will be required at primary and secondary level by 2030 (UIS, 2016). In the Arab states, the total number of new teachers needed to achieve universal primary education (UPE) by 2025 will be approximately 400,000, and 500,000 by 2030 (UIS, 2013). Specifically, based on recent UIS data, it was indicated that Saudi Arabia will need no fewer than 250,000 primary school teachers by 2030. These estimates necessitate special attention to filling this gap by not just introducing a teacher labour force but by ensuring better and high-quality prepared teachers. The crux of the matter is how to attract and retain these qualified teachers as a crucial element for student outcomes and teacher performance (Richardson & Watt, 2016).

Substantial studies on motivation related to teaching choice was undertaken by Watt and Richardson (2008a). They focus on the current motivational theories, and how to employ these theories in the new domain of new research related to teachers in their career choice, commitment, and satisfaction with their choice. The results of Watt and Richardson's study

show that existing motivational theories provide comprehensive frameworks which can be effectively applied and answer the essential question of how people view the challenges, rewards, and disappointments related to teaching. So far, three motivational theories have been intensively employed to examine the dimensions of motivation for teachers, namely achievement goal theory, self-determination theory, and expectancy-value theory (EVT) (Richardson & Watt, 2016). The first two theories will be briefly discussed below, while EVT will be presented in detail in Section 3.4 due to closely related to the FIT-Choice model.

Achievement goal theory is a social cognitive theory of achievement that has been applied to both pre-service and in-service teacher motivation studies in different social contexts (Butler, 2007; Malmberg, 2008). By introducing goal theory, Butler (2007) provides a new theoretical perspective for exploring teachers' motivation. He confirms that teachers' goal orientation has clearly impacted on instructional practicing as well as motivation and the learning behaviour of students. Previous studies have reported a four-dimensional conceptualisation, shown by the population of teachers, which includes: mastery goal, which refers to the aim to expand and enhance their own professional skills; ability-approach goals, reflecting a high level of teaching competence; ability-avoidance goals, which refers to avoidance of demonstrating failure due to lower teaching ability; and work avoidance goals, which involves making as little effort when practicing teaching as possible (Butler, 2007; Butler & Shibaz, 2008; Retelsdorf et al., 2010). Based on the evidence from existing literature on teachers' goal orientations, there are indications of a positive relationship between teachers' mastery of goal and instructional practice, as well as teachers' support and professional development (Dresel et al., 2013). Similarly, Cho and Shim (2013) found that mastery-oriented environments enhanced mastery goals for teaching. Moreover, teachers who expressed a high level of self-efficacy tended to adopt mastery and ability-approach goals as well, while in contrast, the ability-avoidance goal has shown to be negatively associated with

classroom instructional practice (Dresel et al., 2013). These findings may, therefore, explain the importance of the feeling of competence, personal accomplishment and goal orientation for teachers, which influence both the motivation to learn and the motivation to teach.

As mentioned above, self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000) is one of many motivation theories that have been applied to the area of teacher motivation domain. Ryan and Deci suggest three human psychological needs associated with the concept of motivation which are competence, autonomy, and relatedness in terms of a feeling of connecting and belonging. A considerable part of the theory is the significance of autonomy versus controlled motivation. It is important to note that greater intrinsic motivation for teachers appears when they experience a sense of autonomy in the school context, whereas teachers who are given a low degree of autonomy may experience deleterious effects on their motivation (Roth, 2014). However, initially autonomous motivation, such as a student who chooses to become a teacher, may change to controlled motivation after being an in-service teacher for several external reasons, such as experience of compulsion, controlling the school context and external accountability. Furthermore, teachers may use instructional practices, which are contrary to their beliefs, to meet external accountability requirements (Roth, 2014). Based on several extensive studies, there is a great deal of evidence that accountability reforms limit teachers' control and undermine autonomous motivation, which leads to burnout (Fernet et al., 2012; Olivant, 2015). Especially for a teacher in the early stages of teaching, Crocco and Costigan (2007) emphasise that "new teachers believe this regimen undermines the little control they have over their teaching practice, personal and professional growth and their ability to develop relationships with students" (p. 529), which in turn influences students' intrinsic motivation to learn, as well as teachers' ability to promote creativity and creative thinking in their students (Olivant, 2015). On the other hand, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2016) indicate that this was one of several variables that influence teachers'

decisions to leave the profession. From a self-determination theory perspective, a healthy school environment, which adopts autonomy support, is able to generate autonomous motivation and allow the individual to meet the three basic psychological needs to attract and retain the highest quality teachers as a crucial element of student learning development.

3.3 Motivation to Teach

Teachers do not have a salient reason for choosing teaching profession. They may be motivated toward teaching for a multitude of reasons, and some could be forced into teaching due to admissions problem such as not getting admission to their first choice of major.

Research in motivation have a had common interest in teachers' motivation for entering teaching profession. Sinclair (2008) contends that individuals have multiple motivations for choosing teaching as a profession. For example, a study conducted by Richards (1960) found that good preparation for family life and having a long summer holiday were top factors that influence the choice of teaching profession. Similarly, in his study on 173 prospective teachers, Fox (1961) reports that desire to work with children or adolescents, a desire to impart knowledge, the opportunity to continue one's own education, service to society, and liking for a particular subject were the top five frequently nominated reasons for going into teaching. These early findings have been confirmed by several subsequent studies done in diverse social educational settings (Alexander et al., 1994; Bastick, 2000; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000). However, a review of the literature for choosing teaching as a career suggests three fundamentally different groups of reasons influencing the choice of teaching career: intrinsic, altruistic, and extrinsic motivations (Bastick, 2000; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000). Intrinsic motivations are characterised as internal interests that stimulate people to work with children by using their skills and knowledge. Altruistic motivations refer to the desire to make a social

contribution, such as helping children, while extrinsic motivations cover aspects of the job that are not inherent in the work itself, which are driven by external incentives such as salary, long holidays and status (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000). These motivations and the classification thereof are discussed in more detail in Section 3.6.

By way of a meta-analysis study across different samples of teachers candidates, Brookhart and Freeman (1992) examined 44 research studies related to motivation to teach, covering the years from 1960 to 1990. They found that the majority of studies reported two primary types of motivations for choosing to teach. Consistently, they displayed altruistic motivations (e.g., serving others and desire for social mobility) and intrinsic motivations (e.g., liking to be a teacher and enjoy teaching).

It is evident that many research on teachers' motivations (especially pre-service teachers) in developed countries, such as Australia, England, Germany, and the USA, found that intrinsic and altruistic motivations were dominant reasons for choosing teaching as a career (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Kissau et al., 2019; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Watt et al., 2012). Along with intrinsic reasons, studies on teachers' job satisfaction confirm that altruistic reasons were the most powerful motivation for long-term engagement, persistence in teaching, commitment to teach, and more satisfying in the learning environment (Brunetti, 2001; Guarino et al., 2006). These studies support Hayes's (2004) conclusion on teacher retention that teachers become more satisfied and engaged when they consider working with children as an altruistic reason to teach.

However, although Yong (1995) and Williams and Forgasz (2009) argue that teachers who join into the teaching profession due to extrinsic factors may see these factors undermine their long engagement with and commitment to teaching, studies carried out in different sociocultural settings including developing countries have reported extrinsic motivations

(e.g., social status or prestige, salary, and job security) as the most nominated reasons for choosing a career in teaching (Chivore, 1988; Evans, 1993; Yong, 1995).

Similarly, using a cross cultural study of motivations for choosing teaching among pre-service teachers in Oman and Canada, Klassen et al. (2011) found that Omani teachers expressed a higher level of endorsement of choosing to teach as a “fallback career” than Canadian teachers. However, other studies conducted in eastern countries, such as Turkey and China, show both intrinsic motivation factors along with extrinsic factors for choosing teaching as a profession (Kılınç et al., 2012; Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014). This implies that sociocultural contexts, such as national education policies and wealth levels, in the different countries could influence teachers’ motivations to teach. As an example, a study in the UAE (United Arab Emirates) conducted by Sharif et al. (2014) found that intrinsic (e.g., I enjoy working with children) and altruistic (e.g., I have always wanted to be a teacher) motivations seemed to be the most important factors cited by Emirati pre-service teachers, with a very marginal influence for extrinsic factors for joining teaching profession.

It is important to note that initial motivations to enter teaching as a career may not be stable over time, as revealed in some studies (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Sinclair et al., 2006; Williams & Forgasz, 2009). Pre-service teachers start their teaching program with motivational expectations (i.e., entry motivation) of what teaching is, and have their own reasons for becoming teachers. These initial motivations may be influenced by many factors beginning with teacher education course and ending with the practicum which leads to the actual teaching, at which time during this long process, the initial motivations are tested out and reassessed. Consequently, “motivations may act as motivators or de-motivators, and motivation and commitment increases or decreases” (Sinclair, 2008, p. 98).

Recently, another detailed theoretical model was proposed by Watt and Richardson (2006) in terms of the factors influencing the choice of teaching as a profession. Watt and Richardson chose to focus on pre-service teachers' motivation through the lens of values and expectations. Their integrative model was drawn from a vast range of studies, social cognitive theory, and particularly from the main constructs of the expectancy-value theory of motivation (Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992). In addition, they reviewed the most common reasons for entering teaching, which had been divided into the three types of motives; intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic (as mentioned earlier). Eventually, they constructed their own theoretical model, which they named the Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice). It consists of six main constructs that are significant to the decision to enter teaching: socialisation influences, perceptions of the task, perceptions of the self, values related to teaching, and the teaching career as a fallback career (Richardson & Watt, 2006). The next section discusses in detail the development and structure of FIT-Choice scale.

To summarise, despite research on teachers' motivation to teach and to stay in the profession having been extensively investigated by researchers over the last two decades, there is a strong need to extend our understanding of teachers' motivation and their satisfaction with teaching as a career choice, for raising the status and quality of teachers around the world, including in developing countries. It seems clear that different sociocultural environments potentially shape and frame unique motivations for career choice and satisfaction (Klassen et al., 2011). Thus, there is also a need to determine whether a particular pattern is prominent in developing countries. The present study will not investigate teacher supply and demand in those countries. However, it will investigate the human aspects of the problem, such as motivation, which helps to maximize the level of performance, engagement, and commitment to teaching for teachers in Saudi Arabia, taking into account the particular cultural context.

3.4 Expectancy- Value Theory

Motivation is a conceptual construct that is used to understand one's persistence, initiation and quality of behaviour (Maehr & Meyer, 1997). Simply stated, studying the concept of motivation helps answer questions about what people are doing and why. However, educational psychologists have repeatedly emphasised the importance of individual motivation as a major factor in the educational context. Over the years, much of the research has resulted in dozens of proposed theories of motivation. Specifically, there are a number of achievement motivation theories, such as Attribution theory and the Self-efficacy approach, which attempt to explain how motivation influences performance, persistence, and choice (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Expectancy-value theory (EVT) is one of the theories that has held a considerable position in predicting behaviour and expectancies (Eccles et al., 1983). Motivation, in expectancy-value theory, represents the results of a complicated process that starts from past experience which has a direct impact on one's belief in one's ability, one's level of task value, and one's expectation of success or failure (Eccles et al., 1983; Watt & Richardson, 2007). The theory originally emerged from Atkinson (1957) who defined expectancies as the anticipation of the individual that his performance on a task may lead to success or failure. Eccles et al. (1983) extended this definition and developed a framework for the EVT model of achievement choice in order to understand high school students' performances and choices in mathematics courses. In the EVT model, expectations of success, refers to how an individual will perform in an upcoming task (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). EVT proposes that individuals' achievements, performances, choices, and persistence are shaped and directly related to their expectancy of success, ability beliefs and task-value beliefs (Denissen et al., 2007; Eccles et al., 1983).

Beliefs and value are the major constructs of the EVT model, which includes expectations of success and subjective task values (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Expectations of success are subjected to two factors: the individual's belief in his or her own ability and task difficulty. For example, when individuals assess a task as being completable, they will strive to complete it, and individuals with a positive self-concept of their own ability will be more willing and motivated to spend time on the task to meet their higher expectation of success. Jacobs et al. (2002), in their longitudinal study on 12th grade students, found that, when students believed in their ability in certain subjects, they were more likely to value them. Subjective task values are generally defined as how a chosen task meets an individual's needs (Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfield & Cambria, 2010; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992), which means that this need can vary from individual to individual. Eccles et al. propose a different kind of subjective task value consisting of four components: attainment or importance value, intrinsic or interest value, utility value of the task, and cost.

Attainment value is defined as the personal importance of performing well on a given task. It is important to note that attainment value is a core element of subjective task values that have a direct impact on performance and academic choice (Wigfield et al., 2009). Intrinsic or interest value refers to the enjoyment that an individual obtains from doing the task. Utility value is defined as how useful the task is perceived to be and whether it is related to current or future goals, such as a science degree. Cost is a negative aspect that refers to what the individual has to sacrifice in order to perform a task, such as time costs, opportunity costs, or effort costs. Alternatively, cost can refer to how an activity that people choose may constrain their desire to be involved in other anticipated tasks and the emotional toll of the activity (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles, 2005).

The Modern EVT of achievement choice, which was developed by Wigfield and

Eccles (2000), has been supported by evidence from studies on children and adolescents. A number of key findings have emerged from their research on children in Mathematics and English. They found that students' beliefs about their ability are an accurate predictor of subsequent grades in the subjects of mathematics and English. Furthermore, they found that students' subjective task values are the strongest predictor of both students' intentions and actual decisions to continue studying Mathematics and English (Eccles et al., 1983; Eccles, 2005). In line with this, Harackiewicz et al. (2002) found that those college students with a high level of achievement also had a remarkable level of interest in the subject matter. Empirical studies have recently examined the interaction between expectation and value and their effects on educational outcomes. For example, a study by Guo et al. (2015) shows a significant interaction between the maths self-concept and the values of the predicted maths choice on one hand and subsequent academic selection for high school students. Although the theory was initially used to examine students' choices in mathematics, EVT has been a vital theoretical perspective on understanding motivation for individuals in various domains (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). Thus, FIT-Choice theory has been fruitfully applied in exploring the motivation of individuals who choose teaching as a career.

3.5 Assessing Motivation Using the FIT-Choice Scale

Guided by the theoretical framework of Eccles et al., Watt and Richardson (2007) made a substantial contribution by applying EVT theory to the field of teaching as a profession choice. They developed their own model to assess factors influencing the choice to teach for prospective teachers. The FIT-Choice Scale (Figure 3.1) (Factors Influencing Teaching Choice Scale) was primarily developed based on EVT theoretical framework consisting of task return/demand (cost value), self-perception of one's ability (expectancy for success), intrinsic/personal utility/social utility value (task value), and previous teaching and learning

experiences (socialisation factors).

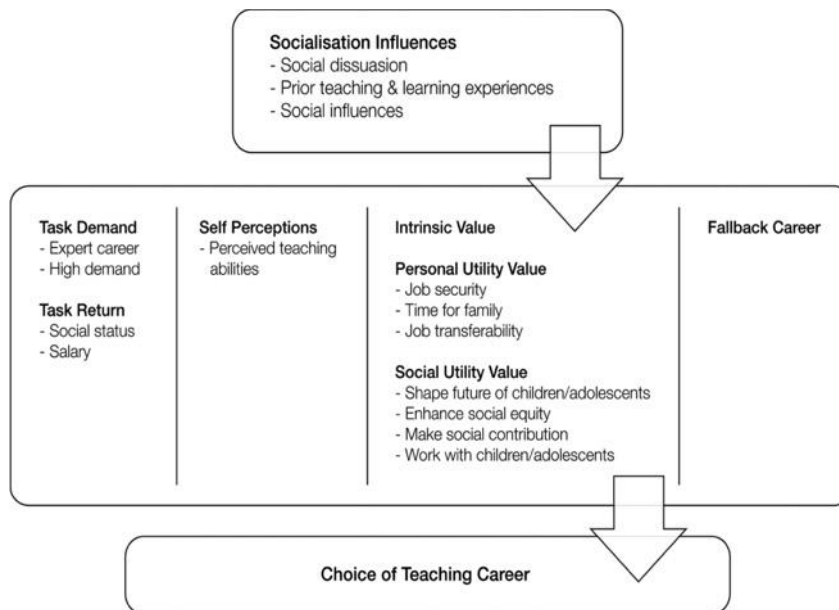


Figure 3.1. The factors influencing teaching choice (FIT-Choice) theoretical model (adapted from Watt & Richardson, 2007)

It is important to clarify, in the following section, the constructs of both EVT and the FIT-Choice model in order to avoid overlapping of terminology and to make discussion thoughtful among the wide-ranging scope of motivational theories particularly in the literature on teacher motivation.

In comparison with the EVT model, Watt and Richardson renamed subjective attainment value as personal utility value to make it easier to understand. Personal utility value was composed of time for family, job security, and job transferability. In terms of the utility values construct, the researchers relabeled this construct as social utility value, which included enhancing social equity, making a social contribution, shaping the future of children or adolescents, and working with children or adolescents. In addition, two other measures have been included in the scale in the expectancy-value theory; these are prior learning and teaching experiences, and social influences. The last construct of the scale was a fallback career which reflected the possibility to choose teaching as a backup job. In other words,

people might not choose teaching, rather than being forced into it, for example, after failing to be selected for their first-choice career, or if their grade point average (GPA) results were not good enough for their desired career. Thus, it is important to explore the value of selecting teaching as a career. That is, students who engage in teacher education programs based on their intrinsic or altruistic (such as working with children) motives may value teaching more positively than those who approach teaching as a fallback career or for other extrinsic factors.

The FIT-Choice Scale was initially applied to measure motivational factors that influenced the decision of teacher education candidates in Australia to teach. Further studies across cultures have been conducted in a number of countries, such as in the United States, Norway, China, Turkey, and Germany (Kılınç et al., 2012; Richardson & Watt, 2016; Watt et al., 2012). This widespread adoption provides empirically validated support for using the FIT-Choice scale across different settings. Moreover, it is helpful in that it allows comparison of motivational types of pre-service teachers across cultures.

3.6 Motivational Factors for Entering the Teaching Profession

The present study is concerned with the factors that influence an individual's choice of teaching as a profession. The following subsections discuss the relevant factors drawn from the FIT-Choice theoretical framework. Many previous studies have followed the dichotomous tradition (intrinsic and extrinsic motivations) in identifying motivational factors (Bruinsma & Jansen, 2010; Chowdhury, 2007). Some studies went further and divided extrinsic motivations into two sub-categories: adaptive and maladaptive motivations, which are basically determined by the level of engagement in the teaching. The differences in the division of motivations from one study to another may be attributed to the complicated nature of motivation as a concept and its impact on human behaviour. In their work developing FIT-

Choice theory, Richardson and Watt (2016) argue that:

Factors Influencing Teaching Choice framework (FIT-Choice) taps both the “altruistic”-type motivations which have been emphasized in the teacher education literature as well as more personally utilitarian motivations and intrinsic motivations, together with ability-related beliefs which are the focus of the broader career choice literature. (p. 285).

Hence, in light of Richardson and Watt’s findings, factors in the present study follow the three broad categories of motivations: intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic motivations. According to Moran et al. (2001), these three primary types of motivations can independently contribute to affecting one’s career decisions.

3.6.1 Intrinsic Motivations or Intrinsic Career Value

The FIT-choice researchers define intrinsic career value as a desire to teach and interest in teaching (Watt & Richardson, 2007, 2008a, 2008b; Watt et al., 2012). Intrinsic motivators are related to personal development, fulfilment, and pleasure from performing the task.

Individuals who are driven by intrinsic motivators are more likely to demonstrate long-term engagement and commitment toward teaching (Flores & Day, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The importance of intrinsic motivations on determining an individual’s career lies in their ability to meet their psychological potential, which is usually linked to job satisfaction.

According to Liu and Onwuegbuzie (2014), teachers tend to be more satisfied when they are intrinsically motivated to teach, which positively influences teacher retention (Sinclair, 2008). Recently, An et al. (2020) found that the intrinsic career values was the strongest predictor for satisfaction with the career choice among 503 pre-service teaching chosen from three Chinese universities.

Watt and Richardson (2007) identify three items as sources of intrinsic motivations for joining the teaching career, which reflects the individuals' love for teaching and desire for it to be their future choice of career (e.g. I have always wanted to be a teacher).

Unlike those carried out in developing countries, studies conducted in developed countries, which are usually characterised as individualist cultures, such as England, Norway, USA, Australia, and Canada, have revealed more intrinsic reasons for choosing teaching as a profession. (Klassen et al., 2011; Kyriacou et al., 1999; Manuel & Hughes, 2006; Wadsworth, 2001).

Although intrinsic motivations are highly ranked in developed countries, in a relevant study, Sharif et al. (2014) report that intrinsic and altruistic motivations were significant determinants for pre-service teachers in the UAE for their intention for becoming teachers. This finding is similar to that of a previous study in Oman, which found that intrinsic motivation was also a prominent factor mentioned by participants for choosing a career in teaching (Klassen et al., 2011). It can, therefore, be seen from these previous studies that motivations for entering the profession may fit a universally desired pattern or differ based on social and cultural contexts (Klassen et al., 2011).

Of the few researchers to have explored this part in the Saudi context, Alhussein (2010) found that teaching as an enjoyable career (“I enjoy teaching”) was the second most influential factor for becoming teachers rated by the teacher candidates. This is consistent with the earlier findings from Alkhn (1979) who found that “interest in teaching” was the most mentioned motive among pre-service teachers for choosing a career in career across three different teacher education programs.

It appears that there is a need for studies to be conducted in Saudi Arabia, confirming these previous results or exploring new motivation patterns for considering teaching as a profession among Saudi teachers, especially with the rapid and comprehensive changes in the education system.

3.6.2 Perceived Teaching Ability

Belief in one's own ability to teach is one of the prevalent intrinsic motivating factors in electing teaching as a profession as reported in many countries (Bauer et al., 2017; Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Watt et al., 2012). Perceived teaching ability refers to an individual's perception of whether he or she has the competence to meet the demands of teaching, such as dealing with classroom management, having the knowledge to impart, and the ability to impart this knowledge to students. According to Wigfield and Eccles (2000), belief in one's ability is a vital component in various motivation theories. That is, lack of ability to teach has negative motivational consequences, while ability to teach has positive motivational consequences (Richardson & Watt, 2016; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000), such as enhancing commitment to teaching (Meyer et al., 2004). Adding to this, Greenwald et al. (1996) conclude from their meta-analysis of 60 primary research studies that belief in one's own ability to teach is strongly related to students' achievement.

Richardson and Watt (2006), conducted an extensive study on a sample from three Australian universities using their own FIT-Choice scale to investigate perceptions and motivations to teach in the beginning level of the teacher training program. Of 1,653 pre-service teachers, Richardson and Watt (2006) report that perceived teaching abilities were one of the most important motivation factors rated, and strongly correlated with satisfaction with the teaching profession. They also found that the teachers' initial ability as a motivation was a significant predictor for intention to remain in the profession. Similarly, a qualitative UK study involving 36 trainees of newly qualified secondary teachers found that over 80 per cent of interviewees mentioned the ability factor and high confidence in teaching among the qualities most associated with inspirational teachers (Younger et al., 2004).

A comparative study by Leech et al. (2015), which investigated motivation to teach, was conducted on a sample of 86 pre-service and in-service teachers in the USA using the

FIT-Choice scale. They found that in-service teachers had a higher level of teaching ability than pre-service teachers. This may be explained by the experience gained by those involved into the reality of teaching. Nevertheless, perceived teaching ability was found the most important factor in determining career choice for both pre-service and in-service teachers (Berger & D'Ascoli, 2012; Suryani et al., 2016; Watt et al., 2012). Even in some developing countries, ability to teach also has also been cited as the most nominated reason for entering the career (Bastick, 2000; Bilim, 2014; Kim & Cho, 2014; Klassen et al., 2011). These data indicate the importance of ability beliefs as emphasised in the EVT, which forms the basis of the FIT-Choice theoretical model.

3.6.3 Personal Utility Value

Personal utility value or attainment value, as described in Eccles et al. (1983), refers to the personal importance of doing well on a given task. Some individuals choose teaching due to certain advantages related to improving the quality of life rather than career content or the profession itself. Teaching based on personal utility value generally focuses on external reasons or motivations. These reasons can be related to job security, having more time with family, or job transferability (Watt & Richardson, 2007). Ryan and Deci (2000) argue that motivation could be extrinsic “whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome” (p.60). People who decide to become teachers may not inherently like teaching (absence of intrinsic or altruistic motivation) but still choose teaching for personally utilitarian values, such as spending more time with family, job security, salary, or steady income. Although Watt and Richardson (2008b) report that teachers with high engagement in the career may be less motivated by personal values (external forces), many studies on motivation to teach have shown the importance of choosing teaching due to factors such as long-term job security and other job benefits (Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014; Neugebauer, 2015).

Hobson et al. (2004) contend that extrinsic rewards (e.g. long holidays, job security, and social status) are important considerations in shaping one's decision to become a teacher. Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003) interviewed 34 (12 men and 22 women) trainee teachers, making a career change into teaching, seeking to find answers as to why people change careers to teach in the UK. The participants reported that they decided to move into teaching because teaching was better suited to personal values, such as offering long-term job security with a good income. However, some participants stressed the need for greater incentives "to retain their enthusiasm in the face of the difficulties" and attract new applicants.

As with many motivating factors, personal values and satisfaction with teaching as a career choice are affected by cultural and social context. According to Huang and Van De Vliert (2003), a country's wealth and culture (e.g. individualism vs. collectivism) can be moderated between job characteristics and job satisfaction. For example, Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2014) found that salary was related to satisfaction with choice and happiness in the Netherlands and positively correlated with the decision to stay in the profession (Bruinsma & Jansen, 2010). In contrast, 37 primary teachers in Finland reported that a low salary was the largest disincentive to stay in teaching (Webb et al., 2004).

The power of external motives have been frequently observed in developing countries (Chivore, 1988; Kılınç et al., 2012; Sharif et al., 2014). In an example of this, Bastick (2000) investigated 1,444 (383 male and 1,053 female) Jamaican trainee teachers' motivations for choosing the teaching profession; data were gathered using the mixed-methods approach. He reports that participants were more satisfied based on extrinsic motives (salary, holidays, job security) as the most important factors (accounting for 24.2% as compared to intrinsic 8.8% and altruistic motivation 14.6%) for choosing a career in teaching. Likewise, Klassen et al. (2011) conducted a cross culture study from two contrasting settings using a novel structured

qualitative approach. They investigated 200 pre-service teachers from Canada and Oman (collectivist vs. individualist, discussed in detail in Section 3.9). Results show the importance of personal utility value for Canadian and Omani participants as motives for pre-service teachers in choosing teaching as a career. In another comparative study, which aimed to analysis the impact of teachers' pay and its relation to students' performance across 39 countries, Dolton and Marcenaro-Gutierrez (2011), identify salary as one of the most important motivating factors for attracting and retaining quality teachers. As a result of providing the appropriate incentives, they contend that the recruitment of new entrants and intention to stay longer in the profession would consequently improve.

Although some research conducted, particularly in individualistic societies, has shown personal utility values (job security, job transferability or time for family) to be less connected with satisfaction with the choice to teach (König & Rothland, 2012; Richardson & Watt, 2016; Watt et al., 2012; Yong, 1995), Richardson and Watt (2012) explain that career choices might be more based on individual interests and abilities in individualistic cultures. The similarities between these results from contrasting cultural backgrounds may lead to the conclusion that self-focused motives are likely to be a salient pattern across various settings (Klassen et al., 2011). However, it may be worthwhile expanding research into teacher motivation by examining the stability of personal utility values for choosing teaching over a wide range of contexts.

3.6.4 Fallback Career

The teaching profession may be considered a fallback career, back-up job, or a choice by default when more desirable career options are unattainable (Wong et al., 2014). Watt and Richardson (2007) identify this factor in light of claims in the public media and literature on teacher education that individuals choose teaching as a profession because they were not

accepted into their first-choice career. Therefore, teaching was the last-resort career choice, or at least this profession was a temporary choice when unsure of a suitable future career. Here, teachers' education determines their career based on external forces (driven by extrinsic motivations). Watt and Richardson (2007) report contrary results from Haubrich (1960) findings that choosing teaching as a fallback career was not a strong motive in an individual's choice. Moreover, their FIT-choice scale measured this factor as a negative motive for becoming a teacher. Several studies have suggested that the motivation of choosing teaching as a fallback career as the least effective factor for pre-service teachers (Richardson & Watt, 2012; Suryani et al., 2016; Watt & Richardson, 2007) and in-service teachers (Sharif et al., 2014). König and Rothland (2012) described teaching as a fallback career as a motive that "lacks professional ethos". According to Watt et al. (2012), for most countries, teaching is seen as a worthwhile and socially respected career, which may not be the case for those choosing the profession as a fallback career. Additionally, Bilim (2014), found that fallback career motivation was negatively correlated with teaching self-efficacy. His findings support Bandura's (1997) argument that individuals who have high self-efficacy are more engaged in tasks, leading to enhancing his skills and abilities, and choosing teaching as backup job would also be negatively related to affective commitment.

However, it should be noted that the fallback career motivation may be a more important and central reason when it becomes difficult to find a job. Some pre-service teachers who believe teaching is good a back-up option also view it as a good stable career (job security) and income (salary) (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2012).

Studies in different social contexts do not report the fallback career factor as an important, rather they rated more intrinsic, altruistic, as well as other extrinsic factors for choosing the teaching profession (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2012; Kissau et al., 2019; König & Rothland, 2012; Low et al., 2017; Richardson & Watt, 2012; Richardson & Watt,

2016). In their large-scale study to determine factors influencing individuals' motivation for choosing teaching as a career, using the FIT-Choice scale across three Australian universities included 1,653 pre-service teachers enrolled in teacher education programs in Melbourne and Sydney, Richardson and Watt (2006) found that serving as fallback career was the lowest motivating factor rated by pre-service teachers for the decision to go into teaching. Similarly, Hennessy and Lynch (2017) carried out a quantitative study using the FIT-choice scale to investigate the influence of motivating factors on the sample of 143 first year pre-service teachers (78 male and 65 female) in different subject fields on choosing teaching as a career in Ireland. They report that choosing teaching as a fallback career was the least important factor for Irish students as well as being negatively related to satisfaction with the choice. Participants were more motivated by altruistic and intrinsic sources. Additionally, they found that working with children was a positive predictor of satisfaction with career choice.

In a comparative study, which aimed to examine entry perspectives of pre-service teachers from China and the United States, Su et al. (2001) report that 2,400 of Chinese teachers candidates and teacher educators from 23 teacher training institutions rated extrinsic factors much higher than their counterparts in the US. They propose that the reasons behind this are that Chinese participants displayed less enthusiasm for teaching than their American sample. Data show that most American teacher candidates chose to teach of their own accord, while their counterparts in China were more motivated by external factors, such as parental or financial considerations. "I did not choose the profession, the profession chose me" (p.620) was a popular saying among the Chinese teacher sample, according to the researchers. In another cross cultural study comparing pre-service teachers' motivations from Canada and Oman, Klassen et al. (2011) report similar findings; Omani students displayed greater endorsement of teaching as a fallback career than their counterparts in Canada. One Turkish study produced results not dissimilar to those of the previously mentioned study; Akar (2012)

asserts that “low admission requirements, low salary and a life-long valid certificate give rise to teaching to be perceived as a fallback career” (P.80). In his study, he reports that only 16.1% of the participants rated teaching as their first choice when they sat the university entrance exam. It can be noticed from the above results that choosing teaching as a fall back career is more salient in collective societies.

Regarding the Saudi context, an early quantitative study across three educational institutions was conducted by Alkhn (1979); it revealed that the admission requirements as reason for entering teaching were the least factor for the participants when chose the profession. However, one of the main shortcomings of this study is that its results may not reflect the current reality. It was conducted at a time when there was little competition for jobs compared to the present time. Another shortcoming is that the study used a single data collection tool (questionnaire) which was limited to evaluating factors influencing teachers’ decision to teach. In order to overcome these limitations, the present study has been conducted in the light of recent educational reforms in KSA, with its data collected using mixed methods (questionnaire and interviews).

3.6.5 Social Influence and Social Dissuasion

Some individuals may believe that they are free to make their own career choices. However, this is frequently not the case. Friends, family members, teachers, and other relatives can have a significant influence on a student’s decision to become a teacher, either directly or indirectly, positively or negatively (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Davis, 1994). Small and McClean (2002) argue that parents could be a major influence by providing an example or role model and facilitating the path to certain occupational choices. Although family can significantly influence one’s decision to teach, Stroud et al. (2000) stress the significance of teachers and other professional educators (principals and school counselors) who served as

role models influencing an individual's decision to become a teacher.

On the other hand, Watt and Richardson (2007) include social dissuasion as another social dimension construct assumed to negatively impact the choice of whether to enter the teaching profession. Social dissuasion can be described as the extent to which others influence individuals to not consider teaching as a career (Watt & Richardson, 2007). For over thirty years, social and public media have created a negative image of teachers' status and the teaching profession as a whole. Watching television programs or movies about teachers could also contribute to creating certain stereotype types about teaching (Nevin et al., 2014), which in turn influence public opinion and political ideology (Richardson & Watt, 2016; Watt & Richardson, 2007, 2008a). This led Watt and Richardson (2007) to include social dissuasion as an independent construct (representing three items on the scale) along with social influence (also representing three items on the scale) on the FIT-choice scale as contributing factors that influence the choice of teaching as a career.

There is a broad awareness of the social impact on choosing teaching within different social settings. Although a number of empirical studies in individualist societies have shown the importance of social influences on choosing teaching as a career (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2012; Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Leech et al., 2015), an individual's career choices may be more affected by others (socialisation influences) in collectivist societies (Richardson & Watt, 2016).

In Klassen et al. (2011) comparative study, Omani participants reported high levels of motivation for choosing teaching as a career due to social influences from others ("It is the wish of my family") than Canadian participants did. A similar study in Turkey on 974 pre-service teachers reveals that the social-cultural context of Turkish society contributes to shaping participants' decisions (18.38 % were influenced by family and friends) to enter the teaching profession (Akar, 2012). Moreover, in another similar Turkish study, Balyer and

Özcan (2014) investigated the motivations of 1,410 pre-service teachers for choosing teaching as a career. The data were gathered using a scale called the “Choosing Teaching Profession as a Career Scale (CTPCS)”. Results showed that, although 60% of the participants indicated that they were not influenced by others (peers, relatives, media and family members), 42.5% of the total sample chose teaching based on the impact of others. In a similar collectivist setting, Azman (2013) conducted a study to investigate the motivations of 425 Malaysian candidate teachers for choosing careers in teaching. Data was collected using a survey questionnaire. The results reveal that parents influence for choosing the teaching was the first extrinsic factor cited by the participants.

Most of the studies reviewed above discuss the importance of others in contributing to one’s choice of teaching as a profession within different social settings. It is worth noting that some studies conducted in western countries have reported that the impact of the social factor for the choice of teaching as a career was ranked low in comparison with other contributing factors (König & Rothland, 2012), Singapore (Goh & Lourdusamy, 2001), and USA (Kissau et al., 2019), Canada (Klassen et al., 2011), and China (Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014). The self-perception of teaching, as well as the nature of individualised cultures in these societies, could be among the reasons for this finding.

Limited studies have investigated this area within the Saudi context. In the earlier Saudi study, Alkhn (1979) reports parental influence as being the third motivating factor for choosing the teaching profession as rated by the participants. In contrast to Alkhn’s study, Ghony (1994) explores the reasons for 504 pre-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession, using open-ended questions. The social factor was not one of the reasons mentioned by the participants. It can be seen from these contrasting results that the motivations of socialisation influences for selecting a career in teaching do not form a universal pattern across the different cultural contexts.

3.6.6 Prior Teaching and Learning Experiences

Antecedent beliefs and perceptions about teaching, which are formed by socialisation factors (e.g., prior teaching and learning experiences), can result in a positive or negative view of the teaching career (Low et al., 2017). Watt and Richardson's study (2007) found prior teaching experience to be a highly rated influence and positively related to the choosing the profession (with a mean above five on the seven-point scale), along with the factors of teaching ability, intrinsic career values, and social utility values. It was also positively related to teachers' developmental aspirations, persistence in teaching for a long term, and satisfaction with the choice of teaching.

Watt and Richardson's findings and the results of other previous studies (Akar, 2012; Clark, 1988; Low et al., 2017; Miller & Endo, 2005; Wang, 2004) indicate that having previous teaching and learning experience is an important factor in shaping the decision to enter teaching. For example, teaching experience could allow one to test one's initial abilities before joining a teaching program. Low et al. (2017) call prior teaching and learning experiences 'triggers', which can indirectly cause a person to join (or not join) the profession. In other words, one's prior learning and teaching experiences, whether formal or informal, could deter or encourage individuals to go into teaching. However, it should be mentioned that studies in many different cultural contexts have found prior learning and teaching experience to be highly rated motivational factors in societies such as USA (Elfers et al., 2008), Ireland (Hennessy & Lynch, 2017), UK (Flores & Day, 2006), Germany (Watt et al., 2012), Ghana (Salifu et al., 2018), and Turkey (Akar, 2012; Balyer & Özcan, 2014). In contrast, some countries, including Canada (Klassen et al., 2011), Netherlands (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2012), and Malaysia (Keow, 2006), have reported moderate to low influence with regard to this motivational factor.

In the Gulf region (culturally and geographically relevant to the present study), Klassen et al. (2011) report that Omani participants had lower levels of prior teaching experience than Canadian participants. One possible explanation for this difference pertains to personal experiences in schooling, as well as how much practical experience is provided or easily available to individuals in these countries. Additionally, teachers as role models can create a positive or negative learning experience for pupils' orientation toward teaching as a future profession.

It appears that no study has so far explored this factor in the Saudi context. Indeed, a number of studies have investigated the correlation of length of experience and job satisfaction among in-service teachers (Al-Tayyar, 2014; Almeili, 2006), which were not directly related to the choice of the teaching as a career. Therefore, the current study comes to explore this area and bridge this knowledge gap in existing research literature from the Saudi perspective.

3.6.7 Social Utility Value

A review of the literature on teachers' motivations and their choice of teaching as a career highlights altruistic motivations as one of the most influential factors (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Mansfield et al., 2012; Sinclair, 2008). Social utility value may best be explained as motivation to pursue a task based on its usefulness for the society or to benefit the next generation. Teachers who perceive teaching as a socially useful career and feel a compelling need to make social contributions to young learners tend more often to experience a meaningful engagement with their new career (Bakar et al., 2014; Eccles et al., 1983). For example, Wigfield and Eccles (2000), in view of the expectancy value model, found that values most strongly predict individuals' subsequent choices with the high intention to continuing in that career. When developing the FIT-Choice scale, Watt and

Richardson (2007) specify four social factors that entrants are often nominated when choose teaching. The researchers placed these factors under social utility value as higher-order factors; namely, the four factors are shaping future of children/adolescents, enhancing social equity, making a social contribution and working with children/adolescents. Watt and Richardson found these factors commonly expressed among teacher candidates across the three Australian universities as important reasons for choosing the teaching profession, with making a social contribution and shaping future for children being particularly common.

Similar findings to these have been confirmed in many individualist societies, including the UK, USA, Germany, Norway, Greece, and Ireland (Day et al., 2006; Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Leech et al., 2015; Richardson & Watt, 2012), as well as in some collectivist societies, including Singapore, Indonesia, Hong Kong, Turkey, and Pakistan (Akar, 2012; Goh & Lourdasamy, 2001; Kılınç et al., 2012; Razzaque, 2013; Suryani et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2018). For example, Kılınç et al. (2012) found that 1,577 Turkish pre-service teachers identified social utility values as main motivational driver for choosing teaching as a career. Together, these results may provide an indication of the importance of altruistic motivations when choosing to teach across a variety of contrasting socio-cultural contexts.

A related study, which produced similar findings in the Gulf region, was done in the UAE. Sharif et al. (2014) found that altruistic motivation items, e.g. “I enjoy working with children”, were the most highly rated and related to intention to stay in the career across 116 male and female participants. However, two shortcomings of this study are the limited sample size compared to similar quantitative studies, which means that generalisation is not possible. Sharif et al. advise that a comprehensive and representative sample is needed to improve data reliability. Added to this, the data was collected using a single-approach method (survey questionnaire).

Meanwhile, testing the social utility value for choosing teaching among teachers in the Saudi context has been limited, and small in scope; most studies have explored this topic based on the traditional classification of motives (intrinsic vs extrinsic), without explicitly mentioning this classification. Nonetheless, some studies have investigated factors that can be seen as altruistic in nature. In the Saudi study previously mentioned, Alkhn (1979) found that the reason “serv[ing] the nation” was the second most highly rated by the participants. However, in another related study, Alhussein (2010), explored the attitudes of 218 male teacher candidates in Saudi Arabia, using a quantitative survey containing 32 statements related to different dimensions of the teaching profession. Alhussein reports that teacher candidates’ perceptions about teaching as socially valuable was rated slightly lower ($M = 3.58$) than their view of the career as being economically valuable ($M = 3.63$). Furthermore, Al-Tayyar (2014) conducted a more recent mixed-method study in order to investigate the relationship between satisfaction and motivation in a sample of 737 in-service male teachers. His study found that the intrinsic reason (e.g., “Wanting to help students to succeed) along with altruistic reason (e.g., “Contributing to a better society”) were the leading factors contributing to teachers’ motivation to do their job, but they were less strongly correlated with job satisfaction.

From these previous results, it can be deduced that, while Saudi teachers experience teaching as a socially valuable and vital profession, promotion/salary is also of considerable importance for them. Moreover, this can perhaps be explained by the fact that teachers in Saudi Arabia receive a relatively high salary with certain financial advantages (e.g., automatic annual promotion) compared with workers in other sectors.

As altruistic motivations are important factors in selecting teaching as a career across cultures, it is expected that they will also be relevant to teachers in the Saudi setting. Findings from the present study can add valuable new insights by exploring the social set of motives as

reasons for the choice of teaching among both pre-and in-service teachers from a different educational system (taking into account the variable of gender) and the relation of these types of motives with occupational commitment, as discussed in the next section.

3.7 Occupational Commitment and Motivation to Teach

A considerable body of research on occupational commitment has been carried out in the area of business. Nevertheless, limited research has been done concerning the teaching profession. There is a need to study the correlation between commitment to teach and what motivates people for choosing teaching as a profession due to the importance of this relationship in predicting the professional success of entrants. (Sinclair, 2008). Based on a survey with a sample size of 500 computer specialists, Vincent Cho and Xu Huang (2012) found professional commitment to be negatively associated with the intention to leave the profession. In 1992, Billingsley and Cross examined the influence between teaching commitment and job satisfaction on teachers' intention to continue teaching. The study found that professional commitment was highly correlated with job satisfaction. At the same time, the teachers expressed their intention to stay in teaching. However, this research is based on data from over 20 years ago, and it does not show pre-service and new teachers as a targeted sample.

Despite the fact that commitment is closely related to motivation (entry motivation), educational psychology researchers have not paid close attention to level of commitment among pre-service and practicing teachers, and how their motivations of career choice connect to their occupational commitment.

Theoretically, work commitment has been a problematic concept to define, because it may take different forms, including commitment to the occupation, organisation, workgroup, or union. A number of researchers (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) have

compiled lists of definitions of the concept of commitment, suggesting the “core essence” of commitment that it “is a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target” (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301). Despite the fact that there is remarkable overlap in various models of commitment, there are also differences. For the present purpose, occupational commitment relates to the strength of motivation for particular work. Occupational commitment has also been used in different terms, such as professional commitment, career commitment, and professionalism (Hackett et al., 2001). Occupational commitment is characterised as a psychological status that is defined as an individual’s attachment to a chosen line of work, to the level of commitment or desire toward a particular career.

In comparison with the concept of motivation, commitment is considered as one of the energising forces that enhances motivated behaviour, whereas motivation is defined as a “set of energising forces”. Thus, motivation is a more general concept than occupational commitment (Meyer et al., 2004). However, motivation and commitment theory in the educational context have both been developed in order to predict, understand, and influence worker behaviour in order to improve occupational or organisational outcomes.

A number of researchers have reported the positive influence of intrinsic and altruistic types of motivations on encouraging teachers to stay in and remain committed to their profession. For example, Roness (2011) conducted a longitudinal research project in Norway to follow motivations of 329 university students at the beginning of their initial teacher education, upon completion of the course, and one year and a half after completing the course. The results indicate that intrinsic followed by altruistic motivators were factors that attracted them to join the teaching profession. Specifically, choosing to teach for the love of a particular subject area demonstrated a high degree of stability and commitment to the profession over the three periods. Similarly, Kissau et al. (2019), in their study of 54 teacher

candidates, found that ability to teach, intrinsic career value, enhancing social equity, social contribution, and shaping the future of children were strongly correlated with commitment to the teaching profession. Despite the small sample size employed in Kissau's study, the findings of these previous studies emphasise the positive impact of these motivational patterns in teacher commitment and retention.

A noteworthy study by Pop and Turner (2009) investigates individuals' reasons for choosing teaching as a career and levels of commitment to teaching among three groups of students. The results reveal that students who had fully committed to teaching had more positive views of their career and more altruistic reasons (e.g., desire to work with children) for pursuing a career in teaching. In addition, Klassen and Chiu (2011) found that pre-service teachers displayed more occupational commitment to teaching than those who were in-service, whereas practicing teachers reported low levels of occupational commitment. This implies that the level of commitment may vary with career stages and may be influenced by initial reasons for entering the profession. Thus, there is a need to explore pre-service teachers' motivation as it relates to their level of commitment to teaching (Pop & Turner, 2009; Watt & Richardson, 2008a).

The present study seeks to explore the relationship between the motivation to teach and occupational commitment for two cohorts of prospective teachers: students at the beginning and the end of their education programs (fourth-year students).

3.8 Developmental Approach for Teachers

School quality, including teachers' professional development, has been extensively debated in the literature (Hill, 2009). Undoubtedly, teachers play a key role in helping students achieve the level of learning demanded. Having a teacher with a modest teaching ability and poor motivation toward teaching has a direct adverse impact on students' achievements and

motivation to learn. Despite the fact that a large body of research has addressed teachers' motivations to teach, much less is known regarding how those motivations change over the course of a teacher's professional life (Sinclair et al., 2006). Furthermore, Richardson and Watt (2016) suggest that the variable quality of teachers at the beginning of their careers and their level of engagement in the work environment can be associated with their initial motivations to teach. Watt and Richardson (2007), in their study, found that highly motivated teachers were more likely to have started their careers with more productive. In turn, teachers who were less motivated to work (e.g. perceived their career as a fallback or influenced by other external factors) were less likely to continue, sustain and more likely to be less satisfied with their professional choice.

Latham and Pinder (2005) refine the definition of motivation further, relating it to the concept of "work motivation". They define work motivation as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration" (p. 486). This concept indicates that motivation is a dynamic psychological process which is formed by the interaction between the individual and the workplace or environment. According to Shann (1998), changes in aspiring teachers' motivations towards the profession are important due to the fact that there are significant staff losses in the early years of teaching. Therefore, gaining knowledge about the factors affecting teachers' motivation to teach over their professional life might be essential for both pre-service and in-service teachers.

There can be little doubt that there is a key relationship between human resource development and professional concerns. Regarding the teaching profession, they are both focused on the teacher's career cycle, professional growth, and development (Al-Ahdal, 2014). The concept itself is not new; however, the biological and product life cycles have already demonstrated the stages throughout a teacher's professional life. A teacher's life

stages refers to the period of years that a teacher has been teaching (Day & Gu, 2007).

Several studies show that there are fluctuations in teachers' motivation at different stages or phases in their careers (Hargreaves, 2005; Huberman, 1993; Sinclair et al., 2006).

A number of researchers have attempted to identify and describe the "seasons" related to teacher's development stages (Fessler, 1985; Huberman, 1993). The empirical literature has identified different stages across the teaching profession. In line with these avenues of research, Huberman (1989, 1993) has provided a comprehensive approach to "Teachers' Professional Life Cycles" which describes various career stages of teachers. The work of Huberman was guided by the theoretical approach to the lifespan development that emphasises dynamic change ("processes of gains and losses") in an individual's behaviour and beliefs over the course of their life (Baltes, 1987). After two decades of observation in the educational field, Huberman (1989) noted that motivations and values are in constant change during a teacher's career. In this way, it is important to identify those changes to understand the motivational factors for people becoming teachers and as well as to determine what motivates teachers to continue in their careers. It is apparent that much research related to motivational theories has confirmed that motivation is an important aspect for the professional life of teachers and has also emphasised the importance of initial teacher motivation for new entrants. (Richardson & Watt, 2016). Thus, understanding the motivations of teachers helps us to predict both positive and negative education outcomes and behaviours, as well as teachers' health and wellbeing during the different stages of their professional lives (Richardson & Watt, 2016).

Another substantial study in this area was done by Day and Gu (2007), who found that teachers' commitment and resilience varied depending on their career stage. Unlike Huberman's principles of teacher development, Day and Gu argued that personal (i.e., related to their lives outside of school) and situated factors (i.e., pupil behaviour, increased workload

and promotion) could affect teachers' effectiveness in the workplace. In other words, teachers' work, lives and effectiveness (VITAE) are not necessarily impacted by the length of their experience. Although Day and Gu did not explicitly create the stages of teachers' professional development, they stressed the importance of offering differentiated support to meet teachers' personal and professional needs at different phases of their careers. This support can help counter declining professional commitment trajectories and assist teachers in maintaining their intrinsic motivation to work.

Returning to Huberman's study of teachers' career development, Huberman sees stages of being of different types, which he classifies based on distinct characteristics and feelings, including the motivation to teach throughout the professional life cycle of teachers. In other words, Huberman suggests that career development proceeds within a series or sequence that may occur over the working life of a teacher (Klassen & Chiu, 2011). He establishes three main phases throughout a teacher's professional life cycle : novice (or early-career), mid-career and late-career teachers. Huberman's classification is organised according to experience in teaching, which is closely related to a teacher's age, as follows: career entry stage (lasting from years 1-3), stabilisation stage (lasting from years 4-6), experimentation/activism or diversification stage (lasting from years 7-11), reassessment and self-doubt (lasting from years 12-20), serenity (lasting from years 21-31), and disengagement (from year 31+). It should be pointed out that these phases are not always linear, but vary and overlap due to the nature of human behavior.

Huberman (1993) views the first three years of teaching (career entry) as the survival and discovery phase. A novice teacher continually faces challenges and obstacles in terms of classroom management and school administrative requirements. According to Kyriacou and Kunc (2007), 40% of teachers in England leave the profession during the first five years. An Australian study also reports that most new teachers leave within the same period (Wilhelm

et al., 2000). It is important to note that the early years in teaching are a critical time in a teacher's professional life (Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007), especially for teachers who have not had prior teaching experience. Stress, heavy workload, a loss of autonomy and pressure are causes of declining motivation. According to Day and Gu (2007), Situated factors (related to the workplace) are more likely to affect teachers' professional commitment trajectories in their early years.

The second phase (four to six years of experience) of Huberman's (1993) classification is described as the stabilisation stage, when teachers tend to become more committed to the profession. Huberman contends that, during this phase, teachers attain a feeling of comfort and mastery over their career. Likewise, teachers during this period, often have a sense of confidence about their knowledge and professional skills, as well as an "affiliation to an occupational community" (Huberman, 1989, p. 34).

The third stage (seven to 11 years of experience) is termed experimentation or diversification when mid-career teachers attempt to give sufficient contributions towards their students by implementing new teaching techniques and approaches in their classroom. Teachers at this stage express a high level of motivation, and commitment to their work (Day & Gu, 2007; Flores & Day, 2006).

Huberman (1993) contends that taking stock and self-doubt, or a "mid-career crisis," can occur between the twelfth and twentieth year of teaching. Interestingly, teachers' enthusiasm, motivation, and commitment gradually decrease during this period. Huberman found that 40% of the sample were seriously considering leaving the teaching profession. It is noteworthy that teachers with many years of teaching experience, such as ten years or more may face certain challenges in terms of motivation to teach. Day and Gu (2007), in their study of 'Variations in Teachers' Work, Lives and Effectiveness' (VITAE), indicate that some of the mid-career teachers' challenges related to motivation and occupational

commitment. Despite the difficulties they faced in trying to finding a balance between their personal and professional lives, they did not attempt to deliver new teaching strategies and activities for their students but “more of the same”, and they just continued with a routine approach. Therefore, this phase of a teacher’s professional life must be considered as a career. Noticeably, there is a sense of detachment and decline in motivation, which may occur in mid-career teachers who have been teaching more than ten years (Day & Gu, 2007).

The late-career teacher stage (21-31+ years of experience) consists of two phases. The first is the “serenity stage” wherein a “gradual loss of energy and enthusiasm is compensated by a greater sense of confidence and self-acceptance” (Huberman, 1993, p. 35). However, teachers, after many years of experience, usually become comfortable with their role in the classroom and with classroom life in general. Gradually, they seek to distance themselves emotionally from the students, which ultimately leads to conservatism.

The second late-career phase is “disengagement” (31+ years of experience). Huberman identifies this period as “a trend toward increasing withdrawal and “internalization” toward the end of the professional career” (Huberman, 1993, p. 36). For teachers with over 31 years of experience, this stage linked with several challenges, such as maintaining energy, motivation, and decreasing in their enthusiasm toward the profession compared to teachers in the first stages of their professional lives. In other words, teachers who work in a single occupation for prolonged periods may have experienced several socio-economic and policy reforms which influence the degree of enthusiasm, commitment, and motivation to continue teaching as before. In this regard, Day and Gu (2007) suggested that school leaders should acknowledge and understand teachers’ needs across their different professional stages and offer appropriate support to enhance their sense of professional commitment.

In summary, Hargreaves (2005) contends that the findings of prior studies on career stages have an impact on teachers’ practices and responses. The structure and content of these

stages can be categorised as an “arc of ambition”. That is, new teachers today, who have learned how to adapt to life in a professional and social environment, which can be distinguished as increasing insecurity (survival), are working hard to find their place among a group of competitors. At the end of their career, most teachers who have experienced many educational reforms and repetitive changes of policy become more resistant towards any educational changes and save their remaining energy for a greater sense of accomplishment and relaxation (disengagement). In contrast, in the middle years of teaching, teachers lose some of their motivation and enthusiasm, but, with more competence and confidence, gain a kind of stability. Moreover, mid-career teachers become more accepting and selective about change initiatives in education policies (Hargreaves, 2005). These changing phases throughout a teacher’s life require new stimuli, opportunities, and training workshops to promote a conducive learning environment, especially for poorly prepared teachers who consider leaving their careers when faced with negative experiences, as they do throughout their professional lives (Rones & Smith, 2010).

3.9 Effects of Culture on Motivation to Teach

More recent attention has focused on the motivation to teach within different cultural contexts. While some results have shown similarities between two or more distinct cultures, there are also dissimilarities, particularly between studies done in developed and developing societies (Klassen et al., 2011). These differences can be clearly seen in many studies conducted in culturally contrasting contexts (Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014; Watt et al., 2012). Results across a variety of settings show that the significance of cultural influences in communities should not be disregarded. As mentioned, there has been increasing international attention paid to cross-cultural differences in motivation, especially in terms of the new research domain of teachers and their decision to join the teaching

profession (Han & Yin, 2016).

Greet Hofstede (2003) presents an influential comparative study regarding intercultural differences. According to Hofstede and McCrae (2004), culture can be described as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes one group or category of people from another” (p. 58). This definition reflects the importance of understanding cultural values across different contexts to improve our awareness of how certain groups of people think, feel, and behave (Brewer & Chen, 2007). Despite the fact that Hofstede’s model has been subject to a series of criticisms, both methodologically and theoretically, it can be still seen as the most effective model to explain how the sociocultural context of a specified society may affect the behaviour of its members (Obeidat et al., 2012). Since 1984, many studies have been done in 50 countries and three regions. Hofstede (2003) concludes that differences in national cultures lead to substantial variations in workplace attitude, having observed that cultural values have more impact on employees’ behaviour and attitude than any other factors (Hofstede et al., 2010). The Hofstede Dimensions of Culture are categorised along six dimensions: power distance, individualism/ collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and indulgence/restraint (Hofstede, 2003). These represent the dimensions of cultural values and the reported ranks of these dimensions across 50 countries. In the following paragraphs, these values are discussed according to the Saudi context, which is the setting of the present study (see Figure 3.2).

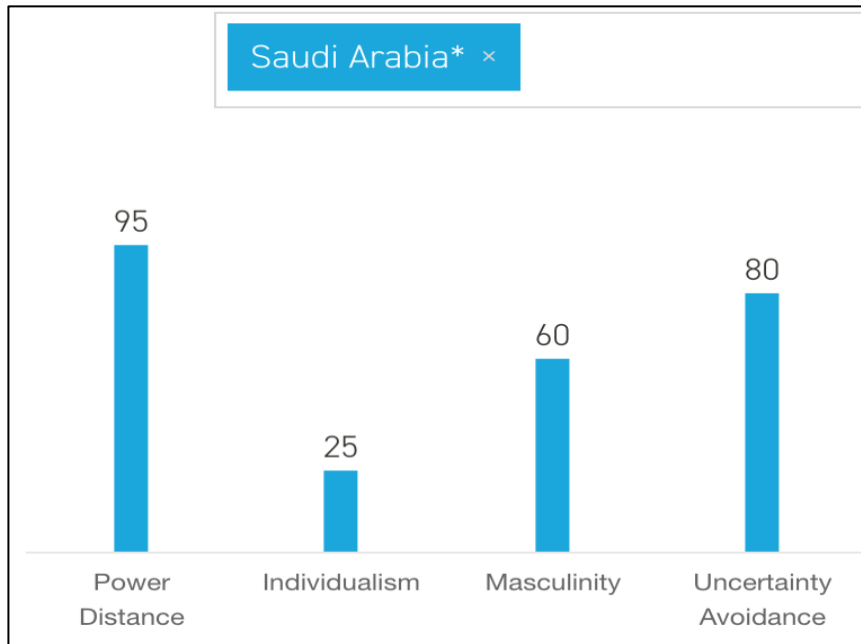


Figure 3.2. Hofstede’s evaluation of Saudi Arabia’s national culture (adopted from the website of Hofstede-insights – available at <https://geert-hofstede.com/united-kingdom.html>)

The first four dimensions will be discussed in this section, but not the last two as the score of 52 for the indulgence dimension in Saudi society does not indicate a clear preference for indulgence/restraint at just above the mean (Hofstede et al., 2010). It is important to note that the present study is related to motivation among teachers, while Hofstede’s studies of cultural values and dimensions were conducted in the business field, and there is a clear difference between education and business contexts. Moreover, this study does not mainly adopt a comparative approach between countries; however, Hofstede’s model of cross-cultural variations can be seen as a valuable tool to understand differences between contrasting educational contexts in the results of studies regarding, in particular, teachers’ motivation for choosing teaching as a career (Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014).

Hofstede (2003) describes power distance as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (p.98). Taking an example from the teaching context, the teacher-student relationship is influenced by socially endorsed power distance attitudes (Klassen et

al., 2011). Hofstede's ranking shows that Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, have a very high score of 95, indicating that hierarchical relationships between the teacher and student in the workplace should not be questioned. This means that Saudis display a high level of inequality in terms of power distance attitude (Obeidat et al., 2012).

Individualism/collectivism refers to the degree to which people rank the importance of the individual against group survival (Hofstede, 2003). In individualistic societies, such as the UK (and many other developed countries), people are more likely to take care of themselves and their immediate family members, whereas collectivist communities, such as Arabs countries, including Saudi Arabia (with a score of 25), are strongly characterised by close social frameworks (ingroups and outgroups), which tend to concentrate on the goals of groups more than personal goals (Taras et al., 2010). According to Klassen et al. (2011), teachers in individualist contexts tend to be focused on motivational factors, while teachers in collective societies build motivation within group references, such as references related to family or religion.

The masculinity/femininity dimension refers to the extent to which a society stresses or supports differences between gender in work-related ethics, such as emotional roles. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), when there is a high score in this dimension (masculine), society tends to be more driven by competition and achievement. In contrast, a low score (feminine) means more cooperation and caring for others. Saudi Arabia scores 60 on this dimension, indicating that its society has a more masculine culture. However, this dimension, as presented in the model, may not be directly applicable to the Saudi setting due to the fact that males and females are separated in the workplace and schools.

The final cultural dimension is uncertainty avoidance, which refers to “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations” (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 191). Countries where uncertainty avoidance is high try to reduce

uncertain situations by providing formal rules and by believing in absolute truth. Saudi Arabia scores 80 on this dimension, which means that people exhibit high levels of uncertainty avoidance; employees express strong allegiance to their employers and a great willingness to meet work demands, which are driven by authority and rules. In the educational context, the hierarchical relationship between teacher and student means that the teacher is the only source of knowledge for the students and is expected to respond to all of their queries (At-Twajri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996; Klassen et al., 2011). Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions and its influence on teaching as a professional choice are illustrated in Figure 3.3 in the next page.

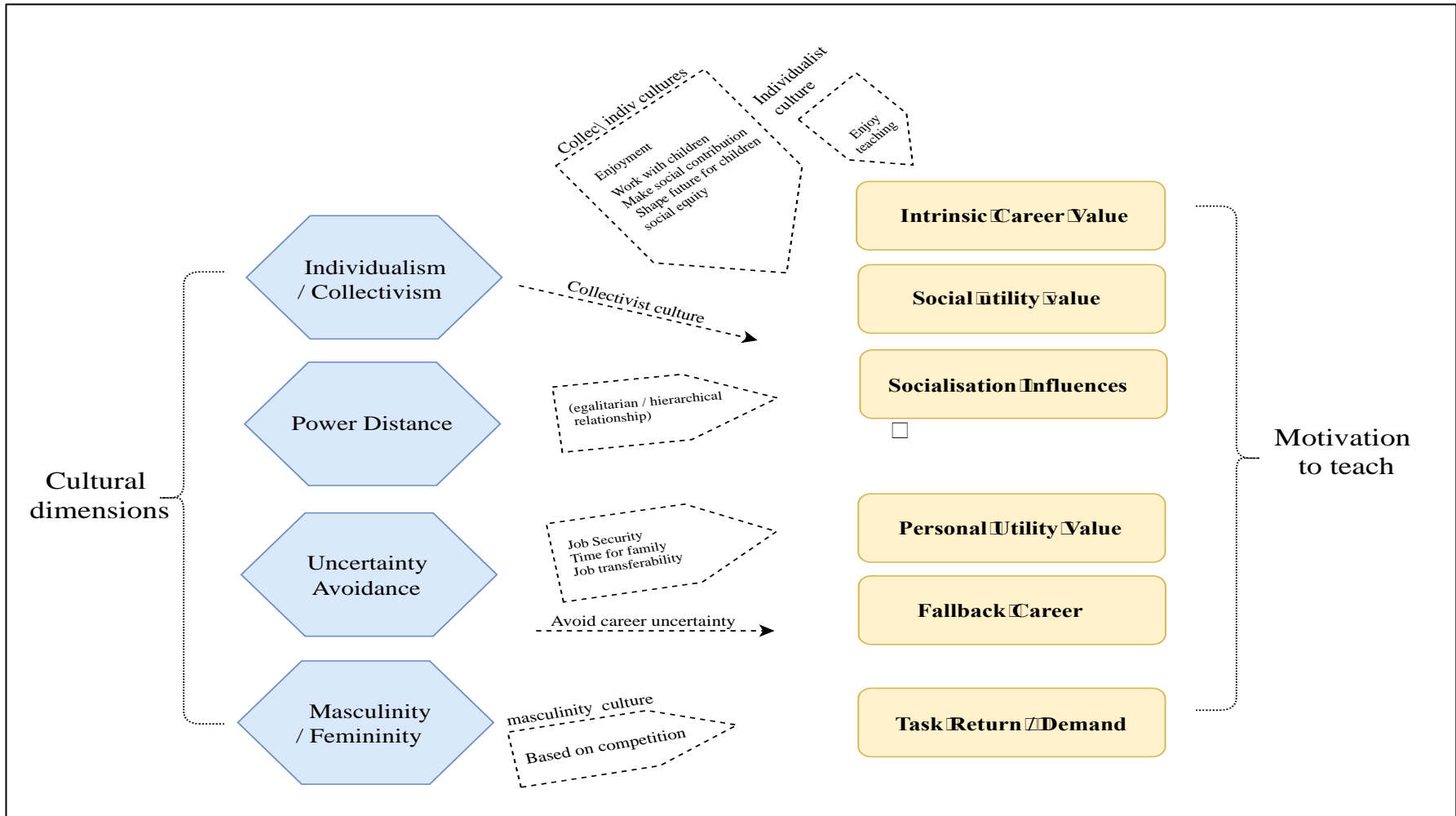


Figure 3.3. Cultural factors influencing teachers' motivation to teach

In summary, cultural contexts clearly appear to influence an individual's career choice. Specifically, motivation for entering the teaching profession may vary according to the socio-cultural context from country to country. For example, the education system and policies in Saudi Arabia are mainly centralised. This kind of system reflects on the financial status of the workforce, which means that teachers receive a fixed monthly salary across all state schools (salary varies according to teaching experience). This kind of system leads one to assume that teachers in Saudi Arabia may perceive teaching as offering job security, while teachers in the developed countries, such as UK and USA, are less motivated by this factor. People living in collectivist settings (e.g., Turkey and China) demonstrate a higher rate for choosing teaching as a fallback career than those who live in individualist settings (e.g., the USA and Australia). Therefore, assuming a generalised united motivational profile for all new teachers may well be erroneous. Hofstede's cultural dimensions in the present study are expected to provide a comprehensive understanding of how teacher motivation may vary across different cultural contexts, as shown in Figure 2. Moreover, the results of the present study are expected to increase awareness of the impact of cultural values on education, especially on the choice of teaching as a profession.

3.10 Gender in the Teaching Profession

The role of gender can be one of the most controversial elements in some societies. One's gender can determine fundamental features of one's life and can shape experiences which are in line with gender role orientations (Egan & Perry, 2001). Livingston and Judge (2008) define gender role orientation as "a form of compliance with these expectations, or the degree to which one identifies with the traditional conceptions (i.e., expectations) of his or her gender role" (p. 208). This definition is consistent with the earlier view of Beechey (1987) that 'gender-related expectations' are robustly associated with a particular cultural context

and its values and beliefs. Consequently, it is important to consider cultural differences with regard to gender and gender role orientations that have a direct impact on the workplace.

3.10.1 Is There a Gender Balance in Teaching

The influence of gender on choosing teaching as a career has been investigated in a variety of social contexts around the world. Studies in many countries, such as Australia, Germany, USA, Turkey, Canada, UK, Oman, UAE, Netherland, Pakistan, Hong Kong, China, and New Zealand, have observed that teaching is viewed as female-dominated profession, particularly at early childhood and primary levels (Asbury et al., 2016; Bastick, 2000; Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2014; Johnston et al., 1999; Klassen et al., 2011; Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014; Livingstone, 2003; Seker et al., 2015; Sharif et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2015; Watt et al., 2012; Yuan & Zhang, 2017). According to Dinella et al. (2014), women are more interested in careers that rely on a social interactional aspect, such as teaching. Added to this, the teaching profession is usually associated with stereotypical gender roles that stem from the social context in which teaching is seen as a woman's mission, reflecting a mother's roles, such as nurturing and caring (Alwedinani, 2016). Therefore, commitment to teaching could be higher among female than male teachers, as reported in the literature (Ingersoll et al., 1997; Moses et al., 2016). However, Egan and Perry (2001) assert that the term femininity can be misleading, because it may imply an ideological picture regarding gender relations. The current study is concerned professional labour markets in the educational field. Therefore, in this study, the term feminisation is used to refer to a profession mostly made up of women (Ku & Watt, 2009).

The under-representation of males in teaching was clearly observed in educational studies during the last century (Carrington, 2002; Ku & Watt, 2009). In 2018, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) revealed that females

constitute an average of more than two-thirds of teachers in OECD countries for all educational levels. At the pre-primary level, the data indicate that women make up at least 90% of the teaching population in most OECD countries, while this percentage decreases to an average of 83% in pre-primary education (OECD, 2018).

According to Kelleher et al. (2011), there are two main factors for the underrepresentation of males in the teaching profession. The first factor related to a socio-economic development (especially in developed countries), which attracts more male workers to pursue their interests and explore other job opportunities, or for a better salary. Johnston et al. (1999) reported that male teachers entering the profession with more emphasis on tangible motives (teaching is a well-paid job in some countries) than females do. The second factor concerns the stereotypical role of women as being responsible for educating young children, meaning more female job opportunities in teaching.

However, despite the feminisation of the teaching profession having increased globally, teaching in some developing countries is still not a female-dominated profession (Moses et al., 2016). Women in countries such as India, Pakistan, Indonesia, and Turkey constitute 51, 49, 62, and 54 per cent of the total number of primary teachers, respectively (UNESCO, 2017; OECD, 2016).

In Saudi Arabia, women make up 53% of the total number of teachers at primary level (OECD, 2016). It might be argued that the balance in gender in teaching in Saudi Arabia can be attributed to gender segregation in the country's society (Alnahdi, 2014; Alwedinani, 2016). Like other workplaces, the educational system in KSA is highly segregated by gender, which emerges from cultural and religious roots (Geel et al., 2012). Although the separation between males and females in schools (known as single-sex education) gives largely equal opportunities to both genders to be teachers, the current educational reforms in the country have allowed private schools to hire women to teach boys

in primary schools. Although the Saudi Arabian educational system does not provide additional pay for taking on leadership roles in schools, men continue to hold leadership positions in this sector, the result of a culture in which men have higher levels of social dominance (Hofstede, 2003; Geel et al., 2012). This fact is also related to the argument that in countries such as the UK, male teachers are rapidly promoted to leadership roles, skewing the gender balance amongst classroom teachers.

According to Livingston and Judge (2008), stereotyped male professions usually involve leadership, assertiveness, and autonomy. While teaching itself is a female-dominated field in developed societies, this is also becoming the trend in many developing societies (Kelleher et al., 2011; Moses et al., 2016). More detailed on gender diversity among the teacher workforce will be discussed in the next section.

3.10.2 Gender Differences in Choosing Teaching as a Profession in Developing Countries

Several studies conducted in developing countries have confirmed that teaching is more popular and more common among women. For example, a study carried out in Jamaica by Bastick (2000) investigates the reasons for choosing teaching as a career. The data were collected using a survey questionnaire from 1,444 prospective teachers, and the majority of them were female, constituting 72.9% of the total sample. Another study was conducted in the Turkey by Yüce et al. (2013) on 283 pre-service teachers, consisting of 106 males and 177 females. It reports that 64.4% of the female participants wanted to be teachers, as opposed to 49.05% of male participants. Moreover, female participants cite altruistic motives (e.g., working with children and help others to learn) as the most important reasons for choosing a career in teaching. Similarly, Goh and Lourdusamy (2001) investigated the motives of new entrants for entering teaching as a profession in Singapore. Using a quantitative methodology, they collected data from 680 students enrolled on the education

program. Of them, 82.9% were female. The results indicate that there were no significant differences between male and female participants. However, a love of working with children, a love of teaching, shaping young lives for the better, teaching as intellectually stimulating, and teaching as a noble profession (altruistic and intrinsic motivations) were the most frequently cited motivational factors for choosing the profession, as rated by the participants.

In addition, a study conducted in the United Arab Emirates (in the Gulf region), which is relevant to the current study, by Sharif et al. (2014) examined the key motivational factors contributing to choosing teaching and the effect of gender role on this choice. It used a survey questionnaire, given to 116 pre-service teachers, of whom 17 (15%) were male and 99 (85%) were female, in years 1 and 2 of the B.Ed. program. Sharif et al. (2014), report that participants chose altruistic and intrinsic motives as primary reasons for their choice. Similar to Goh and Lourdasamys' study, they did not find any significant difference in participants' intentions to be teachers with respect to gender. The limited size of samples and underrepresentation of male participants could be considered a shortcoming of the two previous studies, which may influence the generalisability of their findings. Moreover, they relied on one single method (survey methodology). Indeed, the researchers stress the necessity of methodological triangulation to improve the studies' reliability.

Unlike Sharif et al.'s study, Akar (2012) conducted a mixed-methods study to examine the motivation factors for 974 Turkish pre-service teachers choosing teaching as a career and participants' perceptions about the profession. The majority of the sample were female (72.8%). The participants came for different fields, including elementary education English, art, and mathematics). The quantitative data were collected based on the survey method using the FIT-Choice scale. Results show significant differences between male and female participants. Males rated social dissuasion (influenced negatively by others) higher than females, which supports the global view of teaching as being more suited to women than

men. Moreover, making a social contribution and working with children were the most common reasons for entering the teaching profession (social utility values). Qualitative data were gathered using the open-ended question “what are your main reasons for choosing to become a teacher” to explore further inferences of individuals’ motivation in choosing to teach. Similar to the quantitative findings, results show the highest motivational reasons rated for choosing the teaching to be social utility value, such as making a social contribution and shaping the future of children, followed by personal utility value such as job security and time for family. With regard to the effect of gender, 9.34% of participants contended that they had chosen the teaching profession as the most fitting job for women. Considering the socio-cultural context of Turkish society, collectivist cultures emphasise the role of gender in that certain jobs are seen as being for women, that is parents, family, and society find this more acceptable.

In a comparative study carried out by Klassen et al. (2011), results show that Omani and Canadian prospective teachers had many reasons in common for their decision to teach. For instance, they both expressed high levels of intrinsic career value, perceived ability to teach, and reasons of personal utility as the most common reasons for choosing teaching as a career. In contrast, two new codes were created, namely religious purpose and gender roles, which were assigned under the composite theme “socio-cultural influences”. Omani participants endorsed higher levels of socio-cultural influences (social influences, religious purpose, and gender roles) as motives for teaching (extrinsic motivations). As noted, the study emphasises the importance of gender role when taking choosing to teach. However, the method of structured interpretation of results (as purely qualitative) used in this study was unable to elicit more extensive data.

In the Saudi educational context, an exhaustive search has yielded only three early studies that investigated pre-service teachers’ motivations for teaching as a career choice,

taking into account the gender factor. The details of these studies are listed below.

The first of these three pieces research was conducted in the western region of Saudi Arabia. The sample comprised 428 teachers education, of whom 82 were female. In aiming to explore their reasons for choosing teaching as a profession, data were collected using a survey questionnaire drawn from the literature review in the field and an earlier pilot study. Alkhn (1979) prepared a questionnaire covering 31 motivating factors, such as religious purpose, easy promotion and high salary (extrinsic motives), loving teaching (intrinsic motive), and serving the nation (altruistic motive). Results show no significant differences between male and female pre-service teachers regarding their reasons for choosing the teaching profession. In general, the most important factor was related to the religious purpose “Islam promotes education as a profession” followed by serving the nation, parental desire, contribution to fulfilling the Kingdom’s need for teachers, and finally, personal desire to teach. However, participants rated four factors as the least important motivations for choosing to teach. These factors were the professional environment of teaching, clarity of career path, leading others, not getting admission to a major of their choice, and it happened by accident (no intention to be a teacher). Moreover, Alkhn (1979), points out that tangible rewards, such as salary, were less important for female participants. In addition to being a very early study which used single-approach method, thus restricting exploration of further factors’ influence teachers in their choice to teach, females were not well represented in the sample for this study.

The second study was also conducted in the western region of Saudi Arabia. Ghony (1994) examines the attitudes of 504 pre-service teachers toward the teaching profession (a total of 252 were female) in light of the theoretical and practical teaching program of the college of education. Data were collected quantitatively using a survey questionnaire of 32 items (including four open-ended questions) to measure the attitudes and reasons for the

participants choice of teaching. The data were analysed using a Two-Way ANOVA and T-test. Ghony (1994) reports significant differences between males and females in their attitudes toward teaching. Results show that female participants expressed more positive attitudes toward the teaching profession than males did. The negative perception of the male participants was based on extrinsic reasons, such as “I was not accepted in other colleges” and “I want to be close to my family”. Interestingly, male participants also stated that “society does not respect this profession”, which indicates their negative attitudes toward teaching. In contrast, the females’ answers were more intrinsically and altruistically driven, such as “I love teaching” and “I would like to make a social contribution to society”. In addition, females reported that teaching is considered a suitable career for them. Results also show a positive impact of the theoretical aspect of the teacher preparation program on participants’ attitudes toward teaching. However, no significant impact was found for the practical teaching program on participants. As for the study shortcomings, despite the fact that the study adopted one methodological approach, it did not provide broad factors that influence the choice of teaching guided by a clear theoretical framework.

The third study was undertaken by Shoaib (2004), to explore the factors influencing the choice of 30 female in-service teachers in Saudi Arabia to teach. The study adopted a qualitative method, using semi-structured interviews and a focus-group. Interestingly, although some of the participants reported having started to like teaching after settling into their career, results show that the most important influencing factor for their career choice was the limited job opportunities (i.e., restricted number of professions) for women in Saudi Arabia. The study also reveals various motivational and demotivational factors to teach, which were mainly related to the school environment (e.g., co-workers, management, and facilities) and student behaviour. However, salary was rated as the least important motive for choosing to teach.

In terms of intention to remain in the profession, most participants expressed their intention to remain in the profession despite some negative factors. It should be noted that Shoaib's study focuses on factors influencing in-service with no representative sample of pre-service teachers. Moreover, it deals with just one gender (females), rendering the reader unable to identify motivational differences between the choice of male and female teachers to enter the profession. The present study has taken into account these shortcomings. It has taken samples from male and female pre-service and in-service teachers in order to provide a deeper understanding of the complexity of human nature within a specific cultural context.

Although research into gender differences in motivations for choosing teaching as a profession has started to increase in some developing countries, this is not the case in Saudi Arabia. Very little attention has been paid to differences between gender and motivations to teach. This may be attributed to gender segregation in the workplace, especially in the educational field, leading to difficulty in reaching a representative sample to explore the differences of motivation to teach according to gender.

3.10.3 The teaching profession and the impact of feminisation

Although previous studies suggest that the teaching profession is seen as a more suitable occupation for women, the feminisation of the teaching profession and its impact on the quality of teaching outcomes has been a topic of analysis among researchers and policymakers (Drudy, 2008). The crux of the argument is whether the feminisation of teaching might lead to a reduction in the quality of educational outcomes, reducing the status of teaching as an occupation and creating discipline problems for male learners (Drudy, 2008; Haywood et al., 2005; Moses et al., 2016; Ku & Watt, 2009). For example, some cite the need to provide a masculine role model for boys with poor academic performance and a father figure for those who come from single-parent families (Drudy, 2008; Moses et al., 2016).

Carrington and Skelton (2003) point out the importance of “role models in raising levels of educational achievement and motivation among boys and ethnic minorities” (p.262), and they do not appear to be engaged in classroom activities (Moses et al., 2016). This claim also has been supported by some countries, such as Australia the UK, and the USA, as the essential reasons for recruiting more men teachers (Carrington & Skelton, 2003; Thornton & Bricheno, 2000). However, such arguments are not reinforced by empirical research that has found no significant effect between the gender of teachers and students’ learning (Carrington, 2002; Carrington et al., 2007). Based on his results, Carrington (2002) contends that “students tend to value a teacher, who is able to maintain discipline in the classroom in a friendly, sensitive and impartial manner” (p. 289). Therefore, the teacher’s gender has often been seen irrelevant in terms of quality of teaching (Carrington et al., 2007; Moses et al., 2016; Ku & Watt, 2009).

3.11 Summary

A review of the literature indicates the increased interest in research into teachers’ motivations for choosing teaching as a career and remaining in the profession, as well as the relationship between a number of motivational factors and commitment to teaching. This chapter has discussed the concept of motivation and relevant theories and has reviewed international literature regarding studies on motivation to teach in general and studies guided by FIT-Choice theoretical framework in particular (Watt & Richardson, 2007). It has revealed a wide range of factors and variables which have contributed to individuals’ choice to teach. It has also been noted that the results of these studies differ across cultural contexts, which suggests that the concept of motivation is more complex than thought by many. Otherwise stated, cultural context may well be accountable for the variability in the results of studies into career motivations for the choice of teaching, as discussed in section 3.10.

Overall, teachers choose the profession primarily based on three broadly categorised

sets of motivations: intrinsic, altruistic, and extrinsic (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). Data on developmental stages of teachers indicate a dramatic change in teachers' orientation and motivation toward their profession. Consequently, this requires constant support for teachers' needs across all career stages to ensure high levels of commitment and enthusiasm for the profession.

Given the evidence from a significant number of studies, teaching is considered a preferable career choice for women. This finding possibly explains the high female representation in samples across studies. With cultural factors in mind, gender is particularly important to the present study due to the apparent paucity of research into the association between motivation and the choice of teaching as a career in a contrasting context, particularly in light of gender. Thus, in order to address certain knowledge gaps identified by this literature review, the present study has adopted mixed-method approach (quantitative and qualitative), utilising the FIT-Choice scale as its primary instrument along with semi-structured interviews.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents methodological issues relevant to the current study. It begins by reviewing the literature on research methods and justifying the specific methodological choices made. It then considers the data collection instruments, in turn and in detail, including translation procedures and the pilot study, followed by issues related to the ethical considerations germane to the study. Other aspects covered are the reliability and validity of the data collection tools and sampling strategies for the study population. In the later part of this section, the analysis procedures of the questionnaire and interview data are described. As demonstrated earlier, the research questions of this study are:

- 1) What are the motivations and perceptions of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 2) Is there a difference between males and females (in general) regarding their motivation for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 3) How do pre-service and in-service teachers' motivations and perceptions vary (or not vary at all) for choosing teaching as a profession in the Saudi setting?
- 4) Which motivating factors are the most associated\correlated with commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia?
- 5) What are the motivating factors that influence in-service teachers' decisions to pursue a career in teaching?
 - a) What are the in-service teachers' perceptions about their teaching career?
 - b) Does the motivation to teach and perception change at different stages of teachers' professional development?

4.2 Research Design

One of the critical decisions to be carefully made is related to the choice of research methodology. Research methodology can be described as the “range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 47). While there is “no single pathway to good research” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 3), choosing an appropriate research methodology is essential and should be considered for any study. The right methodology can, indeed, provide a researcher with direction through all the phases of research, including the data collection technique, analysis and interpretation (Creswell, 2009). Denscombe (2010) asserts that research methods should be chosen in light of the research questions and objectives in order to achieve the goals of the research successfully. Similarly, Creswell (2012) emphasises that deciding on the most appropriate research methods for a particular research problem is initially dependent on the nature of the research approach. Therefore, the present study uses a descriptive approach to achieve its aim of exploring teachers’ motivations for choosing teaching as a career, using descriptive and explorative questions. According to Cohen et al. (2007), a descriptive study is the research approach most often employed in educational fields, where researchers “set out to describe and to interpret what is” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 205). Denscombe (2010) confirmed that the purpose of descriptive research is to explore the phenomenon as it exists in its current state, without researchers having any control over variables. This is what makes the descriptive method appropriate in educational studies used to gather individuals’ perceptions, beliefs, opinions and facts regarding certain situations (Lodico et al., 2010). Hence, this method is suitable for attaining the objectives of the present study.

There are different approaches possible within the descriptive method, including the use of surveys, case studies, comparative studies, evaluations, ethnographic studies and

action research (Verma & Mallick, 1999). According to Lodico et al. (2010), descriptive survey research, which was employed in the current study, is one of the most common quantitative techniques used in the educational domain with approximately 70% of studies falling into this category.

The advantage of surveys lies in the ability to generalise the resulting data within given parameters (Cohen et al., 2007; Gilbert, 2008). A survey strategy seeks to measure the features of a population by selecting a sample and making inferences about the wider population (Creswell, 2009). Research surveys can be conducted using any of a number of different methods, including questionnaires (known as written surveys) and structured interviews (known as verbal surveys), which are frequently utilised to explore variables related to a social context (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2009; Glasow, 2005). In addition, survey data can be collected through cross-sectional or longitudinal studies (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2003, 2009). Although suggestions from Richardson and Watt (2016) would indicate conducting a longitudinal study for investigating individuals' motivations in choosing teaching as a career and how that initial motivation may predict important outcomes such as commitment, this option was not used in the present study due to time limitations, so a cross-sectional design was the appropriate alternative.

According to Gilbert (2008), the main difference between cross-sectional and longitudinal designs is whether the data are collected at one point in time through different samples (cross-sectional) or over a period of time with the same sample. One of the strengths of a cross-sectional design is that it can be conducted at a specific time, which enables researchers to employ larger samples, whereas longitudinal studies require longer timelines, making it more difficult to retain a large sample without any drop-out or attrition (Cohen et al., 2007; Gilbert, 2008). Although cross-sectional research is the most frequently used in quantitative methods (Bryman, 2012), one of its weaknesses is that the participants can be

diverse in variables such as age level (heterogeneous), meaning that the results are not comparable (Cohen et al., 2007). However, this study does not involve a heterogeneous sample; all subjects have similar characteristics across the groups of the study.

Although surveys are suitable for describing a number of variables and gathering factual information about certain situations (Cohen et al., 2007; Glasow, 2005), some concerns have been raised with regard to the use of the survey technique. For instance, according to Denscombe (2010), data produced through surveys are likely to lack in-depth detail on the phenomenon being studied. Similarly, researchers usually have an insignificant role in the survey's administration and most of them do not meet the survey respondents (Glasow, 2005), particularly in the case of online questionnaires. This may produce a lack of response from the intended participants or inaccuracy in the responses obtained. A further weakness is that some questionnaires, especially in social studies, could involve sensitive issues and participants may intentionally misreport or avoid responding to some of these questions (Gilbert, 2008; Glasow, 2005). To avoid this problem, Verma and Mallick (1999) suggest using a mixed methodology technique. Consequently, the present study utilised a mixed-method approach, where both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used in attempting to answer the research questions. The following section presents these two approaches.

4.2.1 Quantitative Approach

The quantitative approach is one of the more significant paradigms in social research (Cohen et al., 2007). It usually makes an objective assessment of the situation being investigated and is based on examining a number of variables of social reality to understand human behaviour and the factors that cause such behaviours (Hoy, 2010; Kothari, 2004). Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) emphasise that the majority of psychological constructs have been investigated

quantitatively, primarily using a survey strategy. In social studies, quantitative research has been defined as “inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true” (Creswell, 1994, p. 2). A large number of participants are typically used to gather data with this approach (Creswell, 2009). According to Gilbert (2008), the quantitative approach employs particular language in the research design that involves numerical and statistical measurements to see how researchers examine natural variables, measurements, experiments and controls. Denscombe (2010) describes quantitative data as numerical productions that are “objective” in nature meaning that they exist independently of, and do not result from any direct influence by, the researcher.

Unlike the qualitative approach, quantitative research focuses on the testing of hypotheses based on unbiased reality, and this method builds upon existing theories and applies tools that generate quantifiable and sometimes generalisable outcomes (Creswell, 2009; Hoy, 2010). With regard to social research, Bryman (2012) asserts that “when we are interested in teasing out the relative importance of a number of different causes of a social phenomenon, it is quite likely that a quantitative strategy will fit to our needs” (p. 2). Specifically, the survey strategy is a suitable tool when the study’s purpose is to generate a description of trends through the use of large samples (Cohen et al., 2007). Indeed, one of the strong points of quantitative research is that it allows researchers to measure the responses from a sizeable number of people with a limited number of questions (Creswell, 2009; Gilbert, 2008). This advantage can ensure a set of comprehensive and generalisable findings. A further strength of the quantitative approach is that the data thus generated provide a solid descriptive and analytic base that includes several variables of the phenomenon. That is, interpretations rely mainly on statistical descriptions rather than impressions, and therefore

the results can be confirmed by other researchers for authenticity (Denscombe, 2010; Kothari, 2004).

As for its weaknesses, a strong argument has been raised against the adoption of quantitative procedures for educational and social studies based on the enormous complexity of human nature (Bryman, 2012; Cohen et al., 2007). This makes the quantitative approach more challenging when applied to social life. Furthermore, Denscombe (2010) points out that “large volumes of data can be a strength of quantitative analysis, but without care, it can start to overload the researcher. Too many cases, too many variables, too many factors to consider” (p. 269). Thus, the researcher initially needs to describe and classify the kinds of data to be collected before commencing with analysis. Moreover, the nature of the instruments used in quantitative research is highly structured, which may lead to limited data on the subject under study. This disadvantage can be overcome by employing a mixed-method approach that uses both quantitative and qualitative data (as in the present study), producing more complex information and providing researchers with a more comprehensive understanding of the situation being investigated.

In the present study, the researcher seeks to answer part of the research questions by determining any overall tendencies among the responses from the participants regarding their motivations for becoming teachers and how that tendency may change across different groups of teachers. Additionally, the study aims to examine the relationship between motivation and commitment to teaching. Therefore, the quantitative approach is suitable for achieving the majority of the objectives of this study.

4.2.2 Qualitative Approach

The qualitative approach assumes that the social phenomenon has to be explored through a subjective assessment of behaviours, attitudes and opinions regarding individuals' various

experiences in order to produce deeper results and impressions about a certain event or phenomenon (Kothari, 2004). Qualitative methods emphasise the value of personal views and experiences as they exist in real life. (Hewitt-Taylor, 2001). The most common methods of data collection using a qualitative approach are interviews, observations and document analysis (Lodico et al., 2010). Qualitative research does not necessarily start from a theoretical model of the phenomenon being studied (Flick, 2011). Instead, researchers use the results of qualitative research to inform a theory (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, variables in this type of research may not have been previously determined.

Qualitative enquiries are not formed from a quantity measurement base as they are carried out in a natural location (Flick, 2011). According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003), the sampling strategy in qualitative enquiry involves a different logic than in quantitative enquiry in that statistical representation and scale are not key points in the qualitative approach. Instead, this approach seeks to obtain an in-depth exploration of a chosen educational or social issue through purposively selecting participants and integrating limited numbers of cases according to their relevance (Flick, 2011; O’Leary, 2004). In other words, when conducting qualitative research, the researcher aims to achieve “in-depth and interpreted understanding of the social world of research participants by learning about their social and material circumstances, their experiences, perspectives and histories” (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003, p. 3). The qualitative approach is commonly used in the social sciences for research focused on the reasons for human behaviour (i.e., why people behave in certain ways) (Kothari, 2004). Therefore, “motivation research” represents a significant aspect of qualitative research, mainly attempting to discover underlying motives and desires by conducting in-depth interviews with participants. According to Brookhart and Freeman (1992), a qualitative enquiry can capture a more well-rounded picture of teacher candidates’ beliefs about a teaching career. One of the main goals of this study is to explore the key

factors in teachers' motivations for choosing teaching as a career, comparing different levels of years' experience in teaching. The in-depth interview technique was included in this study as it was considered useful in addressing this research question. According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003), in-depth interviews are important in qualitative research, permitting researchers to explore factors, reasons and beliefs behind the perceptions of and motivations for teaching as a career.

However, qualitative research also has its limitations and it has been criticised by quantitative researchers. One key point is that the scope of findings from qualitative studies is restricted, and results are not always generalisable due to small sample sizes and the subjective nature of the data generated (Bryman, 2012). The qualitative approach has also been criticised for the difficulty of replicating studies due to the fact that they are often unstructured and mainly dependent on subjective explanations from the qualitative researcher (Bryman, 2012; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

In order to offset the drawbacks of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches, the researcher in the current study adopted both approaches in a mixed-method structure where each complements the other. This allows for findings from both methods to support each other, establishing rich data to help the researcher gain a better grasp of the phenomenon being investigated (Creswell, 2009). The next section discusses how the approaches may be successfully integrated to meet the research aims of this study.

4.2.3 Mixed Methods Approach

Mixed-method research "has become an increasingly used and accepted approach to conducting social research" (Bryman, 2012, p. 628). It is derived from the philosophical framework of pragmatism to fulfil the multiple purposes of a study. By incorporating mixed methods, the researcher can minimise the weaknesses and benefit from the strengths of both

quantitative and qualitative methods. Since social phenomena are quite complex, different types of methods are necessary to have a better comprehension of these complexities. The ‘multi-strategy research’ contribution to a research procedure is more advanced, containing an extensive and complicated set of data (Creswell, 2002). Several subdisciplines within school psychology, including cross-cultural psychology, have increasingly embraced the mixed-methods paradigm in recent years as an effective technique to reach comprehensive conclusions (Powell et al., 2008). Denscombe (2010) suggests that when using a mixed-methods study, researchers would be more confident in the accuracy of the findings due to the fact that they have addressed the same subject through different methods (triangulation).

For this study, it is not enough to answer the research questions with a single research design. More data are needed to explore, extend and create a complicated database from a unique social context. Furthermore, employing a mixed-method technique allows the researcher to understand what motivates both pre-service teachers and those who are in their initial years of service to choose teaching as a career and also their commitment to teaching (driven by quantitative results). This technique will also determine how motivations to teach vary between teachers according to years of teaching experience (driven by qualitative results).

The mixed findings of both forms of research will provide more valid and reliable evidence by producing a complicated relationship between factors of motivation, perceptions about teaching and commitment to teaching in the Saudi setting. However, it should be noted that the integration between both quantitative and qualitative methods may occur at different stages in one study (for example, within data collection, data analysis or within interpretation). Moreover, it can also be conducted independently (for example, the researcher may set both quantitative and qualitative questions to examine relevant variables) (Creswell et al., 2003). Deciding on the stage or stages of integration of the two forms of

research relies on the nature of the research and the type of questions. The present study employed a concurrent triangulation method design (Figure 4.1), which represents a triangulation of data collection and a separate data analysis with database integration at the stages of interpretation and discussion (Creswell et al., 2003). Furthermore, the priority was given to quantitative research.

Although implementing a mixed-method study can increase the time or cost of the research project and also requires the researcher to develop research skills related to more than one method, this research strategy allows the researchers to grasp a “more comprehensive account of the thing being researched” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 150).

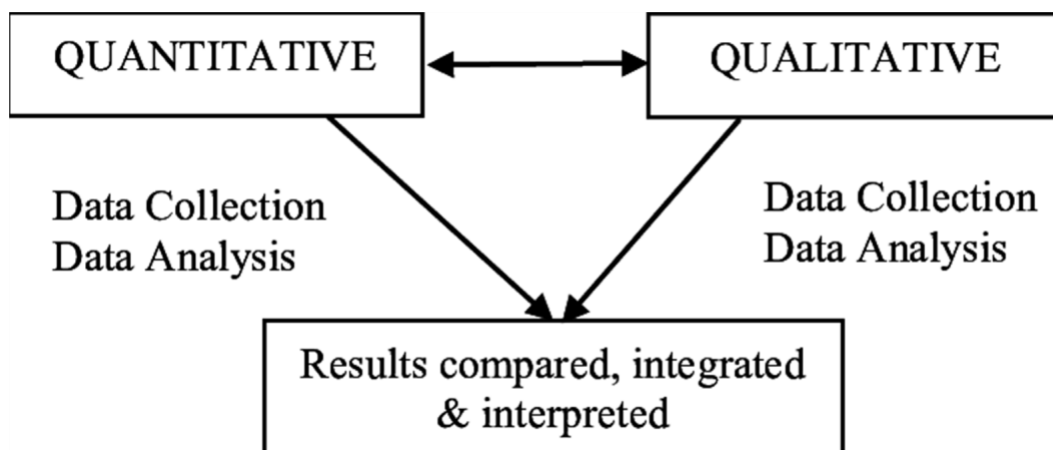


Figure 4.1. concurrent triangulation method design

4.3 Data Collection Methods

The instruments utilised in the present study have been chosen to answer the research questions. The factors influencing teaching such as FIT-Choice and occupational commitment scales in conjunction with semi-structured interviews were selected for the study. Each instrument is described in the following discussion.

4.3.1 FIT-Choice Framework

In order to explore the motivational profile of teachers choosing this career, the study used the FIT-Choice scale after being provided with written permission from the scale's authors. The FIT-Choice scale was created by Watt and Richardson (2007) to measure individuals' motivation for choosing teaching as a profession. The researchers developed the constructs of the instrument items based mainly on the expectancy-value theory (EVT) (Richardson & Watt, 2006).

The original scale consists of three sections (*Influential Factors*, *Beliefs about Teaching*, and *Decision to Become a Teacher*) which explore potential factors related to the choice of teaching as a profession. In bold at the top of the first page, respondents are requested to "please state briefly your main reason for choosing to become a teacher".

The first section, *Influential Factors*, examines the influences on selecting teaching (motivation constructs). It scrutinises twelve motivational factors, including two higher-order factors: *personal utility values* (which comprises the three sub-factors of job security, time for family and job transferability) and *social utility values* (which comprises the four sub-factors of shaping the future of children/adolescents, enhancing social equity, making a social contribution and working with children/adolescents).

The remaining five factors (*teaching ability*, *intrinsic career value*, *fallback career*, *prior teaching and learning experiences*, and *social influences*) are established as first-order factors. These first-order motivational factors are measured using a specific set of choices listed under each factor. All items begin with an introductory statement such as "*I chose to become a teacher because...*" Respondents are required to rate how heavily each item influenced their choice of teaching as a career using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (extremely important).

The second section aims to collect data that represent perceptions and *beliefs about teaching*. It also consists of two higher-order constructs: *task demand* (which contains the first-order factors of expertise and difficulty) and *task return* (which contains the first-order factors of social status and salary). Social status is measured through six items, while salary is assessed through two. Under *task demand*, respondents are asked about their perceptions of teaching as a demanding profession requiring high levels of knowledge and the ability to cope with a heavy workload. In contrast, *task return* reflects participants' perceptions about teaching as a respected profession and conferring a high social status. Each factor of expertise and difficulty is measured through three items. In total, this section contains fourteen items that the participants rate on a seven-point Likert scale from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely).

Finally, the third section of the scale, *Your Decision to Become a Teacher*, explores participants' satisfaction with their choice of a teaching career and their experiences of social dissuasion. This part consists of six items, again rated from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely).

Figure 4.2 summarises the contents of the FIT-Choice model.

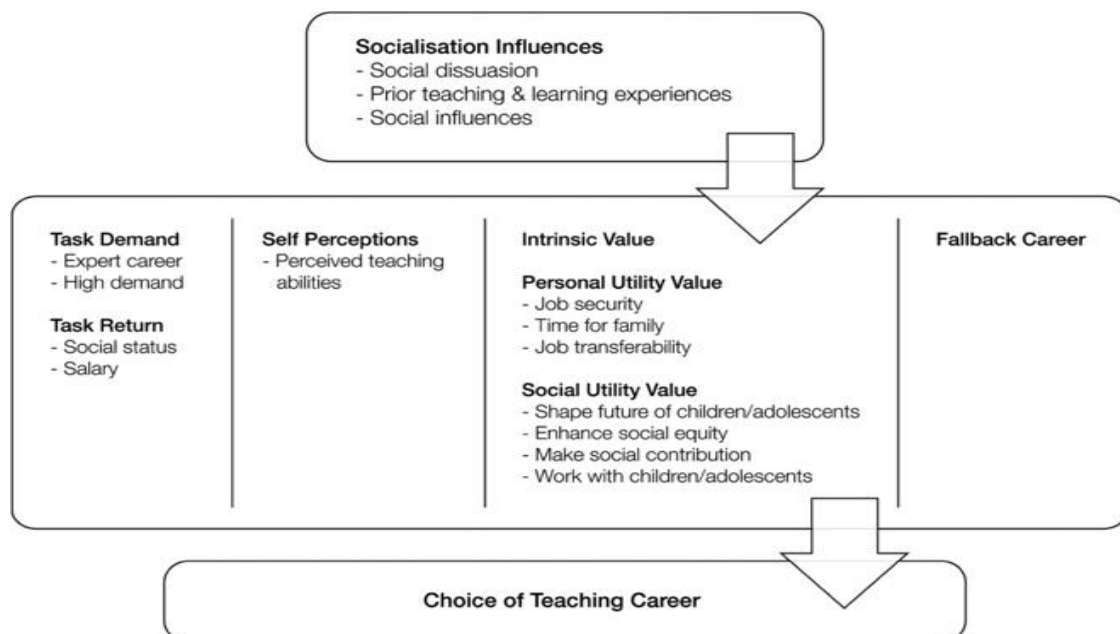


Figure 4.2. The factors influencing teaching choice (FIT-Choice) theoretical model (adapted from Watt & Richardson, 2007).

The scale was initially validated with two larges and independently conducted Australian samples (N = 1,653) from two universities to confirm the repetition of scale validity (total number of each cohort = 488 and 652). The sample comprised both male and female pre-service teachers from different study levels (Watt & Richardson, 2007). Watt and Richardson conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and applied confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess convergent and divergent construct validity across the two cohorts. The results pointed to high construct validity for both first-order latent factors (factor loading ranging from 0.52 to 0.93) and higher-order factors (factor loading ranging from 0.49 to 0.95). The reliability of the scale was evaluated, and the results indicated high internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) ranging from 0.62 to 0.92. For more detailed information about the validation of the FIT-Choice scale, see Watt and Richardson (2007).

Next, the scale was adapted by a number of researchers to measure motivational profiles across international samples, including Australia, the USA, Germany and Norway (Watt et al., 2012). Recently, the scale has also been used by researchers in other countries such as Turkey, Ireland, Indonesia and the Netherlands (Akar, 2012; Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2014; Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Suryani et al., 2016). As discussed in the argument presented in Chapter One, there is a need for the FIT-Choice scale to be tested in developing countries, particularly in the Arabic context, to increase its stability across diverse cultural settings (Richardson & Watt, 2016). The present study is considered to be the first one using the full model of the scale in the Arabic region (Appendix B).

The FIT-Choice scale was used in the present study due to four primary considerations:

1. The scale can represent sophisticated psychological dynamics that draw on social cognitive theory (primarily on the constructs of the EVT of motivation) and the body

of literature about teachers' motivation. It then cites the most common reasons for choosing a teaching career, gathered from a wide range of empirical studies, which makes the instrument theoretically grounded, comprehensive and robust (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

2. The scale establishes excellent psychometric properties, content and construct validity which draw from sequences studied through different contexts, guided by EVT, as previously described.
3. The wide use of the scale in different countries (including developing countries) allows for comparisons to be made between the types of motivations experienced by teachers across cultures (Watt et al., 2012).
4. This study is considered the first to employ the scale in the Arabic context.

Table 4.1. The FIT-Choice Subscales and Factors as Listed in the Article of Richardson and Watt (2006)

First-order Factor	Higher-order factor	Items
Part A: Influential factors		
1 Ability	N/A	3
2 Intrinsic career value	N/A	3
3 Fallback career	N/A	3
4 Job security	Personal utility value	3
5 Time for family		5
6 Job transferability		3
7 Shape future of children/adolescents	Social utility value	3
8 Enhance social equity		3
9 Make social contribution		3
10 Work with children		3
11 Prior teaching and learning experiences	N/A	3
12 Social influences	N/A	3
Part B: Beliefs about teaching		
13 Expertise	Task demand	3
14 Difficulty		3
15 Social status	Task return	6
16 Salary		2
Part C: Your decision to become a teacher		
17 Social dissuasion	N/A	3
18 Satisfaction with choice	N/A	3

4.3.2 Occupational Commitment Scale

Workplace commitment has become an increasingly significant factor due to its close association with important concepts such as teacher retention, quality of teaching and motivation (Crosswell, 2006). Research has revealed that there is a close relationship between the level of commitment to work and the decision to stay in or leave a profession, and a considerable body of workplace commitment research has been conducted beyond the scope of educational psychology (Kim & Chang, 2007; May et al., 2002; Sezgin & Ađar, 2012). With new challenges and escalating demands from current educational reforms, high levels of commitment and personal engagement are being demanded from teachers (Sinclair, 2008). Several instruments have been developed to examine teacher commitment, including the factors that influence teachers' experiences in the workplace (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Kelly, 2015; Pop & Turner, 2009). As a part of its objectives, the present study aims to examine the extent to which pre-service teachers' motivations influence their commitment to teach. To do so, a validated measure of occupational commitment was used.

The scale was initially developed by Hackett et al. (2001) to conceptualise occupational commitment (some studies have used the equivalent terms "professional commitment" and "career commitment") or the level of attachment to a particular career role. Hackett and his colleagues assessed levels of commitment to work among people in the field of nursing using ten items ranked on a five-point Likert scale (for example, "I definitely want a career for myself in nursing"). The scale was theoretically drawn from earlier studies done by Blau (1985) and Landy and Guion (1970) which had a high estimation of reliability, with a measure of internal consistency of $\alpha = 0.82$. Later, Klassen and Chiu (2011) adapted the scale to measure commitment to teaching in a study involving two cohorts of practicing and pre-service teachers (total of the cohorts $N = 437$ and 372 , respectively).

The occupational commitment was measured by six items (for example, “I definitely want a career for myself in teaching”) using a nine-point Likert scale ranging from 1 “Strongly disagree” to 9 “Strongly agree” (Appendix B). The results displayed high internal consistency, with Cronbach’s alpha reliabilities (α) ranging from 0.80 to 0.88. Accordingly, the occupational commitment scale used in the present study was based on Klassen and Chiu’s review of Hackett et al.’s (2001) work. Hence, the study seeks to examine teachers’ motivations for becoming a teacher and their perceptions about teaching, as well as the association of the commitment to teach with a number of motivational profiles (see Figure 4.3).

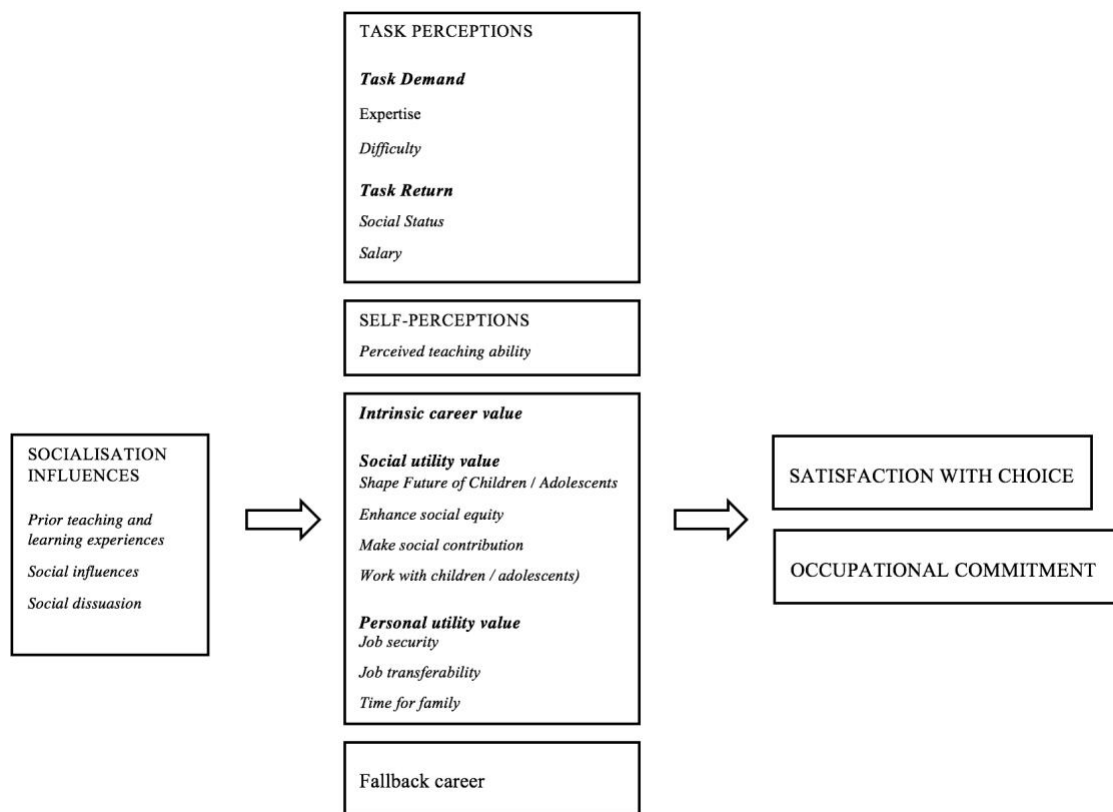


Figure 4.3. Theoretical model to investigate the relationship between motivational factors and the level of commitment to teach.

4.4 Translating the FIT-Choice and Occupational Commitment Scales

Increasing numbers of educational and psychological measurement instruments are being translated into different languages (Hambleton & Zenisky, 2011; Maneesriwongul & Dixon, 2004). However, the adaptation of these instruments requires considerable attention in terms of maintaining content and psychometric properties (Borsa et al., 2012). One of the significant challenges that researchers encounter when attempting to adapt one of these instruments is ensuring that the tool's translation reflects the original version of the instrument while at the same time being clearly translated and contextually and culturally acceptable for the target respondent population.

As already noted, the current study adopted two published scales, the FIT-Choice scale and the occupational commitment scale, and because the study was conducted in an Arabic setting, the instruments were translated from English into Arabic through a number of processes. The primary goal of these steps is to ensure that the instruments are culturally suitable in the Saudi context while remaining equivalent to the original versions (Hambleton & Zenisky, 2011). In the current study, these procedures relied fundamentally on a group of translators with expertise in the subject matter, and bilingual and native-language reviewers who compared the translated measures with the original ones. Specifically, this process consisted of the following four steps:

Step 1: A bilingual (English/Arabic) expert was asked to produce an Arabic version of the FIT-Choice and occupational commitment scales. This process was carried out under the supervision of the researcher, who was also available to explain technical terms to the translator. Su and Parham (2002) asserted that researchers might need to revise some phrases in the original version of the scale for accurate translation into the target language.

Step 2: This stage involved reviews by five PhD students holding Master's degrees in psychology. The importance of this phase is to review the scales, taking into consideration the meaning and psychological terminology used, rather than a strictly literal translation. Moreover, the reviewers compared the Arabic and English versions of the scales, taking into account the appropriateness of the items for the Saudi cultural context. A few minor changes were made based on the reviewers' feedback.

Step 3: A PhD candidate, who has expertise in linguistic science, back translated the Arabic version into English. The purpose of this process was to ensure that the translated version reflects the original in terms of content and wording. Because a literal translation does not necessarily confirm validity, cross-cultural researchers have recommended that cultural considerations should be taken into account to achieve equivalent meanings between original and translated versions (Su & Parham, 2002).

Step 4: This step included an evaluation of the back-translated version in comparison to the original. This process was completed by an expert from the Department of Education at the University of York. It is a necessary step that provides an opportunity to detect any discrepancies and increase the degree of equivalence between the two versions (Maneesriwongul & Dixon, 2004). The reviewer noted that a few items on the translation had contrasting meanings when compared to the original and needed to be revised. Once each item was refined, an Arabic version was produced to conduct a pilot study.

- **Piloting the questionnaire**

It is essential to pilot the instrument before using it in the main study. According to Cohen et al. (2007), piloting instruments is an important step to be taken in advance

of the primary data collection in order to uncover and refine problems, such as time management and wording, that may emerge. A pilot study also helps the researcher to determine the best ways of identifying participants who are most representative of the target population. Another vital reason for a pilot study is to ensure the instrument's suitability in a cultural context (Collins et al., 2006). An initial pilot study was also highly recommended by Cohen et al. (2007) for the purpose of modifying the research design where needed.

Consequently, for the present study the researcher implemented a scale pilot of the questionnaire aimed primarily at two factors:

1. To assure manageability of the instrument in terms of the time needed for completion and to ensure that the questionnaire's content was understandable (for example, the quality of translation) or that it needed further refinement.
2. To test the suitability of the questionnaire in the Saudi cultural context.

The questionnaire was distributed to twenty-nine voluntary participants. The participants chosen for this stage were not part of the main study and were notified in advance of the approximate time required for completion of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire administration time in the pilot was reasonable. First, the researcher took five to seven minutes to explain how to fill out the questionnaire and rate items, after which the respondents took an average of approximately twenty to twenty-five minutes to complete the questionnaire. Overall, the questionnaire was clearly understood by the respondents, and no major problems emerged from this process.

However, a few minor changes were made. Specifically, because the Saudi educational system does not offer part-time teaching careers, item B2 was deleted. Further, some respondents noted that items five and six of the occupational commitment scale (item "I

am disappointed that I ever entered the teaching profession” and the item “I am disappointed I ever entered teaching) were very similar. This caused some confusion among the respondents, so item six was removed. Additionally, the average of the response completion time was less than expected, so the researcher modified the expected completion time in the cover letter (Appendix B).

4.5 Interviews

Unlike quantitative approaches, qualitative research can provide a comprehensive answer to the question of why individuals engage in a specific action or behaviour (Rosenthal, 2016). There are several tools that can be used to gain qualitative data about the topic of this study. Face-to-face Interviews are one of the most common methods of qualitative data collection, especially when the researcher needs to gain opinions, feelings and experiences that require close investigation (Cohen et al., 2007). Rabionet (2011) notes that interviews are a flexible and effective tool that allows researchers to explore individual experiences of the phenomenon being studied. With this process, respondents have more freedom (within reasonable time constraints) to reflect on their beliefs and opinions and to clarify their ideas that are relevant to the study, providing flexibility that may not be achievable with questionnaires. The interview is not, however, a casual conversation, meaning that the researcher must remain aware of the interview questions and goals, and responses should be as detailed as possible (Cohen et al., 2007).

Qualitative researchers utilise different interview formats. There are three main types of interviews in terms of design: unstructured, semi-structured and structured. The unstructured interview has no specific set of predetermined questions. This is the most flexible format, as questions can be formulated based on respondents’ answers. The structured interview, in contrast, is completely planned and follows a formal list of questions.

The semi-structured interview is a combination of the two. It provides some structure but gives the interviewer more opportunities to probe for additional information. The next section discusses this type of interview in detail.

Generally, interviews are conducted in conjunction with quantitative forms of data collection in order to provide in-depth results. Jamshed (2014) asserts that in order for results to represent a variety of views and opinions about the subject matter, the interview findings need to be enhanced with quantitative data. The concurrent approach of the mixed method is considered a suitable technique for implementing this recommended data collection procedure (Powell et al., 2008).

- **Semi-structured interviews.** Since the mixed-method approach has been used in the present study, an interview tool was designed to collect qualitative data. Specification of a type of interview is important because, as noted by Caruth (2013), each study has a unique structure and uses different instruments. Thus, researchers must devote careful attention to choosing the most suitable interview style for the aims and research questions of the study. For the present study, the researcher reviewed the existing literature that presented the pros and cons of each type of interview (Cohen et al., 2007; Jamshed, 2014; Tracy, 2013) and also had discussions with his supervisor. Ultimately, semi-structured interviews were selected for the collection of qualitative data for several reasons.

First, the researcher believes that this method will improve the quality of the results by eliciting the depth of information needed for particular research questions. Second, prior questions can help narrow down the topics that the researcher needs to further investigate with the respondents, making the interview more concentrated on the anticipated line of action. The extra freedom provided by this type of interview for respondents to express their views, experiences and feelings, elucidating their ideas in their own terms with minimal to no interruption, can provide the researcher with new understanding and dimensions of the topic.

According to Cohen et al. (2007), the semi-structured interview approach is widely employed in qualitative research because of its agenda of open-ended questions, assuring both the structure and flexibility of this type of interview. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher sequentially asks several main questions and uses the responses to do more investigation with the respondent to gather further details. However, this probing is limited compared with an unstructured interview. Thus, the researcher also opted for this interview type due to its flexibility for exploring the topic as a research tool; semi-structured interviews can be used to improve upon the initial hypothesis, discover new relationships in the subject matter and create new directions for further study.

Finally, because this study is considered the first and only study of its type conducted thus far in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, semi-structured interviews were considered to be the most suitable instrument, in conjunction with a questionnaire, to gain in-depth information related to the objectives of the study, identify themes that support the quantitative data, uncover other new emerging themes and provide further explanation about the phenomenon under study.

- Translation of the interview schedule. Before piloting the interviews, the translation of the interview schedule was reviewed and verified by a special translation committee in order to issue the Arabic version of the interview schedule, which is the teachers' first language. The translators' feedback and some comments were taken into account, and minor changes were made. As a final step, the resultant Arabic text was checked against the English one to ensure the accuracy between the two versions. The process has been implemented by one of the English teachers who is fluent in both languages (Appendix C).

- Piloting the interview. It was essential to test the schedule of the interview before using it in the main study. Therefore, the researcher piloted the interview to receive initial feedback about the structure of the interview questions, determine how the interview would

likely be perceived and answered by the target respondents, and estimate the time required to raise and record the responses to all the questions. Moreover, it was a rehearsal for the researcher as a moderator before implementing the actual interviews. According to Collins et al. (2006) and Ritchie et al. (2003), a “good” interview involves many sequential steps, such as preparing an interview schedule, testing recording systems, piloting the interview, amending the process as necessary and finally, analysing the data collected. Simply put, the purpose of piloting the interview for this study (particularly with using the semi-structured type) was to improve the quality of the instrument and see whether the questions and the content they produced were appropriately related to the research questions. Moreover, it was necessary to estimate the length of time required to answer all the questions in each interview.

The interview questions were guided by a list of topics relating to teachers’ motivations for choosing a teaching career and their satisfaction with this career. Two teachers were selected for individual face-to-face interviews for the pilot. They had different experience levels, with the first participant having twenty years of teaching experience and the other having been a teacher for ten years. Before each interview session, a brief description of the purpose and aims of the research was given to the participants, and they were informed that their responses and recordings of the sessions would be treated confidentially. During the interviews, the researcher listened attentively to the participants’ responses to see if any data produced was irrelevant to the research questions.

The interviews took approximately fifteen to twenty minutes to ask and answer all the questions, and afterwards, the participants were asked whether they had been presented with any vague or difficult questions during the interview. All the feedback was positive, and no considerable changes were made to the interview schedule. However, one question regarding the opportunity for promotion was scrutinised: “What is your opinion of the promotion

opportunities that teachers have? And how does this influence your motivation to teach?”

Given that the educational system in the KSA provides fixed annual bonuses for all in-service teachers across teaching levels, it was felt that this line of questioning was not as relevant to the current setting, and it was removed (Appendix C).

4.6 Ethical Considerations

Before conducting research, ethical issues must be taken into consideration in order to assure the protection of the dignity of the participants and the confidentiality of the publication of the information in the study (Bryman, 2012). This also directly impacts on the integrity of the study. Ethical rules aim to protect participants against any potential risk from being involved in a research study, build a reliable relationship between the researcher and the participants, and help to collect data from the respondents in an ethical manner (Denscombe, 2010).

According to Cohen et al. (2007), “Ethical issues may stem from the kinds of problems investigated by social scientists and the methods they use to obtain valid and reliable data” (p. 51). In addition to this, the type of participants involved in the study should be taken into account.

According to Lodico et al. (2010), researchers should follow ethical procedures considered by their own universities or colleges. That is, most professional institutions have their own ethics codes. Consequently, to obtain ethical approval for this study, the researcher paid close attention to these ethical considerations following specific guidelines based on the Education Ethics Committee’s instructions in the University of York (Appendix F).

Another essential issue regarding ethical practice in research is ‘informed consent’ on the part of the participants. However, this is not only a case of agreement to taking part in a research study, but it also creates a ‘sense of ownership’ of the research and builds a positive collaborative connection between the researcher and research community members, including

the participants (Busher & James, 2012). According to Cohen et al. (2007), informed consent is based on the principle of freedom and an individual's self-determination to accept or to refuse to take part in research after being informed of information that would likely influence his decision. When designing a letter of consent, Cohen et al. asserted that the informed consent letter should involve four main elements:

1. Competence: ensuring that researchers do not engage individuals who are not able to make correct decisions if they are given relevant information about the study.
2. Voluntarism: ensuring that potential participants have full freedom to choose whether or not to take part.
3. Full information: ensuring that relevant information has been included such as the purpose and nature of the study, including the expected benefits.
4. Comprehension: ensuring that potential participants fully understand the purpose of the research study, and inform them for any harm may occur when they involve in the study. (Appendix A)

These elements were taken into consideration in the present study when designing the letter of consent. Thus, the first page of the present questionnaire and interview form clearly included the nature, objectives and significance of the research study. In addition, the participants were informed that their participation would be only used for the scientific research purposes and that anyone had the right to take part (or not) as well as to withdraw at any stage of the process. The researcher's personal contact information and the supervisor's contact information and the Chair of the Ethics Committee (as an external party) were provided at the end of the instruments to answer any potential queries that may be raised from the respondents. Before commencing to apply the instruments (questionnaire and interview), formal written permission was obtained from two institutions: King Faisal University and the Local Department of Education in Al-ahsa city in order to conduct this

study.

A further ethical issue is related to the protection of participants' data; Bryman (2012) clearly stated that "confidentiality of information must be maintained and anonymity of participants respected" (p.164). The researcher gave this issue serious consideration in order to keep the participants safe from any potential risk that would come from the study. All personal data have been confidentially and anonymously recorded in line with the ethical framework constructed by the University of York. Digital data, acquired by online questionnaires and audio-recording of interviews, have been protected and stored on the researcher's personal computer with a secure password to prevent unauthorised access. In addition, paper data recorded on hard copy questionnaires have been securely kept in a locked cabinet which can only be accessed by the researcher. All of the participants' private data will not be presented in the documenting and analysing stages. Furthermore, their personal information, such as names, has been anonymised by assigning a number to each respondent during the analysis process. Thus, it would be impossible for anyone to identify them. External contact. Subsequently, all data will be destroyed after a period recommended by the University of York ethical guidelines.

4.7 Sampling procedures

This study was conducted in Al-ahsa city, which is located in the eastern part of Saudi Arabia. Data collection took place in the period from March to June of 2018. The present study had two main groups of participants: pre-service teachers (students) and in-service teachers. The participants were reached through the Education Department at King Faisal University (regarding pre-service teachers) and in schools by the Local Department of Education in the city (regarding in-service teachers). Permission to implement the study was taken from the two institutions (Appendix D). It was emphasised that participation was

voluntary and all personal information would be confidentially treated and solely used for research purposes.

For the questionnaire, stratified random sampling was utilised for both pre-service and in-service teachers. Random sampling was applied next to select first and final (the length of the course is four years) year students and to select teachers who had teaching experience ranging from one to five years. Candidates were then invited to participate in the study. Both printed and online versions were generated to encourage a higher response rate among teachers and students. The hard copy questionnaire was specified for pre-service teachers, to be distributed in classroom settings in cooperation with lecturers, while the online one was specified for in-service teachers and distributed in cooperation with the Local Department of Education. It took them approximately twenty to twenty-five minutes to answer all questions. In total, 793 participants were involved in this study. Among the participants, 549 (69.2%) were pre-service teachers, whereas 244 (30.8%) were in-service teachers (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Overview of Quantitative Participants Engaged in the Study

Sample type	Gender	Year of study/ Teaching experience	Frequency	Total
Pre-service teachers (Students)	Male	First Year	132	303 (38.2%)
		Fourth Year	114	
	Female	First Year	143	246
		Fourth Year	160	(31%)
In-service teachers	Male	Teaching experience of 1 to 5 years	106	244 (30.8%)
	Female		138	
Total			793 (100%)	

For the interviews, sixteen male and female in-service teachers were chosen

purposively according to their teaching experience in years. Face-to-face interviews were conducted outside the school to allow participants to be more comfortable, leading them to express their actual motivation for choosing teaching. The average time for the interview process was around nine minutes. After taking consent, all interviews were audio recorded (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3. Overview of Qualitative Participants Engaged in the Study

Sample type	Years of teaching experience	Gender	Frequency
In-service teachers	1-3	Male	3
		Female	3
	12 - 20	Male	3
		Female	3
	21 & over	Male	2
		Female	2
Total			16

4.8 Validity and Reliability

The integrity of any study is connected mainly with the measures used. Based on this fact, validity and reliability are the two significant factors related particularly to the quality of the methods of data collection, including the tools, analysing the data and reporting the results of the study (Lodico et al., 2010). In more general ways, these two concepts are connected with the fact that the audience can accept the results of a study that has been based on the right scientific rules procedure. Reliability refers to “whether a research instrument is neutral in its effect and consistent across multiple occasions of its use” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 298). That is to say, if the collection and analysis of the data are repeated, the researchers should obtain stable and consistent findings or at least similar findings to the first test.

On the other hand, validity focuses on “ensuring that what the instrument ‘claims’ to measure is truly what it is measuring” (Lodico et al., 2010, p. 88). A highly reliable measure

is not necessarily a condition for validity, whereas a measure that has an excellent validity would be reliable as well (Bryman, 2012; Cohen et al., 2007). This section addresses reliability and validity for the instruments used in this study.

4.8.1 Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire

Since the questionnaire of this study was adopted from another study, the validity of the FIT-Choice and occupational commitment scales had already been established by the developers, as discussed above in Sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2. Despite this, the researcher applied the Pearson correlation coefficient to gauge the questionnaire's validity and to estimate the association between each item on the basis of the answers of participants. The findings showed that each item was well correlated to the sub-scale constructs, at significance levels of 0.05 (see Appendix E)

On the other hand, the reliability of a questionnaire means to what extent a measure is able to produce a stable and consistent score over repeated trials (Parsian & Dunning, 2009). Stability is a central aspect of constructing a reliable measure that reflects the dependability of the results (Cohen et al., 2007). So, because there are always errors associated with measurements, a highly reliable measure is likely to be able to reduce some of these errors (temporary factors that affect an individual's score) such as room condition and response guessing. Reliability can be measured in different ways. There are two common ways for estimating a questionnaire's reliability: test-retest reliability and internal consistency (Cohen et al., 2007; Oppenheim, 2000).

Test-retest reliability is simply producing the same (or similar) results when applying the same measure to the same sample over a period of time. However, this would not be applicable for the present study, involving large numbers of participants within different

groups and subgroups. The most important factor for not choosing this method was that the participants might not be willing to do the same thing twice in a short time period. Therefore, it may not be possible to retest the measure under identical conditions with the same sample (Lodico et al., 2010). Another essential factor that should be considered in the present study is time limitation. It was not possible to hand out the same questionnaire twice because there was a pressing need to conduct the collection of data from the population selected within three months.

The second technique for testing reliability is internal consistency, which was applicable to the present study. Testing the internal consistency of a measure is a fundamental step in quantitative research, specifically in studies that contain scales relating to personality characteristics, beliefs or attitudes (Bryman, 2012). It allows the test or instrument to be run only once in order to seek to “assess whether the indicators that make up the scale or index are consistent” (Singh, 2007, p. 77). It is usually connected with Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (α), which measures the level of consistency between items in a test (Christmann & Van Aelst, 2006; Creswell, 2002). The values of Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient range from 0 to 1.0. According to standard interpretation guidelines established by Mallery and George (2003), a value of 0.90 and higher is perceived as excellent reliability, good is in the range $0.7 < \alpha < 0.9$, acceptable is in the range $0.6 < \alpha < 0.7$, and poor is in the range $0.5 < \alpha < 0.6$, while unacceptable is perceived at $\alpha < 0.5$

Different types of method have been suggested to estimate internal consistency reliability. The split-half method can be calculated by splitting a single test into two matched halves and then noting the correlation between the two halves (Bryman, 2012). This technique can be useful, especially when the sample size is over 600.

However, the most common alternative method is Cronbach’s Alpha (Cohen et al., 2007). Alpha has gained favour for a number of reasons. The most important reason for

choosing this method is that Alpha gives an estimation, taking into account the variance and covariance of all items. Consequently, it is a useful technique for testing multiple scales, which is the case in this study (Bryman, 2012; Cohen et al., 2007; Ferketich, 1991). It assesses the degree of each item on a given scale and how closely this is related to the sum of all items (Cohen et al., 2007). Ferketich (1991) and Cohen et al. (2007) suggest that measures of internal reliability are able to provide clear indicators of reliability for only one testing session.

Hence, the reliability of the FIT-Choice and occupational commitment scale items was assessed by calculating Cronbach's Alpha of the questionnaire constructs. The test was applied using the SPSS programme. Sixty-two items in the questionnaire and its nineteen subscales were examined (see Table 4.4). The value of Cronbach's α was 0.94, indicating excellent internal reliability for the overall questionnaire, according to Mallery and George's standard interpretation guideline. Of the nineteen total factors, thirteen had a Cronbach's α value between 0.7 and 0.9, indicating "good" internal reliability. These factors were *social influences, teaching ability, intrinsic career value, job security, shape future of children, enhance social equity, work with children, make social contribution, salary, social status, expertise of teaching, satisfaction with the choice and occupational commitment*. Three factors, prior teaching and learning experience, time for family, difficulty of teaching and social dissuasion, had a Cronbach's α value between 0.6 and 0.7, indicating "acceptable" internal reliability.

Table 4.4. Reliability Analysis of the Questionnaire ($\alpha = 0.94$)

Factor	N of Items	Cronbach's α
Prior teaching and learning experience	3	.65
Social influences	3	.75
Teaching ability	3	.73
Intrinsic career value	3	.79
Job security	3	.74
Job transferability	3	.37
Time for family	4	.66
Shape future of children	3	.79
Enhance social equity	3	.76
Work with children	3	.82
Make social contribution	3	.72
Fallback career	3	.48
Salary	2	.74
Difficulty of teaching	3	.63
Social status	6	.79
Expertise of teaching	3	.80
Social dissuasion	3	.65
Satisfaction with the choice	3	.82
Occupational commitment	5	.78

Two factors, job transferability and fallback career, had Cronbach α values below 0.5, indicating “poor” internal reliability (Mallery & George, 2003). According to Lodico et al. (2010), a value of 0.34 and lower is typically taken as a slight relationship and considered to be only acceptable values for measurements that are applied in exploratory studies. Moreover, the researcher suggested keeping these factors for further analysis for the sake of

comparison with other studies and also for their significance in understanding the motivational factors for joining teaching in the Saudi context.

4.8.2 Validity of the interview schedule

Qualitative validity derives from the researcher's analysis procedure based on the data collected from interview participants and from external referees (Creswell et al., 2003). Before the pilot study was carried out, an initial assessment was conducted to ensure the validation of the prepared interview schedule. This process was completed through several meetings with the researcher's supervisor. The interview schedule was then presented to four field experts, together with the objectives and research problem, to elicit their views and feedback on the questions and the appropriateness of the objectives. In line with the experts' comments, slight changes were made, and the final version of the interview schedule was subjected to a pilot study to examine the clarity and support the internal validity of the questions. Further details about these modifications and the piloting was provided in Section 4.5.

4.8.3 Validity and Reliability of the Interview Data

The primary purpose of this step is to check the validity and reliability of the data. It is essential that the interviews are conducted in a methodical and rigorous manner to provide meaningful and worthwhile information. Although the term "validity" is a well-established concept, there has been some discussion among qualitative researchers concerning the validity concept and its relevance for qualitative research (Bryman, 2012). They have argued that a new concept is required for a qualifying check since the data in the qualitative method are based on a subjective perspective and are unique to the participants, and also qualitative data is usually varied and plentiful (Bryman, 2012; Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Additionally, the

data in qualitative research usually aims to support an existing theory or to inform general emerging findings. Thus, they have suggested the ‘trustworthiness’ of the data as an alternative criterion for assessing the rigour and quality of the data in qualitative research.

Member check is one of the most important techniques to ensure the credibility (validity) of findings in which the summaries of the data and interpretations are shared with the participants (Bryman, 2012; Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Shenton, 2004). After the interviews were transcribed, each participant was asked to validate his/her interview by reading the transcript of the interview.

In addition to this, another approach is confirmability; this is concerned with the objectivity of the results, whilst knowing that it is impossible to achieve complete objectivity in social research (Bryman, 2012). However, in order to increase the objectivity of the results, interview questions and pre-determined themes were derived from the FIT-Choice theoretical framework adopted in the current study (Watt & Richardson, 2007). By doing this, it was possible to achieve the purposes of this investigation. Moreover, the analysis procedures, along with the findings, were submitted to a researcher who is an expert in qualitative research to ensure that the proper techniques had been used (Bryman, 2012; Korstjens & Moser, 2018).

According to Creswell and Clark (2017), validity plays a more critical role than reliability in qualitative research in determining whether the data provided by the researcher and participants are credible and can be trusted. As mentioned above, Guba and Lincoln (2005) offered an alternative concept of reliability related to ‘trustworthiness’. Although reliability is a result of validity in a study (Cohen et al., 2007), the researcher submitted samples of the transcripts of the interviews for an intercoder reliability check in order to enhance the reliability check of the interviews’ analysis and to ensure that the quotes identified fitted the codes/themes correctly. The two coders were experienced academics in

the educational field. Furthermore, they were provided with a hard copy of Watt and Richardson's (2007) conclusion model for a better understanding and to assist in identifying themes that emerged during the analysing process.

I acknowledge that there are frequent criticisms of qualitative interviews, one of which is that they supposedly involve more bias risk than quantitative data (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2012; Lodico et al., 2010). This issue can be reduced by the use of mixed-method tools (questionnaire and interview), as well as diversification of the participants (that is, teachers and students), which can reduce the threats of reliability and validity. The mixed-method approach allows the 'triangulation' of multiple data sources to strengthen the reliability as well as the validity of results (Cohen et al., 2007; Lodico et al., 2010).

Triangulation is not only utilised as evidence to check the reliability and validity of data collection tools but it can also explain ambiguous interpretations and confirm the emerging findings (Cohen et al., 2007).

This study was established based on an intensive literature review and used different data sources from different types of participants (teachers and students). Data analysis triangulation was used as a followed technique in the current study, and hence, it reduced the possibility of misleading results or inappropriate conclusions.

4.9 Data Analysis

The following sections discuss the data analysis procedures used in the current study, beginning with analysis for quantitative data followed by the analysis of qualitative data.

4.9.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The analysis of quantitative data was conducted using SPSS. The parametric analysis was confirmed and performed based on the normal distribution of the data. All of these tests were

used in the current study: descriptive statistics, T-test, one-way, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multiple linear regression and bivariate correlations. Statistical test procedures adopted in the present study are summarised in Table 4.5. The following sections provide further details guided by the questions of the study.

First, in order to answer research question one (RQ1): “What are the motivations and perceptions of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?”, descriptive statistics were generated. These were mean score, standard deviation, and maximum and minimum ranges for each motivation factor and perceptions about the teaching career. This applied to both pre-service and in-service teachers and for subgroups based on demographic variables (year of academic, gender, teaching experience). Visual representation (graphs and column charts) was also presented.

For question two (RQ2): “Is there a difference between males and females (in general) regarding their motivations for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia?”, an independent sample T-test was performed to determine if significant differences existed between males and females across one or more motivation factors and perceptions about the teaching profession.

MANOVA and ANOVA with post-hoc comparisons were performed to test question three (RQ3): “How do pre-service and in-service teachers’ motivations and perceptions vary (or not vary at all) for choosing teaching as a career in the Saudi setting?” to determine if there were statistically significant differences in responses on the basis of subgroups in terms of motivation and perceptions about teaching. Moreover, the interaction between gender and career stages was addressed.

The fourth question (RQ4): “Which motivating factors are the most related/associated with commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia?” was addressed

using regression analysis, which included all motivational factors to determine whether certain motivational factors are closely associated with the occupational commitment of pre-service teachers. In addition, the Pearson correlation was applied to examine the relationship between motivational factors and occupational commitment.

Table 4.5. Statistical tests for quantitative data analysis by research question

Research question	N of groups / subgroups	Statistical tests
RQ1. Motivations of respondents	1 (entire sample)	Descriptive statistics; bivariate correlations
RQ2. Motivations by gender	2 (male and female participants)	T-tests; bivariate correlations
RQ3. Motivations by career stages	3 (first and final year students, in-service teachers)	Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVAs); one-way analysis of variance (ANOVAs)
RQ4. Motivation factors and occupational commitment	1 (pre-service teachers)	Bivariate correlations, regression analysis

4.9.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

In order to answer research question five: “What factors motivate or demotivate in-service teachers at different stages of their professional experience?”, qualitative data was collected from semi-structured interviews with teachers according to different stages of their teaching experiences in years: teachers with zero to five years of experience (novice teachers), teachers with twelve to twenty years of experience (mid-career teachers) and teachers with over twenty-one years of experience (late-career teachers). As mentioned earlier, all interviews were recorded to enable the researcher to access all conversations later, taking into account the confidentiality of information.

The first stage of qualitative analysis is transcription, which is defined as “the process of converting audiotape recordings or field notes into text data” (Creswell, 2012, p. 629). Thus, all interviews were transcribed. However, personal information was

replaced by codes to maintain confidentiality and anonymity (Cohen et al., 2007). It is important to note that the process of interview transcription should be implemented by the researcher himself to be able to consider non-verbal communication such as laughter and tone of voice, which enhances the conversation's context (Tracy, 2013). Although the process was time-consuming, the researcher often listened to each interview more than once to ensure the accuracy of the transcripts. The interviews were conducted in the Arabic language, which was the mother language for all the participants. According to Temple, Edwards, and Alexander (2006), interviews should be analysed in the original language to reduce any issues relating to the contextual or cultural meaning or expressions, as well as avoiding any translational conflict between two languages.

Therefore, the analysis of interviews was conducted in the Arabic language, analysed manually, and the findings were then translated into the English language. This procedure, according to Suh et al. (2009), “captures explicit and implicit meanings” (p.189) and expressions or concepts embedded in the original language. Once the findings were translated to English, two colleagues with degrees in English linguistics were asked to do a back-translation from English to Arabic (Filep, 2009), to ensure the accuracy of the translation, and to clarify and remove any ambiguities or discrepancies between the two versions of the findings.

Thematic analysis was adopted to analyse the interviews; this is one of the most common approaches to the analysis of qualitative data. Braun and Clarke (2012) defined thematic analysis as “A method for systematically identifying, organising, and offering insight into patterns of meaning (themes) across a data set.” (p. 57). In the present study, qualitative data analysis was processed through deductive and inductive thinking strategies. The decision of choosing either inductive or deductive analysis or both

depends on the type of question and then the process of qualitative coding data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The deductive analysis method allows the researcher to generate initial pre-determined themes and sub-themes driven by the researcher's theoretical interest in the field (Braun & Clarke, 2006). However, inductive analysis, (also called open coding) as described in Bryman' book (2012), is a process that the researcher may want to use to collect further data to generate new categories or thematic labelling, based on the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon's dimensions, which the theory has not covered. In other words, the researcher attempted here to explore the factors influencing teachers' motivation to teach, either positively or negatively, in light of the FIT-choice theory, analysing the remaining qualitative data into emerging themes or reallocating them into the pre-determined themes. Therefore, the present study adopted both deductive and inductive analysis.

To guide the researcher when conducting thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested six steps for analysing data thematically. First, the researcher needs to be well informed and familiar with the data by immersing himself in the content of the data. This can be achieved by reading the original transcript and the content line-by-line more than once. Second, initial codes are generated by coding across the whole data set and by determining interesting statements that do not match the pre-determined themes (for example, teachers' personal reasons for choosing a teaching career). Third, search for new themes. As mentioned before, themes were pre-determined based on the theoretical view employed in this study; however, in this step, the researcher attempts to identify any new emerging themes made according to the initial codes. This step led to a collection of "candidate themes". Fourth, review the themes by making a map that included the whole data set. Fifth, define and name themes. At this step, all themes were allocated and

refined, and also name and definition was specified for each one, which contributed to determination of the ‘essence’ of what each theme (and sub-theme) was about. The last step is producing the report.

On the other hand, these six stages align with inductive analysis thinking (Braun & Clarke, 2006), while some of the themes were already derived from theory, which is represented in deductive analysis as follows.

In the deductive method, the researcher needs to identify the codes and attach them to relevant themes (Bryman, 2012). This process can be done briefly by four steps. First, reading all text and taking notes. Second, colour-coding the data in light of pre-determined themes. Third, reviewing codes. Fourth, re-presenting the data in groups as is possible under the main relevant themes. The two process of qualitative data analysis is summarised in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Process of Qualitative Data Analysis

Stage 1: Deductive analysis

- 1) Read all the text and take notes.
- 2) Colour-code the data based on pre-determined themes derived from the FIT-Choice theory.
- 3) Review the codes appropriately.
- 4) Re-present the grouped data as is possible under the main pre-determined themes.

Stage 2: Inductive analysis

- 1) Reread the data and focus on statements that do not match the pre-determined themes.
- 2) Analyse the remaining data by generating initial codes according to relevant statements.
- 3) Identify any new emerging themes or sub-themes made based on the initial codes.
- 4) Review the themes or sub-themes by making a map that includes the remaining data set for possible relocation into the existing themes.
- 5) Refine and name themes.
- 6) Produce the report.

4.10 Challenges Related to Interviews

Despite the researcher's efforts to make the interviews go smoothly as planned, some challenges were encountered.

The major challenge was problems related to obtaining permission to conduct interviews with female participants. As previously mentioned in Chapter Two, gender segregation is a major feature of the Saudi education system. After several discussions between the researcher and local educational administration, permission was finally obtained. An agreement was reached to allow the researcher's sister, who has a Master's degree in Education Management, to conduct interviews for female participants, recording the session for later transcription. She is familiar with the educational context as she is working in the local educational department as an administrator. Thus, she was granted access to schools. The interviewer was given a short lecture about this study, and advised what to talk about and what the aims were. Moreover, she was given instructions about the interview context, such as the order of asking the questions and how to record the answers to avoid any potential risk of losing data (Bryman, 2012; Tracy, 2012).

In addition to the female participation issue, the limited time for the teachers was also

problematic. According to Denscombe (2010), the cost of the participants' time (in face-to-face interviews) can be an obstacle to gaining access to some of them. In the present study, it was not easy to find volunteers to participate due to the time factor. Some cases refused to be interviewed in the school as they had a high workload with their teaching schedule. As an alternative solution, it was agreed with seven of the selected teachers to conduct the interview after school time, at their convenience, to be more comfortable and focused in the interview session (Bryman, 2012).

Finally, it was a challenge to find newly recruited teachers that the researcher would like to talk with. This issue may reflect the low number of new teachers recruited in recent years in Saudi Arabia. Despite these obstacles, I was able to interview a satisfactory number of teachers and obtain the data required.

4.11 Summary

This chapter has discussed various aspects related to the process of conducting the current study, from the research design to the practical aspects of the data collection, including instrument translation and sampling procedures, and strategies of data collection and analysis. Finally, it has addressed issues concerning the reliability and validity of the instruments. The current study adopted a mixed-method approach (quantitative and qualitative method) and a rationale is offered for choosing this method to draw on each method's strengths to gain a more detailed view of factors influencing teaching choice as a profession in the Saudi context. Two collecting tools were employed to gather data, and the strengths and weaknesses of each one was highlighted. The triangulation of data collected from different samples by utilising different tools of data collection (questionnaires and interviews) was a way to enhance the validity and reliability of research results. The methods of data analysis from both questionnaires and interviews have been explained and justified. The following chapter highlights the quantitative findings obtained from the questionnaire data.

Chapter Five: Analysis for the Quantitative Data

5.1 Introduction

This research study has two major purposes. The first purpose is to explore pre-service and in-service teachers' motivations for choosing the teaching profession and whether they differ across sub-groups based on gender and year of academic study. The second purpose is to determine the measured motivational factors that are the most important for commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in the KSA. This study employed a cross-sectional mixed-methods approach. Quantitative data were collected using a questionnaire in two versions, printed and online (as described in Chapter Four), to generate the maximum sample size. The data were analysed using SPSS software v25. The chapter starts by listing the questions that were addressed quantitatively. The section concludes with a summary.

5.2 Quantitative Research Questions

- 1) What are the motivations and perceptions of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 2) Is there a difference between males and females (in general) regarding their motivations for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 3) How do pre-service and in-service teachers' motivations and perceptions vary (or not vary at all) for choosing teaching as a profession in the Saudi setting?
- 4) Which motivating factors are the most associated\correlated with commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia?

5.3 Response Rate

The researcher designed two versions of the questionnaire, one printed and one online, in order to maximise the response rate among teachers. The hard-copy questionnaire was given to pre-service teachers and administered in a classroom setting in cooperation with lecturers. The online version was dedicated to in-service teachers and it was sent in cooperation with the local Department of Education in Al-ahsa city, where this study was conducted. There were 994 participants in the survey, 793 of which provided a complete and valid response; however, 201 of these responses were not appropriately completed, and were consequently excluded. In order to handling missing data, the Listwise deletion technique (complete-case analysis) was performed before commencing the analysis phase. Table 5.1 presents a summary of the demographic variables for those who did not provide valid responses to the survey. An inspection of the available data from these incomplete responses reveals that the greatest proportion were in-service teachers with 5 years' teaching experience. The online format of the questionnaire could be one reason why there were more missing data among the in-service group – the printed version can be more closely administrated than the online one (Hunter, 2012).

In addition to this, it can be noted that most of the withdrawn teachers were in the early years of their career. This may be explained by the fact that the first few years of a teaching career are considered to be a discovery stage for many teachers (Huberman, 1993), which may place them under stress as a 'painful beginning'. Thus, their limited participation might be expected compared to their pre-service counterparts.

Table 5.2 shows that 549 printed questionnaires were collected (i.e., from pre-service teachers), accounting for 69.2% of the total. In contrast, 244 online questionnaires were completed, which accounted for 30.8% of the total number collected. It is clear that the majority of the participants were obtained through the hard-copy questionnaire, and there

may be a couple of explanations for this: it is consistent with the earlier idea that hard copies were administered personally by the researcher, and pre-service teachers showed a greater interest in this study. This may be because it is a useful topic and could enhance their ability to explore which factors most influence teachers' motivation and commitment to teaching. Despite all of the above, the t-test analysis showed some significant differences across the study variables in favour of the online version of the questionnaire (higher in mean scores).

Table 5.1. Summary of Demographics Variables of Excluded Participants ($n = 201$, 20.2%)

Variables		Frequency
Gender	Male	48
	Female	82
	Completely Missing	71
Age	18–20	1
	21–23	3
	24–26	6
	27–29	120
	Completely Missing	71
Occupation	Teacher	125
	Student	5
	Completely Missing	71
Qualification	Bachelor's degree	82
	Master's degree	10
	Diploma in teaching	20
	Completely Missing	89
Teaching experience	Not applicable (student)	5
	One year	3
	Two years	3
	Three years	3
	Four years	109
	Five years	78
	Completely Missing	78

Table 5.2. Questionnaire Response Rate by Type of Questionnaire

Type of questionnaire	Frequency	%
Printed	549	69.2
Online	244	30.8
Total	793	100.0

Note. This is final numbers; 201 responses were not appropriately completed, 4 participants did not agree to take part.

5.4 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

The quantitative data in this study were collected from two main groups: pre-service and in-service teachers. This section provides the demographic profile of the participants.

Descriptive analysis is an important step that provides a description of the characteristics and demographic information of the participants (Kothari, 2004). By using frequencies and percentages, the data can be compared and described in light of gender, age, qualifications, first-choice major, length of teaching experience, students' status, subject area and field of teaching. This section concludes with a summary.

5.4.1 Gender

Table 5.3 presents the frequencies and percentages based on gender. It can be seen that there were 793 participants, of which 409 (51.6 %) were male and 384 (48.4%) were female (see Figure 5.1).

Table 5.3. Frequency Distribution of Participants by Gender

Gender	Frequency	%
Male	409	51.6
Female	384	48.4
Total	793	100.0

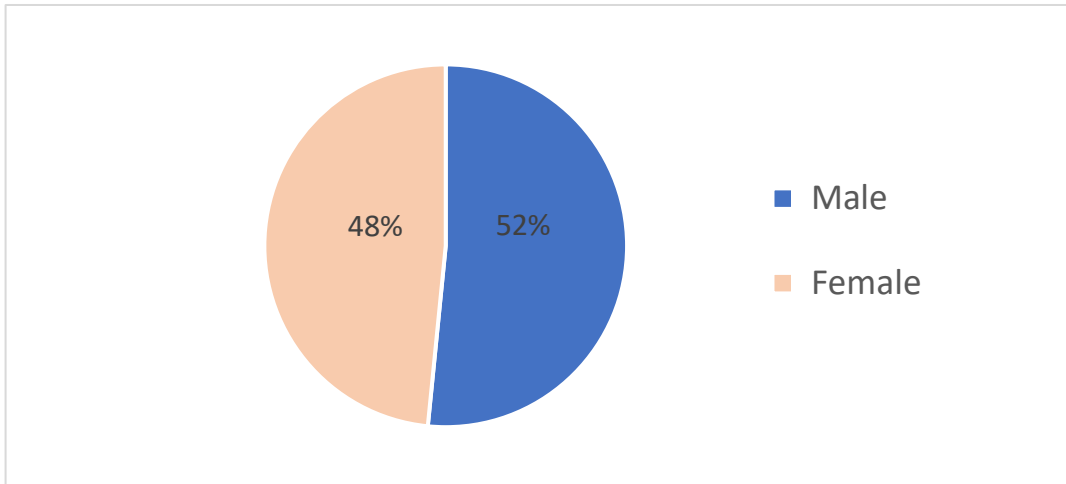


Figure 5.1. Sample distribution according to gender

5.4.2 Age

The participants were asked to report their age based on which age band they fell into. The age range of the participants was between 18 and 29. Table 5.4 describes the frequencies and percentages of the 793 respondents. It appears that the sample was broadly representative across age categories. However, there was an under-representation in the 24–26 age group (9.0%). The largest population age group, by contrast, was pre-service teachers aged 18–20, who made up 32.9% of the sample, followed by the 21–23 age group, which accounted for 29.5% of the total population. A large proportion of the teachers who were in service fell into the 27–29 group (28.6%). The reason for the large number of pre-service and novice teachers aged 18–20 and 21–23 might be that younger teachers felt more committed to complying with the requirements of the Ministry of Education office and the university than their peers who are older. On the other hand, it is notable that the percentage of teachers aged from 27 to 29 years represented a large proportion (28.6%) compared to the 24–26 group (9.0%). This may be attributed to the teaching posts limitation in recent years due to over-supply of some teaching fields, which results in a delay in hiring graduate teachers.

Table 5.4. Frequency Distribution of Participants by Age

	Variable	Frequency	%
Age group	18– 20	261	32.9
	21–23	234	29.5
	24–26	71	9.0
	27–29	227	28.6
Total		793	100.0

5.4.3 Type of Academic Qualification

Table 5.5 describes the degree qualifications of the participating in-service teachers. Almost three-quarters of the participants (73.4%) had a Bachelor’s degree in education, while 18% of the participants had a diploma in teaching, which means that they held a degree related to a non-teaching education programme. However, students who have a Bachelor’s degree in the field of education are required to have a diploma in education in order to be eligible to enter the teaching profession. A few of the sample had a Master’s degree (8.6%), representing the smallest proportion of in-service teachers.

Table 5.5. Degree Qualification of In-service Teachers

Qualification degree	Frequency	%
Bachelor’s degree	179	73.4
Master’s degree	21	8.6
Diploma in teaching	44	18.0
Total	244	100.0

5.4.4 Teaching as a First Choice

Table 5.6 shows that out of the 549 pre-service teachers, 284 (51.7%) of the participants reported that they applied for a teacher education programme as their first-choice major. On the other hand, 265 (48.3%) of the participants had not considered teaching as their first

choice. This is not surprising; however, this result does not necessarily mean that teaching is not one of the primary majors of these students. It may be attributed to many factors such as the difficulties of meeting the admission requirements for their first-choice major.

Table 5.6. Number of Pre-Service Teachers Who Chose Education School as a First Choice

Variable		Frequency	%
Teaching as a first choice	Yes	284	51.7
	No	265	48.3
Total		549	100.0

5.4.5 Years of Experience in Teaching

The participants were asked how many years of teaching experience they had. Table 5.7 shows that the majority of the participants (85.7%) had 5 years' experience, while the smallest groups had the same proportion for either 1 or 2 years (2.9%). Similar numbers of participants had 3 years' experience (3.7%), followed by a slightly larger proportion (4.9%) who had taught for 4 years. It can be seen that teachers who had between 1 and 4 years' teaching experience were under-represented relative to teachers with 5 years' experience. As previously mentioned, this gap in teaching experience in the study sample may be explained by the number of teaching positions offered by the MoE each year. Moreover, the large number of teachers with five years' experience might include some participants with longer careers (i.e. six years or more of teaching experience) since this category is last on the scale.

Table 5.7. Participants' Teaching Experience in Years (In-Service Teachers)

Variable	No. of years	Frequency	%
Years of teaching experience	1	7	2.9
	2	7	2.9
	3	9	3.7
	4	12	4.9
	5	209	85.7
Total		244	100.0

5.4.6 Students' Status

It can be seen from Table 5.8 that the percentage of participants who were in their first year (50.1%) and final-year students (49.9%) was almost the same. It is important to note that the distribution included male and female pre-service teachers; from 275 first-year students, 143 were female. On the other hand, there were 160 females in the final academic year, accounting for more than half of the total final-year group (see Figure 5.2).

Table 5.8. Frequency Distribution of Pre-Service Teachers by Academic Year

Year of study	Frequency	%
First academic year	275	50.1
Final academic year	274	49.9
Total	549	100.0

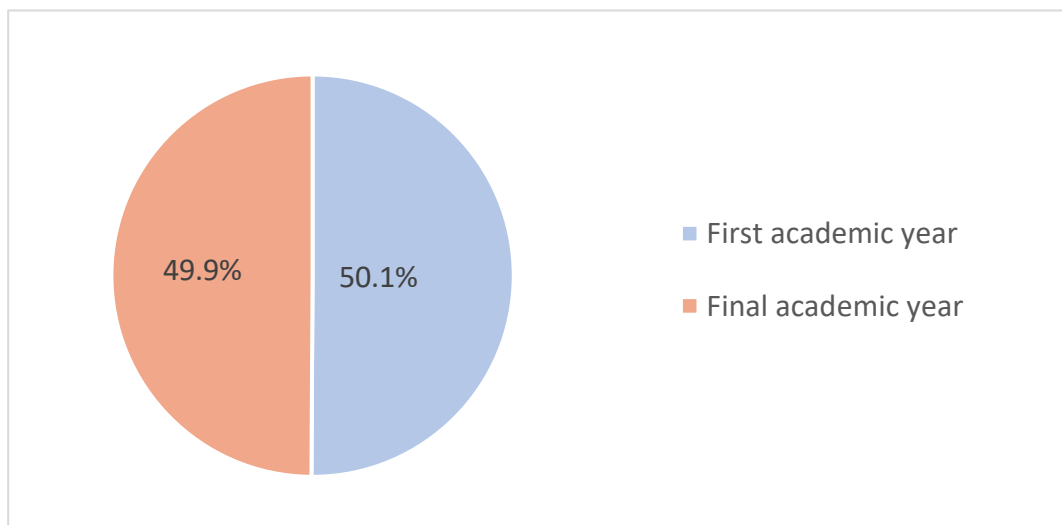


Figure 5.2. Sample distribution for pre-service teachers according to year of study

5.4.7 Subject Areas for Pre-Service Teachers

Table 5.9 shows the distribution of pre-service teachers between main teaching subjects. The most commonly studied subject was early childhood education (29.1%), followed by physical education (17.9%) and art (i.e., drawing, 16.22%). However, 13.3% of students had entered

the Education School but they had not yet chosen a specific major (they were in the preparatory year, also called the foundation year). Special education was slightly smaller (11.1%), while the percentage of participants studying educational techniques was 9.7%. Only 15 participants had science as their major subject, accounting for 2.7% of the total number of participants in the group. Although the Education School does not offer a science course, this small group of participants may have recently moved to the Education School and had not yet chosen their speciality.

Table 5.9. Frequency Distribution of Pre-Service Teachers by Subject Major

	Variable	Frequency	%
Subject Taught	Physical education	98	17.9
	Art	89	16.2
	Early childhood education	160	29.1
	Special education	61	11.1
	Educational techniques	53	9.7
	Preparatory year	73	13.3
	Science	15	2.7
Total		549	100.0

5.4.8 Subject Areas Taught by In-Service Teachers

Table 5.10 shows the distribution of in-service teachers across the range of teaching subjects. Out of 244 participants, those teaching science (comprising mathematics, physics, chemistry, physiology and computer science) accounted for the highest percentage of responses (27%), followed by Islamic studies (24.2%) and art (22.5%) (i.e., Arabic, English, history, and art education-drawing). However, there was a low representation for the rest of the subjects. Social science was taught by a very small proportion of teachers (6.1%) compared to the previous subjects. Kindergarten and home economics (female subjects) had the same proportion of 2.5%, as did accounting and management, and geography (1.6%). The least common subject was physical education with 0.8%, while 6.1% of teachers skipped this

question. It is clear that there is a substantial variance between the numbers of respondents by teaching subject. This may be explained by the fact that subjects such as Islamic study and science are taught five times a week, meaning that more teachers are needed in these subjects compared with those who teach one lesson per week.

Table 5.10. Frequency Distribution of In-service Teachers by Subject Area

	Variable	Frequency	%
Teaching Subjects	Physical education	2	0.8
	Art	55	22.5
	Kindergarten teacher	6	2.5
	Science	66	27.0
	Accounting and management	4	1.6
	Special education	12	4.9
	Social science	15	6.1
	Home economics	6	2.5
	Islamic studies	59	24.2
	Geography	4	1.6
	Missing	15	6.1
Total	244	100.0	

5.5 Correlations

In order to establish the relationship between motivational factors and satisfaction with the teaching choice, the bivariate correlation with a two-tailed Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the higher-order factors with satisfaction with the choice of teaching. The resulting correlation matrix is shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11. Correlations between Motivational Factors and Satisfaction with Choice of Teaching ($n = 793$)

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Personal utility values	-			
2. Social utility values	.615**	-		
3. Task demand	.514**	.638**	-	
4. Task return	.547**	.498**	.556**	-
5. Satisfaction with the choice	.497**	.580**	.531**	.508**

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The table shows a positively significant relationship between satisfaction with choice and all higher-order constructs. The social utility values indicated the strongest correlation ($r = .580$). The perception construct of task demand (i.e., expertise and difficulty) was the second strongest correlation ($r = .531$), followed by task return ($r = .508$). Personal utility values showed the weakest correlation. On the other hand, the four higher-order constructs were highly correlated with each other.

5.6 Summary

In summary, the descriptive analysis demonstrates that the total sample in the quantitative phase of this present study represents a high participation rate ($N=793$). In detail, 62.4% of the participants were aged between 18 and 23. Nearly half of the pre-service sample (51.7%) had chosen the Education School as their first-choice major. Moreover, most of the participants had Bachelor's degrees (73.4%). The analysis also revealed that the greatest proportion (85.75%) of in-service teachers had five years' teaching experience. The number of males and females in the sample was broadly equal. Finally, the structure matrix indicates high correlation between each higher-order factor as well as between these factors and satisfaction with the choice of teaching, while social utility values showed the strongest correlation.

5.7 Results of Research Question 1

RQ1: What are the motivations and perceptions of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?

This section concerns the first research question in an effort to explore the important factors that influenced the participants' choice of teaching as a career.

To analyse research question one, descriptive statistics were gathered for the entire sample ($N = 793$) according to Watt and Richardson's model (2007), which included four higher-order factors and 18 first-order factors of motivation. Occupational commitment was also calculated. The means, ranking, standard deviation, and maximum and minimum scores for the higher-order and first-order motivation and perception factors have been reported as listed in Tables 5.12 and 5.13.

Table 5.12 displays the descriptive statistics of the higher-order motivational factors, scored using a 7-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 "not important at all" to 7 "extremely important"). The results indicate that task demand was highly rated ($M = 5.52$, $SD = 1.15$), followed by social utility value ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 1.19$). This means that the participants perceived teaching as a highly demanding career. The highest rated motivation for choosing teaching was social utility value (altruistic type); this was considered the most important motivational factor for becoming a teacher by the participants. These results correspond to those of Watt and Richardson's study (2007). Task return, however, was rated low ($M = 5.01$, $SD = 1.20$), while personal utility value (intrinsic type) ($M = 4.95$, $SD = 1.04$) was the least important influence on the decision to teach, as illustrated in Figure 5.3.

Table 5.12. Summary of Means of Higher-order Motivational Factors for the Entire Sample ($n = 793$)

	Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Social utility value	1.00	7.00	5.46	1.19
2	Personal utility value	1.00	7.00	4.95	1.04
3	Task demand	1.00	7.00	5.51	1.15
4	Task return	1.00	7.00	5.01	1.20

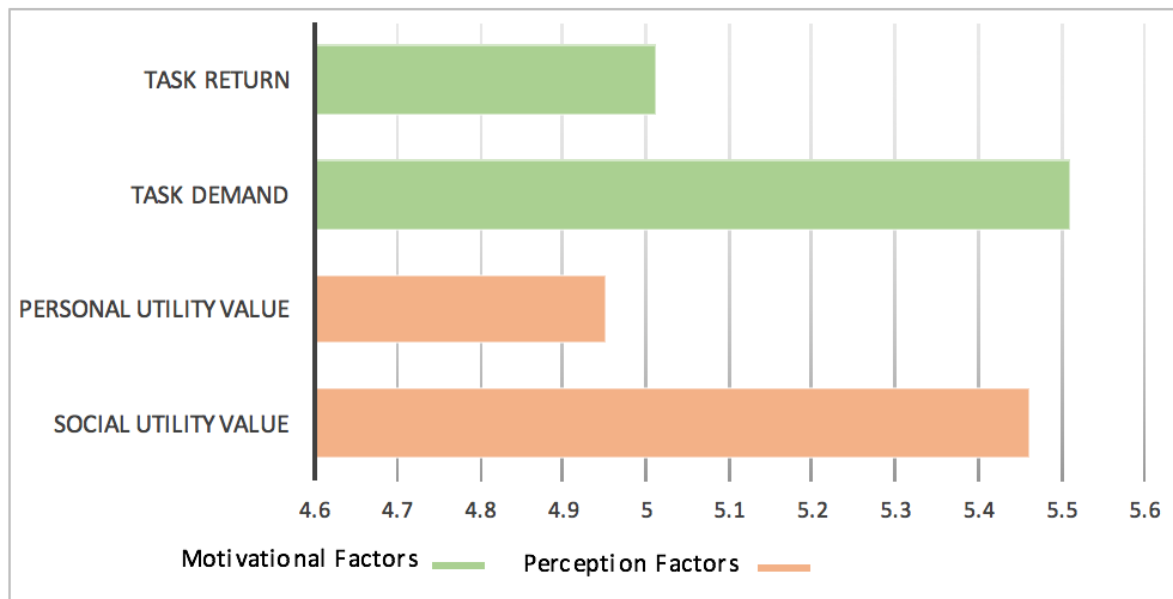


Figure 5.3. Means of higher-order motivation and perception factors

Table 5.13 along with Figure 5.4 display the descriptive statistics of the 19 first-order motivational factors, including occupational commitment and beliefs about teaching.

Table 5.13. Summary of Means of Motivational and Perception Factors and Commitment to Teaching ($n = 793$)

Variables	Ranking	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 Intrinsic career value	10	1.00	7.00	5.03	1.54
2 Social influences	15	1.00	7.00	4.49	1.51
3 Time for family	13	1.00	7.00	4.87	1.24
4 Teaching ability	7	1.00	7.00	5.22	1.30
5 Make social contribution	2	1.00	7.00	5.66	1.25
6 Job transferability	15	1.00	7.00	4.49	1.24
7 Shape future of children	3	1.00	7.00	5.57	1.38
8 Fallback career	17	1.00	7.00	3.99	1.46
9 Work with children	14	1.00	7.00	4.67	1.63
10 Job security	4	1.00	7.00	5.50	1.33
11 Prior teaching and learning exp	6	1.00	7.00	5.26	1.30
12 Enhance social equity	8	1.00	7.00	5.15	1.39
13 Salary	11	1.00	7.00	5.02	1.51
14 Difficulty of teaching	5	1.00	7.00	5.29	1.27
15 Social status	12	1.00	7.00	5.01	1.23
16 Expertise of teaching	1	1.00	7.00	5.73	1.29
17 Social dissuasion	16	1.00	7.00	4.15	1.53
18 Satisfaction with the choice	9	1.00	7.00	5.07	1.55
19 Commitment to teach **		1.00	9.00	5.79	2.08

** independent scale

Again, these items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale. The results show that the highest rated factor was expertise in teaching ($M = 5.37$, $SD = 1.29$). This factor included items such as “Do you think teaching requires high levels of expert knowledge?”, “Do you think teachers need high levels of technical knowledge?” and “Do you think teachers need highly specialised knowledge?” In contrast, the lowest rated factor was fallback career ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 1.64$), which included items such as “I was unsure of what career I wanted”, “I was not accepted into my first-choice career” and “I chose teaching as a last-resort career.” The low rating of fallback career as the least important influence on the participants’ choice to teach is in accord with Watt and Richardson’s finding (2007).

Moreover, among the motivation constructs, seven factors were rated above 5, including making a social contribution ($M = 5.66$, $SD = 1.25$), followed by shaping the future

of children ($M = 5.57, SD = 1.38$), job security ($M = 5.50, SD = 1.33$), prior teaching and learning experience ($M = 5.26, SD = 1.30$), teaching ability ($M = 5.22, SD = 1.30$), enhancing social equity ($M = 5.15, SD = 1.39$) and intrinsic career value ($M = 5.03, SD = 1.54$). This indicates that these motivations were the most important determinant factors of the participants' decision to become a teacher. However, four other factors were rated below 5, such as time for family ($M = 4.87, SD = 1.24$), working with children ($M = 4.67, SD = 1.63$), job transferability ($M = 4.49, SD = 1.24$) and social influences ($M = 4.49, SD = 1.51$), meaning that they were considered as less important reasons for choosing a teaching career.

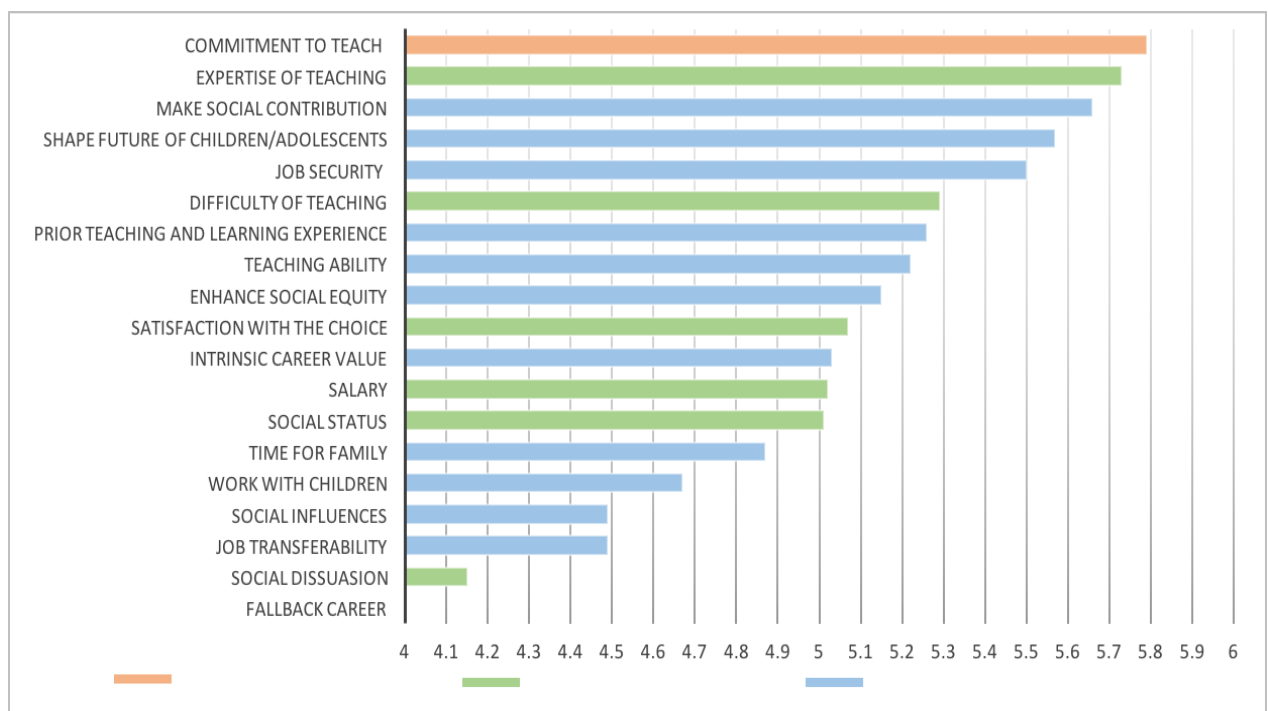


Figure 5.4. Means for motivational factors, perception and commitment to teach

Among the perceptions, four factors of perceptions about teaching were rated above 5. These factors were difficulty of teaching ($M = 5.29, SD = 1.27$), satisfaction with the choice ($M = 5.07, SD = 1.55$), salary ($M = 5.02, SD = 1.51$) and social status ($M = 5.01, SD = 1.23$). However, social dissuasion ($M = 4.15, SD = 1.53$) was the only factor rated below 5, which seems to be consistent with Watt and Richardson's results (2007).

Finally, occupational commitment was rated on an independent scale by a 9-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 “not important at all” to 9 “extremely important”). It was rated above 5 ($M = 5.79$, $SD = 2.08$), which indicated that the participants believed it had an important association with the choice of a teaching career.

To summarise, the higher-order motivational factors showed that social utility values were perceived as the most important factor for the choice of a teaching career, whereas personal utility value was the least important. However, satisfaction with the career choice was not rated as one of the leading perception factors about the teaching profession. This may be explained by the fact that the participants in this present study came from various career stages, and they were likely to hold different views about teaching as a career. On the other hand, along with commitment to teach, factors including expertise of teaching, making a social contribution, shaping the future of children and job security were perceived as the most important factors contributing to the decision to teach. A fallback career was rated as the least important. These responses, in general, reveal that the participants were motivated by multiple motives. Altruistic motives, job security, and prior teaching and learning experiences were prominent. Nevertheless, they perceived teaching as a highly demanding task that involves difficulties and needs the necessary expertise. Further analysis pointed to the existence of statistically significant differences between groups and sub-groups in their motivations and commitment to teaching.

5.8 Results of Research Question 2

RQ 2: Is there a difference between males and females (in general) regarding their motivations for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia?

In order to answer question 2, bivariate correlations and independent samples t-tests were implemented as presented below.

First, correlations were computed separately for male and female groups for all variables. Specifically, the main goal of this step is to examine the correlation between satisfaction with the choice of teaching as a career and occupational commitment with the motivational and perception factors. The results showed the same direction and similar magnitudes among the variables for the two groups. However, some interesting and significant relationships were observed between satisfaction with choice and occupational commitment with the motivational and perception factors about teaching across gender. The results are shown in Tables 5.14 and 5.15.

The two tables demonstrate that satisfaction with the choice of teaching was strongly and positively correlated with occupational commitment (male $r = .557$, and female $r = .600$). All motivational and perception factors in the two groups were generally significantly correlated with each other. Interestingly, the relationship between intrinsic career value and satisfaction with choice was the highest for both male and female participants ($r = .614$ and $.661$, respectively).

With respect to the male group, perceived teaching ability and making a social contribution were very strongly related to satisfaction with choice ($r = .611$ and $.598$, respectively, see Table 5.14) and occupational commitment ($r = .450$ and $.470$, respectively). The extrinsic motivations of job security and social influences were also strongly correlated with satisfaction with choice ($r = .551$ and $.525$, respectively) and less strongly with occupational commitment ($r = .365$ and $.387$, respectively). Moreover, social status and social utility values such as working with children and enhancing social equity were strongly and positively related to satisfaction with choice and less strongly correlated to occupational commitment. In contrast, the social dissuasion factor was significantly but weakly correlated with satisfaction with choice, while it did not show a significant relationship with occupational commitment. Fallback career was not significantly correlated; it showed the

weakest correlation with satisfaction with choice, while it was negatively correlated with occupational commitment.

As for the female group, working with children showed a strong correlation with satisfaction with choice ($r = .513$, see Table 5.15) and occupational commitment ($r = .463$), followed by the factors of teaching ability, enhancing social equity, making a social contribution, and shaping the future for children. An insignificant, very weak negative correlation was observed between satisfaction with choice and fallback career ($r = -.044$), while it showed a significant negative correlation with occupational commitment ($r = -.268$). Moreover, social dissuasion was seen to be negatively correlated with occupational commitment. Another strong relationship was observed between the perception factor of expertise of teaching and females' choice of teaching as a career.

Table 5.14. Pearson's Correlations between Motivational Factors, Perceptions, and Occupational Commitment (Male)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1.Prior teaching and learning experience	-																	
2.Social influences	.523**	-																
3.Teaching ability	.554**	.590**	-															
4.Intrinsic career value	.505**	.632**	.685**	-														
5.Job security	.574**	.450**	.515**	.482**	-													
6.Job transferability	.488**	.555**	.500**	.516**	.500**	-												
7.Time for family	.406**	.370**	.388**	.320**	.607**	.393**	-											
8.Shape future of children	.613**	.514**	.627**	.601**	.595**	.477**	.369**	-										
9.Enhance social equity	.553**	.544**	.602**	.600**	.550**	.543**	.387**	.633**	-									
10.Work with children	.491**	.587**	.546**	.622**	.405**	.456**	.246**	.499**	.600**	-								
11.Make social contribution	.638**	.542**	.649**	.657**	.589**	.531**	.382**	.711**	.636**	.519**	-							
12.Fallback career	.132**	.202**	.115*	.041	.093	.242**	.148**	.037	.164**	.096	.065	-						
13.Salary	.359**	.324**	.341**	.347**	.546**	.363**	.458**	.362**	.384**	.209**	.392**	.174**	-					
14.Difficulty of teaching	.496**	.350**	.415**	.372**	.481**	.368**	.376**	.490**	.408**	.258**	.544**	.051	.397**	-				
15.Social status	.504**	.455**	.477**	.444**	.491**	.453**	.341**	.429**	.478**	.408**	.506**	.233**	.586**	.468**	-			
16.Expertise of teaching	.494**	.374**	.495**	.410**	.528**	.365**	.327**	.527**	.490**	.287**	.601**	.031	.469**	.670**	.544**	-		
17.Social dissuasion	.254**	.330**	.243**	.228**	.216**	.341**	.288**	.190**	.299**	.203**	.232**	.302**	.222**	.252**	.244**	.205**	-	
18.Satisfaction with choice	.494**	.525**	.611**	.614**	.551**	.458**	.365**	.524**	.574**	.497**	.598**	.049	.499**	.516**	.599**	.587**	.257**	-
Occupational commitment	.348**	.387**	.450**	.531**	.365**	.288**	.229**	.418**	.369**	.381**	.470**	-.107*	.292**	.193**	.379**	.333**	0.031	.557**

** Significant at the 0.01 level

* Significant at the 0.05 level

■ Motivational factors

■ Perception factors

■ Independent scale

Table 5.15 Pearson's Correlations between Motivational Factors, Perceptions, and Occupational Commitment (Female)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1.Prior teaching and learning experience	-																	
2.Social influences	.419**	-																
3.Teaching ability	.483**	.508**	-															
4.Intrinsic career value	.495**	.521**	.670**	-														
5.Job security	.393**	.355**	.393**	.427**	-													
6.Job transferability	.339**	.363**	.407**	.389**	.460**	-												
7.Time for family	.300**	.310**	.272**	.236**	.619**	.446**	-											
8.Shape future of children	.481**	.326**	.461**	.493**	.523**	.266**	.318**	-										
9.Enhance social equity	.455**	.357**	.428**	.503**	.469**	.350**	.272**	.678**	-									
10.Work with children	.422**	.384**	.449**	.616**	.359**	.336**	.198**	.499**	.518**	-								
11.Make social contribution	.563**	.367**	.542**	.543**	.499**	.319**	.326**	.692**	.630**	.421**	-							
12.Fallback career	.113*	.227**	.098	-.023	.242**	.291**	.274**	.084	.168**	.041	.063	-						
13.Salary	.223**	.224**	.094	.096	.376**	.251**	.277**	.206**	.253**	.066	.218**	.133**	-					
14.Difficulty of teaching	.344**	.247**	.368**	.300**	.408**	.226**	.299**	.374**	.351**	.194**	.394**	.252**	.241**	-				
15.Social status	.348**	.297**	.299**	.335**	.339**	.367**	.259**	.327**	.393**	.275**	.399**	.136**	.442**	.422**	-			
16.Expertise of teaching	.358**	.255**	.388**	.344**	.395**	.295**	.260**	.488**	.473**	.258**	.536**	.082	.355**	.477**	.415**	-		
17.Social dissuasion	.163**	.070	.016	-.003	.113*	.073	.140**	.032	.119*	.064	.112*	.198**	.179**	.113*	.104*	.066	-	
18.Satisfaction with the choice	.385**	.349**	.466**	.661**	.363**	.372**	.254**	.403**	.443**	.513**	.443**	-.044	.237**	.264**	.387**	.447**	.061	-
Occupational commitment	.254**	.199**	.319**	.545**	.153**	.129*	.039	.304**	.281**	.463**	.297**	-.268**	.022	.041	.193**	.226**	-.137**	.600**

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

■ Motivational factors

■ Perception factors

■ Independent scale

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Second, independent sample t-tests were performed next to determine the significant differences between male and female teachers across the 18 motivational factors, and in their perceptions and occupational commitment. The higher-order motivational factors were also examined between the two groups. However, it is important to note that when multiple tests are conducted on the same dependent variables without pre-planned hypotheses, the chance of committing a Type I error increases (increasing the likelihood of reaching a significant finding by pure chance). To protect the result from a Type I error, a number of methods for correcting p -values are utilised within studies, with the Bonferroni method being the most popular (Armstrong, 2014). Therefore, in this study, Bonferroni's correction was used (α altered = α/n , where n is the number of independent tests) to account for the multiple comparisons. Effect size estimation was also calculated.

A variety of measures of effect size have been applied in the literature. In this study, however, the effect size of the independent sample t-test was measured by Cohen's d (Cohen, 1988), which was "designed for use where scores of the two populations being compared are continuous and normally distributed" (Rice & Harris, 2005, p. 618). It is one of the most common measures used in empirical research. According to Cohen (1992), $d = .20$ indicates a small effect size, while $d = .50$ is considered to be a medium effect size, and $d = .80$ should be a large effect size.

Table 5.16 displays the results of the independent sample t-tests for the higher-order motivational factors between male and female groups. A Bonferroni-adjusted p -value was set for this test, $p = .0125$. The results showed that there were significant differences between males and females on the four higher-order factors: personal utility values, social utility values, task return and task demand. Although the higher-order factors were all statistically significant, the effect size revealed a variety of statistics for these factors.

Interestingly, female teachers rated job security factor as more important to teach ($M = 5.08, SD = 1.00$) compared to male teachers ($M = 4.58, SD = 0.94$), $t(791) = -3.45, p < .0125$. $d = .24$, representing a small effect size. Similarly, female teachers seem to have a greater association with social utility values ($M = 5.80, SD = 1.07$), task demand ($M = 5.85, SD = 0.96$) and task return ($M = 5.24, SD = 1.11$) than their male counterparts ($M = 5.14, SD = 1.21$), $t(789) = -8.07, p < .0125$, ($M = 5.19, SD = 1.22$) $t(768) = -8.49, p < .0125$, and ($M = 4.81, SD = 1.25$) $t(789) = -5.15, p < .0125$, respectively).

However, task demand and social utility values had a medium to large effect size ($d = .60$ and $d = .58$, respectively), while task return had a small effect size of $.36$. From an inspection of the mean scores and effect size in Table 5.16, it can be noted that female participants considered social utility values (e.g., shaping the future for children) to be a more important motivating factor for becoming a teacher, and they perceived teaching to be higher in task demand than male participants. Figure 5.5 presents gender differences in the means for the higher-order factors of motivation and perceptions of teaching.

It is worth noting that teaching is often seen as a ‘soft’ job, as it involves caring and emotional attributes; therefore, it can be viewed as the most suitable work for women (Haywood et al., 2005). A further t-test was conducted to examine the differences between the two groups across a range of first-order factors.

Table 5.16. Independent Sample t-test for the Higher-order Factors based on Gender

Higher-order factors	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2-tailed)	<i>d</i>
Personal utility values	M	4.83	1.06	-3.45	791	$p < .0125$.24
	F	5.08	1.00				
Social utility values	M	5.14	1.21	-8.07	789	$p < .0125$.58
	F	5.80	1.07				
Task demand	M	5.19	1.22	-8.49	768	$p < .0125$.60
	F	5.85	0.96				
Task return	M	4.81	1.25	-5.15	789	$p < .0125$.36
	F	5.24	1.11				

Note. Bonferroni-adjusted level $p < .001$

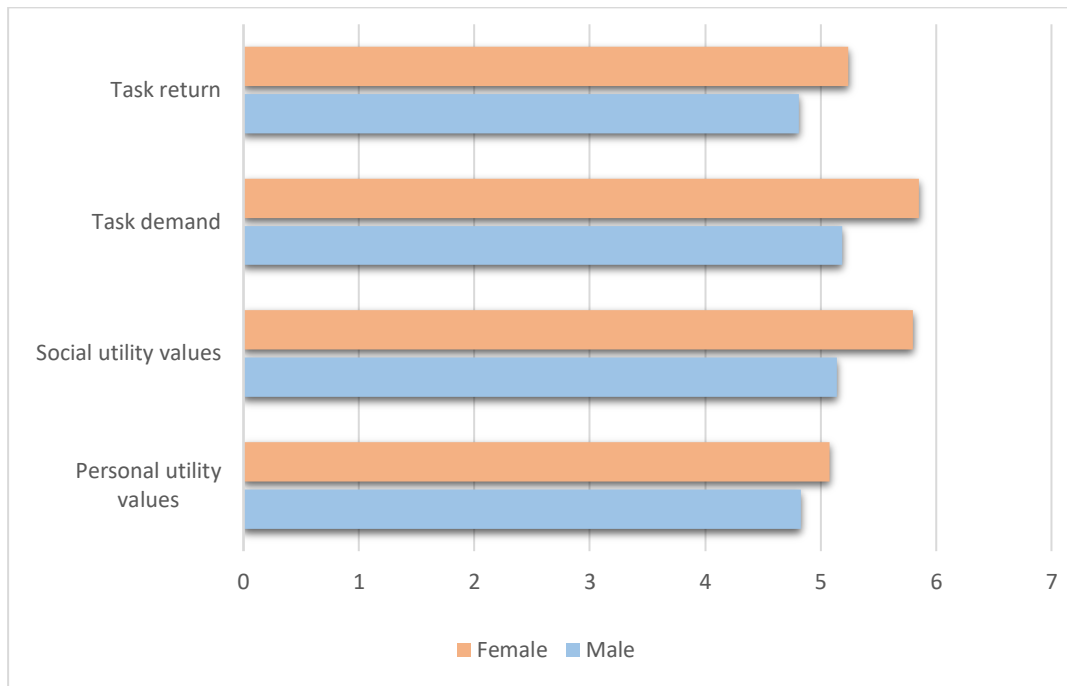


Figure 5.5. Means of higher-order motivation and perception factors according to gender

Table 5.17 presents an independent sample t-test for all 18 motivational and perception factors as well as occupational commitment. Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha level of .0026, the results indicated that significant differences existed between the groups for the majority of motivational factors. Again, compared to males, female teachers rated the factors significantly higher ($p < .0026$) as important influential motivations for their decision to become a teacher. These factors include prior teaching and learning experience (5.10 vs. 5.43), teaching ability (5.02 vs. 5.43), job security (5.25 vs. 5.77), time for family (4.77 vs. 4.97), shaping the future of children (5.18 vs. 5.99), enhancing social equity (4.46 vs. 5.45), working with children (4.95 vs. 4.42) and making a social contribution (5.38 vs. 5.95). Although males rated a fallback career higher than females (4.02 vs. 3.97, $p > .0026$), it was not statistically significant.

Furthermore, statistically significant differences were found between the two groups in the six constructs on perceptions of teaching. In general, females' perceptions were significantly higher ($p < .0026$) than those of their male counterparts for the majority of

factors, including salary (5.27 vs. 4.77), difficulty of teaching (5.57 vs. 5.03), social status (5.20 vs. 4.84), expertise in teaching (6.13 vs. 5.35) and satisfaction with the choice of teaching (5.27 vs. 4.88). The only significant difference was found in social dissuasion, which males rated higher (4.32 vs. 3.97), supported the prevailing view that teaching is not a desirable job for men. Occupational commitment was also significantly higher among females than males (5.97 vs. 5.61). Figure 5.6 clearly shows the dominant trend in favour of the female group across motivational and perception factors, including satisfaction with the choice and occupational commitment.

An inspection of the effect sizes showed that all motivations and perceptions were in the range of small to medium. Although satisfaction with the choice of teaching reached a statistically significant level, the effect size was small ($d = .25$). Only shaping the future of children and expertise in teaching (as a highly demanding career) had a medium to large effect size ($d = .61$ and $.64$, respectively), which means that they play important roles in the choice of teaching as a career. These were followed by making a social contribution ($d = .47$), difficulty of teaching ($d = .44$), enhancing social equity ($d = .43$) and job security ($d = .40$), which represented an almost medium effect size.

Table 5.17. Independent Samples t-test for the First-order Motivational Factors, Perceptions and Commitment to Teaching Across Gender

Motivation / perception Factors	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2-tailed)	<i>d</i>
Prior teaching and learning experience	M	5.10	1.29	-3.69	791	<i>p</i> < .0026	.26
	F	5.43	1.28				
Social influences	M	4.38	1.46	-2.11	791	.003	.15
	F	4.61	1.55				
Teaching ability	M	5.02	1.30	-4.47	791	<i>p</i> < .0026	.32
	F	5.43	1.27				
Intrinsic career value	M	4.98	1.57	-0.87	791	.038	.06
	F	5.08	1.51				
Job security	M	5.25	1.40	-5.65	783	<i>p</i> < .0026	.40
	F	5.77	1.19				
Job transferability	M	4.47	1.24	-0.37	791	.071	.03
	F	4.51	1.24				
Time for family	M	4.77	1.24	-2.35	791	<i>p</i> < .0026	.16
	F	4.97	1.23				
Shape future of children	M	5.18	1.44	-8.63	778	<i>p</i> < .0026	.61
	F	5.99	1.19				
Enhance social equity	M	4.86	1.36	-6.03	791	<i>p</i> < .0026	.43
	F	5.45	1.37				
Work with children	M	4.42	1.52	-4.60	766	<i>p</i> < .0026	.33
	F	4.95	1.71				
Make social contribution	M	5.38	1.33	-6.64	778	<i>p</i> < .0026	.47
	F	5.95	1.10				
Fallback career	M	4.02	1.37	0.54	761	.058	.03
	F	3.97	1.56				
Salary	M	4.77	1.56	-4.73	789	<i>p</i> < .0026	.34
	F	5.27	1.41				
Difficulty of teaching	M	5.03	1.29	-6.13	790	<i>p</i> < .0026	.44
	F	5.57	1.18				
Social status	M	4.84	1.23	-4.20	791	<i>p</i> < .0026	.30
	F	5.20	1.20				
Expertise of teaching	M	5.35	1.38	-9.00	758	<i>p</i> < .0026	.64
	F	6.13	1.05				
Social dissuasion	M	4.32	1.42	3.21	761	<i>p</i> < .0026	.23
	F	3.97	1.62				
Satisfaction with choice	M	4.88	1.57	-3.52	791	<i>p</i> < .0026	.25
	F	5.27	1.50				
Occupational commitment	M	5.61	2.03	-2.44	791	<i>p</i> < .0026	.17
	F	5.97	2.12				

Note. Bonferroni-adjusted level $p < .0026$

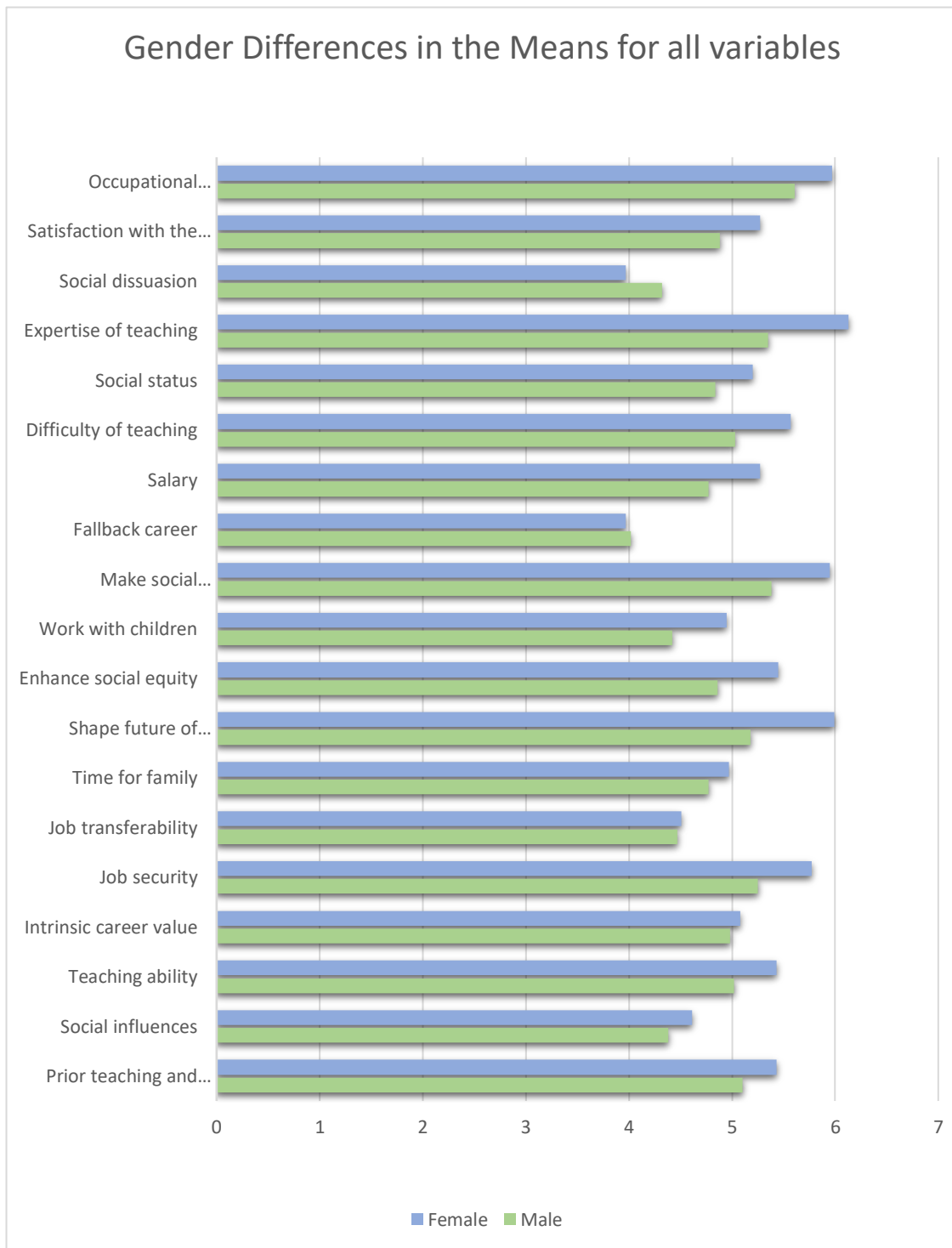


Figure 5.6 Means of higher-order motivational and perception factors according to gender

To summarise, it has been shown from the results of the t-tests that there were significant differences between males and females regarding their motivations for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia. A dominating presence of female participants over

males has been clearly noted. According to the responses and the outcomes, the females were highly satisfied with their choice of profession. By using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha level of .0026, the four higher-order factors were found to be significantly different between the two groups. Social utility values and task demand were rated the highest (with a medium to large effect size) as important influences for both males and females' decision to teach.

However, when the results were considered separately, it was found that males perceived teaching as lower in task return than females. Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha level of .0026, the results of the first-order factors indicated that female teachers (including pre-service teachers) were significantly more highly motivated to teach than their male counterparts. This was seen from such factors as prior teaching and learning experience, the ability of teaching, job security, shaping the future of children, enhancing social equity, working with children, and making a social contribution, while social dissuasion was higher for males.

The effect sizes using Cohen's *d* have been calculated to determine the practical significance of the differences between the two groups across the motivational factors, perceptions and occupational commitment. The motivations of shaping the future of children and expertise of teaching had a relatively large effect size. Although females were significantly more satisfied with their choice of teaching, the effect size was very small. Finally, the results support the widely accepted view about teaching as a very suitable career for women.

There was also a significant difference between gender and occupational commitment. Females showed more commitment to teaching than males. With regard to perceptions about teaching, overall, the male and female groups perceived teaching as a difficult job that required technical expertise and with low in task return.

5.9 Results of Research Question 3

RQ 3: How do pre-service and in-service teachers' motivations and perceptions vary (or not vary at all) for choosing teaching as a profession in the Saudi setting?

To answer question 3, a MANOVA was conducted to determine whether a significant difference existed between the groups. In addition, the interaction between gender and career stages was tested across all motivational and perception factors to detect any potential effect when interacting with gender. This was followed by a series of ANOVAs to assess whether there were statistically significant differences in motivational factors and perceptions about teaching on the basis of career stage. Effect size (partial eta-squared ' η_p^2 ') was also reported using Cohen's conventions, which suggest that values of .01, .06, and .14 indicate small, medium and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). The three groups of teachers were first-year prospective teachers, final-year prospective teachers and in-service teachers. The following subsections present the results for the higher-order motivational factors across the groups. The analyses were then carried out for all motivational and perception factors.

5.9.1 Differences in Higher-order Motivational Factors

The result of Pillai's trace criterion of the MANOVA test showed a significant difference between group participants ($F [8, 1,576] = 20.170, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .093$). However, task demand was found to be the only significant factor in the interaction between gender and career stage, $F (2, 787) = 4.086, p < .05$ with a small effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .010$). An inspection of the mean scores for each group showed that female teachers in all groups perceived teaching as a more highly demanding career than male teachers.

Based on these results, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore a further analysis between groups. Table 5.18 shows that there were significant differences between the groups in three of the four higher-order factors. There were significant differences in personal utility values ($F [2, 790] = 7.09, p < .05$), social utility values ($F [2, 790] = 11.18, p$

< .05) and task demand ($F [2, 790] = 44.06, p < .05$). Meanwhile, no statistically significant effect of task return was found on motivation to teach among the groups ($F [2, 790] = 1.30, p > .05$). Later, a post-hoc test was conducted using Tukey's Honestly Significantly Different (HSD) to explore the mean score differences between the teacher groups. Tukey's multiple comparison test is considered to be a powerful tool when a set of data is normally distributed and when there is homogeneity of variance across equal sizes of sample (but it can be adapted to unequal sample sizes too). It is employed to find which mean groups differ significantly from the other groups (Smith, 1971; Steel & Torrie, 1986; Stevens, 1999). It is also invoked to determine if there is a significant interaction between three or more variables.

Table 5.18. One-way ANOVA Test for the Higher-order Factors

Higher-order factors	Source of variance	Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean square	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Personal utility values	Between groups	15.084	2	7.542	7.098	$p < .001$
	Within Groups	839.499	790	1.063		
	Total	854.584	792			
Social utility values	Between groups	30.903	2	15.452	11.180	$p < .001$
	Within Groups	1091.799	790	1.382		
	Total	1122.702	792			
Task demand	Between groups	105.097	2	52.549	44.066	$p < .001$
	Within Groups	942.061	790	1.192		
	Total	1047.158	792			
Task return	Between groups	3.760	2	1.880	1.308	.271
	Within Groups	1135.831	790	1.438		
	Total	1139.591	792			

The Tukey HSD test results reported in Table 5.19 reveal that the in-service teachers had significantly higher mean scores in personal utility values than the first- and final-year prospective teachers at $p < .05$. However, the first-year prospective teachers did not differ

significantly from the final-year prospective teachers, at $p > .05$. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .018$, indicating a small effect (1.8%).

In addition, the results showed that the in-service teachers had significantly higher mean scores in social utility value than both the first- and final-year prospective teachers. No significant difference was found between the first- and final-year prospective teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 .028$, indicating a small effect (2.8%). This result may reflect the importance of practising in order to experience the sense of social value of teaching.

Table 5.19. Mean Scores Comparison by Higher-order Motivational Factors

Higher-order factors	First-year prospective teachers Group (1)	Final-year prospective teachers Group (2)	In-service teachers Group (3)	Comparison groups	Post-hoc Test	Partial η^2
Personal utility values	$M= 4.90$ ($SD 1.07$)	$M= 4.83$ ($SD 0.99$)	$M= 5.15$ ($SD 1.04$)	1 VS 2 1 VS 3 2 VS 3	.694 $p < .013$ $p < .001$.018
Social utility values	$M= 5.32$ ($SD 1.21$)	$M= 5.33$ ($SD 1.18$)	$M= 5.75$ ($SD 1.13$)	1 VS 2 1 VS 3 2 VS 3	.993 $p < .001$ $p < .001$.028
Task demand	$M= 5.23$ ($SD 1.20$)	$M= 5.30$ ($SD 1.09$)	$M= 6.05$ ($SD 0.96$)	1 VS 2 1 VS 3 2 VS 3	.698 $p < .001$ $p < .001$.100

Moreover, the mean reported for the in-service teachers' group was significantly higher than that reported for the other groups for task demand as a motivating factor contributing to teachers' decision to choose teaching as a career. This may be explained by the fact that in-service teachers are more aware of the career challenges than pre-service teachers. However, no significant difference was found between the first- and final-year prospective teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .100$, indicating a large effect, which means that 10% of the total variance of the task demand factor was attributed to teachers' occupational level. Figures 5.7, 5.8 and 5.9 demonstrate the means comparison between the

three groups of teachers on personal utility values, social utility values and task demand. It can be seen from these results that there was a gap between the expectations of pre-service teachers about teaching and the reality of everyday classroom life (Kim & Cho, 2014). The results of the analysis of the first-order factors among the different groups, for all of the motivational and perception factors, are presented in the next section.

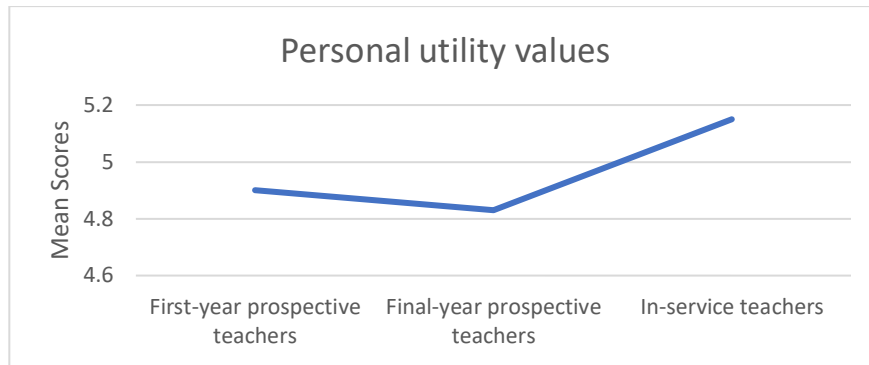


Figure 5.7. Mean scores comparison for personal utility values

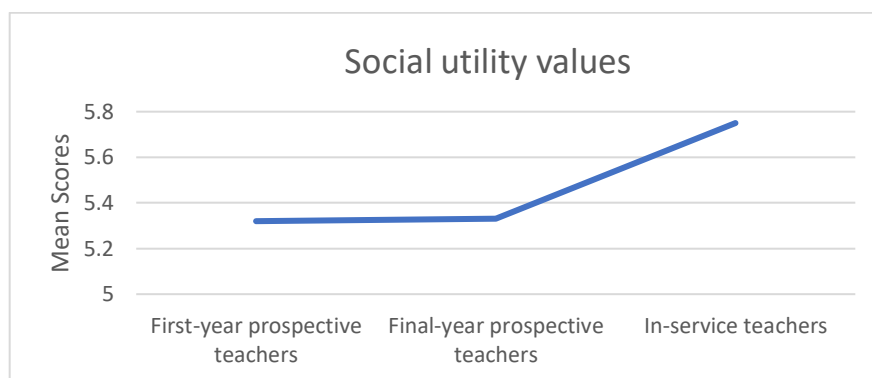


Figure 5.8. Mean scores comparison for social utility values

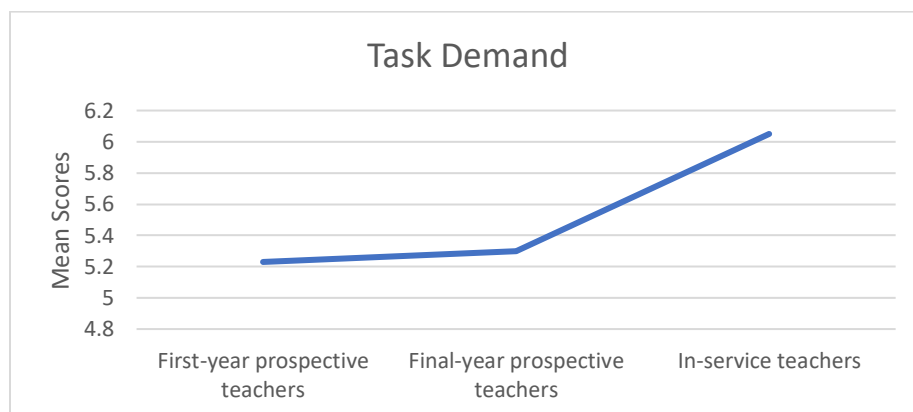


Figure 5.9. Mean scores comparison for task demand

5.9.2 Differences in Motivational Factors

The result of Pillai's trace criterion of the MANOVA test showed that a significant difference existed between the group participants, based on career stages ($F [24, 1,554] = 5.839, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .083$), and gender ($F [24, 776] = 9.887, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .133$). Moreover, the MANOVA revealed an interaction effect between gender and career stage in five motivational factors: intrinsic career value, social influences, teaching ability, shaping the future for children, and fallback career.

For intrinsic career value, the interaction between career stage and gender, $F (2, 787) = 6.105$, had a small effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .015$). Female final-year prospective teachers and in-service teachers expressed a more intrinsic value of teaching than their male counterparts.

For social influences, the interaction between career stage and gender, $F (2, 787) = 4.508$, had a small effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .011$). Female final-year prospective teachers and in-service teachers rated social influences higher than their male counterparts, while male pre-service teachers in their first academic year rated social influences slightly higher than their female counterparts.

There was a small effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .010$) for the interaction between career stage and gender for teaching ability factor, $F (2, 787) = 4.157$. As expected, female teachers at all career stages scored higher in teaching ability than male teachers.

The interaction between gender and career stage for shaping the future of children, $F (2, 787) = 3.793$, had a small effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .010$). Female teachers expressed more interest in shaping the future for children over all their career stages than male teachers. Finally, an interaction effect was found between gender and career stage on choosing teaching as a fallback career, $F (2, 787) = 4.208$, and it had a small effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .011$). Although male teachers rated a fallback career higher than females in the total mean scores, there was a difference when inspecting the mean scores for each group. Male final-year pre-service teachers rated a fallback career higher than female pre-service teachers in their final year.

As noted, there was a consistent trend between genders across career stages. In the total mean scores, female teachers rated all significant factors higher than males, apart from viewing teaching as a fallback career.

Multiple one-way ANOVAs were conducted to determine the differences in all motivational factors between the pre-service teachers (in the first and final years of their teaching programme) and the in-service teachers. The results of the one-way ANOVA showed many significant differences in motivations. However, no significant differences were found in the following factors: job transferability, enhancing social equity, working with children and fallback career. Table 5.20 below summarises the result for each motivational factor across the groups.

Table 5.20. One-way ANOVA Test for Motivational Factors

Motivational factors	Source of variance	Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean square	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Prior teaching and learning experience	Between groups	43.182	2	21.591	13.250	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1287.340	790	1.630		
	Total	1330.522	792			
Social influences	Between groups	29.367	2	14.684	6.529	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1776.627	790	2.249		
	Total	1805.994	792			
Teaching ability	Between groups	128.819	2	64.409	42.198	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1205.820	790	1.526		
	Total	1334.639	792			
Intrinsic career value	Between groups	53.125	2	26.563	11.477	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1828.357	790	2.314		
	Total	1881.482	792			
Job security	Between groups	41.270	2	20.635	12.045	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1353.344	790	1.713		
	Total	1394.614	792			
Job transferability	Between groups	2.266	2	1.133	0.735	.480
	Within Groups	1218.337	790	1.542		
	Total	1220.603	792			
Time for family	Between groups	15.441	2	7.721	5.066	<i>p</i> < .007
	Within Groups	1204.028	790	1.524		
	Total	1219.469	792			
Shape future of children	Between groups	55.385	2	27.693	14.998	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1458.664	790	1.846		
	Total	1514.050	792			
Enhance social equity	Between groups	8.632	2	4.316	2.229	.108
	Within Groups	1529.719	790	1.936		
	Total	1538.351	792			
Work with children	Between groups	1.876	2	0.938	0.351	.704
	Within Groups	2112.078	790	2.674		
	Total	2113.955	792			
Make social contribution	Between groups	46.448	2	23.224	15.346	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1195.576	790	1.513		
	Total	1242.024	792			
Fallback career	Between groups	3.759	2	1.880	0.877	.416
	Within Groups	1693.217	790	2.143		
	Total	1696.976	792			

Later, a post-hoc comparison using Tukey's HSD test was conducted to determine significant differences in motivations to teach between the teacher groups (see Table 5.21).

Table 5.21. Means Scores Comparison by Motivational Factors

Motivational factors	First-year prospective teachers Group (1)	Final-year prospective teachers Group (2)	In-service teachers Group (3)	Comparison Groups	Post-hoc Test	Partial η^2
Prior teaching and learning experience	<i>M</i> = 5.09	<i>M</i> = 5.12	<i>M</i> = 5.61	1 VS 2	.966	.032
	(<i>SD</i> 1.33)	(<i>SD</i> 1.22)	(<i>SD</i> 1.28)	1 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
				2 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
Social influences	<i>M</i> = 4.25	<i>M</i> = 4.55	<i>M</i> = 4.71	1 VS 2	.050	.016
	(<i>SD</i> 1.52)	(<i>SD</i> 1.38)	(<i>SD</i> 1.61)	1 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
				2 VS 3	.416	
Teaching ability	<i>M</i> = 4.88	<i>M</i> = 5.03	<i>M</i> = 5.82	1 VS 2	.370	.097
	(<i>SD</i> 1.31)	(<i>SD</i> 1.20)	(<i>SD</i> 1.19)	1 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
				2 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
Intrinsic career value	<i>M</i> = 4.78	<i>M</i> = 4.94	<i>M</i> = 5.40	1 VS 2	.463	.028
	(<i>SD</i> 1.60)	(<i>SD</i> 1.49)	(<i>SD</i> 1.47)	1 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
				2 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
Job security	<i>M</i> = 5.42	<i>M</i> = 5.29	<i>M</i> = 5.83	1 VS 2	.494	.030
	(<i>SD</i> 1.34)	(<i>SD</i> 1.30)	(<i>SD</i> 1.29)	1 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
				2 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
Time for family	<i>M</i> = 4.84	<i>M</i> = 4.72	<i>M</i> = 5.06	1 VS 2	.488	.013
	(<i>SD</i> 1.27)	(<i>SD</i> 1.14)	(<i>SD</i> 1.30)	1 VS 3	.102	
				2 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
Shape future of children	<i>M</i> = 5.45	<i>M</i> = 5.34	<i>M</i> = 5.96	1 VS 2	.635	.037
	(<i>SD</i> 1.38)	(<i>SD</i> 1.47)	(<i>SD</i> 1.20)	1 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
				2 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
Make social contribution	<i>M</i> = 5.49	<i>M</i> = 5.50	<i>M</i> = 6.02	1 VS 2	.995	.037
	(<i>SD</i> 1.29)	(<i>SD</i> 1.24)	(<i>SD</i> 1.14)	1 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	
				2 VS 3	<i>p</i> < .001	

5.9.2.1 Prior Teaching and Learning Experience

There was a statistically significant difference in terms of the influence of prior teaching and learning experience on the decision to choose teaching as a career ($F [2, 790] = 13.25, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher for this motivational factor than for any other group ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.28$, see Figure 5.10). However, there was no difference between first- and final-year pre-service teachers, where the effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .032$, indicating a small effect (3.2%).

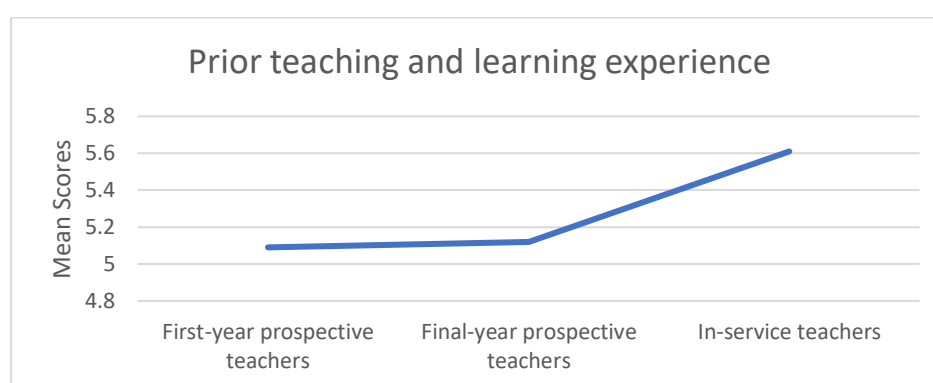


Figure 5.10. Mean scores comparison for prior teaching and learning experience

5.9.2.2 Social Influences

The results of the one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences between the teacher groups in terms of the social influences on the decision to teach ($F [2, 790] = 6.52, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher for this motivational factor compared to any other group ($M = 4.71, SD = 1.61$, see Figure 5.11). However, the first- and final-year prospective teachers' groups did not differ significantly. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .016$, indicating a very small effect (1.6%).

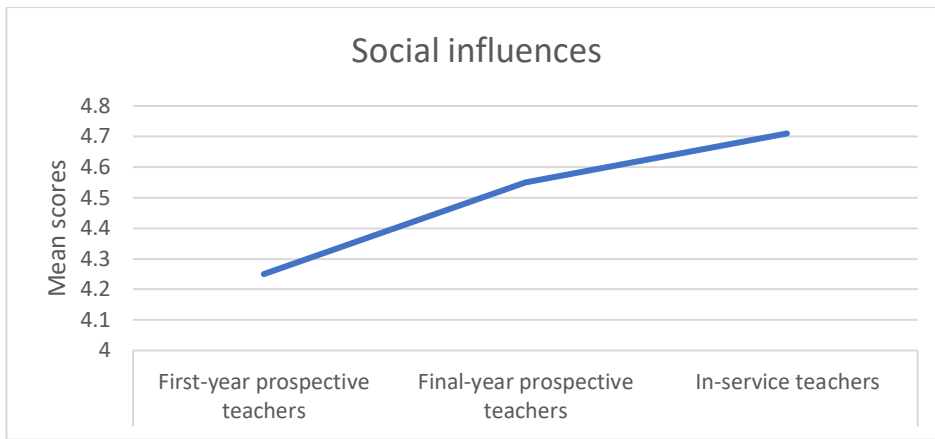


Figure 5.11. Mean scores comparison for social influences

5.9.2.3 Teaching Ability

Concerning teaching ability, the results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups ($F [2, 790] = 42.198, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher for this motivational factor than for any other group ($M = 5.82, SD = 1.19$, see Figure 5.12). However, the final-year prospective teachers did not differ significantly from the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .097$, indicating a large effect (9.7%).

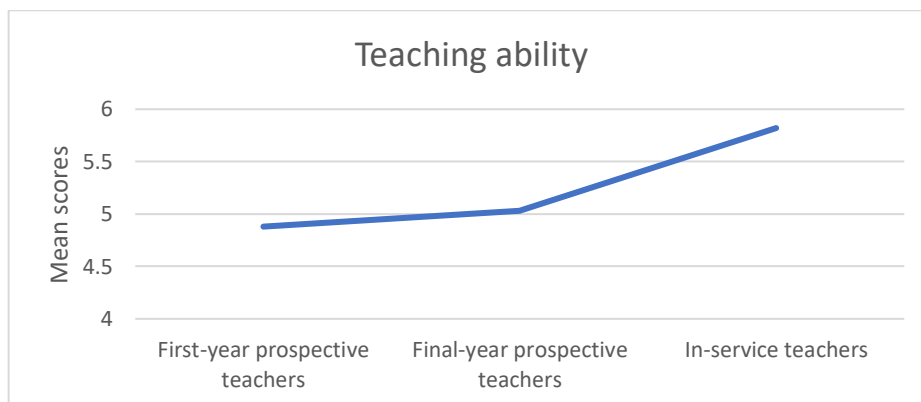


Figure 5.12. Mean scores comparison for teaching ability

5.9.2.4 Intrinsic Career Value

Concerning intrinsic career value, the results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups ($F [2, 790] = 11.47, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher for this motivational factor than for any other group ($M = 5.40, SD = 1.47$, see Figure 5.13), and the first-year pre-service teachers had the lowest rate of experiencing the intrinsic value of teaching. However, the final-year prospective teachers did not differ significantly from the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .028$, representing a small effect (2.8%).

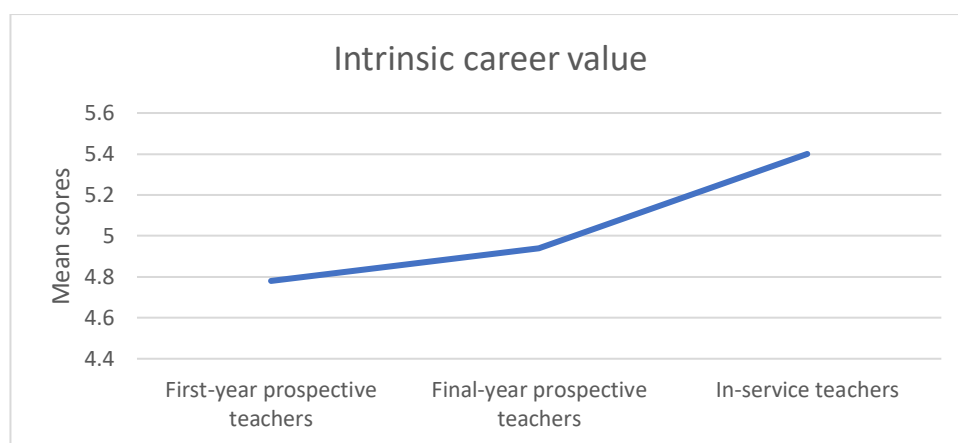


Figure 5.13 Mean scores comparison for intrinsic career value

5.9.2.5 Job Security

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups concerning job security ($F [2, 790] = 12.04, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher than for any other group ($M = 5.38, SD = 1.29$, see Figure 5.14), and the final-year pre-service teachers had the lowest rate of choosing teaching as a secure career. However, the first- and final-year prospective teachers did not differ significantly from the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .030$, indicating a small effect (3%).

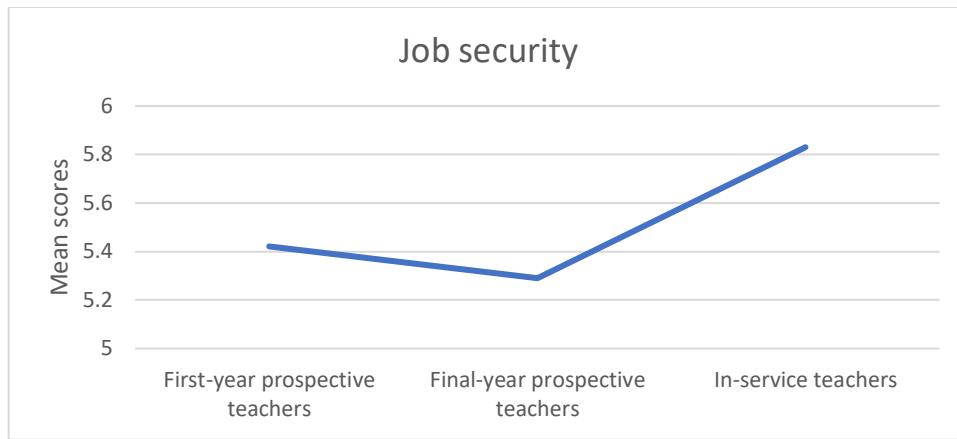


Figure 5.14. Mean scores comparison for job security

5.9.2.6 Time for Family

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups concerning time for family ($F [2, 790] = 5.06, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher than for any other group ($M = 5.06, SD = 1.30$, see Figure 5.15). However, the only significant difference was found between the final-year prospective teachers and the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .013$, indicating a very small effect (1.3%).

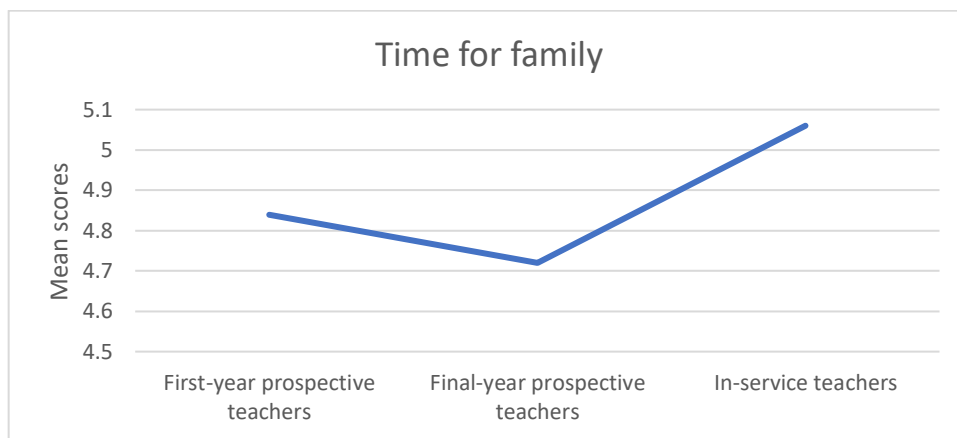


Figure 5.15. Mean scores comparison for time for family factor

5.9.2.7 Shaping the Future of Children

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups concerning shaping the futures of children ($F [2, 790] = 14.99, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers group was higher than for any other group ($M = 5.96, SD = 1.20$, see Figure 5.16), and the final-year pre-service teachers had the lowest rate of choosing teaching because it shaped children's futures. However, the first- and final-year prospective teachers did not differ significantly from the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .037$, indicating a small effect (3.7%).

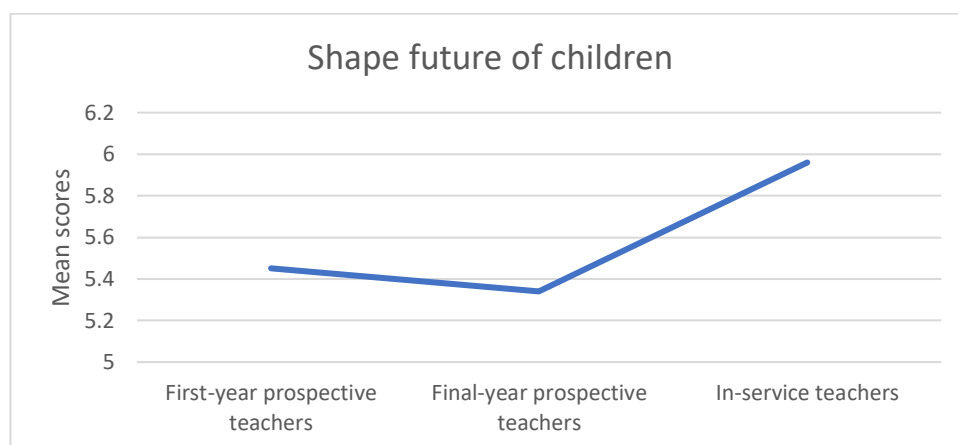


Figure 5.16. Mean scores comparison for shaping future of children

5.9.2.8 Making a Social Contribution

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups concerning making a social contribution ($F [2, 790] = 15.34, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher than for any other group ($M = 6.02, SD = 1.14$, see Figure 5.17), and the final-year pre-service teachers had the lowest rate of choosing teaching because it made a social contribution. However, the first- and final-year prospective teachers did not differ

significantly from the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .037$, indicating a small effect (3.7%).

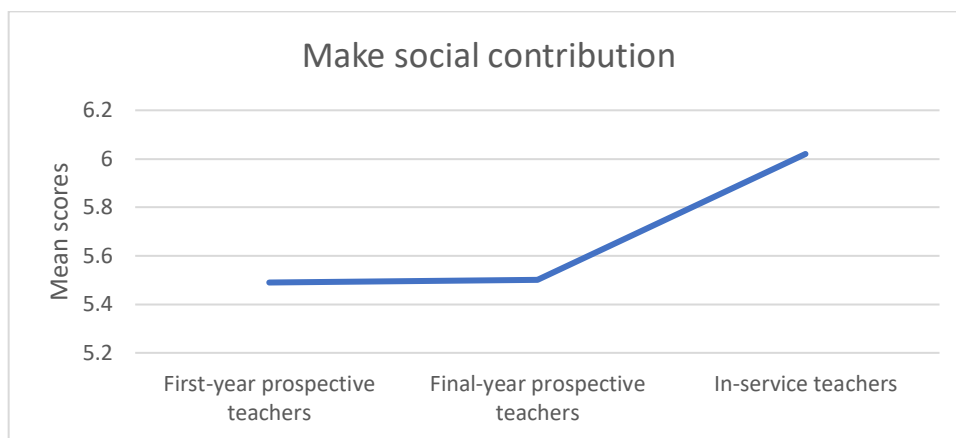


Figure 5.17. Mean scores comparison for making social contribution

5.9.3 Differences in Perceptions About Teaching

A MANOVA was carried out to find multivariate differences between the groups and to find any interaction effect between gender and career stage. The result of Pillai's trace criterion of the MANOVA test showed that a significant difference existed between the group participants based on career stage, ($F [12, 1572] = 16.802, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .114$). In addition, the MANOVA showed only two significant interactions between gender and career stage and perception factors. These two factors were salary and expertise in teaching. However, the interaction between gender and career stage for the remaining perception factors was insignificant.

For salary, the interaction between career stage and gender, $F (2, 787) = 3.291, p < .05$, had a very small effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .008$). Interestingly, female teachers rated the salary factor higher in all career stages than male teachers. For expertise in teaching, the interaction between career stage and gender, $F (2, 787) = 4.633, p < .05$, had a medium effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .081$). Similar to the finding for expertise in teaching, female teachers gave higher scores

across all career stages. Overall, the trend within career stages when interacting with gender with regard to perception factors was similar to that for the motivational factors.

Again, a series of one-way ANOVAs with a post-hoc comparison was conducted to determine the differences in perceptions between the three groups across career stages.

The results of the one-way ANOVA for the three groups showed significant differences on three perception factors, which were difficulty of teaching, expertise of teaching, and satisfaction with the choice. On the other hand, no significant differences were found in the other three perception factors: salary, social status and social dissuasion. Table 5.22 below summarises the result for each perception factor across the groups.

Table 5.22. One-way ANOVA Test for Perception Factors

Perception factors	Source of variance	Sum of squares	<i>df</i>	Mean square	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Salary	Between groups	4.874	2	2.437	1.073	.342
	Within Groups	1793.456	790	2.270		
	Total	1798.330	792			
Difficulty of teaching	Between groups	177.107	2	88.553	63.875	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1095.214	790	1.386		
	Total	1272.321	792			
Social status	Between groups	3.206	2	1.603	1.060	.347
	Within Groups	1194.266	790	1.512		
	Total	1197.472	792			
Expertise of teaching	Between groups	52.016	2	26.008	16.185	<i>p</i> < .001
	Within Groups	1269.442	790	1.607		
	Total	1321.458	792			
Social dissuasion	Between groups	10.520	2	5.260	2.256	.105
	Within Groups	1842.203	790	2.332		
	Total	1852.723	792			
Satisfaction with the choice	Between groups	26.491	2	13.245	5.582	<i>p</i> < .004
	Within Groups	1874.607	790	2.373		
	Total	1901.098	792			

To explore the differences in mean scores between groups, a post-hoc comparison test using the Tukey HSD was conducted (Table 5.23).

Table 5.23 Means Scores Comparison by Perception Factors

Perception factors	First-year prospective teachers Group (1)	Final-year prospective teachers Group (2)	In-service teachers Group (3)	Comparison Groups	Post-hoc Test	Partial η^2
Difficulty of teaching	$M= 4.91$ ($SD 1.30$)	$M= 5.04$ ($SD 1.14$)	$M= 5.99$ ($SD 1.06$)	1 VS 2	.390	.139
				1 VS 3	$p < .001$	
				2 VS 3	$p < .001$	
Expertise of teaching	$M= 5.55$ ($SD 1.37$)	$M= 5.57$ ($SD 1.27$)	$M= 6.11$ ($SD 1.14$)	1 VS 2	.983	.039
				1 VS 3	$p < .001$	
				2 VS 3	$p < .001$	
Satisfaction with the choice	$M= 4.89$ ($SD 1.60$)	$M= 5.02$ ($SD 1.46$)	$M= 5.33$ ($SD 1.56$)	1 VS 2	.603	.014
				1 VS 3	$p < .001$	
				2 VS 3	.052	

5.9.3.1 Difficulty of Teaching

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups concerning the difficulty of teaching ($F [2, 790] = 63.87, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey’s HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher than for any other group ($M = 5.99, SD = 1.06$, see Figure 5.18). However, the first- and final-year prospective teachers did not differ significantly from the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .139$, indicating a large effect (13.9%).

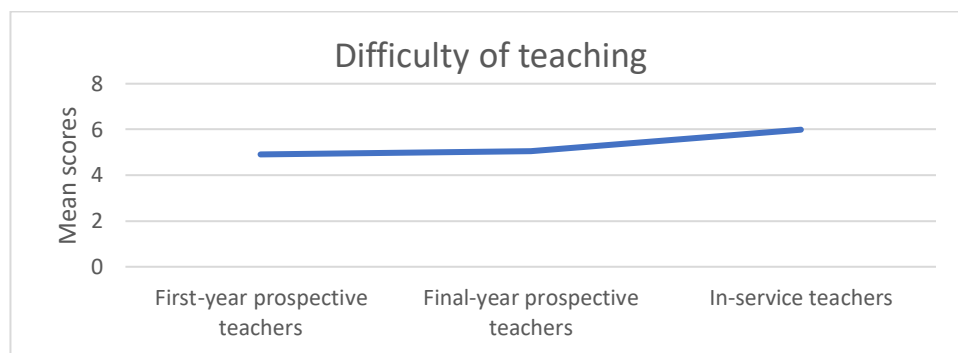


Figure 5.18. Mean scores comparison for difficulty of teaching

5.9.3.2 Expertise of Teaching

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups concerning the perception that teaching requires expertise ($F [2, 790] = 16.18, p < .05$). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test showed that the mean score for the in-service teachers was higher than for any other group ($M = 6.11, SD = 1.14$, see Figure 5.19). However, the first- and final-year prospective teachers did not differ significantly from the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .039$, indicating a small effect (3.9%).

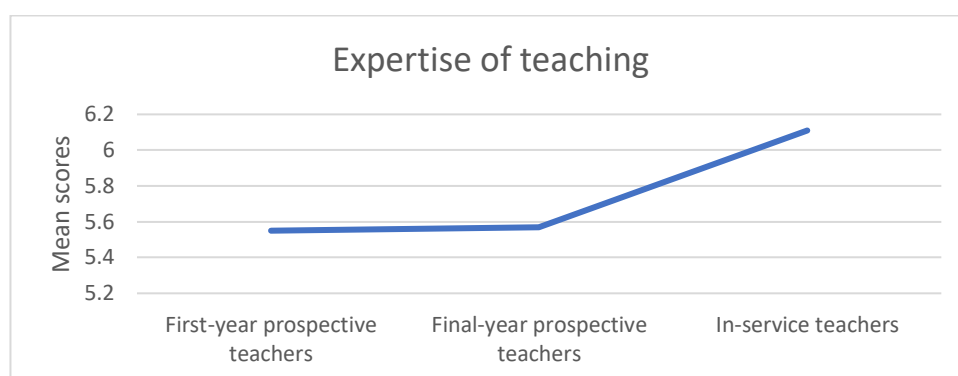


Figure 5.19. Mean scores comparison for expertise of teaching

5.9.3.3 Satisfaction with the Choice

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between teacher groups concerning satisfaction with the choice of teaching as a career ($F [2, 790] = 5.58, p < .05$). An inspection of the mean scores for satisfaction with the choice using post-hoc comparisons (Tukey's HSD test) showed that many of the in-service teachers appeared more satisfied with their choice of teaching, compared to any other group ($M = 5.33, SD = 1.56$, see Figure 5.20). In addition, the final-year pre-service teachers had the lowest rate of being satisfied with teaching as a career. However, the only significant difference was found between the first-year prospective teachers and the in-service teachers. The effect size was $\eta_p^2 = .014$, indicating a small effect (1.4%).

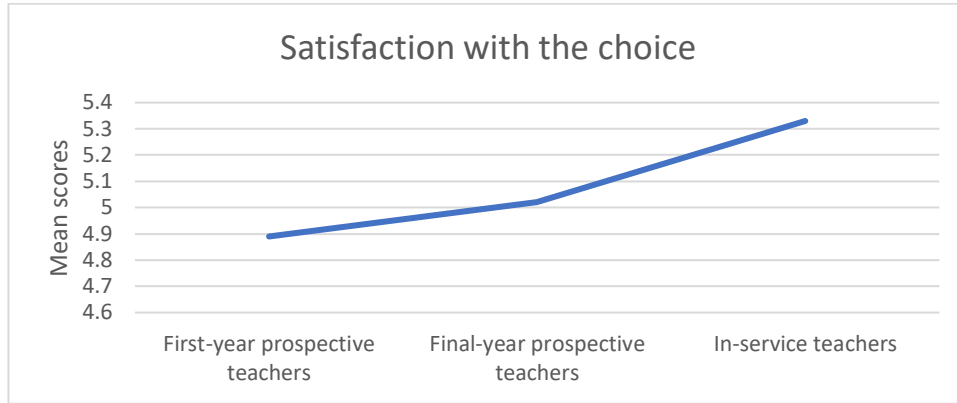


Figure 5.20. Mean scores comparison for satisfaction with the choice

5.10 Summary

Interestingly, the trend within teacher groups concerning various motivational and perception factors remained the same across groups. That is, in-service teachers expressed a greater endorsement of teaching in all significant motivation and perception factors. The motivational factor rated highest was making a social contribution, while expertise in teaching was rated highest among perceptions. Although salary, social status and social dissuasion were significantly different based on gender (as presented in the previous question), this was not the case when they were tested throughout different stages of the teaching career. Effect sizes for all significant motivations and perceptions were small except for teaching ability (explaining 9.7% of the variance) and perception of the difficulty of teaching (explaining 13.9% of the variance). Although the effect size was small for satisfaction with the choice of teaching ($\eta_p^2 = .014$), the in-service teachers were the most satisfied with their career choice, followed by the final-year prospective teachers. This finding is unsurprising and can be explained by the level of teaching experience of each group. In other words, perceptions about teaching for pre-service teachers at the beginning of their teaching programme would differ from the advanced pre-service teachers, who may have gained more practicum experience during their teaching programme. Likewise, teachers

who are in service should have a more realistic view about teaching and be more intrinsically driven and satisfied with the choice than the other groups of entry-level teachers. In terms of the interaction between genders across the career stages, the only significant higher-order motivational factor was found to be task demand. Female teachers – in all groups – perceived teaching as a more highly demanding profession, but this represented a marginal effect size ($\eta_p^2 = .010$).

5.11 Results of Research Question 4

RQ 4: Which motivating factors are the most associated\correlated with commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia?

In order to address this question, a bivariate correlation with a two-tailed Pearson correlation coefficient was carried out for the sample of pre-service teachers to determine the initial correlations. Significant relationships between the factors of motivation and perception and occupational commitment were observed.

5.11.1 Correlations between Motivational Factors, Perception and Occupational

Commitment

Correlations were first investigated between the higher-order motivational factors and occupational commitment for the same sample. Table 5.24 shows that the higher-order factor of social utility value had the strongest correlation with occupational commitment ($r = .44^{**}$), followed by task demand ($r = .33^{**}$), and personal utility values ($r = .32^{**}$) while task return was the weakest ($r = .31^{**}$). It can be noted that the difference in correlation between the last three factors and occupational commitment was marginal.

As for first-order motivational factors, the relationship between intrinsic career values and occupational commitment was the strongest ($r = .56^{**}$, see Table 5.25). Other factors such as teaching ability ($r = .43^{**}$), social contribution ($r = .43^{**}$), working with children ($r = .41^{**}$) and shaping children's future ($r = .40^{**}$) all show a relatively strong correlation with occupational commitment. Fallback career ($r = -.16^{**}$), by contrast, was negatively related to occupational commitment.

Table 5.24. Correlations between Higher-order Factors and Occupational Commitment ($n = 549$)

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Personal utility values	-			
2. Social utility values	.651 ^{**}	-		
3. Task demand	.549 ^{**}	.679 ^{**}	-	
4. Task return	.592 ^{**}	.611 ^{**}	.693 ^{**}	-
Occupational commitment	.325 ^{**}	.448 ^{**}	.330 ^{**}	.312 ^{**}

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.25. Correlations between Motivational Factors and Occupational Commitment (Pre-Service Teachers, $n = 549$)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Prior teaching and learning experience	-											
2.Social influences	.509**	-										
3.Teaching ability	.499**	.550**	-									
4.Intrinsic career value	.496**	.574**	.641**	-								
5.Job security	.540**	.479**	.497**	.510**	-							
6.Job transferability	.414**	.481**	.453**	.463**	.503**	-						
7.Time for family	.376**	.424**	.377**	.330**	.588**	.406**	-					
8.Shape future of children	.553**	.398**	.523**	.474**	.654**	.352**	.401**	-				
9.Enhance social equity	.524**	.442**	.541**	.531**	.588**	.428**	.368**	.664**	-			
10.Work with children	.484**	.464**	.524**	.581**	.499**	.393**	.281**	.484**	.569**	-		
11.Make social contribution	.602**	.448**	.569**	.554**	.594**	.409**	.387**	.694**	.632**	.464**	-	
12.Fallback career	.113**	.255**	.137**	0.048	.169**	.270**	.214**	0.070	.163**	.106*	0.074	-
Occupational commitment	.355**	.321**	.439**	.566**	.351**	.232**	.206**	.403**	.350**	.414**	.434**	-.160**

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As for perception factors, the highest relationship related to occupational commitment was observed with satisfaction with choice ($r = .57^{**}$), while the social dissuasion factor ($r = -.06$, see Table 5.26) was negatively correlated with occupational commitment, but was not statistically significant. These correlations provide initially important information on the influence of these motives on the commitment to teach.

Table 5.26. Correlations between Perception Factors and Occupational Commitment ($n = 549$)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Salary	-					
2.Difficulty of teaching	.490 ^{**}	-				
3.Social status	.539 ^{**}	.608 ^{**}	-			
4.Expertise of teaching	.535 ^{**}	.622 ^{**}	.577 ^{**}	-		
5.Social dissuasion	.163 ^{**}	.261 ^{**}	.146 ^{**}	.142 ^{**}	-	
6.Satisfaction with choice	.460 ^{**}	.469 ^{**}	.538 ^{**}	.549 ^{**}	.119 ^{**}	-
Occupational commitment	.237 ^{**}	.248 ^{**}	.320 ^{**}	.342 ^{**}	-0.069	.572 ^{**}

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5.11.2 Stepwise Multivariate Analysis of Factors Contributing to Occupational Commitment

A series of stepwise regression analyses were next conducted to investigate which motives were most related to occupational commitment among pre-service teachers. The stepwise method was chosen because it is useful for identifying the significant variables that are closely associated with commitment to teach among pre-service teachers, and for removing the weakest correlated factors from the model.

First, a regression analysis was run for the four higher-order factors of motivation. The results revealed that only social utility values were significantly related to occupational commitment $F(1,547) = 137.555, p < .001$. They accounted for 20% of the variance, with standardised beta coefficient $\beta = .44, p < .001$ (see Table 5.27). This result could indicate that

people who are motivated by an altruistic type of motivation could be more committed to teaching than others.

Table 5.27. Results of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Higher-order Motivational Factors on Occupational Commitment among Pre-Service Teachers ($n = 549$)

Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β Standardised	R^2	Adjusted R^2	<i>F</i> Change	<i>P</i> -Value
Model 1				.201	.199	137.555	$p < .001$
Social utility values	.739	.063	.448				$p < .001$

All motivational and perception factors were then added independently to the stepwise regression analysis to determine the most significant motives influencing commitment to teach. Table 5.28 presents a summary of the linear regression analysis for the motivational factors. The model summary revealed a variation of 39.3% in occupational commitment by the variables in model 5 $F(5,543) = 70.364, p < .037$. The results also showed that the motivations of intrinsic career value, fallback career, shaping the future for children, working with children and social contribution, were significantly related with occupational commitment. Intrinsic career value accounted for 32% of the variance in occupational commitment and adding fallback career increased the percentage to 35.5%. Similarly, the change in R^2 of model 3 showed that intrinsic career value, fallback career, and shaping the future of children accounted for 38.2% of the variance in occupational commitment. Working with children and making a social contribution contributed additional 0.6 and 0.5 percentage points respectively to the variance in occupational commitment for pre-service teachers. Fallback career was the only significant factor with a negative beta coefficient (β). Moreover, the standardised beta coefficients showed that the intrinsic value of teaching and occupational commitment had the strongest association ($\beta = .41, p < .001$), followed by the factor of fallback career ($\beta = -.20, p < .001$). Social contribution and shaping the future of children were relatively equal ($\beta = .104, p < .037$ and $\beta = .103, p < .033$ respectively), and loving to work with children was the weakest

contributor reported by the pre-service teachers in relation to their occupational commitment ($\beta = .098, p < .024$).

Table 5.28. Results of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Motivations on Occupational Commitment among Pre-Service Teachers ($n = 549$)

Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β Standardised	<i>R</i> ²	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	<i>F</i> Change	<i>P</i> -Value
Model 1				.320	.319	257.197	$p < .001$
Intrinsic career value	.720	.045	.566				$p < .001$
Model 2				.355	.353	29.828	$p < .001$
Intrinsic career value	.732	.044	.575				$p < .001$
Fallback career	-.261	.048	-.188				$p < .001$
Model 3				.382	.379	23.803	$p < .001$
Intrinsic career value	.620	.049	.487				$p < .001$
Fallback career	-.273	.047	-.197				$p < .001$
Shape future of children	.258	.053	.187				$p < .001$
Model 4				.388	.384	5.555	$p < .019$
Intrinsic career value	.561	.055	.440				$p < .001$
Fallback career	-.283	.047	-.204				$p < .001$
Shape future of children	.221	.055	.160				$p < .001$
Work with children	.133	.057	.102				$p < .019$
Model 5				.393	.388	4.373	$p < .073$
Intrinsic career value	.525	.057	.412				$p < .001$
Fallback career	-.285	.047	-.205				$p < .001$
Shape future of children	.143	.067	.103				$p < .033$
Work with children	.128	.056	.098				$p < .024$
Make social contribution	.162	.077	.104				$p < .037$

A stepwise regression analysis was also used to examine the relationships between perceptions about teaching and occupational commitment. The analysis results indicated that only two significant factors, satisfaction with choice and social dissuasion, can predict the

variance of occupational commitment $F(2,546) = 144.801, p < .001$ (see Table 5.29). The change in R^2 of model 1 showed that the satisfaction with choice factor accounted for 32.8% of the variance in the occupational commitment of the sample of pre-service teachers, while the percentage increased by 34.7% when social dissuasion was added to model 2. However, satisfaction with the choice of teaching was shown to be the strongest contributor to occupational commitment, as indexed by its beta coefficient value ($\beta = .589, p < .001$), while the social dissuasion factor appeared to be negatively correlated with occupational commitment ($\beta = -.139, p < .001$).

Table 5.29. Results of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Perceptions on Occupational Commitment among Pre-Service Teachers ($n = 549$)

Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β Standardised	R^2	Adjusted R^2	<i>F</i> Change	<i>P</i> -Value
Model 1				.328	.326	266.545	$p < .001$
Satisfaction with the choice	.736	.045	.572				$p < .001$
Model 2				.347	.344	15.830	$p < .001$
Satisfaction with the choice	.757	.045	.589				$p < .001$
Social dissuasion	-.185	.047	-.139				$p < .001$

Overall, the results for both the correlation coefficients and the stepwise regression analysis on the higher-order factors revealed that social utility values were the only significant factors that could be related to occupational commitment among pre-service teachers. Likewise, the finding on first-order motivational factors indicated that intrinsic career value was the strongest motive related positively to a commitment to teach, followed by social contribution, shaping the future for children and working with children. As for perception factors, the results showed that commitment to teach was positively associated with satisfaction with the career choice, but negatively related to social dissuasion.

5.12 Summary

This chapter has presented an analysis of the quantitative data collected from 793 participants by the study questionnaire. In summary, the findings indicated that teachers were generally satisfied with their choice of teaching. Most of the participants were motivated to teach by altruistic motivations (social utility value), followed by extrinsic motivations (job security). The occupational commitment factor was highly rated and strongly correlated with satisfaction with the choice of teaching as a career. In addition, there was a strong response to the ability to teach factor. At the same time, the participants perceived teaching as a highly demanding job that involves expertise and difficulty in its nature with less in task return.

With regard to gender differences, the results of the t-test showed a dominating presence of female participants over males across motivational and perception factors. Social utility values were more important to the female group. Despite this, job security was more important to males (ranked second) than to the female group (ranked third). In addition, males rated teaching as a fallback career and social dissuasion higher than their female counterparts. This result may justify the male view of teaching being low in task return. In terms of occupational commitment, females expressed more commitment to teaching than the male group.

As for differences between pre-service and in-service teacher groups, the trend remained consistent. In-service teachers rated the significant motivation and perception factors, including social utility values, teaching ability, intrinsic value and job security, higher than pre-service groups. In addition, although they also perceived teaching as a demanding job, they expressed more satisfaction with their choice. In contrast, there were no significant differences found between first-year prospective teachers and final-year prospective teachers. However, final-year students showed more satisfaction with their teaching choice than their counterpart first-year students.

Moreover, along with satisfaction with the choice of teaching, the data suggested that social utility values and intrinsic value as reasons for choosing teaching as a career were the best predictors of occupational commitment among the sample of pre-service teachers, while fallback career and social dissuasion were negatively related to teaching commitment. In order to explore some of the areas covered here in more depth, the next chapter presents the qualitative findings collected from the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter Six: Results of Qualitative Data Analysis

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the qualitative data collected from semi-structured interviews. Data were collected from sixteen in-service teachers. Eight males and eight females at different stages of their teaching careers volunteered for the interviews in order to answer the fifth main research question, “What are the motivating factors that influence in-service teachers’ decisions to pursue a career in teaching?”. This next section provides a general discussion of the results from all the respondents, followed by the respondents’ general level of satisfaction related to their choice of teaching as a career. Section 6.4 presents the main reasons that influenced the participants’ decision to become teachers, this is followed by a discussion on whether or not their motivation to teach had changed over time (Sections 6.5). There is then an analysis of the respondents’ reactions to the opportunity to transfer to another job (Section 6.6). All findings are supported by quotations from the translated interview transcripts. The data were analysed through thematic analysis (Bryman, 2012).

Table 6.1 provides a brief demographic description of each interview participant. Alphabetical and numeral codes were used instead of participants’ names in order to protect the participants’ identities.

Table 6.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Code	Gender	Length of service	Teacher's highest degree
T1	Male	2	Bachelor
T2	Male	3	Bachelor
T3	Male	12	Bachelor
T4	Male	13	Bachelor
T5	Male	14	Bachelor
T6	Male	2	Bachelor
T7	Male	23	Bachelor
T8	Male	21	Master's
T9	Female	19	Bachelor
T10	Female	21	Bachelor
T11	Female	4	Bachelor
T12	Female	3	Bachelor
T13	Female	12	Bachelor
T14	Female	23	Bachelor
T15	Female	2	Bachelor
T16	Female	12	Bachelor

6.2 Differentiated Motivations by Teachers' Career Stages

RQ5: What are the motivating factors that influence in-service teachers' decisions to pursue a career in teaching?

Although an obvious motivational profile was not determined between the groups in terms of professional experience, the qualitative data showed that themes related to extrinsic motivators (for example, salary and long holiday) were salient among early- and late-career teachers in comparison with mid-career teachers, while altruistic motivations such as making a social contribution and enjoying a role with children seemed critical factors for most teachers who were in the middle stage of their career experience. In addition, three teachers (from a total of six) who were early in their careers described teaching as a fallback career, (See Table 6.7) in addition to two others who were in the late stages of their career.

Consistent with the quantitative data, almost three-quarters of the sample expressed

overall satisfaction with their decision to teach. In contrast, dissatisfaction with the choice of teaching as a career was reported by only four teachers at different stages of their careers, and their motivations were mainly extrinsically linked (fallback career, salary, long holidays, suitability for women). Teachers' motivation to teach based on their different career stages and satisfaction with their decision to teach are discussed in more detail later (Discussion Chapter).

Table 6.2. Differentiated Motivations by Teachers' Career Stages ($n = 16$)

Factors	Early-career teachers (1-5 years)	Mid-career teachers (12-20 years)	Late-career teachers (21+ years)	Motivation classification
Making a social contribution	1	4	-	Altruistic motivations
Love working with children \ adolescents	-	1	1	
Total	1	5	1	
Intrinsic career value	-	2	1	Intrinsic motivations
Love for a specific subject	1	-	1	
Ability	1	1	-	
Total	2	3	2	
Salary	2	2	1	Extrinsic motivations
Long holiday	2	-	-	
Religion	-	2	1	
Suitable for women	1	-	1	
Prior learning experiences	-	-	1	
Fallback career	3	-	2	
Total	8	4	5	

Note. This statistic based on the mixed reasons provided by participants

6.3 Motivations for Teaching

The interviewees were asked a general question about the main factor or factors that influenced their choice to enter the teaching profession. Some participants provided a single reason regarding their motivation to teach, while others gave mixed responses. As Table 6.2 shows, nine themes were identified relating to this question; these themes were either deductive, having already been constructed from the FIT-Choice theory, or inductive, based on the generated codes and categories. Despite the fact that there was a variety of reasons for choosing to enter the profession, as can be seen from the table below, extrinsic factors were prominent reasons behind the choice of teaching. Factors related to personal utility values were the most frequently nominated ($n=11$).

Table 6.3. Qualitative Themes of Motivation Factors

Motivation classification	Theme	Sub-theme	Focusing codes	Total
Personal utility values (Extrinsic factors)	Working conditions (6)	Salary (4)	The profession has a higher salary compared to other professions.	11
		Long holidays (2)	Longer holidays than other professions.	
	*Cultural values (5)	Religion (3)	Seeking reward from Allah.	
		Suitable career for women (2)	Teaching as a life-long career is because it is the most suitable profession for women.	
Social utility values (Altruistic factors)	Making a social contribution (5)		Wish to help others, ambitious to have a role in society.	7
	Love working with children\adolescents (2)		Enjoy being with children.	
Intrinsic values (Intrinsic factors)	Intrinsic career value (3)		I love teaching.	7
	Love for a specific subject* (2)		Desire to teach a subject I like.	
	Ability (2)		Teaching is appropriate for my ability and personality.	
Other independent factors (Extrinsic factors)	Fallback career		No other choice, limited choices for women, easier to get accepted into teaching.	4
	Prior learning experiences		Wish to teach learning experiences gained from my parents to the students.	1

* sub-themes identified from the inductive analysis

In terms of extrinsic factors, the responses can be classified into two main themes: reasons related to working conditions, such as salary and holiday, and reasons related to cultural values, such as religion and it being a suitable career for women. While seven were motivated to teach by social utility values, including making a social contribution and a love of working with children, intrinsic values were also mentioned by seven teachers, indicating the significance of these in choosing a profession. These values included intrinsic career value, love for a specific subject and ability to teach. However, four teachers, based on the responses obtained, mentioned negative motivations for choosing teaching, for example, as a fallback career. Meanwhile, themes including religion and transferring knowledge and skills to the students appeared to be less important factors for the respondents in choosing this career path (see Figure 6.1). The themes and sub-themes emerging from the teachers' responses regarding their motivations to teach, based on their importance, are described below.

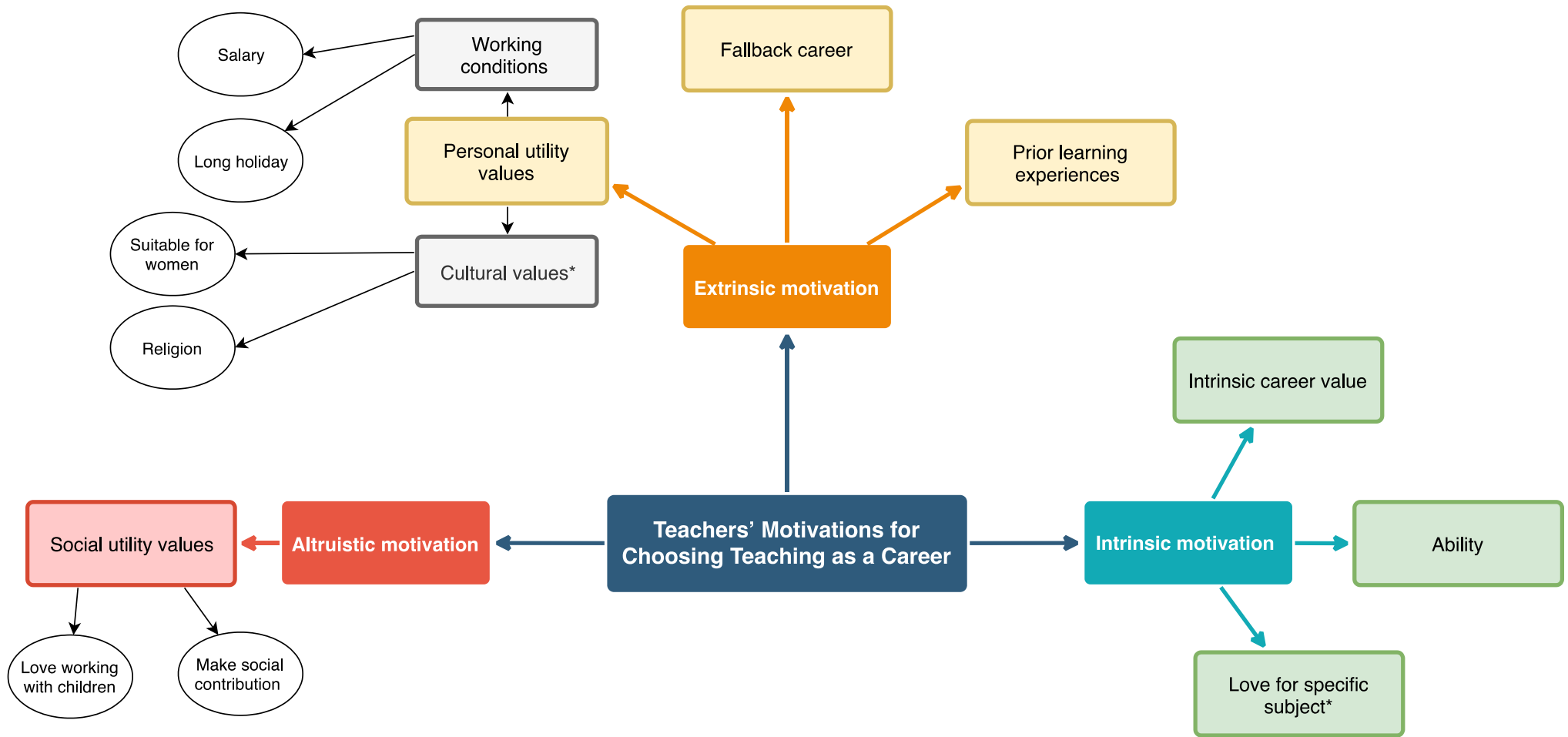
- ***Personal Utility Values***

The theme of personal utility values was the most influential factor in the participants' decisions to become teachers. It was mentioned by a total of eleven interviewees, classified here into two sub-themes in order of importance: working conditions and cultural values.

For motivations related to working conditions, it can be seen that the participants were encouraged by certain advantages related to the teaching profession, in comparison with other careers. Two advantages were given in the interview responses: salary and long holidays.

Though not shared by all participants, pay was an important factor related to working conditions, and it represented an essential reason for four interviewees (T5, T6, T9 and T11). For example, T11 said, "*In fact, the salary was the most important factor for me because teaching is considered as a well-paid job here*". T5 mentioned salary as one of the reasons that led him to choose the profession: "*The other factor was the financial one, which is also rewarding to move toward this profession since teaching is still well-paid*". Teaching due to

salary was, in fact, a reflection of the quantitative results that placed job security as the third most important factor for the overall sample. It should be noted that teachers in the KSA receive high incomes compared with their counterparts with similar qualifications in other public-sector jobs. Teachers also often enjoy regular annual bonuses.



* New sub-themes identified

Figure 6.1. Results of qualitative themes: Motivational factors for choosing teaching as a career ($n = 16$)

Long holidays constituted another important aspect, mentioned by T6 and T11. Specifically, the annual school holiday (almost four months) is an advantage of being a teacher in the KSA. T11, for example, finished by saying, “*I also took into account the long annual holidays for teachers as a second reason*”. Similarly, salary and long holidays were both reported by T6 as motivating factors for him when he joined the teaching profession. He said, “*In addition, there are some advantages in teaching, such as long annual vacations and also tempting salary*”. Nevertheless, when providing his reasons for becoming a teacher, T6 expressed his lack of desire to become a teacher, which is discussed in more detail later.

Motivations related to cultural values, religion and being a suitable career for women were factors cited by five teachers.

Religious beliefs were one of the culturally relevant factors identified from the inductive data. Interestingly, religion was not among the significant aspects that affected the participants’ decision to teach, despite the fact that Saudi society is highly influenced by religion and Islamic beliefs – teaching to seek reward from Allah. Three participants referred to this as a factor in their choice to become teachers (T4, T5 and T7). For example, in addition to his love of teaching, T7 mentioned, “*Seeking reward from Allah was the most important factor for me*”. T4 asserted that teaching is one of the *messages of all prophets and apostles, saying, “As you know, teaching people goodness and virtue was the main mission of Prophets and Messengers. I can say that this role has an important value in our religion*”. T5 also mentioned the religious aspect among his various reasons for becoming a teacher; he commented, “*It is strongly encouraged by Islamic religious teachings. This was an important point for me as well*”.

Finally, teaching as a suitable career for women was a less important factor that was identified among the female sample. Interestingly, out of eight female participants, only two

women (T14 and T15) mentioned this reason, despite the fact that Saudi culture and beliefs, which stem from deeply Islamic values, could be seen as an aspect that would encourage women to work as teachers. When asked why she wanted to become a teacher, T14 provided mixed reasons, including her perception of the profession as being suitable for a woman:

The factor that led me to teach is that I have loved this profession since childhood, and I wanted to prove myself.... I firmly believe that what motivated me most to take up a career in education is that it is the most suitable profession for women, especially in my conservative society, and it goes in line with our customs and traditions such as avoiding mingling with men.

Although T14 mentioned that teaching is a preferred career choice for women, T15 explained the limited subject choices for women to teach, saying that this was due to there being limited subjects for women to study in Saudi universities at that time. She said:

There was a lack of variety in specialisations, especially for high school literature graduates, as in my case, where I had only two options: either kindergarten or special education. So, I chose kindergarten over special education.

It is important to note that, at that time, there were limited job opportunities for Saudi women in sectors other than teaching because of gender segregation.

- ***Social Utility Values***

The second set of factors, mentioned by a total of seven participants, was social utility values as reasons contributing to their decisions to become teachers. These consisted of factors that linked to altruistic motivations, divided into two sub-themes: making a social contribution and loving to work with children. Social utility value was a construct in the FIT-Choice Scale and was rated as one of the most significant influences motivating the participants to teach (Watt and Richardson, 2007). Consistent with the quantitative data from the current study, social utility values had a great influence on the participants' choice to pursue careers in teaching. During the interviews,

seven teachers expressed their interest in doing something beneficial for society and some of those seven loved to work with children. The two sub-themes of social utility values are discussed below, beginning with the most frequently cited.

Five interviewees mentioned that they were attracted to the teaching profession because of their desire to make a contribution to society or because they wanted to have a positive impact in some way on future generations (T4, T5, T9, T12 and T13), making it the most significant of the altruistic motivations. These teachers saw education as a foundation for building a better society. T12 explained this, saying:

Teaching is known to be a great profession because it aims to deliver a positive message to society and forms the basis from which members of society emerge. It elevates society's level both in terms of knowledge and standards of living standard... In my opinion, it is the most important career for the future generations.

A similar reason was given by T5, who commented, *“The most important point for me was that teaching is an honourable profession that benefits society...education is a profession that successive generations benefit from”*, while T9 and 13 expressed their ambition to have a positive role in society and spread knowledge. For example, T9 said, *“Firstly, I am ambitious to have a role in society by transferring my knowledge for the benefit of other people in my society and not to monopolise the knowledge I have gained”*.

While the responses above see teaching as a valuable service to society and one of the most honourable professions, T4 clearly expressed his perception of teaching as a highly demanding career, requiring great effort and sacrifice. When he was asked about his decision to become a teacher, he explained, *“The other factor is that we are facing a generation that needs a lot of efforts and sacrifices to be well brought up and educated to know what is best to establish a better tomorrow”*.

Working with children or adolescents appeared to be the second social utility factor, identified by two teachers (T3 and T7). According to their answers, their motivation to teach stemmed from enjoying being with students and their love of seeing them learn. T7 mentioned, *“The fact is that since I applied for the teaching programme, my desire was only teaching because I love to meet students, explain lessons to them and sit with them sharing ideas and thoughts”*. Furthermore, T3 elaborated on his motivations to teach, providing mixed reasons, among them a love of working with children: *“I loved the teaching profession because I enjoy dealing with students, sitting with them and explaining lessons to them. I have the ability and skills to deal with students”*.

- ***Intrinsic Values***

In Watt and Richardson’s findings (2007), intrinsic values were one of the most important motivations for the participants’ choice to teach. Similar results were shown in the qualitative data from this study. Intrinsic values had a major influence on the interviewees’ choice to pursue careers in teaching. Seven teachers indicated the importance of intrinsic values and their impact on their decision to become teachers, while others expressed confidence in their ability to teach. The data collected from the interviews were classified into three sub-themes: intrinsic career value, love for a specific subject and teaching ability.

The intrinsic value of teaching represented an essential motivating factor for three interviewees (T3, T14 and T16). During the interviews, the teachers expressed that they loved teaching and enjoyed being teachers. Some had always wanted to be a teacher and were never interested in any other professions. All three teachers spoke of their desire to become teachers when they were young because it was something that they love to do. For example, T14 said, *“I*

have loved this profession since childhood, which is what made me choose teaching when I grew up”. Similarly, T3 started by saying, “It was a dream of mine since I was young”.

On the other hand, two interviewees (T1 and T8) indicated that love for a specific subject was an important factor for them, stressing the intrinsic value of the subject, and that teaching it provided them with the opportunity to continue working and learning in the same area. T1 explained:

I was inclined to specialise in Arabic Language, which is the subject in which I majored in my undergraduate degree. My subject area was related mainly to the teaching profession and I would like either be a lecturer of Arabic at university or a teacher in state schools.

Although T8 expressed his interest in choosing a specific subject, he did not consider teaching as a career path. He mentioned:

Almost at the beginning of my studies, the fields of the professions were very limited at that time. You either become a teacher, a judge or a notary based on the major I chose, which was Islamic studies. So, you have no other choice in the sense that there is a scarcity of other career opportunities. I found myself involved in the profession with no real choice or interest.

However, he expressed a later satisfaction with his choice after joining teaching: “I can say that I am now satisfied with my career”.

Finally, ability to teach was the last factor in the theme of intrinsic values, which was mentioned by only two interviewees (T1 and T3). For example, T3 said:

It was a goal for me that suits my abilities and my potential. So, when I graduated from high school, I went directly to the Teachers’ College to become a primary school teacher. I think that was a fulfilment of my affinity for this profession.

Similarly, T1 added that he did not think about teaching as a profession when he was in high school, but he claimed that it suits his abilities: “I did not think of the teaching profession at that time, but I guess this profession suits me best now”.

As an initial interpretation of the data above, the qualitative data are somewhat consistent with the quantitative data in demonstrating that the intrinsic factors are less important for the participants' choice of teaching as a profession. However, it is worth mentioning that the initial motivations of some teachers might be vague and unstable (fallback career), but they can become valuable motives (intrinsic or altruistic), especially if they are supported by a positive and attractive work environment (Wong et al., 2014). T8's case is an example of this, having enrolled on the teacher programme as a default option and having now become more involved in teaching. He expressed his satisfaction with his choice:

It is possible, but I can say that it is a late desire I developed after beginning studies at university. However, after secondary school, I think I did not have a clear vision since I was still too young to worry about the future and think that a specific specialisation may prepare me to enter a certain professional field. When I practised teaching, I found myself comfortable with this choice.

- ***Fallback Career***

One interesting finding is that four teachers considered teaching as a fallback career (T2, T6, T10 and T15). This theme was determined based on diverse reasons reported by these teachers, which were mentioned either directly or indirectly. For example, when asked about his choice of teaching as a profession, T6 said, "*As I mentioned, I had no desire to teach, but there were no professions available other than teaching*".

T10 asserted that career choices for women were limited, explaining, "*As a woman, I had limited career opportunities other than teaching*". Although T15 did not explicitly state that her choice was a fallback option, she agreed with T10 about the lack of job opportunities for women, as mentioned earlier. In comparison with other professions, teaching is seen as an easy career to get into. T2 highlighted this by mentioning, "*The most important factor for me that it was easier to be accepted into the teaching field*".

It can be seen that the qualitative responses indicated a similar trend to the quantitative findings – choosing teaching as a fallback career. Limited career options for women perhaps contributed to the high incidence of fallback as a factor among in-service teachers.

- ***Previous Learning Experience***

Having previous learning experience was also a motivation factor that related to teachers' motivation to teach. Though not shared by all participants, previous learning experience was an influential factor for T7's career choice. T7 chose teaching as his first career option due to the desire to transfer knowledge and experience that he had gained from his parents to the students. When he was asked about the reason for his choice to go into teaching, he explained, "*The experiences and the education provided by my parents, which I can pay back by providing knowledge to my students in return*".

Unlike the quantitative sample, the qualitative one reported that prior teaching and learning experience was a less important influence on their choice of teaching as a career. One possible explanation for this contradiction between the quantitative and qualitative data related to teaching based on prior learning experience is that the quantitative sample includes a sample of pre-service teachers who were expected to rate this factor higher (as an entry motivation) than those teachers who were stable in their careers.

In summary, the results from the qualitative data showed that six themes were identified from the interviews as factors that attracted the participants to teaching. The results showed that teachers were motivated by a combination of extrinsic (salary was the most frequently cited reason in this category), altruistic (making social contributions was the most frequently cited reason at this category) and intrinsic motivation (intrinsic career value was the most frequently cited reason at this category). Other factors, such as teaching as a fallback career and religion

were relatively high, while prior learning experience had the least significant impact on the choice of teaching as a profession. One of the main observations is that the interviewees did not indicate any index of social influences or social dissuasion motives except prior learning experience, which was mentioned by only one interviewee. This is supported by the quantitative data that ranked social influences as the eleventh most important factor among twelve motivation factors rated (only ahead of fallback career). This may be explained by the fact that the teachers were largely driven by their own personal views and interests, rather than external social influences. There is evidence that initial motivations are not only associated with the decision over whether or not to become a teacher but can also be correlated to future job satisfaction and teacher retention. Thus, teachers' satisfaction with their career choice, as well as whether the motivations to teach changed over a period of time, are important to discuss, as presented below.

6.4 Satisfaction with Choice

After exploring their initial motivations for choosing a career in teaching, teachers were asked about their general satisfaction with their career choice, followed by a question regarding whether their level of motivation to teach had changed over the period and if so, the reasons for this change. In the quantitative section, it was seen that the survey respondents rated satisfaction with choice high on average ($M = 5.07$). The qualitative data showed similar results.

Table 6.3 shows that eleven respondents were satisfied with their choice of teaching as a career (T2, T3, T5, T7, T8, T9, T11, T12, T13, T15 and T16), while four replied that they were dissatisfied (T4, T6, T10 and T14) and one was undecided (T1).

Table 6.4. Satisfaction with the Choice of Teaching as a Profession

Question	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Undecided
Are you satisfied with your choice of teaching as a career?	11	4	1

Several interviewees expressed their overall satisfaction with their decision to teach. For instance, T3 said, *“Personally, yes, I am very satisfied, and I do not want to change it”*. T5, T13, T9 and T15 also stated views similar to this. T15 mentioned, *“Yes, I am completely satisfied with my job as a kindergarten teacher”*. However, some participants indicated that they were reluctantly satisfied. When asked about it, T7 said, *“I am not saying 100 per cent, but I can somewhat accept my current career. I said that due to stress during teaching”*, whereas T11 and T12 only stated that they were *“somewhat satisfied”*. Moreover, T14 indicated a drop in her job satisfaction as she commented that, *“Recently, I have not been satisfied with my profession”*.

However, T2 and T6 emphasised the importance of the school community, including school administration and students, as one of the major reasons for teachers’ satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their choice. T2 started by saying, *“In principle, yes, I am satisfied in my choice of my current profession”*. Then, he elaborated:

But I mean, what makes the teaching profession difficult or affects your satisfaction with the profession is the school community itself: management and students. As long as there is flexibility and students are disposed to learning, you will be comfortable in your career. On the other hand, when you are in unhealthy school community, the opposite will result.

In addition to T2, T6 agreed that school community can be an influential factor, but he affirmed a dissatisfaction with his career choice; he said, *“Really not. I am not satisfied with my choice of teaching as a profession”*.

Based on the discussion above, the mixed results of the qualitative data provide more

evidence of the complicated relationship between motivating factors and satisfaction with the choice of teaching as a career.

On the other hand, most participants indicated that their motivation to teach had changed over time. In order to investigate this viewpoint and determine the reasons that had caused these changes, the participants were asked the question shown in the next section.

6.4.1 Change in Teachers' Motivation and Reasons for Change

Following the previous discussion, teachers were asked whether their level of motivation to teach had changed over time.

As shown in Table 6.4, only two interviewees reported that their motivation to teach had remained unchanged, while more than half (twelve) indicated a change in their level of motivation; the remaining two were undecided. Most of the participants showed a decrease in their inclination towards teaching, whereas only two mentioned that their motivation had increased or at least was stable. Even those who indicated job satisfaction were not fully comfortable with their careers. They declared certain factors that affected their enthusiasm for teaching. From the interviews, the responses identified factors that cause a change (or create stability) in the inclination toward teaching. These factors can be grouped into two categories: “push factors” and “pull factors”. It should be noted that teachers referred to the “push factors” as keeping them more determined in their teaching career and staying motivated in the light of the everyday challenges they had to confront.

Table 6.5. Changes in Motivation to Teach and Reasons for Changes

Has your level of motivation to teach changed recently?	
No	2
Yes	12
Undecided	2
Why?	
Push factors	Pull factors
Sense of responsibility	Administrative decisions
Student achievement	Workload
School administration/principal	Students (lack of motivation – misbehaviour)
Love teaching	Teachers’ status in society
Experience gained	Seniority in teaching
	Lack of parental engagement in following their children’s progress and academic achievements

With respect to the push factors, five teachers (T1, T2, T4, T6 and T7) reported four reasons that kept them motivated: the sense of responsibility, student achievement, school administration/principal and love of teaching. Most of the interviewees confirmed that teaching is a highly demanding job that entails many difficulties that have to be overcome. Nonetheless, these factors seem to have influenced the retention of teachers and created a positive attitude and orientation about the profession. For example, although recent additional duties were assigned to teachers by the Ministry of Education (MoE), T7 mentioned that his level of motivation to teach

had not changed, because the sense of responsibility towards his students made him do the best to achieve the learning objectives. He explained, “*No, it did not change. Rather, I do my best to make my students learn, but I could not bear the new additional workload from the MoE*”.

Unlike T7, T4 expressed a low level of motivation towards teaching due to negative student attitudes to learning. However, at the same time, he agreed with T7 that his responsibility towards his students made him more determined to teach them. He declared:

I will be frank with you. For several years the effort in teaching has been increasing because the models (students) in front of you need to do the best you have, despite the presence of types of students who make you frustrated, they demonstrate a lack of willingness to learn, either directly or indirectly.

Student achievement and school administration and the principal were other motivating factors mentioned by two interviewees (T2 and T6). According to their responses, the motivation to teach related directly to student achievement. In other words, students’ motivation to learn has a positive reflection from the teachers’ side. When he was asked why his motivation had changed positively towards teaching, T2 explained:

There was a reason, which was that I had a great deal of work pressure in my first year, as well as the fact that the students’ levels were bad, so I could not give them a lot of information. But in the last two years, the level of students has been good, and their educational level has been better, so I was able to manage the classroom and provide them with well-delivered lessons.

Moreover, the love of teaching and experience gained were further reasons that enhanced teachers’ motivation to teach, as mentioned by two interviewees (T1 and T16). T16 believed that his love for the profession could be the greatest source of strength for overcoming any challenges he faced in his work, while T1, who was in the early stages of his professional life, stated that as he gained experience, he felt more comfortable and engaged in his work. He commented, “*Of*

course, at the beginning of my teaching career, the burden was very heavy, but with practice, it became easier ... my motivation to teach became better, too”.

Regarding the pull factors to teach, it can be seen from Table 6.4 that the majority of the interviewees expressed a change in their motivation – ten reported that their inclination to teach had been negatively affected. When asked about the reasons for this change, they mentioned nine negative factors that had affected their motivation. These factors included administrative decisions, workload, students (lack of motivation – misbehaviour), teachers’ status in society, seniority in teaching, lack of incentives and lack of parental engagement in following their children’s progress and academic achievements.

However, the most frequently cited reason, given by half of the participants (T3, T5, T8, T9, T12, T13, T15 and T16), was the large number of recent teacher-related administrative decisions made by the MoE. Teachers perceived these decisions as over-demanding and as a source of work-related stress, even for those who were still satisfied with their career choice. For example, T5 pointed out how these decisions led to additional duties on teachers, which had an impact on his motivation:

As for the level of my motivation toward teaching, yes, it has varied somewhat negatively in the recent period and due to the large number of ministerial and administrative decisions from time to time, which increase the teachers’ workloads.

Meanwhile, T3 and T8 believed that the large number of instructions given by the MoE limited their professional independence, effectiveness and creativity in the classroom. T8 mentioned:

The truth is that in the last three years, my motivation has begun to decline, especially with the new decisions and the pressure that has been put on the shoulders of the teacher, caused by the large number of instructions and circulars from the Ministry of Education and the supervisors closely following up the

teacher such that he is not given the opportunity to go on by himself and enjoy greater independence.

Furthermore, T12 and T15 perceived these decisions and circulars as “*against teachers*”. They also felt a lack of appreciation for the effort that they made, all of which affected their daily work as teachers. T15 commented:

In terms of motivation, it has diminished during this period because of the complexity in the teacher’s tasks and the ministerial circulars and decisions are often against the teacher and his comfort. The lack of moral incentives and encouragement reduced the teacher’s motivation toward teaching.

The heavy workload laid on teachers also contributed to the decline in the level of motivation to teach in four teachers (T4, T10, T11 and T14). For example, T4 said, “*All of the pressure is now on the teacher, while the student’s role has been marginalised*”. Similarly, T14 explained how her career had become exhausting: “*The efforts of the teacher are in vain with most students; they are preoccupied with modern means of communication*”.

T14 also captured the third factor, related to students’ misbehaviour and their lack of motivation to learn (also mentioned by other two teachers, T1 and T3). She reported that difficulties in dealing with students’ problems reduced her enthusiasm for teaching. She argued, “*It has become very cumbersome and the students are very tiring, and some of them disrespect their teachers*”.

In addition, T1 described the difficulties that the teacher experiences with his or her students in the classroom by saying:

At the moment, I am facing several pressures including the level of students. Some students only aim to get a mark that will enable them to succeed but not to learn, which reflects negatively on me as a teacher. Another reason is that the number of students in the classroom is high (35–40). As a result, classroom management becomes poor and there is difficulty in communicating information to students as well.

T11 argued that there are always additional responsibilities placed on teachers with no incentives for outstanding performance, which causes a loss of motivation over time. He commented, *“Yes, my motivation for teaching has been affected by the rapid development and excessive tasks that the teacher must do with a lack of incentives”*.

It is worth noting that the three reasons mentioned above for the demotivation to teach, which were administrative decisions, workload and problems with students (lack of motivation – misbehaviour), were related to each other. That is to say, these teachers perceived the teaching profession as a highly demanding career, requiring physical and emotional investment. This finding is consistent with data obtained from the quantitative stage.

However, three interviewees (T3, T4 and T14) reported being less motivated as a result of a fall in the status of their profession in society. When asked about this, T14 said, *“Because I felt it was an inferior occupation in the eyes of people”*. In addition to T14’s response, T3 believed that teachers’ status in society had fallen compared to their status in the past. He mentioned:

At present, students need special treatment. Their respect for the teacher has changed and teachers’ prestige has decreased. Anybody who sees the conditions of teachers today knows that the status of teaching as a profession is not the same as it was in the previous generation.

This aspect was addressed in detail (see section 4.4.1) due to the importance of teachers’ status in society and its effect on their choice to enter teaching.

On the other hand, two mid-career teachers (T4 and T9, who have taught for thirteen and nineteen years respectively) indicated that the length of service as a teacher (seniority in teaching) had a negative effect on their motivation to teach. When he was questioned about the change in his level of motivation, T4 commented, *“There are periods that the teacher becomes*

unable to give more and renew his enthusiasm in teaching. This is especially true for long-serving teachers”.

Although T9 was satisfied with her job, she explained how a ‘*long time serving*’ in teaching, along with the increasing workload, undermined her motivation to teach. After approximately nineteen years of teaching, she stated, “*Praise be to God, I am quite satisfied, but my motivation has changed, due to age, alongside with the increased tasks by the Ministry on the teacher, which have caused physical and psychological pressures*”.

Finally, the lack of parental engagement in following their children’s progress and academic achievements was cited by only one teacher (T3) as a reason for decreased motivation to teach.

Overall, the results from the qualitative data showed a general consistency with the quantitative data in representing teaching as a highly demanding and stressful profession. The quantitative findings explained how frequent requirements from the administrative authority, dealing with student problems, daily workload and declining social status reshaped in-service teachers’ orientation, leaving them with less motivation towards teaching. The results also showed a possible negative impact of length of service (or seniority) on teachers’ motivation, particularly when associated with constant, excessive workloads, while lack of parental engagement in following their children’s progress was the less influential factor, reported by only one teacher.

6.5 Status of Teachers in Society

In order to investigate the participants’ opinions about the status of teachers in society and to explore whether those views had positively or negatively influenced their motivation to teach,

they were asked the above question. The results regarding the first part of the question are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.6. Teachers’ Status in Society

How do you feel about the status of the teaching profession in society?					
Appreciated	→	Positive	→	Increase the motivation to teach	2
Undermined	→	Negative	→	Decrease the motivation to teach	13
Undecided					1

Compared to the survey respondents, the interviewees viewed the status of teachers as having a more important influence on their motivation to teach. This difference can be attributed to the type of the qualitative sample (all in-service teachers), who were much closer to the reality of teaching.

More than half of the interviewees (thirteen) indicated a negative impact on their teaching due to its low status in the view of society, while only two felt that society’s appreciation had a positive effect on their motivation to teach. The one remaining teacher was undecided and indicated that there was a possibility of society having an impact on his career, which could be either positive or negative.

The narrow view of society towards the teaching profession was reported by the majority of respondents. This factor had a negative influence on their motivation to teach; T13 expressed *“a sense of frustration ... I am trying hard so as not to let it affect me...I have a futuristic view that the future of this profession will be better”*.

The perceived declining social status of the teaching profession seems to play an important role in making people tend to apply to sectors other than teaching according to T5, who pointed

out:

Honestly, I know some people do not want to go to this profession because of the public's inferior view of teachers. As noted, society promotes jobs other than teaching, such as some administrative positions or scientific specialties.

However, when they were asked about the factors responsible for the low status of teachers, participants provided a number of reasons, as displayed in Figure 6.2. The factors were ranked in order of importance: mass media, the impact of the government's recent decisions related to teachers, limited understanding of teachers' role and absence of regulatory protection for them.

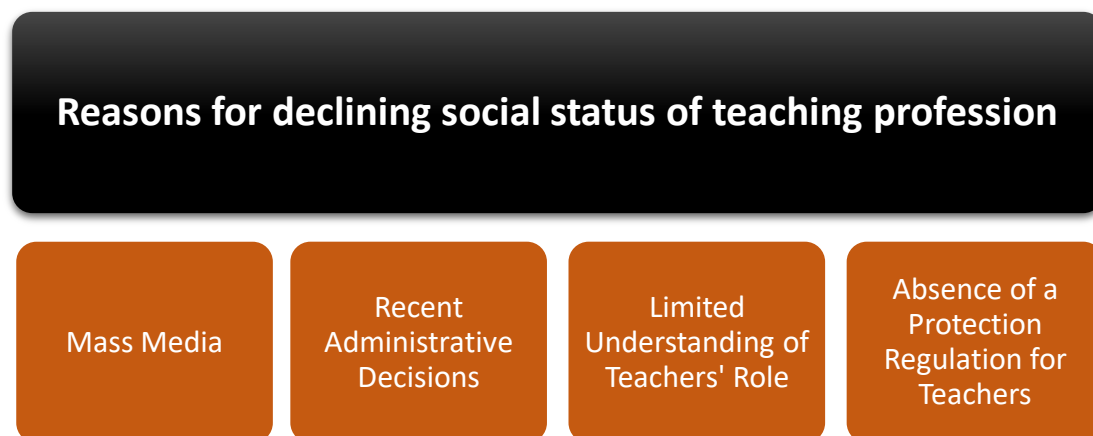


Figure 6.2. Reasons for decline in teachers' social status

In light of the easy access to the internet and social media, the power of mass communication media such as Twitter and Facebook was seen as having significantly contributed to undermining the social status of teachers, by focusing on negative attitudes and behaviours. Moreover, these channels enhance the bad examples of some teachers, showing inappropriate visual content featuring certain teachers dealing with their students (for example, teachers punishing them). All of this, according to many interviewees, led to a distorted image of

teachers in the eyes of other members of society. T3 gave an example of the currently negative role of the social media on the status of teachers:

At the moment, I say it very loud and clear that the situation is very unfortunate. Society's perception of teachers now, especially with social media such as Twitter, is very different to that of the past. The teaching profession is seen as being in a low position, even though teachers perform an honourable message and contribute to creating an educated generation. Actually, we read a lot of tweets that reinforce the negative image of teachers and show bad examples while there are many models and positive attitudes, but they do not stand out in social media.

Likewise, T6 mentioned that social media often focus on the negative side of teachers, while some teachers even do additional work voluntarily, which is not related to teaching, without any appreciation from others. When he was asked about his perception of the impact of social media on teachers' social status, he explained:

Yes, it has a big role in showing the negatives and bad examples of teachers. For example, they focus on a teacher who beat a student severely, while many positive examples are ignored. I know a teacher who personally cleans the school's air conditioning units voluntarily; why don't they show his dedication to work?

Some interviewees were of the view that the negative consequences of recent statements and administrative decisions provided by the MoE led to an undermining of teachers' status in society and orientation towards the profession. This was articulated by T7 who mentioned that:

In the past, there was prestige in the teaching profession and the teacher had a clear imprint on the culture of society, but now the situation has changed. Students are influenced by how their parents raise them at home, by the school and the internet as well as the community around them. In addition, the recent decisions made by the MoE have lowered the status of the teacher and conversely increased the power of the student. I do not mean that students' rights should be taken away, but these decisions have not put the teacher the correct position and unfortunately, the teacher's personality has disappeared...unfortunately.

The perceived limited understanding of many people about the nature of a teacher's role was also a contributing factor. Some interviewees complained that people underestimate the role of teachers and look at them as a "lucky ones" because they receive some benefits from being teachers (for example, good salaries and long annual holidays) for short working hours. For example, T15 explained the challenges that she faced as a teacher and the negative feelings and consequences for her motivation when she hears people criticise her profession. She commented:

I think the status of the teacher remains that of a highly respected job. It is one of the noblest professions; but at the same time, I believe it is very hard to be a teacher, although everyone thinks it is an easy job that does not require effort in exchange for the numerous advantages they get... such as a good salary and long annual holidays. However, those who try to deal with more than twenty children... there is a child crying, another stubborn, and one aggressive, they rarely see how difficult it is to manage these pupils...when I hear people's criticism of teachers and they underestimate the role of teachers, hold them accountable for unintentional mistakes, it greatly affects my motivation for teaching and reduces my enthusiasm and performance at work.

On the other hand, T9 argued that the recent administrative decisions enhance the power of students over teachers, which undermines teachers' authority in the classroom, making some students act disrespectfully towards their teachers in the absence of regulations to protect teachers:

There must be laws to protect the rights of the teacher because the status of the teacher is no longer as it was. Most of things that come from the Ministry have been against the teacher and not with him... as a result, I see many teachers have been struck, insulted and assaulted by their students, and there was no rehabilitation or compensation for them. This must have an impact on the ability of the teacher and their motivation to teach.

Unlike the many expressions of dissatisfaction and reasons mentioned above, only two interviewees indicated that they get a sense of having a positive status in society. T1 confirmed that he felt appreciated, trusted and rewarded by the general public, especially by parents. When he was asked about this, he commented, *“This view exists; I mean that teachers are still appreciated by the general public. We hear it from parents and non-parents...this view pushes me to do more in my work with students”*.

In addition, T12 went further, arguing that society contributes to the defence of teachers and their rights through platforms such as social media: *“On the contrary, society defends the rights of teachers through social media, which has become a platform to demand our rights through them and clarify the negative things that happen to the teacher”*.

6.6 Intention to Switch to Another Profession

Following the previous section, which revealed a change for in-service teachers’ motivation towards teaching, the participants were asked about whether they would accept an opportunity to switch to another career. Table 6.6 shows that the majority of teachers would be open-minded regarding switching to another profession. Five teachers, including three in the early years of their careers (T1, T2, T4, T9 and T14), would be willing to switch to another profession immediately, while ten, most of them in later stages of their careers (T3, T5, T6, T7, T8, T10, T11, T12, T13 and T15), expressed their willingness to consider moving on when it meets certain conditions. Only one mid-career teacher (T16) did not intend to change his career at all.

Table 6.7. Intention to Switch to Another Profession

Question	Immediately	Yes, if...	Not accept	Undecided
----------	-------------	------------	------------	-----------

Would you or would you not accept an opportunity to switch to another career. Why?	5	9	1	1
Conditions for transferring to another profession				
Less workload				
At the same or better salary				
In the same subject area				
Non-routine career				
Offering personal and professional development				
Suitable for women				

For those who were sure that making a career change in favour of other professions would be better, they had found that teaching was a highly demanding job requiring hard work and involving great emotional stress. For instance, T1, who was early in his career, said:

As I mentioned earlier, it is a tiring job, and in return, sometimes you do not see the result of your effort reflected in the students. The students only want the right grades, so you make an effort without a result worth remembering.

Meanwhile, T2 confirmed a desire to change his career to a job in administrative or office work because he believed that dealing with children needs special experience, care and patience.

When asked about the reasons, he argued:

There is a reason that there are many pressures in the teaching profession, while other jobs, such as working in an office and administrative roles, involve dealing with adults, which is usually more comfortable than working with children, who must be treated with patience and wisdom.

Interestingly, T4 admitted that he was already searching for another career that would offer personal development and enhance his experience in a different field:

I will be frank with you, currently I am looking for another job in order to develop myself and get a variety of experiences. In addition, dealing with students these days is exhausting and requires considerable effort to be made with them.

Keeping options open regarding a career change was chosen by more than half of the interviewees. However, they indicated that they would prefer to change to another job when it

meets their expectations, such as a career that has a lighter workload, is well-paid, connected to the area of interest, non-routine, offering opportunities for personal and professional development and is a suitable career for women.

Teachers' conditions for switching to another profession were captured in the following comments: *"If I was offered a job with a good salary, yes I would accept it. I would not hesitate to make my decision to accept this new job"* (T5), *"It would be possible to move on, especially if the new job was related to my area of interest (Islamic studies), as well as corresponding with my desire which is the love of dealing with audience"* (T7), *"If they keep pace with the labour market and self-development"* (T11), *"I may accept it if it was the same salary and suitable for women"* (T10), *"Yes, I would accept it if the work was not routine, and salary level will be more than the salary in the teaching profession"* (T12) and *"Of course I would accept it, especially if the job offered was feasible in terms of salary and was more comfortable than teaching, I would certainly go for it"* (T6).

In contrast, only one teacher (T16) indicated that she was enjoying being in the profession, and that she wanted to spend her whole professional life in teaching. She said:

I would reject it because there are many things that make teaching the best for me. For example, teaching allows me to influence my students' lives and learn new skills. It keeps me up to date, makes me into a role model, affords me positive relationships and the opportunity to enjoy my students' success and feel proud of what they are doing.

As can be seen from the data above, one of the reasons teachers consider a career change (particularly those in the early years of their career) was the view of teaching as a highly demanding profession, involving a high level of difficulty and expertise. Along with the workload factor, salary was highlighted as the most frequently nominated condition for considering another career, which was frequently mentioned by mid- and late-career teachers.

One may infer that, although a sizeable proportion of responses indicated the possibility of changing career, teaching as a well-paid profession might be considered a factor that lessens the effect of the teachers' workload and encourages them to stay in the profession. In other words, salary may mitigate teachers' feelings of pressure in a teaching role.

6.7 Summary

This chapter has presented an analysis of the qualitative interview data to answer the fifth research question and to extend understanding of the issues related to the choice of teaching as a profession. In general, teachers expressed high satisfaction with their job. The qualitative data supported the quantitative data in demonstrating multiple motivations for choosing to teach. The factors of social utility values along with salary and long holidays were prominent. In addition, cultural values were new emerging factors that contributed to the choice of teaching. Conversely, respondents cited that teaching is considered a highly stressful profession (involving great emotional stress), with declining social status of teachers in society. Consequently, fourteen of sixteen teachers had the intention to switch to other professions.

The answers to questions about the motivation to teach at various career stages indicated that there were no remarkable differences among the three stages of teacher career (early-, mid- and late-career teachers). Despite this, the extrinsic motivations (for example, salary and long holidays) were more notable among early- and late-career teachers, while altruistic motivations (for example, social utility values) were more important to the mid-career teachers.

Chapter Seven: Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion and interpretation of the findings presented in Chapters Five and Six respectively, in the light of the literature review. It deals with relevant theories and previous studies related mainly to the motivations and perceptions that influence the choice of the teaching profession as a career, taking into account the FIT-Choice findings and their relationship with occupational commitment. Although this chapter is structured based on the research questions, the data strongly suggest overlaps between the quantitative and qualitative results. Each question begins by considering the quantitative findings, and then the relevant qualitative findings are linked and integrated based on the possible interpretations of these quantitative results, taking into account the prevailing findings and theories reported in the literature review. In so doing, the first question will be the basis of the discussion of the main results for the overall sample in detail, and the next questions then will provide an overview discussion based on their purpose. Before diving in depth into the teachers' motivations and perceptions and interpreting the findings, the following section is a discussion of the characteristics of the quantitative and qualitative sample, followed by the performance of FIT-Choice scale among a large sample of pre-service and in-service teachers in the Saudi context.

7.2 Profile of Quantitative Sample

From a total of 793 participants, 409 (51.6%) were male and 384 (48.4%) were female. This suggests that the findings from this study are to an extent representative based on gender.

The majority of the sample were pre-service teachers (69.2%). Of them, 50.1% were in the first year and 49.9% were final year students; their ages range from 18 and 23. The young ages for the pre-service sample may be explained by the admission procedures in the education programs designed for accepting those students graduating (from higher secondary school) directly. Moreover, the fact that a sizeable number of respondents were prospective teachers is not surprising at all considering that the present study focused mainly on pre-service teachers who were in the first and final year of their teacher education program (50.1% and 49.9% respectively).

With regard to subject specialisms, arts and humanities were dominant choices for both pre-service and in-service teachers. This phenomenon observed in the present study is similar to that of some previous studies conducted in different settings, such as Turkey (Kılınç, Watt & Richardson, 2012) and Pakistan (Razzaque, 2013), which found that more than 50% of pre-service teachers came from arts fields. The high proportion of teachers from arts backgrounds (i.e., art, early childhood education and special education) in the KSA reflects a source of concern considering that it is an easy option for obtaining a university admission. Therefore, it is more likely that these domains will be a back-up option for many of those students who are not accepted to their first choice major.

Despite the number of teachers needed in these subjects being greater than in others, the MoE is experiencing an over-supply of newly graduated teachers, particularly across these domains. Seeking to bridge the gap between the increasing number of new teachers and available teaching positions, some universities opted to stop admitting students or to reduce the admission rates of students to 50% in some fields which were deemed unsuitable for the needs of the labour market, such as art education (i.e. drawing), special education and educational techniques

(Alshalaan, 2017). In doing this, they sought to achieve a balance between arts and sciences specialities for all levels of state education

The questionnaire analysis indicated that 51.7% of the students chose teaching as a first choice. Meanwhile 48.3% of students chose teaching as a second or later career choice. This finding seems to be consistent with those of Manuel and Hughes (2006), who found that 57% of pre-service teachers chose the teaching profession as a first career choice and 43% had chosen teaching as a second or third career choice. However, these findings do not necessitate that teaching was not one of the preferred career choices for those who did not decide to enter it as a first choice. This argument is strengthened by the high overall satisfaction rates reported in the both quantitative (Section 5.7; Table 5.13) and qualitative results (Section 6.3; Table 6.3).

With regard to years of teaching experience, 85% of the in-service teachers in the present study had five years of teaching experience. A possible explanation of this high percentage compared to the other groups is related to the decrease in new teacher recruitment over recent years as part of the implementation of “the Saudi Vision 2030” which aims to reduce the ratio of students to teaching staff from 17 to 9 students per teacher by 2020 (Alsolmy, 2016)

In addition to this, the rapid growth of the private sector, supported by the Saudi Vision which expected to “increase private sector’s contribution in gross domestic product from 40% to 65%” (Vision 2030) has resulted in an increase in employment opportunities for fresh graduates.

7.3 Profile of Qualitative Sample

Seeking to address the fifth research question of the current study (*What are the motivations of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?*), a total of 16 in-service teachers (eight male and eight female) from different career

stages were interviewed. The researcher believed that adapting a purposeful sample approach would be helpful for answering the fifth research question qualitatively. Nevertheless, the researcher should be cautious when interpreting the findings of this phase due to limited sample size.

7.4 The FIT-Choice Scale in the KSA

The use of the structure of the original FIT-Choice scale, as observed in the current study with minor modifications (discussed in Section 4.4), was effectively consistent within the Saudi sample context. This finding was confirmed by previous FIT-Choice studies conducted in other contexts (Kılınç et al., 2012; Watt & Richardson, 2007). Although the factor of job transferability and fallback career showed low reliability in the present study ($\alpha = .37$ and $\alpha = .48$ respectively). However, these two factors showed also small deficits of reliability in other contexts such as German, USA and Norway (Watt et al., 2012).

Using a standard measure across different cultural settings helps to provide a comprehensive image of how different cultural dimensions may affect the motivations and perceptions about teaching and allow an opportunity for cross-cultural comparisons (Watt et al., 2012). However, since this is the first exploratory study to consider the use of the FIT-Choice scale in Saudi Arabia, further investigation would be useful to validate this finding and re-examine the suitability of the scale across different Saudi educational contexts.

On the other hand, responses from the interviews do indicate the presence of other factors behind Saudi teachers' choice to teach, which future researchers may wish to take into account, particularly in a context similar to that of the current study. These might include cultural values

(gender roles and religion) and teaching for the love of a specific subject, which are interesting factors for possible future studies of motivations in teaching and teacher education.

7.5 Why Choose Teaching in the KSA?

This section discusses the first research question (*What are the motivations of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?*)

One aim of this question was to determine the factors contributing to the choice of teaching as a profession. The overall findings of the present study correspond with Sinclair's (2008) conclusion that pre-service and in-service teachers have multiple motivations to teach.

In relation to motivating factors, unlike to the Australian context where the FIT-Choice scale was established (Watt & Richardson, 2007, 2008a) and other further FIT-Choice studies (Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Richardson & Watt, 2012), intrinsic value motivations and ability to teach were not the most influential factors in the Saudi context, although perceived teaching ability was in the top five factors ($M = 5.22$).

The data showed that the two factors of social utility values (altruistic motivations) including teaching to make a social contribution ($M = 5.66$) and shaping future of children ($M = 5.57$) were the greatest in terms of the decision to pursue a career in teaching, closely followed by the personal utility value of job security ($M = 5.50$), prior positive teaching and learning experiences ($M = 5.26$) and teaching ability ($M = 5.22$). These results support Bastick's (2000) view and that of many studies carried out in developing countries that extrinsic and altruistic motivations were more dominant than intrinsic motivation when choosing teaching as a career. Fallback career received the lowest mean score (3.99), followed by social influence from others (4.49) and job transferability (4.49).

Other motivations were rated moderately, such as enhance social equity, intrinsic value,

working with children and time for family which is under personal utility value.

Qualitative data analysis identified motivating factors similar to those of the quantitative findings. In interviews, although extrinsic factors were most cited, teachers nominated social utility values (making a social contribution and working with children) as one of the most important factors in their decision to teach, followed by intrinsic values and teaching ability. Under personal utility value, salary was also prominent within the qualitative sample (which can be closely related to the factor of job security as discussed later). In addition, cultural values (such as a suitable career for women and religion) and love for a specific subject were unique factors that emerged from the inductive qualitative analysis.

However, unlike the quantitative findings, prior learning experience was the major reason for only one participant. This may be attributed to two factors. First, the interviews were only conducted with in-service teachers who were expected to be more established in their careers and less influenced by others compared to pre-service teachers. Secondly, the small size of the qualitative sample did not allow the generation of frequent responses as in the case of the quantitative sample. However, the qualitative results indicated the presence of new factors (emerging from the inductive analysis) that seemed to play important roles in participants' decisions to pursue a career in teaching, such as cultural values (religion / a career for women) and love for a particular subject.

Interestingly, social influences had a relatively weak impact on teachers' decisions in the quantitative findings, not mentioned directly in the interviews, which is surprising because social influences from others in Saudi culture could significantly affect people's career choices (Hofstede, 2001). Nevertheless, cultural expectations associated with the role of women were a determinant in some females' choice of teaching as a profession. For example, one female

expressed “*I firmly believe that what motivated me most to take up a career in education is that it is the most suitable profession for women, especially in my conservative society*”. She added, “*in my case, where I had only two options: either kindergarten or special education*”. In her study, Alwedinani (2016) argued that educational and professional choices for Saudi women depend firstly on her family’s approval.

The following subsections consider the most important motivating factors (social utility values, personal utility values, job security / salary, prior teaching and learning experiences, fallback career and ability) and place them in the broader context of teaching in Saudi Arabia and other international contexts, followed by perceptions about teaching, including satisfaction with choice and commitment.

7.5.1 Social Utility Values

Altruistic reasons depict teaching as a socially worthwhile and essential profession, a way of contributing to society and helping children succeed (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Mansfield et al., 2012; Watt & Richardson, 2008a). Many studies confirm that altruistic reasons are the strongest factors motivating pre-service teachers to join the teaching profession (Hennessy & Lynch, 2017; Kılınç et al., 2012; Richardson & Watt, 2012; Suryani et al., 2016). Research conducted among in-service teachers reports that these “altruistic -type” motivations are factors influencing their decisions to pursue teaching careers, sustaining commitment and effectiveness throughout a career (Day & Gu, 2007; Guarino et al., 2006; Roness & Smith, 2010).

As noted above, making a social contribution and shaping children’s futures were the top factors rated under social utility values. The interview data, meanwhile, were almost identical in

terms of altruistic motivations, but differed slightly; besides making a social contribution, two respondents appeared to be motivated by a love of working with children.

Although the comparative cross-country studies into motivations that are found in literature have often linked altruistic motivations for joining teaching, such as contributing socially, as a dominant motivation for teachers in developed countries (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Richardson & Watt, 2012; Tang et al., 2018), the predominance of social utility values (ahead of job security and prior teaching experiences) for choosing a teaching career in the present study is not surprising when we know that these values may stem from more collectivist cultures, such as that in Saudi Arabia (Hofstede, 2001). Therefore, Saudi teachers would be expected prioritise these motivations when choosing a career in teaching (Obeidat et al., 2012).

Collectivist societies emphasis on the importance group goals over individual interests and aims. In individualised contexts, such as Australia, United Kingdom and North America (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Watt et al., 2012), it may be more expected to make one's career choices based on one's interests and abilities.

The findings of the present study are similar to others reported from a number of collectivist societies, such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Turkey and the UAE (Akar, 2012; Goh & Lourdasamy, 2001; Sharif et al., 2014; Suryani et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2018), while they are inconsistent with those from Oman (Klassen et al., 2011), Jamaica (Bastick, 2000), China (Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014) and Cyprus (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). Meanwhile, one Emirati study found that three out of six case studies did not provide any altruistic reasons for becoming teachers (Dickson & Le Roux, 2012).

However, as far as Saudi Arabia is concerned, the results are in line with those of Alkhn

(1979), Alhussein (2010) and Al-Tayyar (2014), all of which found a precedence of social value motivations in the decision to teach. In particular, Al-Tayyar reported that ‘contributing to a better society’ followed by ‘wanting to help students to succeed’ were the strongest motivating factors across the Saudi sample.

7.5.2 Personal Utility Values

Personal utility values as extrinsic motives for teaching reflect “assumptions about the nature of teaching and work more generally in contemporary society” (Richardson & Watt, 2016, p. 287). According to Hofstede’s cultural dimensions theory (2001), people who are more individualistic are more likely to focus on their personally utilitarian values. This clarification might help to understand why personal utility values (specifically “time for family” and “job transferability”) were less appreciated among teachers in collectivist societies such as Saudi teachers compared to teachers in individualistic societies. Nevertheless, the personal utility values of job security (and salary as analysed in qualitative findings) were a factor deemed to be highly influential in the present study. Similar results have been found in settings such as Germany and Turkey (Goller et al., 2019; Kılınç et al., 2012), while this is not the case in Australia, where the FIT-Choice scale was established (Watt & Richardson, 2008a). Consequently, the previous findings would appear to indicate that socio-cultural factors could play an important role in shaping one’s motivation to become a teacher. As the desire for a secure job or a good salary is one of the main factors that influences the choice of teaching as a career in the current context, the next chapter will discuss this work independently

7.5.2 Job Security / Salary

A good salary appears to be one of the most important considerations when seeking a job as a survival need. The teaching profession thus appears to be seen as a financially secure one (Akiba et al., 2012).

The present study found job security (as one of the personal utility factors) was a compelling motivator endorsed by the participants involved in the sample for the quantitative data. The qualitative findings support these quantitative results, with some interviewees citing salary as the most important reason for choosing teaching as a career. Despite the importance of salary, it was moderately correlated with satisfaction with the choice. This may provide an indication for the limited impact of extrinsic factors such as salary when choosing teaching career.

However, these findings are in line with Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory (Hofstede, 2001). People in cultures with high levels of uncertainty avoidance (i.e. collectivist cultures) tend more to take into account issues such as security and wages in order to seek greater career stability (Hofstede, 2001; Kılınç et al., 2012; Obeidat et al., 2012). Saudi Arabia scores high on uncertainty avoidance (score of 80) as per Hofstede's five dimensions of culture. In contrast to individualist cultures, who attribute greater value to personal success, self-respect and responsibility, thus, it was expected that salary and financial security would be important factors in the current study. According to Akiba et al. (2012), stable salary reflects job security in less developed countries. Meanwhile, Lee (2006) also found that teachers with modest salaries considered their jobs insecure for long term. This concept is especially true for the context of this study, (i.e. that being a teacher means having a stable job with a stable salary). Teachers in Saudi Arabia receive high fixed salaries compared to the majority of other employment sectors and

enjoy an automatic annual pay rise awarded by the Ministry of Education (MoE), as well as pension benefits after retirement (as with other state sector jobs). For these reasons, Saudi teachers typically remain civil servants with long-term job security from the beginning.

The present findings are consistent with studies in different countries, such as Cyprus (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004), Greece (Saiti & Papadopoulos, 2015) and Germany (Goller et al., 2019). They are also similar to findings of research conducted in the Turkish setting by Kılınç et al. (2012) who found that the motivation of a secure job ranked as the second most important factor for choosing teaching as a profession (after social utility values). However, it contradicted of the findings of earlier studies in some Middle Eastern countries including Oman and the UAE. It is possible that the variation in relative findings between these studies is still the result of cultural settings in which teaching and learning take place.

The three related studies conducted in Saudi Arabia produced mixed results. Alkhn (1979) and Al-Tayyar (2014) identified that salary was not a high priority in participants' motivation to teach. Meanwhile, Alhussein (2010) found positive attitudes toward the financial merits of the profession among pre-service teachers (e.g. liking the teaching profession because it has automatic annual pay rises).

It should be noted that each of these studies has different samples types. For example, Al-Tayyar's study only involved teachers who were in-service, whereas Alhussein's was conducted at a university specialising in training teachers for middle school and above. These limitations may help to clarify the inconsistency with the present findings.

7.5.3 Prior teaching and learning experiences

Similar to the Australian validation FIT-Choice study (Watt & Richardson, 2007), the

motivational factor of positive prior teaching and learning experiences was highly influential (following only job security). Since most of the participants were young in age and less likely to have practised teaching before entering pre-service programs, learning experiences (i.e., being influenced by their teachers during their educational stages) seemed more related to the present study than teaching experiences. This finding indicates the importance of teachers as role models in shaping future students' professional decisions. In their study, Roberts and Khursandi (2002) found that 56% of women and 55% of men cited specific role models as influential reasons for their career choice.

One possible explanation for this high rating in the present study lies in the characteristics of Saudi culture referred to previously. It is noteworthy that “in large power distance settings, education is teacher centered, and close relationships between teachers and students may be discouraged” (Klassen et al., 2011, p. 584). Hofstede's ranking of cultural dimensions shows that Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, have a very high level on the power distance index (score of 95), meaning that a hierarchical relationship should be expected between the teacher and student in the workplace. However, the high level of collectivism in Saudi society allows teachers to have more interaction and engagement with multiple generations, whether their students or even through extended family (Hofstede, 2001; Klassen et al., 2011; Obeidat et al., 2012). The qualitative data support this inference, with two teachers expressing their love of working with children, sitting and dealing with them (Section 6.2; social utility values).

This finding is consistent with those of a study by Kılınç et al. (2012) who found that prior positive teaching and learning experiences were rated highly among pre-service teachers in Turkey. Similarly, it was among the main motivations in Indonesia (Suryani et al., 2016) and

Ghana (Salifu et al., 2018), as well as in developed countries, such as the UK (Flores & Day, 2006), the USA (Elfers et al., 2008) and Ireland (Hennessy & Lynch, 2017). The only study in this area conducted in the UAE, by Sharif et al. (2014), identified a positive relationship between prior teaching and learning experiences and choosing a career in teaching.

However, the finding in the present study does not seem to be consistent with studies conducted in Oman (most relevant to the present study), Canada (Klassen et al., 2011), the Netherlands (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2014) and Malaysia (Keow, 2006), all of which reported moderate to low influence of prior teaching and learning experiences on the choice of teaching as a career. The researcher could not find a similar study that has examined this variable as a factor influencing the choice of teaching as a career in Saudi Arabia.

7.5.4 Fallback Career

The results showed that choosing teaching as a fallback career was the lowest ranked motive among the teachers. Although this finding was similar to what has been found out in Australian contexts where FIT-Choice was developed (Watt & Richardson, 2007), serving as a fallback career was a more influential factor in the Saudi context by almost two full points on the 7-point scales. Adding to this, the number of citations of choosing teaching as a fallback career was fairly high in the qualitative sample (Four out of six-teen teachers). The limited career options in the last ten years, particularly for women, could be one possible explanation for the high response rate for this factor (Alwedinani, 2016)

However, these findings are consistent to findings in some developing countries and collectivistic societies, including Turkey (Akar, 2012), Indonesia (Suryani, Watt, & Richardson, 2016) and Malaysia (Azman, 2013), while they are inconsistent with those reported in the UAE

(Dickson & Le Roux, 2012) and Oman (Klassen, Al-Dhafri, Hannok, & Betts, 2011) that teachers displayed greater fallback career as a reason for choosing teaching as a profession. Moreover, the present findings support the previous studies of Watt and Richardson (2007), Wong, Tang, and Cheng (2014) and Sinclair (2008), who reported a negative association between satisfaction with the choice of teaching and occupational commitment with choosing teaching as a fallback career. Despite all the findings mentioned above, caution should be exercised when interpreting the quantitative findings associated with this motivational factor due to the low reliability of the fallback factor in the present study.

7.5.5 Ability

Ability related beliefs are strongly emphasised in the expectancy-value model, which forms the foundation of our theoretical model. According to EVT, choices and behaviours are shaped by one's ability, beliefs and expectancies of success, and are considered an intrinsic motivator in some research (Yong, 1995).

Although perceived teaching ability for choosing a teaching career was lower rated than the three factors of social utility values job security and prior teaching and learning experiences, it was one of the factors considered. The ability to teach was found to be an important motivating factor in the quantitative data (ranked fifth) and had a strong positive correlation with the factors of satisfaction with choice and occupational commitment. However, only two interviewees expressed their ability to teach as reason for the career choice. The contrast in quantitative and qualitative findings could be attributable to tool used in the qualitative data. Semi-structure interviews allow the participants to provide a broad range of responses, which in turn does not help to generate high frequencies for the same factor, especially when sample size is small.

However, these findings are somewhat similar to those of Klassen et al. (2011) in their comparative study of Canada and Oman. The Omani sample reported high levels of perceived ability to teach as a motivation for choosing teaching as a career. It also supports Alhussein's (2010) results, which identified a positive attitude among pre-service teachers with regard to their ability to teach.

7.5.6 Cultural values

In addition to the aforementioned factors addressed above, Cultural values emerged from the qualitative analysis of the current study as contributing factors affecting teachers' decision for choosing their profession. Religion was one of the nominated factors that fall under the cultural reasons. It is not surprising that Islamic teachings are rooted in the Saudi community including its educational system. Therefore, the religion factor was expected to influence the participants choice to consider teaching as a permanent career in order to provide a meaningful life for others and seeking reward from Allah. Muslims thus perceive teaching as a highly respected and noble profession.

The importance of socio-cultural differences prompted Suryani et al. (2016) for adding the influence of religion in the FIT-Choice scale as a motivational driver behind the choice of teaching as a profession to the Indonesian context. The results in this regard are in line with Suryani's findings who found that religious influences were rated relatively high and had strong correlations with all Fit-Choice factors except fallback career. In the context of Saudi Arabia, this finding is consistent with prior research of Al-Tayyar (2014) who reported that religion to be a significant factor influenced in-service teachers' choice of teaching, while pre-service teachers in the studies of Alhussein (2010) and Alkhn (1979) placed religion at the top factors that were

contributing to their career choice. It is worth reiterating that teaching is one of the most valuable and respectful professions in Islam, and urges others always to respect teachers. In addition, Islam can also be seen as inspiring Muslims to approach job-related tasks positively, because the idea of faithfulness is at the heart of Islamic teachings to perform the best of their abilities in order to seek a “halal” income.

The second cultural factor is related to women who perceived teaching as a suitable career for them. Although it is known that teaching predominantly female area, only two participants in the present study perceived teaching as a suitable profession for their gender roles. Due to this limited response, caution must be applied when interpreted this factor. However, Women in Saudi Arabia are usually directed to enter certain fields such as humanities, religious sciences and medical sciences, which should be socially acceptable.

As reported in the chapter of qualitative results, the segregation of gender in some workplaces including schools was one of the reasons encouraging Saudi women for preferring teaching than other mixing professions. In contrast, the limited jobs’ opportunity for female may lead some of them to consider teaching as a fallback job (Alwedinani, 2016). Interestingly, Shoaib (2004) pointed out that limited job choices for female in Saudi Arabia (which is influenced strongly by Saudi ideologies and culture) were the most profound reason for entering the teaching profession. In spite of this, she argued that many of these teachers enjoyed teaching when they get involved in their work. Therefore, as mentioned earlier, Vision 2030 declared that women should be more involved in the labour-market by providing more job opportunities to achieve the objectives of the ambitious vision. The diversity of professional options for women will help to reduce the tendency to teach as a backup career.

Overall, a review of the literature (e.g. Heinz, 2015; Klassen et al., 2011; Liu & Onwuegbuzie, 2014; Suryani et al., 2016) indicates that socio-cultural differences have a prominent role in the socialisation of motivated behaviours which are impacting on individual's career choice.

7.6 Perceptions about Teaching, Teaching Commitment and Satisfaction with Choice

The overall findings of both quantitative and qualitative data, indicated that the teachers were generally satisfied with their professional choice, but, in the same time, they expressed dissatisfaction in some aspects related to teaching. As previous research has noted, when teachers already have a positive perception of the teaching profession, it results in positive overall job satisfaction and commitment to teach (Cristina-Corina & Valerica, 2012). Although teaching is considered a respected position and teachers hold equal responsibility to parents during school hours, both the quantitative and qualitative samples saw teaching as a low in task return (M=5.01) in terms of status and salary (relatively low) with perceived teaching as a highly demanding career (M=5.51). The interviews revealed that 13 out of 16 teachers reported low status of teaching career in society. These findings are somewhat similar to the only equivalent Saudi study of Al-Tayyar (2014), which found a strong dissatisfaction among in-service teachers with their status in society, while they expressed moderate satisfaction with salary and workload assigned to them.

As discussed earlier, Saudi teachers no longer enjoy the social status that they previously did when they experienced great respect and prestige (Alnahdi, 2014). There is now an underestimation on the part of some members of society towards the importance of teachers' role, meaning they are less appreciated than they should be, which has negatively impacted their

satisfaction with their choice to teach. Interviewees (with in-service teachers) revealed a number of factors contributing to the declining social status of teachers: mass media and its role in focusing on negative issues of teachers, the impact of the government's recent decisions against teachers, a limited understanding of teachers' roles by some members of the public and finally an absence of regulatory protection for them. In this regard, the Ministry of Education has recently begun work on promoting and highlighting the importance of the role of teachers and their value in society by launching a national awareness campaign through various media under the slogan "building a human being and developing homelands". This is part of the Ministry's initiative aimed at strengthening the role of the teacher in building people and homelands, which meets the requirements of the National Vision 2030 (WAS, 2018).

The present findings are in line with what has been discovered in the Australian context, where FIT-Choice was implemented, as well as some published studies in contrasting contexts, such as the Netherlands (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2012) Australia (Watt & Richardson, 2007) and Nigeria (Ejeh, 2005). With respect to similar context, the present findings also agree with the findings of Dickson and Le Roux's (2012) study that the low status of teachers was a major factor discouraging Emirati students from choosing teaching as a career.

Further agreement comes Richardson and Watt (2016) who contend that "at the beginning of teacher education, candidates expected the demands to be high, and returns low" (p.286). Despite perceiving teaching as a challenging job, the mean satisfaction ratings ($M=5.07$) for the choice of teaching is relatively high in the present study. This finding is supported by qualitative data in interviews in which 11 of 16 teachers expressed a general satisfaction with their job although the majority viewed teaching as having a lower social status compared with other careers. The contradiction between job satisfaction and the negative perception of teaching

(high in demands with low in returns) may be mediated by the type of entry motivations. For example, factors as making a social contribution and shaping future of children have shown strong correlations with satisfaction with choice (Richardson & Watt, 2016) and commitment to teaching (Pop & Turner, 2009). In addition, teaching as a governmental job is indeed one of the important advantages for teachers “it gives them lifetime job security, since there is no danger of losing a government job” (Alnahdi, 2014, p. 3). Also it may support the argument that those who perceive teaching as a highly expert profession tend to be more satisfied with their choice (Suryani et al., 2016).

Although there was a strong positive relationship between social utility values with both satisfaction with choice and commitment to teach, intrinsic career value was the strongest factor, while job security was less correlated. These correlations provide evidence for the importance of intrinsic factors in explaining participants’ satisfaction with their choice to teach and commitment to the profession. In this respect, this finding corresponds closely to that of Richardson and Watt (2010) that intrinsic and altruistic motivations are mostly related to high initial career satisfaction. Similarly, Bakar et al. (2014) and Pop and Turner (2009) found that pre-service teachers who went into teaching with high intrinsic and altruistic factors may be highly committed to the profession and performed efficiently and effectively. Meanwhile Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2012) found that satisfaction with the decision contributed to teachers’ commitment toward the profession even when perceiving teaching as highly demanding and requiring expertise. In relation to the current study, it was found that the difficulty of teaching and the need for expertise had a lower correlation with the commitment to teach. This finding is consistent with the conclusion reported by Klassen and Chiu (2011), who found that practicing teachers with greater work-related stress had lower levels of occupational

commitment.

7.7 Motivations, Perceptions, and Teaching Commitment Across Gender

This section addresses the second research question (*Is there a difference between males and females (in general) regarding their motivations for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia?*).

The argument of Drudy (2008) that there is a great concern that teaching may become a completely female profession is not realistic in the context of Saudi Arabia. Contrary to the majority of studies which reflects the dominating presence of female teachers in many contexts (Akar, 2012; Asbury et al., 2016; Azman, 2013; Klassen et al., 2011; Livingstone, 2003; Richardson & Watt, 2012; Suryani et al., 2016). The present study reported a balance in participation level according to gender. This is reflected by the number of female representation in public schools (female represents 53% of teachers at a primary level according to the latest statistics in 2016). The gender balance of the teaching workforce may be attributed to the principle of gender segregation in Saudi society which allow equal job opportunities, particularly in the field of teaching (Alnahdi, 2014; Alwedinani, 2016). However, it is worth noting that the Saudi government has started in expanding the job opportunities for women to increase their proportion in the labour market from the current 22 percent to 30 percent in light of the reforms taking place in the Kingdom (Vision 2030). According to the Global Gender Gap Report (WEF, 2017), Saudi Arabia has recorded the region's largest improvement in reducing its gender gap on the economic participation and opportunities on the overall Index. These actions could cause some negative implication to the teaching profession, such as increasing competition of job opportunities for women in other sectors which may lead to attrition in qualified teachers in

future.

With regard to the results, the t-test results for gender differences reflected the similar trend found in the overall sample (see Section 5.8; Table 5.16 and 5.17). The male and female participants chose to teach for social utility values as the most important influence on their decision to teach, representing approximately medium effect size, followed by job security, prior teaching and learning experience and perceived teaching ability. However, no significant difference found for intrinsic career value, job transferability, social influences and fallback career.

Interestingly, female participants perceived the majority of the FIT-Choice factors as more significant motivators than male. It seems that teaching to be a more natural choice for women based on a perceived or actual lack of comparable or better job opportunities (Alwedinani, 2016). Besides, the lower ratings with male groups may imply less optimism about their teaching profession than their female counterparts. In masculine societies such as the KSA, men and women's roles are very less overlapping (Hofstede, 2001), and better job opportunities are provided mostly for males. This inference supported by the high male's evaluation of social dissuasion and fallback career.

Moreover, the fact that social dissuasion was the only significant factor rated higher across the male teachers may reflect the low ratings of the male participants and their lower optimism across all other motivational factors about becoming a teacher. This conclusion confirms the previous findings from the Turkish context that females were more attracted to the teaching profession, and – at the same time – male participants showed relatively strong experiences of social dissuasion from choosing teaching as a career, compared to their female counterparts (Akar, 2012).

When the results were considered separately, the findings between male and female showed some differences. For example, male attached greater importance to extrinsic motivations such as job security and prior teaching and learning experience. This supports the argument of Johnston et al. (1999) that male teachers join the profession with more focus on the tangible aspect. In contrast, female participants attached greater weight to social utility values (including shape future of children, make social contribution and enhance social equity), which indicates her mentally stimulating nature as a mother. It is a common perception that teaching is considered as a 'female job'. As in many countries, Saudi women's education did not deviate from the gender stereotyping views, "which was to make women good wives and mothers, and to prepare them for 'acceptable' jobs such as teaching and nursing that were believed to suit their nature" (Alnahdi, 2014, p. 46). This is supported by the inductive analysis of the interview data, which confirmed that some female participants mentioned teaching as "a preferable career" as a factor contributing to women's decision for becoming teachers. This finding is similar to those of Klassen's et al. (2011) study who emphasised the importance of gender roles factor as a motive for teaching in Omani participants.

On the other hand, the correlation showed a strong positive relationship between the two extrinsic motives of job security and social influences with satisfaction with choice for male teachers, while altruistic motivations tend to be more strongly correlated with the satisfaction for female teachers with their choice of teaching. Intriguingly, intrinsic career value showed the strongest positive relationship with the choice for both male and female cohorts. The strong relation between intrinsic career motive and satisfaction with the choice supports prior studies of Richardson and Watt (2007, 2016) who highlighted the importance of this motivational factor to teach in predicting the later professional engagement and planning to persist in the profession.

However, although job security was more related to male, female perceived this factor as the third-ranked motive. A possible explanation for this factor receiving a high rating among female lies to socio-cultural reason. Since the majority of the female participants in the current study were young, they may want to be financially dependent of a secure job especially in the era of empowering women witnessed by the kingdom. This is supported by qualitative data that that two female teachers cited salary as one of the most important factor to them.

Generally, these findings are in line with the Saudi study of Ghony (1994) who found that female were more altruistically driven from factors such as “I would like to make a social contribution to the society”. This is also in line with studies in Turkey (Kılınç et al., 2012), and Malaysia (Azman, 2013), who found an important role of altruistic motivations as well as job security according to gender. By contrast, Shoaib (2004), reported salary as the least important motive for in-service female teachers, while Alkhn (1979) did not find significant differences by gender for choosing the teaching career.

As to perception about teaching, overall the male and female groups perceived teaching as a highly challenging job involving in high levels of workload and expertise (has a large effect size) with low return. This result is supported by qualitative data results, which indicated the negative impact of workload on the levels of motivation for teachers toward their career.

Although females rated teaching as a more challenging job, they showed a greater sense of satisfaction from teaching and commitment toward the profession. This may be attributed to the type of motivations associated with female teachers where Kissau et al. (2019) found that there was a positive relationship between commitment to the profession and a number of factors, among them, social contribution, enhance social equity and shape the future of children.

The present findings are similar to the finding in the Turkish context, Balyer and Özcan

(2014) conclude that female participants are most related to altruistic–intrinsic reasons when choosing the teaching profession, which could add meaning to do the tasks with love and commitment. Similarly, Saban (2003) reported that 87.9% of female candidates displayed more committed to elementary teaching than their counterparts of male (70.7%). An et al. (2020) reported that females’ pre-service teachers were more likely to show higher levels of choice satisfaction than males pre-service teachers.

Interestingly, Hatch (1999) pointed out that “the highest commitment to the altruistic and intrinsic rewards of working with children may be at the most risk of leaving the profession (or becoming burned-out) when they face the daily realities of the teaching job” (p.844). Hatch’s statement could reflect the link between the high rating of social utility values with the negative perception of teaching as a highly challenging career in the current study.

According to the Public Pension Agency, teaching profession has scored 81% as highest percentage among other occupation (as cited in Alzahrani, 2020). In addition, Saudi women teachers had higher attrition rates than men in the last five years because of early retirement (Aboshaheen, 2020). The increased teaching load and work stress besides the expected roles of females in society as wives and mothers could be one possible explanation for this attrition. Therefore, a genuine effort should be made through initial teacher education course (particularly the practicum aspect) to provide pre-service teachers to a realistic picture of the nature of the teaching profession and its characteristics and complexities from the beginning. It is an effective way to test and reassessed motivations and commitment to the profession, enhanced or reduced the impact of teachers’ perception and satisfaction with their choice.

In contrast, the results of the present study do not seem to be consistent in contexts of Singapore (Goh & Lourdusamy, 2001) and the UAE (Sharif et al., 2014) who found no

differences in teaching motivations based on gender. The researcher has been unable to identify a related study examining occupational commitment and motivation to teach in terms of gender factor in Saudi Arabia.

7.8 Differences in Motivations and Perceptions among Pre-Service and In-Service Teachers

The current section would discuss the third research question (*How do pre-service and in-service teachers' motivations and perceptions vary for choosing teaching as a career in the Saudi setting?*)

This section focuses on the significant differences in motivations and perceptions among first-year and final-year pre-service teachers as well as those who are in-service. It also discusses the interaction between gender and career stages. The MANOVAs and ANOVAs results revealed that motivations and perceptions about teaching follow a similar trend across gender and career stages.

With respect to the interaction between gender and career stages, the female of final-year pre-service teachers and in-service teachers scored highly on shape future of children, teaching ability, intrinsic values and social influences factors with lower levels of fallback career from taking up teaching as a career over all their career stages than male teachers.

In terms of their perception about teaching, females in all groups of their career stages perceive teaching as a highly demanding job and requires high levels of expertise than male groups. These results demonstrate two things. First, it may reinforce the notion that teaching is a preferred choice for women which suits their nature. Second, the stability of motives with the high levels of intrinsic-altruistic factors across the three career stages of the female sample gives an indication that they have a more self-reported commitment to the teaching profession than

their male counterparts.

Regarding the interpretations about the differences in motivations and perceptions about the teaching career across the sub-groups of pre-service teachers and those who were in-service, several statistically significant differences were discovered between final-year pre-service teachers and in-service teachers, while motivations and perceptions did not differ significantly among the two pre-service groups. The reason behind the absence of any significant differences among the two pre-service groups may be attributed to the short time of the training course (including teaching practicum) they receive during their education programme. This short period may not allow “these motivational expectations are tested out and reassessed” (Sinclair, 2008, p. 98). Another possible explanation for these results may be the modest impact of students’ preparation course, which is unable to bridge the gap between theory and practice. These findings support Roness’s study (2011) who reported a limited impact of initial teacher coursework for teachers’ practice, especially when the course is less relevant to the reality of teaching. However, exposing more practical teaching experiences in an earlier time of the teaching course could be beneficial to pre-service teachers in coping with the nature of teaching work. Also, it could reduce the reality shock that could face them in a later time of their professional choice to become teachers (Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007).

Despite the in-service teachers generally rating altruistic and intrinsic motivations higher than pre-service teachers, the final-year group showed higher intrinsic values and ability to teach (though not statistically significant) than their counterparts in the first-year. This result may be explained by the fact that new entrants are still at the beginning of their coursework and have not involved in practical teaching experiences yet compared to the prospective teacher whose initial motivations become more stable and maintained after spending almost four years of their

education course (Razzaque, 2013). It can be said that This finding is in agreement with Leech et al. (2015) findings, which showed that pre-service and in-service teachers (more involving in teaching) rated the majority of the FIT-Choice sub-factors higher than high school students (less involving in teaching).

Again, the trend across teachers' groups remained consistently. That is, social utility values and job security were factors most strongly emphasised among the in-service teachers than first- or final-year pre-service teachers. This is supported by qualitative data; as presented in Section 6.10.2, seven interviewees reported their desire to teach for making a social contribution, while some teachers expressed their love in working with children. In addition to this, four responses cited salary as a considered factor when they chose to teach as a career. Also, it worth noting that in-service teachers highly rated their ability to teach compared to other pre-service groups with a large effect size. The intensive teaching experiences for those who are in-service may have strengthened their teaching capabilities and earned them high levels of confidence in their own abilities to teach. Consequently, it made sense that post hoc interpretation on perception of the teaching profession showed higher levels of satisfaction with the choice for in-service teachers group in comparison with the two groups of pre-service. The quantitative data are in line with the qualitative results; four of six new teachers responded positively when asked about their satisfaction with their career choice. These findings might conform to the Huberman's classification of the career developmental stages (Huberman, 1993), which describes the current career development of those beginning teachers as a "stabilisation stage" (since the majority of in-service teachers in the current study had five years of teaching experience), which means teachers during this phase tend to display a feeling of comfort, commitment, and satisfaction with the teaching job.

At the same time, the teachers scored high levels for perceiving teaching as a difficult and stressful, requiring more expertise representing a large effect size, while pre-service teachers' groups rated task demand lower. The qualitative data suggested that heavy workload, increasing administrative decisions or tasks assigned to the teacher, and the lack of parental engagement in following their children's progress, along with students' misbehaviour were negative factors attached to the teaching profession. These factors may relatively explain the high perception of teaching profession as a stressful job, especially if we know that the Saudi educational system is designed not to allow teachers to receive extra promotions or benefits regarding their additional workload. Although several studies have confirmed a reverse correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and stress at work (Al-Tayyar, 2014; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Kyriacou, 1987; Powell et al., 2008), in-service teachers showed a high level of satisfaction with the choice of a teaching career. This finding can corroborate the ideas of Watt et al. (2012) who state that "the increasing demand features of teaching do not deter, and may, in fact, act as incentives to choosing teaching as a career for individuals who seek to develop expertise in challenging environments" (p.11). Nevertheless, even those people who see teaching as a worthwhile with strong desire to make a social contribution, if they are surrounded by challenging working environments with the absence of supports from school community are likely to impact their enthusiasm, commitment and experience lowered professional satisfaction (Richardson & Watt, 2016).

In the context of Saudi Arabia, this finding supports previous researches of Shoaib (2004) and Al-Tayyar (2014) who found that altruistic factors have an important influence on in-service teachers' motivation to pursue teaching as a career, and correlated positively to their job satisfaction, while salary in Al-Tayyar's study had a moderately positive influence on the

teachers' motivation. In contrast, Shoaib reported salary as a factor did not not significantly influential factor on teachers' motivation. The earlier findings, however, did not provide comparative results across teachers' career stages. The researcher has been unable to identify a local study that taking into account the motivational differences according to career stages for teachers.

7.9 Motivation Factors Associated with Teaching Commitment

This section provides a discussion of the fourth research question (Which motivating factors are the most related/associated with commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia?)

The importance of this investigation lies in the fact that the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia is the student's choice in many universities. Despite that KSA does not have a serious problem in teachers shortage, it is necessary to ensure that entrants to profession do have the right motives to be more committed in their new job. This will lead to better quality in the education learning outcome (Bakar et al., 2014). Quality of education cannot be attained without assuring quality of teachers who should be motivated, enthusiastic, and committed to the teaching profession (Heinz, 2015). Jalongo and Heider (2006) pointed out that the high attrition rates for new teachers are associated with low levels of commitment to their profession. similarly, Klassen and Chiu (2011) found that occupational commitment was directly influenced by teaching stress and intention to leave their profession. Therefore, the quality of teacher is one of the primary goal for Saudi Vision 2030 which contended that teacher as the key driver of educational outcomes.

The question was addressed by using Pearson correlation coefficient and stepwise regression analysis to identify the best factors that are linked to teaching commitment (occupational commitment) for pre-service teachers. On the higher-order factors, the findings

indicated that pre-service teachers' commitment toward teaching profession was strongly related to social utility values (Section 5.11.1; Tables 5.24-5.27). In terms of first-order factors, intrinsic career value was the strongest contributor followed by social contribution, shaping the future for children and working with children. Also, correlation coefficient indicated a strong relation between ability to teach and occupational commitment.

In contrast, fallback career showed a reverse relation with commitment to teach. This result is consistent with previous researches' findings observed in the USA (Kissau et al., 2019), Oman (Klassen et al., 2011), China (Su et al., 2001), and Malawi (Mtika & Gates, 2011) which indicated that low levels in teaching commitment were linked to the choice of teaching as a "backup job".

These findings of the current study support the previous research of Watt and Richardson (2007, 2008b, and 2016) that people with intrinsic and altruistic motivations for choosing teaching as a career are more willing to be more committed and persist longer in the profession. In contrast, choosing teaching as a fallback career predicts lower levels of commitment and persisting in teaching. Similarly, in more recent Chinese study, An et al. (2020) found that subjective values (i.e., intrinsic career value) was the strongest predictor for career choice satisfaction among pre-service teachers. The study's results have also strengthened the recent findings of Kissau et al. (2019) who reported that less committed teacher candidates expressed less interest to teach since they have chosen teaching as a fallback career.

Results of regression on perceptions factors suggest that satisfaction with the choice is the only significant factor, which is strongly related to occupational commitment, while social dissuasion (as an external motive) has a significant negative relationship.

Prior studies have shown that the positive consequences of job satisfaction and

professional commitment for individuals' intention are to stay longer in the career (Akhtar et al., 2010; Bakar et al., 2014; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Bruinsma & Jansen, 2010; Chan et al., 2008; Richardson & Watt, 2016). For example, Sargent and Hannum (2005) in their study on a sample of 1,003 Chinese teachers found that highly satisfied teachers had a high level of commitment and motivation to teach. Similarly, Bruinsma and Jansen (2010) studied the motivations of 198 pre-service teachers for choosing teaching as a career and their intentions to remain in the profession in the Netherlands. The findings showed that individuals who had more intrinsic motives to teach expressed higher satisfaction and demonstrated a long-lasting and effective commitment to the profession.

Despite the fact that extrinsic reasons like salary / job security have been given a priority in the current study, the regression findings did not show significant relation between extrinsic motivations and teachers' occupational commitment.

It can thus be suggested that intrinsic-altruistic reasons are more relevant to the teaching commitment than the external ones (Heinz, 2015). It is also notable that intrinsic-altruistic motivations are directly linked to the levels of teaching commitment in the contexts of some developed countries (Kissau et al., 2019), which differ to the context in the current study (as a developing country). This gives an indication that each specific socio-cultural context has an important role in shaping individual motivations toward teaching commitment. The study also shed light on factors that are deterring individuals to be more committed to their profession. Factors such as social dissuasion and fallback career appeared to have a negative effect on teachers' occupational commitment and satisfaction with their choice as suggested in Watt and Richardson's (2007) study.

Regarding studies within the Saudi context, no prior research appears to have examined

the motivational factors to teach and its association with occupational commitment as well as satisfaction with career choice.

7.10 Differentiated Motivations by Teachers' Career Stages

Although there was not a determining motivational profile between groups based on professional experience, the qualitative data showed that themes related to extrinsic motivators were salient among early- and late-career teachers. In contrast, altruistic motivations seemed critical factors for those teachers who were in a mid-stage of their career experience.

In consistent with the quantitative data, almost three-quarters of the sample expressed an overall satisfaction about their decisions to teach. In contrast, dissatisfaction with the choice of teaching as a career was reported by only four teachers in various teaching stages, whose their motivations were mainly linked with extrinsic factors (e.g., fallback career, salary, long holiday, suitable for women).

Specifically, four of total six teachers in their early years focused on the extrinsic and personal type of reasons when chose teaching as a career (e.g. salary, long holidays, job expectations, suitable career for women and religion factor). Besides, three teachers considered teaching as a fallback option. Only one teacher cited making a social contribution as a reason for becoming a teacher, while the remaining one expressed confidence in his ability and to continue teaching through meaningful engagement with the loved subject.

In contrast, altruistic motivations for entering the teaching profession were more nominated by the interviewees who stayed longer in the profession. Of the six total mid-career teachers, five had reported that they being motivated by altruistic values such as make a social contribution and enjoying being with children. Additionally, other factors were mentioned by these teachers, alongside altruistic motives, four of those were also attracted to the profession by

extrinsic reasons such as salary and religious aspect (e.g. seeking reward from Allah). Only two teachers mentioned intrinsic reasons for becoming teachers such as the love of a specific subject and the ability to teach.

In respect to the cohort of teachers with more than 21 years of experience, responses reflected similar trends as their counterparts at the early stage of the teaching. Two of total four teachers in late-stage career chose teaching as a fallback career. One of these was a female teacher, who attributed her decision to the limited career choices for women, while another one found himself involved in teaching because he was interested in a specific subject area. However, he expressed his satisfaction with the choice after experiencing teaching practice. In addition, a desire to impart knowledge based on prior learning experience, the enjoyment of working with children and seeking reward from Allah appeared to be important factors for another late-career teacher, while only one mentioned that she found her passion in teaching as well as she indicated it was a suitable for her as a woman.

It can be noticed from the previous results that the satisfaction with the choice was not significantly associated with certain motivations across the three professional phases of teaching. Moreover, the change in teachers' motivation level based on different stages of teaching was also not visible. Simply put, these findings, in general, reflected the similar trend found in the overall sample.

Despite that the small number of the qualitative sample can be one source of weakness in this study, which in turn could affect the interpretation of the related results, the salient of external motivations linked with early- and late-career teachers may reflect the high rate of attritions in these two professional stages of teaching. (Guarino et al., 2006; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007). According to Watt and Richardson (2007), teachers who are

motivated by external factors are less likely to persist and satisfied with their choice of teaching. In addition to this, although Huberman (1993) described teachers in late-career stages as having a greater sense of confidence and self-acceptance, age-related work can negatively impact the motivation and commitment toward the profession (Peeters et al., 2008). Consequently, the age factor may ultimately lead those late-career teachers to leave the profession (Rones, 2011).

What can be clearly seen in this discussion is the high rate of job satisfaction of the overall sample, despite the dramatic decrease in the level of motivation to teach across respondents. It is not surprising that teaching in the 21st century is considered to be one of the most stressful professions. As a result of this, 14 teachers from different career stages expressed their intention of switching to another profession if the opportunity arises.

However, some respondents indicated some factors that reduce teaching's stress. Sense of responsibility, the school community, and seeing children's progress and achievements were the most important boosted factors keeping teachers are committed to their profession.

7.11 Summary

This chapter has systematically discussed the outcome of this mixed study by integrating the quantitative and qualitative findings presented in Chapters Five and Six, according to research questions. This study is considered the first of its kind to use and apply the FIT-Choice scale in the Saudi context, and it has provided a contribution to the existing literature by addressing the motivations behind choosing the teaching profession. In addition, it enhanced the validation of the FIT-Choice theoretical framework from a contrasting educational setting.

Both pre-service and in-service teachers, in this study, were found generally to be satisfied with their choice of teaching. The findings highlighted the significant influence of social utility values and job security/salary, prior teaching and learning experiences and

perceived teaching ability on participants' decision to choose a teaching career. Adding to this, the two culturally specific factors (religion, and a career that socially acceptable for the woman) were influential factors for Saudis choice to become teachers. However, despite the participating teachers were relatively highly satisfied with their professional choice, they perceived teaching as a highly skilled and demanding career, which is involving heavy workload and expertise.

Although the motivation of intrinsic career value was not among the highest rated factors, the correlation coefficient showed this motive as the strongest factor related to the satisfaction with the choice. Gender factor was part of the focus of this study, although trends in motivations and perceptions remained the same across gender, female participants experienced more social utility values than male counterparts, while male attached greater weight to the extrinsic motives. This result supported the common view that teaching is more fit to the nature of women.

An additional focus of this study was investigating the motivations difference between pre-service groups (including the two sub-groups) and the in-service group of teachers. Motivational trends are similar to that in the overall sample. Nevertheless, in-service teachers highly rated altruistic\intrinsic and job security factors and expressed more confidence about their ability to teach than pre-service teachers' groups. Similarly, factors of expertise in teaching and career difficulty were rated highest among the in-service group. This finding, therefore, emphasizes the need for a well-planned teacher training program that involves enhancing teachers' motivation and realistic perception towards their career choice.

Exploring the motivations to teach through different teachers' professional stages was also part of the focus of this study. Qualitative data showed that extrinsic motivations associated with the choice of teaching were salient in those teachers who were in early and late-career stages. In

contrast, the altruistic motivations were more valued at mid-career teachers. However, despite the varied motives behind the choice of teaching profession, the overall satisfaction with the profession was high across career stages.

Finally, with regard to occupational commitment, the findings demonstrated the importance of social utility values (shape future of children, work with children and make social contribution) and intrinsic career value and in its strongly relation to occupational commitment among pre-service sample. This means that these aforementioned motivational factors could be good predictors to commitment to teaching, especially for pre-service teachers who hold these reasons to become teachers. In contrast, choosing teaching as a fallback career showed a negative relation with commitment to teach.

The next chapter discusses implications of the present study and suggestions to the policy maker in Saudi Arabia for improving the quality of education through attracting and retaining the most qualified teachers. Finally, limitations of this study are presented.

Chapter Eight: Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1 Summary of the Study

The current study was conducted at a time when educational institutions in many developed and developing countries were facing massive teacher shortages. Additionally, this shortfall was not only a shortfall in numbers of teachers, but also in the quality of teaching (UIS, 2013, 2016). By reviewing the relevant literature, the researcher found that the motivations behind the choice of teaching as a profession are one of the main issues associated with teacher retention, recruitment and long-term commitment in the profession. However, among the many published studies exploring the reasons for choosing teaching as a career and the perceptions about teaching, most have been conducted in developed countries, while there are still a limited number of studies in developing countries, including Saudi Arabia. Hence, this study emerged in order to bridge this gap in the literature on teacher motivation, adding a new social context related to developing countries.

In doing so, the comprehensive motivational framework of Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice) was adopted in the current study (Watt & Richardson, 2007). This theoretical framework and its related instrument provide researchers with an in-depth understanding of what motivates individuals to choose a teaching career. In this case, it also served to explore the differences between subgroups in the study. Moreover, in order to understand how some motives are related to teachers' commitment to teach, occupational commitment was measured through the validated scale developed by Hackett et al.(2001). Klassen and Chiu (2011) reviewed and adapted the scale to be valid for the teaching profession. Therefore, the researcher utilised the modified scale, according to Klassen and Chiu's work.

This study was an effort to explore these issues within a contrasting educational and cultural context. Unlike many countries that do not have enough teachers, the educational system in Saudi Arabia does not suffer from a severe shortage of teachers, especially in primary education. However, it is concerned more with attracting and fostering high quality and performance among teachers in the context of the government's Vision 2030, one of the aims of which is to improve the quality of education outcomes.

The present study employed a mixed-methods approach (quantitative and qualitative). The specific research questions addressed were:

- 1) What are the motivations of pre-service and in-service teachers for choosing the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 2) Is there a difference between males and females (in general) regarding their motivations for selecting teaching as a profession in Saudi Arabia?
- 3) How do pre-service and in-service teachers' motivations and perceptions vary (or not vary at all) for choosing teaching as a career in the Saudi setting?
- 4) Which motivating factors are the most related/associated with commitment to teaching among pre-service teachers in Saudi Arabia?
- 5) What are the motivating factors that influence in-service teachers' decisions to pursue a career in teaching?
 - a) What are the in-service teachers' perceptions about their teaching career?
 - b) Do the motivations to teach and perceptions change at different stages of teachers' professional development?

A concurrent mixed method was utilised in this study with greater emphasis on the quantitative data. The first four questions were addressed by the questionnaire (FIT-Choice and

occupational commitment scales), while the last question was answered qualitatively through the semi-structured interviews. A total of 793 participants responded to the questionnaire, whereas 16 teachers were engaged in face-to-face interviews.

8.2 Summary of the Key Findings

This section presents a summary of the key findings of this study. One of the significant outcomes drawn from the qualitative and quantitative data was defining the motivational profile that influenced the participants' decision to become teachers, using mainly the FIT-Choice theoretical framework and scale. The motivations and perceptions structure of the original FIT-Choice seems to function well in the Saudi context. Nevertheless, the factors of fallback career and social dissuasion need further fine-tuning.

Unlike the findings of Watt and Richardson (2007), the participants in this study placed an emphasis on altruistic and extrinsic motivations: social utility values, job security/salary, and prior positive teaching and learning experiences, followed by perceived teaching ability. However, choosing teaching as a fallback career was the lowest rated factor among the participants. The interview data indicated that the culturally relevant factors (i.e., religion and teaching as a preferable choice for women) were additional motives for choosing this profession. In terms of perceptions about teaching, teachers in the present study expressed relatively high satisfaction with their job. However, at the same time, they perceived teaching as highly demanding and a profession that requires high levels of expertise, with low social status.

The majority of motivation factors showed significant correlations with satisfaction with the teaching choice. However, the strongest correlation of satisfaction with choice was observed with intrinsic career value, teaching ability, and social utility values (i.e., making a social

contribution, enhancing social equity and working with children). Occupational commitment was strongly correlated with satisfaction with the choice of teaching. In addition, the study highlights that teaching as a fallback career and the social dissuasion factors can negatively affect job satisfaction and commitment to teach.

In terms of gender differences, trends in motivations remained the same across the two groups. However, there existed variations in the level of scoring on each motivational factor. Males gave priority to extrinsic motivations (i.e., job security and prior teaching and learning experience), while females gave greater weight to social utility values. Moreover, females were more satisfied and committed to their career than males. Although intrinsic career value was a non-significant factor across both genders, it was proven to be the strongest positively related factor to satisfaction with the choice of teaching. This finding indicates the significant impact of intrinsic motivation on job satisfaction (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

In addition, evidence from this study suggests that in-service teachers valued social utility factors and job security more than pre-service teachers. They also expressed higher levels of ability to teach, which could be as a result of engaging in actual teaching practice. The findings did not show any significant differences between first- and final-year pre-service teachers. This raises doubts about the impact of the teacher education programme on enhancing students' motivation to teach. Despite the increasing workloads assigned to in-service teachers (as also confirmed in the interviews), they expressed more satisfaction with their career choice than the pre-service groups.

Based on the analysis of the Pearson correlation coefficient and the stepwise regression, the evidence suggests that specific types of motivations were significantly related to commitment to teach. The intrinsic value motivation (followed by social utility values) was a key factor

contributing to occupational commitment among pre-service teachers. Additionally, the ability to teach was strongly correlated with the commitment factor, while fallback career and social dissuasion showed a reverse relationship with the commitment to teach.

The interviews did not show a significant pattern of motivations to teach varying with the different career stages of teachers (i.e., early, mid, and late career). Despite this, extrinsic motivators were somewhat salient among early- and late-career teachers, while altruistic motivations were more observed among mid-career teachers. The high rate of attrition, particularly within early- and late-career teachers, may be attributed to their pattern of motivations (Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007).

Finally, the variation between these findings and those of studies on motivations for and perceptions of choosing teaching as a career published in the literature can be partly justified by this conceptual complexity, variations in definitions and measurements, the type of methodology employed and the size of the samples. In addition, differences were caused by other potentially relevant factors such as culturally relevant values across different contexts.

8.3 Revisiting the Aims

This research aimed to examine a range of general motivational factors contributing to teacher career choices in Saudi Arabia. It also investigated whether there are differences in the motivations for becoming a teacher between male and female students, and between in-service and pre-service teacher. In addition to this, the study sought to exploring the impact of these motivations on the occupational commitment to teaching. The quantitative approach was employed to address the aforementioned objectives using the FIT-Choice model as the main

theoretical framework. The results emphasised the important role of motivations when choosing teaching as a career. As noted in the previous section, there was a consistent trend between groups and overall samples in motivations and perception toward the teaching profession. The fifth objective of this study was addressed qualitatively, which aimed to explore in-service teachers' motivations to teach and whether there are variations in motivations between in-service teachers at different stages of teaching experience. Sixteen in-service teachers were face-to-face interviewed. There were no significant differences in motivations and perceptions found according to years of experiences among in-service teachers. Due to its importance, the finding of this study will be delivered to policymakers and Ministry of Education leaders in order to improve education courses that take into account those motivational factors, which prompt teachers to commit to the teaching profession.

8.4 Limitations

Although the present study has addressed important issues and aspects that have not been previously investigated in the literature, especially in Saudi Arabia, it has some limitations, which should be acknowledged.

Similar to other scientific studies, the current study has three major limitations. The first one is related to geographical limitation. It would be difficult to apply the results of this study to the population of the entire country. The geography of Saudi Arabia is diverse and involves long distances between regions and cities, which made it impossible for the researcher to cover all the areas in the limited time of three months provided for the field study. Consequently, there was a need to restrict the study to a single area (Al-ahsa). The selected sample was large enough and well-representative of this target city, but this restriction may lead to threats of external validity,

which affect the ability to generalise the results to a different population or situation (Creswell, 2009). Notwithstanding, the findings may be validly generalised to other similar Saudi cities, due to the centralised and united educational system of the MoE. In other words, the characteristics of the teaching profession are likely to be the same across the kingdom to a large extent.

In terms of methodological issues, the first limitation of the current study is related to missing data, an issue that was addressed in Chapter Five. Missing data may result when individuals skip some questions or refuse to answer a sensitive question (Creswell, 2012). When collecting the quantitative data through the online questionnaire, 201 in-service teachers failed to provide so much data that their questionnaires could not be used for the analysis. Seeking to analysis and produce valid data, *The Listwise deletion technique was applied* to discard these cases with missing values. Considering the large number of participants engaged in the current study, the removed values did not reduce the representativeness of the sample. However, to reduce biased estimates for these discarded cases, descriptive analyse was applied to the remaining data presented by those cases and this was discussed in Section 5.3, Table 5.1.

The second methodological limitation concerns the triangulation issue. Although triangulation emphasises the use of multiple resources from the same data within the same sample, the current study has implemented the mixed method technique at the level of interpretation with two different samples. Despite this, Bryman (2012) contended that triangulation could take other forms, including collecting data from different types of samples in different contexts at different times.

Thirdly, there was a limitation caused by cultural and religious factors. Despite the fact that it is difficult to interview a sample of female teachers in Saudi Arabia due to the aforementioned reasons (i.e., cultural and religious restrictions), the researcher was determined

to include a group of women in the current study to obtain in-depth information about the issues affecting the choice of teaching from female teachers' point of view. Nevertheless, after several attempts through the local educational administration, it proved impossible to interview female teachers face to face. Alternatively, the researcher proposed to conduct the interviews through his sister, who had completed a Master's degree in Education Management.

Thus, a compromise was agreed. However, it should be acknowledged that this may result in some methodological issues, such as gender bias or the interview sessions not being conducted as planned. To reduce data bias with female interviews, the interviewer was trained to conduct interviews in light of the given questions. In addition to this, she was requested to record the sessions so that they could be reviewed by the researcher himself. By doing this, the researcher ensured the validity of the participants' answers and minimised the potential impact of bias with female teachers.

Also, it should be acknowledged that the majority of quantitative participants (85.7%) had five years of experience in teaching. This number might contain teachers with more than five years' experience as the questionnaire was designed to target teachers with five years' experience as maximum. On the other hand, it may be noted that teachers for 3 to 12 years of experience were not included in the interview sample, noting the importance of this phase of teachers' careers. The first reason to clarify this gap in the sample that teachers were chosen according to Huberman's teachers' life cycle, which classified teachers' development based on years of experience (i.e., novice, mid, and late-career teachers). The second reason attributed to the similarities of the first ten years of teachers in the Saudi context. Unlike teachers in the UK that teachers after several years of experience may leave the classroom for leadership roles,

However, these positions are more likely to be available for teachers with more professional experiences.

Finally, possible biases might exist in participants' responses because participants may be inclined to provide answers they think the researcher is looking for or they might engage in social desirability reporting (SDR). To address this issue, the researcher used anonymous questionnaires to encourage participants to provide more open and honest responses. In addition, using a combination of methods to collect data is one way to minimise the risk of this bias occurring (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2012).

8.5 Implications and Recommendations

Following the findings of the current study, several implications can be drawn that may be valuable to international and local researchers, policy-makers and educators in Saudi Arabia. These implications are presented below.

The first implication is for researchers worldwide. Applying an existing theory for measuring motivations and perceptions concerning the choice of teaching as a career will contribute to international comparisons with different contexts. As previously mentioned, the majority of previous studies examined the FIT-Choice scale in developed countries, while limited studies have been carried out in developing countries. Hence, exploring the factors that influence the teaching choice in a Saudi setting has provided findings from a contrasting educational context to that of the FIT-Choice project (Watt & Richardson, 2007). In addition to this, there is little information about teaching motivation in a context characterised by teacher surplus like Saudi Arabia, particularly in some subject fields. However, the results are fairly similar to those reported in Turkey, which is also facing a teacher surplus, while the results are

slightly different (but not very) from countries suffering from a teacher shortage crisis. The findings of this study reflect the complexity and multidimensionality of motivations to choose teaching as a career, rather than relying on a specific type of motivational patterns. Moreover, the study shows the influence of sociocultural context on individuals' professional motivations. This research will therefore extend our understanding of teacher motivation by using quantitative and qualitative approaches drawn from the FIT-Choice framework. The findings from the current study will help to fill the knowledge gap in the developing and collectivist country context.

Second, this study has some implications for educators, particularly those who are in-service. Saudi teachers' rate of job dissatisfaction is influenced by some extrinsic factors related to work conditions. It was clear from the quantitative data and the interviews findings that teachers perceived teaching as a highly demanding career. The frequent MoE decisions and circulars created additional administrative responsibilities for teachers, along with the teaching itself. The interviews found that some teachers described these circulars issued by the educational authority as being "against them". However, several researchers have reported the negative impact of high levels of stress on teachers' motivation and commitment, and the length of time they stay in teaching (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Wilhelm et al., 2000). Therefore, it is recommended that policy-makers reconsider the workload assigned to teachers and reduce the amount of unnecessary administrative paperwork they have to do. In addition, the MoE should promote collective responsibility. In other words, teachers are not the only ones responsible for this mission; all members of society should take on the responsibility of educating the next generation.

At the same time, the study recommends that educational institutions should enhance their students' ability to teach, in order to enable the students to confront the increasing work

pressure that they face in schools. This could be achieved by providing more practicum experiences in teacher education courses.

Third, the current study provides an initial impression of what influences the decision to teach in the Saudi setting and it explores the influence of social and cultural contexts on how teaching students develop their motivations and how that relates to teachers' quality of life in the workplace. An examination of the current data in terms of motivations and perceptions about teaching across male, female, pre-service and in-service groups reflects similar trends among them all. Although the study shows that social utility values and some extrinsic factors such as job security and salary draw individuals into the teaching profession, intrinsic motivations and perceived teaching ability are most closely related to occupational commitment and satisfaction with the choice of teaching as a career. On the other hand, the factors of making a social contribution, enhancing social equity, and working with children possess the second strongest correlation. Based on the previous results, it can be seen that teachers have multiple motivations for choosing teaching as a career. Therefore, in order to attract talented and motivated people into the teaching profession, it is important for policy-makers, especially at the higher education level, to ensure that a combination of intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic motivations is considered when designing teacher education courses (both coursework and practicum). This would help with the recruitment, education and retention of a wide range of individuals who have a strong desire and motivation to be teachers, as Sinclair (2008) argues:

If higher education providers (or employers) wish to attract student teachers to initial teacher education (and then to the teaching profession), it may be of value to appeal to the range of factors that attracted them to teaching as a profession (i.e., their initial or entry "motivations to teach") and so maximise the attractiveness of those courses and the career. Appealing to only one motivator, even remuneration, may not be a useful strategy

whereas a multifaceted approach targeting a desire to work with children (students) and to be a great teacher, as well as the more usual extrinsic rewards and benefits of teaching, may be more successful.

Sinclair's recommendation is valuable for educators and those in charge of reforming policies at higher education level, as it highlights the importance of considering different types of motivations associated with different types of candidates. In other words, it should be ensured that future teachers are given a better opportunity to enjoy working with children and to contribute to creating the children's future, along with ensuring their financial security and increasing their ability to teach under an unexpected heavy workload. This should contribute to a growing professional consensus on what draws people into the teaching profession and it should limit the attrition rate of teachers, particularly in the first years of their professional lives.

8.5.1 Status of Teachers in Society

Although the participants who took part in the questionnaire perceived teaching as having a moderate level of social status, in-service teachers in the interviews reported a high level of dissatisfaction with their social status in Saudi society. With the absence of a teachers' union that defends their rights and interests, the mass media has played a significant role in projecting misleading perceptions of teacher status and focusing on individual problems, thus harming their collective social status in society. Teachers are also criticised by other government employees for receiving more advantages than their counterparts, such as a good salary and long holidays. Therefore, it is recommended that that the Ministry of Education and relevant media organisations (e.g., social media, TV, newspapers, etc.) collaborate to establish awareness campaigns to enhance the position of teachers in society and correct the negative stereotype of

their work in schools. The study also recommends that educational policy-makers should work on regulating a union that includes all teachers. This would be useful in defending teachers' rights and interests and achieving quality standards in the profession. This will also help to restore the social position of the teaching profession and its members to its previous state, as well as raising the awareness of teachers' roles and the everyday challenges they face in the school environment. The high social status of the teaching profession will be reflected in teachers' psychological well-being and their commitment to the profession.

8.6 Suggestions for Further Study

The present thesis investigated the factors influencing teaching choice and their association with occupational commitment in Saudi Arabia. The findings are important as they serve as the basis for preparing prospective teachers in the related context. The data of the current study are based on a cross-sectional study. Nevertheless, it would be useful to carry out a longitudinal study in order to follow up the motivations and perceptions (including satisfaction with the choice of teaching) of prospective teachers at various levels of their degree course as well as after graduation. This methodology would be useful as it could be used to explore any longitudinal changes in teachers' motivation and to determine what motivational patterns can predict important outcomes such as professional commitment, effectiveness and engagement.

Further studies could give greater weight to qualitative assessments in order to explore in depth the related factors that influence the choice of teaching, particularly sociocultural factors, which cannot be covered through the FIT-Choice model. In addition, as the current study was limited geographically to the city of Al-ahsa, further research might try to replicate this study in other regions and cities of Saudi Arabia in order to test the consistency of the scale's

performance across different samples and places in the kingdom. Although the study contributed to the evidence concerning the validity and reliability of the FIT-Choice scale from a contrasting viewpoint, set within the Arabic context, future studies may also want to revise the variables of social dissuasion and fallback career due to the low reliabilities for these constructs. In spite of this, the findings support the potential use of the model adopted in the present study in other countries, especially in the context of developing countries with collectivist societies.

Appendices

Appendix A: **Information and Informed Consent letters for Questionnaire and Interviews**

Appendix B: **Questionnaire Covering Letter**

Appendix C: **Interview schedule**

Appendix D: **Access Letters Related to the Fieldwork in Saudi Arabia**

Appendix E: **Table of Correlation Coefficients between all Factors (Components), Including Motivations, Perceptions Factors and Occupational Commitment.**

Appendix F: **Ethical Approval**

Appendix A: Information and Informed Consent letters for Questionnaire and Interviews



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Research title: An Investigation of Teachers' Motivations for Entering the Teaching Profession in Saudi Arabia

Name of researcher: Mazen Almulla

Dear Teacher/Student

I am honored to invite you to take part in my research study. Before you decide I would like you to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. However, you can ask me if there is anything that is not clear. Thank you for reading this.

What is the purpose of this research?

I am currently carrying out a research project aims to identify the motivational factors that influence teachers to choose teaching as career and their commitment to teach in Saudi Arabia. You have been chosen to be involved in this study whether you are a male or female studying at King Faisal university at the beginning (year1) or at the end of your study (year4) as well as practicing teachers who are just involving into teaching career. Specifically; the primary target sample of this study is roughly 600 volunteer of both male and female students and new teachers.

The online questionnaire will be contained questions which determine pre-service and teachers' motivations for choosing teaching profession including perception, ability and commitment to teach in order to make recommendations for policy-makers and ministry of education leaders for the design of better teacher education courses that take into account those motivational factors which prompt teachers to consider teaching as a career. The questionnaire should not take more than 30 minutes to fill out. If you are in-service teachers, and decide to take part in a face-to-face interview, you will be asked to provide information regarding factors influence your choice to become a teacher and your perception towards it. In addition, participants who complete this survey will have a chance to be entered into a prize draw to win a 20 £ voucher. For this reason, you will be asked to provide your email address, and you are free to skip this question.

Anonymity: The data that you provide will be stored by code number. Email will be kept separately from the main database, and will not be associated to your responses. Your name and school would not be used throughout any stage of this research, or be represented in the findings of the study.

Storing and using your data: Data will be preserved in strictest confidence. All obtained data will be stored in a password protected computer and locked cabinet. The data will be kept for approximately 5 years after which point it will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes, but participants will not be identified individually. Participation in this study is voluntary which means you are free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection. Once the questionnaire is submitted the data cannot be withdrawn as it is anonymous so there will be no way to identify your data

Potential risk of participation: The study should not involve any risks as participating in this research.

I hope that you will agree to be involved in this study. However, your contribution in taking part will be of great benefit in exploring factors related to pre-service teachers' motivation for choosing teaching and to what extent these factors associated with commitment to teach in Saudi Arabia.

Persons to contact in case of questions:

This research has been approved by the Department of Education, University of York Ethics Committee. If you have any questions or enquires about this research If you have any concern please contact either myself or my supervisor;

Mazen Almulla

Email: moaa503@york.ac.uk

Prof. Robert Klassen

Email: robert.klassen@york.ac.uk

The University of York

Department of Education

United Kingdom

or Chair of the Ethics Committee: education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

CONSENT FORM FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Research title: An Investigation of Teachers' Motivations for Entering the Teaching Profession in Saudi Arabia

Name of researcher: Mazen Almulla

Please initial each box (or tick mark) if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate pre-service teachers' motivation for become teachers and commitment to teach in Saudi Arabia.

I understand that data will be stored securely on a password protected computer and only the researcher will have access to any identifiable data. I understand that my identity will be protected by use of a random ID code.

I understand that my data will not be identifiable and the data may be used:

in publications that are mainly read by university academics

in presentations that are mainly attended by university academics

in publications that are mainly read by the teachers and educators

in presentations that are mainly attended by the teachers and educators

freely available online

I understand that data will be kept for the research purpose and after that it will be destroyed.

I understand that data will be kept for five years after which it will be destroyed.

CONSENT FORM FOR RECORDING THE INTERVIEW

Research title: An Investigation of Teachers' Motivations for Entering the Teaching Profession in Saudi Arabia

Researcher: Mazen Almulla

Dear teacher,

I would like to audio record the interview with you. This is to save time, avoid stopping the interviewees and to complete any necessary notes. This will allow me to document all information that you provide more accurately. As part of our confidentiality agreement, only I will have access to the recordings. The tapes will be transcribed by the researcher (me) and will be erased once the transcription is checked for accuracy.

Please note that your name or any other identifying information will not be linked with the audio recordings or the transcript. Names and voice recordings will not be used in any presentations or written documents resulting from the study. Your agreement to audio record the interview is completely voluntary. You may request to cease the recording at any time or to erase any portion of your audio recording.

By signing this form,

I agree and allow the researcher to record the interview and fully understand that my participation is completely voluntary. I am free to cease the recording at any point or to erase any portion of the audio recording. I also have the right to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to myself.

Participant's Name:

Signed: **Date:**

Researcher

I, the researcher, confirm that I have discussed with the participant the contents of the information sheet.

Signed: **Date:**

INTERVIEW INVITATION

Dear teacher I am currently undertaking research as a requirement to obtain a PhD degree in Education from the University of York in the United Kingdom. As part of this investigation, I need to gather data regarding motivational factors influencing individuals to choose teaching as profession. I would like to invite you to take part in this aspect of data collection by attending a face-to-face interview.

This research is about teachers' motivation and teachers' perception for entering the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia. As part of my investigations I am hoping to gather in-depth data from teachers at different stages of their teaching experiences by talking to them about their work and their perception towards it.

As an educational worker, I am aware of your busy schedule, but your co-operation in taking a part in this interview will be of great help in improving educational system in Saudi Arabia. The interview will not take longer than 50 minutes.

Your responses will be treated in strictest confidence and will not be used for any purpose other than this research. Please note that you will not be asked to indicate your name. Please do not hesitate to contact the researcher if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Please take your time to decide whether or not you wish to participate in this research, then indicate your decision below.

I would like to participate: Yes () No (). If yes, please give details below:

Personal details:

1- Your name..... 2- School name..... 3- Subject taught.....
4- Experience as a teacher (years)

Contact details:

1- Phone number..... 2- Email..... 3- When would you prefer the
researcher to call you to arrange the interview? Day..... Time.....

Thank you for your participation and time

Mazen Almulla (moaa503@york.ac.uk)

Appendix B: Questionnaire Covering Letter

Dear Participant, May Allah Grant you Success.

Peace be upon you,

The researcher is in the process of conducting a study aimed at identifying the motivations of students and teachers towards their choice of teaching as a profession and the extent of their professional commitment to this job in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In order to achieve the goals of this study, this questionnaire has been prepared. It is a part of completing the requirements of the doctoral degree in the field of educational psychology. Your participation is definitely crucial and important to the success of this study. Since you are a King Faisal University student in the College of Education (freshman or senior) or one of the teachers in public schools (you have teaching experience from one to five years), the researcher kindly asks you to participate in this research, which will take you less than 15 minutes. Participation in this research is optional and voluntary, and the participant can withdraw whenever they want without any conditions.

You are required to read each phrase carefully and then choose only one of the available options by putting a (tick) under the appropriate answer that reflects your opinion towards the teaching profession. Remember, dear participant, that the answers depend primarily on your opinion so there are no right or wrong answers. Moreover, I hope you leave no phrase unanswered.

- I would like to point out that your answer to the statements will be treated strictly confidential and will only be used for the purposes of scientific research, so you will notice that you were not asked to write your name on the form. It is also possible to view the results of this study by contacting the researcher.

Questionnaire Instructions:

Part I: general information that contains some personal aspects of the participants in answering this questionnaire.

Part II: It consists of 37 statements in addition to an open question on the factors affecting the choosing the teaching profession.

Part III: It consists of 14 statements about your beliefs about the teaching profession.

Part IV: It consists of six statements about your satisfaction with choosing teaching as a profession.

Part V: It consists of five statements regarding your commitment to the teaching profession (in the future).

- Please make sure that you have completed all the information required in this questionnaire.

Thank you, and I appreciate your cooperation.

For Communication: moaa503@york.ac.uk Researcher / Mazen Omar Al-Mulla

PART One:

Personal Information:

Please tick (☑) within the square / circle appropriate for your answer:

A- Gender:

Male

Female

B- Age:

18-20

21-23

24-26

C- Educational Level:

First-year Student

Final-year Student

In-service teacher

- Please choose the school year you are currently in

First

Fourth

D- Have you applied to another major before joining this Faculty?

Yes

No

What is your current specialization:

Your e-mail (optional)

PART Two:

1- FIT-Choice Scale (Factors Influencing Teaching Choice Scale):

A - Please briefly state your main reason(s) for choosing to become a teacher:

.....

B – INFLUENTIAL FACTORS

For each statement below, please rate how important it was in YOUR decision to become a teacher, from 1 (not at all important in your decision) to 7 (extremely important in your decision).

Please CIRCLE the number that best describes the importance of each.

“I chose to become a teacher because.....”

		not at all important	extremely important
1	I am interested in teaching	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2	My friends think I should become a teacher	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3	As a teacher, I will have lengthy holidays	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4	I have the qualities of a good teacher	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5	Teaching allows me to provide a service to society	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
6	I’ve always wanted to be a teacher	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
7	Teaching may give me the chance to work abroad	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
8	Teaching will allow me to shape child/adolescent values	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
9	I was unsure of what career I wanted	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
10	I like teaching	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
11	I want a job that involves working with children/adolescents	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
12	Teaching will offer a steady career path	1	2 3 4 5 6 7

13	Teaching hours will fit with the responsibilities of having a family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I have had inspirational teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	As a teacher I will have a short working day	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I have good teaching skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Teachers make a worthwhile social contribution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	A teaching qualification is recognised everywhere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Teaching will allow me to influence the next generation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	My family think I should become a teacher	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I want to work in a child/adolescent-centred environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Teaching will provide a reliable income	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	School holiday will fit in with family commitments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	I have had good teachers as role-models	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Teaching enables me to 'give back' to society	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	I was not accepted into my first-choice career	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Teaching will allow me to raise the ambitions of underprivileged youth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I like working with children/adolescents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Teaching will be a secure job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	I have had positive learning experiences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	People I've worked with think I should become a teacher	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Teaching is a career suited to my abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	A teaching job will allow me to choose where I wish to live	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	I chose teaching as a last-resort career	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Teaching will allow me to benefit the socially disadvantaged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	Teaching will allow me to have an impact on children/adolescents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	Teaching will allow me to work against social disadvantage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C – BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING

For each question below, please rate the extent to which **YOU** agree it is true about teaching. from 1 (not at all important in your decision) to 7 (extremely important in your decision).

Please **CIRCLE** the number that best describes the importance of each.

		not at all important	extremely important
1	Do you think teaching is well paid?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Do you think teachers have a heavy workload?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3	Do you think teachers earn a good salary?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4	Do you believe teachers are perceived as professionals?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5	Do you think teachers have high morale?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
6	Do you think teaching is emotionally demanding?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
7	Do you believe teaching is perceived as a high-status occupation?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
8	Do you think teachers feel valued by society?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
9	Do you think teaching requires high levels of expert knowledge?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
10	Do you think teaching is hard work?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
11	Do you believe teaching is a well-respected career?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
12	Do you think teachers feel their occupation has high social status?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
13	Do you think teachers need high levels of technical knowledge?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
14	Do you think teachers need highly specialised knowledge?	1	2 3 4 5 6 7

D – YOUR DECISION TO BECOME A TEACHER

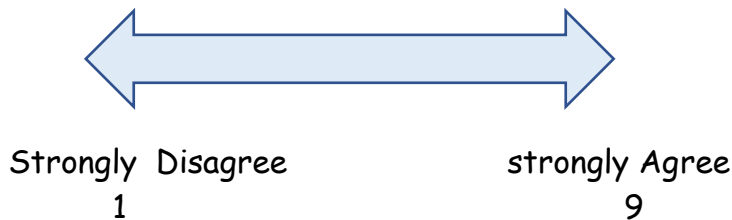
For each question below, please rate the extent to which it is true for **YOU** from 1 (not at all important in your decision) to 7 (extremely important in your decision).

Please **CIRCLE** the number that best describes the importance of each.

		not at all important	extremely important					
1	How carefully have you thought about becoming a teacher?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Were you encouraged to pursue careers other than teaching?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	How satisfied are you with your choice of becoming a teacher?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Did others tell you teaching was not a good career choice?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	How happy are you with your decision to become a teacher?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Did others influence you to consider careers other than teaching?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART Three:

2- Occupational Commitment scale:



Please read the following statements about your feelings at teaching work, and select the response that best applies to you. Circle the number which best indicates your feelings about that statement. To the right of each you will find nine numbers, ranging from "1" (Strongly Disagree) on the left to "9" (Strongly Agree) on the right.

1	If I could get a job different from being a teacher that paid the same, I would take it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	I definitely want a career for myself in teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3	If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to work in the teaching profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	This is the ideal profession for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5	I am disappointed that I ever entered the teaching profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

فإن الباحث بصدد القيام بدراسة تهدف إلى التعرف على دوافع الطلاب والمعلمين نحو اختيارهم لمهنة التدريس ومدى التزامهم المهني تجاه هذه الوظيفة في المملكة العربية السعودية، ولتحقيق أهداف هذه الدراسة، تم إعداد الاستبانة التي بين يديك والتي تعد جزءاً لاستكمال متطلبات درجة الدكتوراه في تخصص علم النفس التربوي، ولا شك بأن مشاركتك أمر حاسم ومهم لنجاح هذه الدراسة، ولكونك أحد طلاب وطالبات جامعة الملك فيصل في كلية التربية وبالتحديد طالب/ة في السنة الأولى أو السنة الرابعة، يرجو الباحث منك التكرم بالمشاركة في هذا البحث والذي لن يستغرق منك أكثر من ١٥ دقيقة، مع العلم بأن المشاركة في هذا البحث اختيارية وتطوعية، كما يستطيع المشارك الانسحاب متى أراد دون أي شروط.

المطلوب منك أخي العزيز/ أختي العزيزة أن تقرأ كل عبارة قراءة متأنية ثم تختار واحداً فقط من الاختيارات المتاحة بوضع علامة (صح) تحت الإجابة المناسبة والتي تعكس رأيك نحو مهنة التدريس وتذكر بأن الإجابات تعتمد بالمقام الأول على رأيك فليس هنالك إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة، كما أمل ألا تترك أي عبارة دون الإجابة عنها حيث أن ذلك سيؤثر بشكل مباشر على نتائج البحث.

- أود الإشارة بأن إجابتك على العبارات ستعامل بسرية تامة ولن تُستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث العلمي. كما أنه بالإمكان الاطلاع على نتائج هذه الدراسة من خلال التواصل مع الباحث

تعليمات الاستبانة:

- الجزء الأول: معلومات عامة تحتوي على بعض الجوانب الشخصية للمشاركين في الإجابة على هذه الاستبانة.
- الجزء الثاني: يتكون من ٣٧ عبارة بالإضافة إلى سؤال مفتوح الإجابة حول العوامل المؤثرة نحو اختيار مهنة التدريس.
- الجزء الثالث: يتكون من ١٤ عبارة عن معتقداتك حول مهنة التدريس.
- الجزء الرابع: يتكون من ست عبارات حول مدى رضاك باختيار التدريس كمهنة.
- الجزء الخامس: يتكون من خمس عبارات في مدى التزامك بمهنة التدريس (مستقبلاً).

- تأكد من فضلك أنك أكملت جميع البيانات المطلوبة في هذه الاستبانة وألا تكون الاختيارات عشوائية لأن ذلك سيؤثر على نتائج البحث بشكل كبير.

الآن اقلب الصفحة لتبدأ بالإجابة على فقرات الاستبيان

شاكر ومقدر لك حسن تعاونك
للتواصل: moaa503@york.co.uk

الباحث/ مازن بن عمر الملا

الجزء الأول:

المعلومات الشخصية:

فضلاً ضع علامة (☑) داخل المربع/ الدائرة المناسب لإجابتك فيما يلي:

أ- الجنس:

ذكر

أنثى

ب- العمر:

٢٦ - ٢٤ ٢٣ - ٢١ ٢٠ - ١٨

ج- المستوى التعليمي:

- الرجاء اختيار السنة الدراسية التي أنت بها حالياً أو ان كنت معلماً في الخدمة/

الأولى

الرابعة

معلم في الخدمة

د- هل تقدمت للقبول في تخصص آخر قبل انضمامك لهذه الكلية؟

لا نعم

هـ - ما هو تخصصك الحالي:

- بريدك الالكتروني (اختياري)

أخي المشارك.. أختي المشاركة: الهدف من هذا الاستبيان هو إعطائك الفرصة لتبدي رأيك بكل مصداقية في الأمور التي تعتقد بأنها دفعتك للتوجه نحو مهنة التدريس. فضلاً اقرأ العبارات بتمعن ثم قيّم أهمية كل عبارة بالنسبة لك وعلى النحو الذي يصف موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك تجاه كل عبارة.

- فضلاً أذكر باختصار السبب الرئيسي الذي دفعك لأن تصبح معلم:

الجزء الثاني: العوامل المؤثرة على اختيار التدريس كمهنة:

- إلى أي مدى أثرت العوامل التالية على اختيارك لمهنة التدريس (كطالب يُتوقع منك أن تشغل هذه الوظيفة مستقبلاً).

ملاحظة: تتدرج خيارات التقييم من (ليس مهماً على الإطلاق) إلى (هام للغاية)، اختيارك مرتبط بمدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك تجاه كل فقرة. يرجى وضع علامة (صح) تحت الاختيار المناسب لك.

رقم العبارة	العبارة	ليس مهماً على الإطلاق	أقل أهمية	مهم إلى حد ما	عادي	متوسط الأهمية	هام جداً	هام للغاية
لقد اخترت أن أصبح معلماً لأنني								
١	أنا مهتم بمهنة التدريس							
٢	يعتقد أصدقائي بأنني ينبغي أن أصبح معلماً							
٣	كمعلم، سوف أحظى بعطلات طويلة							
٤	أمتلك صفات المعلم الجيد							
٥	تتيح لي مهنة التدريس تقديم خدمة للمجتمع.							
٦	لطالما أردت أن أكون معلماً							
٧	يتيح لي التدريس الفرصة للعمل في خارج الدولة							
٨	سيتيح لي التدريس فرصة لبناء القيم لدى الأطفال/المراهقين							
٩	لم أكن متأكدًا حول المهنة التي أريد بها							
١٠	استمتع بمهنة التدريس							
١١	أريد عملاً ينطوي على التعامل مع الأطفال / المراهقين							
١٢	يمنحني التدريس مساراً وظيفياً ثابتاً ومستقراً							
١٣	تتيح لي مهنة التدريس ساعات تتناسب مع مسؤولياتي الأسرية							
١٤	درّسني معلمون مُلهمون							
١٥	بصفتي معلم، سيكون لدي يوم عمل قصير							
١٦	أمتلك مهارات تدريس جيدة							
١٧	يقدم المعلمون مساهمة اجتماعية قيّمة							
١٨	المؤهل التعليمي معترف به في كل مكان							
١٩	يتيح لي التدريس الفرصة للتأثير على الجيل القادم							

هام للغاية	هام جداً	متوسط الأهمية	عادي	مهم إلى حد ما	أقل أهمية	ليس مهماً على الإطلاق	
							٢٠ ترى عائلتي بأنه ينبغي أن أكون معلماً
							٢١ أريد أن أعمل في بيئة تركز حول الأطفال/المراهقين
							٢٢ مهنة التدريس تمنحني دخلاً ثابتاً يمكن الاعتماد عليه
							٢٣ تتناسب العطل المدرسية مع الالتزامات العائلية
							٢٤ لطالما حظيت بمعلمين كانوا قدوة لي
							٢٥ التدريس يتيح لي أن "أرد الجميل" للمجتمع
							٢٦ لم يتم قبولي في المهنة / التخصص الذي كان اختياري الأول
							٢٧ يتيح لي التدريس بتعزيز طموحات الشباب المحتاجين
							٢٨ استمتع بتدريس الأطفال / المراهقين
							٢٩ يعتبر التدريس وظيفة آمنة
							٣٠ كان لدي خبرات تعلم إيجابية
							٣١ يعتقد الأشخاص الذين عملت معهم أنني ينبغي أن أصبح معلماً
							٣٢ التدريس هي مهنة مناسبة لقدراتي
							٣٣ تتيح لي مهنة التدريس من اختيار المكان الذي أتمنى العيش فيه
							٣٤ اخترت مهنة التدريس لأنها كانت الملاذ الأخير لي
							٣٥ تتيح لي مهنة التدريس الفرصة لإفادة الفئات المحرومة اجتماعياً
							٣٦ يتيح لي التدريس بترك أثر على الأطفال/المراهقين
							٣٧ يتيح لي التدريس بالعمل ضد ظاهرة الحرمان الاجتماعي

الجزء الثالث: الاعتقادات حول التدريس:

- يرجى تقييم مدى موافقتك على صحة العبارات التالية التي تتحدث حول معتقداتك تجاه مهنة التدريس.

ملاحظة: تدرج خيارات التقييم من (ليس مهماً على الإطلاق) إلى (هام للغاية)، اختيارك مرتبط بمدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك تجاه كل فقرة. يرجى وضع علامة (صح) تحت الاختيار المناسب لك.

رقم العبارة	العبارة	ليس مهماً على الإطلاق	أقل أهمية	مهم إلى حد ما	عادي	متوسط الأهمية	هام جداً	هام للغاية
١	هل تعتقد أن التدريس مهنة لها مردود مادي جيد؟							
٢	هل تعتقد أن المدرسين لديهم أعباء عمل كثيرة؟							
٣	هل تعتقد أن المدرسين يحصلون على راتب جيد؟							
٤	هل تعتقد أنه يُنظر للمدرسين على أنهم محترفين مهنيًا؟							
٥	هل تعتقد أن المدرسين يمتلكون أخلاق عالية حسنة؟							
٦	هل تعتقد أن التدريس مهنة تتطلب استخدام العواطف؟							

٧	هل تعتقد أن مهنة التدريس يُنظر لها كوظيفة مرموقة وذات مكانة عالية؟						
٨	هل تعتقد أن المدرسين يشعرون بأن المجتمع يقدرهم؟						
٩	هل تعتقد أن التدريس يحتاج إلى مستويات عالية من المعرفة؟						
١٠	هل تعتقد أن التدريس عمل شاق؟						
١١	هل تعتقد أن التدريس مهنة محترمة ومرموقة؟						
١٢	هل تعتقد أن المدرسين يشعرون بأن مهنتهم تتمتع بقيمة اجتماعية مرموقة؟						
١٣	هل تعتقد أن المدرسين يحتاجون إلى مستويات عالية من المعرفة؟						
١٤	هل تعتقد أن المدرسين يحتاجون إلى مستويات أكثر عمقاً في مجال تخصصهم؟						

الجزء الرابع: مدى رضاك باختيارك لمهنة التدريس:

• إلى أي مدى تشعر بالرضا تجاه اختيارك لمهنة التدريس؟ (سواء كنت معلّم أو طالب يُتوقع منك أن تشغل هذه الوظيفة مستقبلاً).

ملاحظة: تدرج خيارات التقييم من (ليس مهماً على الإطلاق) إلى (هام للغاية)، اختيارك مرتبط بمدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك تجاه كل فقرة. يرجى وضع علامة (صح) تحت الاختيار المناسب لك.

رقم العبارة	العبارة	ليس مهماً على الإطلاق	أقل أهمية	مهم إلى حد ما	عادي	متوسط الأهمية	هام جداً	هام للغاية
١	إلى أي مدى فكرت بتمعن في قرارك لأن تصبح معلماً؟							
٢	هل شجعك أحد على اختيار أو ممارسة مهنة أخرى غير التدريس؟							
٣	ما مستوى رضاك عن اختيارك لمهنة التدريس؟							
٤	هل أخبرك الآخرون بأن التدريس لم يكن خياراً مهنيّاً جيداً؟							
٥	ما مستوى رضاك عن قرارك بأن تصبح معلماً؟							
٦	هل دفعك الآخرون للتفكير في وظائف أخرى غير التدريس؟							

الجزء الخامس: الالتزام المهني: إلى أي مدى تشعر بالالتزام المهني تجاه مهنة التدريس؟

ملاحظة: تدرج خيارات التقييم من رقم (١) والذي يعني غير موافق إطلاقاً وصولاً إلى رقم (٩) والذي يعني موافق بشدة، اختيارك مرتبط بمدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك تجاه كل فقرة.

رقم العبارة	العبارة	مقياس التقييم							
		١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦	٧	٨
١	إذا كانت لدي الفرصة للحصول على وظيفة أخرى غير التدريس ولها نفس الدخل، سأوافق على اختيار هذه الوظيفة								
٢	أرغب بالتأكيد في أن أعمل بمجال التدريس								
٣	لو تم منحي الفرصة مجدداً، لن أختار مهنة التدريس								
٤	هذه هي المهنة المثالية بالنسبة لي								
٥	أشعر بالندم لأنني اخترت مهنة التدريس								

Appendix C: Interview schedule

Teachers' Interview Schedule

General Questions

1. Could you briefly talk about yourself and your teaching experiences? How long have you been teaching?
2. What was the most important factor that influences your choice to become a teacher? Why?
 - What factors do you think encourage people to choose teaching as lifelong career?
3. In general, are you satisfied with your job as a teacher? Has your job motivation toward teaching level changed recently? Why?
 - a. Why do you think that some people do not wish to be involved into teaching profession?
 - b. To what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the facilities and work development offered by the educational administration? Why?
 - c. will you accept or not accept, if you receive an opportunity to transfer to other job? Why?

Interpersonal Relationships

4. As a teacher, you interact with various categories of people: students, colleagues, principal, educational supervisors, and parents. To what extent do these interactions impact on job motivation or demotivation? Why?
5. What is your opinion about the level of autonomy that teachers have? How do this influence your motivation to teach?

6. In your opinion, what are the disadvantages of being a teacher? If any, how do deal with these disadvantages?

Status of Teachers in Society

7. How do you feel about the status of teachers in the society? What is its impact on your motivation to teach?

Suggestions

8. Do you have any suggestions that might enhance the status of teaching and teachers' motivation and commitment to teach?

المقابلة الشخصية

فضلاً اذكر مدة خدمتك التي قضيتها في التعليم:

أسئلة عامة

١. فضلاً حدثنا بشكل موجز عن نفسك، خبرتك التدريسية، كم المدة التي قضيتها

٢. ماذا كان العامل الأهم الذي دفعك لأن تصبح مدرس/ة؟ ولماذا؟

* باعتقادك ما هي العوامل التي تدفع الأشخاص للتوجه نحو مهنة التدريس كوظيفة عمر؟

٣. بشكل عام هل أنت راضي بوظيفتك الحالية كمعلم/ة؟ هل مستوى دافعتك نحو

التدريس اختلف في الفترة الأخيرة؟ لماذا؟

أ. لماذا باعتقادك بعض الأشخاص لا يرغبون بالانخراط في مهنة التدريس.

ب. إلى أي حد أنت راضي / أو غير راضي بالتسهيلات والخدمات المقدمة من قبل وزارة التعليم

في سبيل تطوير المعلم والمنظومة التعليمية؟ لماذا؟

ج. ما مستوى دافعتك نحو التدريس هل اختلفت في الفترة الأخيرة مقارنة بالسنة الأولى؟

د. افترض أنه عرض عليك فرصه للانتقال لوظيفة أخرى غير التدريس هل ستقبلها أم

سترفضها؟ لماذا

علاقات العمل

٤. كمعلم انت تتعامل مع مجموعة من الافراد يشملون: الطلاب، المدير، المشرف التربوي، الزملاء، الآباء أو الأمهات الى اي مدى هؤلاء يؤثرون على دافعيتك أو عدم دافعيتك نحو التدريس؟

٥. ما رأيك في مستوى الاستقلالية التي يتمتع بها المعلمون؟ كيف يؤثر ذلك على دافعك للتدريس؟

٦. من وجهة نظرك ما هي السلبيات كونك معلم/ة، إن كان يوجد شيء من هذا القبيل، كيف تتعامل مع تلك السلبيات؟

مكانة المعلم في المجتمع:

٧. ما هو شعورك تجاه مكانك المعلم في المجتمع ودور وسائل التواصل الاجتماعي ك " تويتر وغيره هل ترى أنها تساهم في تعزيز مكانة المعلم أم أنها تؤثر سلباً في خلق صورة سلبية عن مهنة التدريس؟ هل يؤثر ذلك على دافعيتك نحو التدريس؟

اقتراحات

٨. هل لديك اي اقتراحات والتي من شأنها ان تحسن من مكانة التدريس ودافعية

المعلم والتزامه نحو هذه المهنة؟

مع خالص شكري وتقديري لحسن تعاونك

Appendix D: Access Letters Related to the Fieldwork in Saudi Arabia

Support Letter from the Supervisor Regarding the Fieldwork for Collecting Data in Saudi Arabia



PSYCHOLOGY IN EDUCATION RESEARCH CENTRE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF YORK
Heslington,
York, YO10 5DD

Direct Line:
(01904) 324396
Fax:
(01904) 323459
Email:
robert.klassen@york.ac.uk

26.12.17

To whom it may concern,

I am writing in support of Mazen Almulla's PhD research project, titled 'An investigation of pre-service teachers' motivation and teachers' perception for entering the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia'. I am Mazen's PhD supervisor, and I know his work very well. The research has the potential to make a meaningful and important contribution to our understanding of teacher motivation.

The period of the research and data collection will be 30 March until the end of June, 2018. The target sample will be male and female students (for questionnaires) and individual interviews with male teachers.

I would be grateful if you would assist him in order to facilitate his research mission.

Please feel free to contact me if you have further questions.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'R Klassen'.

Professor Robert Klassen
Chair, Psychology in Education Research Centre
University of York, UK
robert.klassen@york.ac.uk

Permission Letter from General Department for Education in Al-ahsa City to Conduct Research

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم
(٢٨٠)
الإدارة العامة للتعليم بمحافظة الأحساء
إدارة التخطيط والتطوير
قسم البحوث والدراسات

الرقم : ٤٧٤٤٤٤٤٤

التاريخ : ٥ / ٥ / ١٤٣٩ هـ

المرفقات : -

وزارة التعليم
Ministry of Education

لن يهمه الأمر

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

بناء على خطاب الملحقية الثقافية السعودية بتاريخ ٢٠١٨/١/٢٠ م - نفيديكم بأن الباحث / مازن بن عمر الملا والمبتعث إلى جامعة يورك ببريطانيا لنيل درجة الدكتوراه في تخصص علم النفس التربوي - والذي يعد دراسة بحثية بعنوان "دوافع المعلمين نحو التوجه لمهنة التدريس ومدى علاقته بالالتزام المهني" ، عليه فقد تقدم لطلب تسهيل مهمته البحثية في تطبيق أدوات البحث في العينة المحددة في الفترة ما بين ٢٠١٨ / ٣ / ٣٠ م إلى ٢٠١٨ / ٦ / ٣٠ م حيث يتطلب البحث تطبيق ميداني على المعلمين في مختلف المراحل الدراسية ، ولا مانع من إدارة التخطيط والتطوير بإدارة التعليم بالأحساء من تسهيل مهمتها البحثية ووفقاً للإجراءات التنظيمية واللوائح المعمول بها .

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير
حمد بن سعود العمر

ال / الطيبي

إدارة التخطيط والتطوير - ٥٩٩١٣١٧

Permission Letter from King Faisal University in Al-ahsa City to Conduct Research

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
Ministry of Education
KING FAISAL UNIVERSITY
(037)



المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم
جامعة الملك فيصل
(٠٣٧)

المحترم سعادة/الملحق الثقافي بالسلكة المتحدة وايرلندا

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ... وبعد:

نفيد سعادتكم أنه لا مانع لدينا من حيث المبدأ من قيام طالب الدكتوراه/مازن بن عمر الملا، من جامعة يورك بتطبيق أدوات بحثه على مجموعة من الطلاب والطالبات من كلية التربية على أن يتقدم لاحقاً بطلب يحدد فيه ما هو المطلوب مع ارفاق نسخ من الأدوات التي سوف يستخدمها وتحديد لعينة الدراسة.

هذا وقد تم اصدار هذا الخطاب بناء على طلب منه وذلك لتقديمه الى الملحقية الثقافية السعودية بلندن.

وتقبلوا خالص تحياتي وتقديري ...

وكيل كلية التربية للدراسات العليا

د. عبد الحكييد بن عبد الله العرفج

دليم 4

المرفقات:

التاريخ:

الرقم:

www.kfu.edu.sa

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia P.O.Box 400 Al-Hassa - 31982 Tel. 0135800000 Fax: 0135816980 ٠١٣٥٨١٦٩٨٠ فاكس ٠١٣٥٨٠٠٠٠٠٠ الهاتف ٣١٩٨٢ الأحياء - ٤٠٠ الأحياء - ٣١٩٨٢ الهاتف ٠١٣٥٨٠٠٠٠٠٠ فاكس ٠١٣٥٨١٦٩٨٠

موقع جامعة الملك فيصل 3924

Appendix E: Table of Correlation Coefficients between all Factors (Components), Including Motivations, Perceptions Factors and Occupational Commitment.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1.Prior teaching and learning experience	-																	
2.Social influences	.475**	-																
3.Teaching ability	.530**	.553**	-															
4.Intrinsic career value	.500**	.578**	.675**	-														
5.Job security	.504**	.410**	.477**	.454**	-													
6.Job transferability	.414**	.458**	.452**	.455**	.474**	-												
7.Time for family	.362**	.344**	.340**	.282**	.613**	.418**	-											
8.Shape future of children	.562**	.428**	.569**	.537**	.588**	.370**	.354**	-										
9.Enhance social equity	.517**	.455**	.534**	.548**	.532**	.442**	.341**	.669**	-									
10.Work with children	.466**	.484**	.508**	.614**	.399**	.391**	.231**	.513**	.571**	-								
11.Make social contribution	.611**	.463**	.614**	.597**	.573**	.427**	.365**	.721**	.648**	.486**	-							
12.Fallback career	.118**	.213**	.102**	0.008	.156**	.266**	.210**	0.050	.158**	0.062	0.057	-						
13.Salary	.311**	.284**	.249**	.236**	.491**	.309**	.383**	.329**	.346**	.162**	.345**	.147**	-					
14.Difficulty of teaching	.440**	.308**	.413**	.338**	.472**	.297**	.349**	.474**	.409**	.251**	.506**	.142**	.352**	-				
15.Social status	.440**	.383**	.407**	.393**	.440**	.409**	.310**	.406**	.454**	.355**	.476**	.178**	.532**	.464**	-			
16.Expertise of teaching	.449**	.325**	.469**	.371**	.505**	.321**	.307**	.555**	.510**	.302**	.604**	0.045	.448**	.615**	.504**	-		
17.Social dissuasion	.189**	.181**	.106**	.106**	.138**	.198**	.200**	.075*	.176**	.106**	.142**	.245**	.177**	.152**	.152**	.098**	-	
18.Satisfaction with the choice	.451**	.443**	.552**	.634**	.480**	.416**	.320**	.483**	.522**	.513**	.541**	-.001	.394**	.417**	.509**	.536**	.141**	-
Occupational commitment	.309**	.296**	.393**	.538**	.278**	.210**	.142**	.373**	.335**	.430**	.398**	-	.177**	.136**	.297**	.296**	-0.067	.581**
												.193**						

** Significant at the 0.05 level

Motivation factors

Perception factors

Independent scale

Appendix F: Ethical Approval:

This present research project has ranted ethical approval from The Education Ethics Committee on 20 November 2017.

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