

**Job satisfaction and motivation  
amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia**

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## Abstract

Many studies of job satisfaction and motivation have been conducted in developed countries, but few in developing ones, including Saudi Arabia, in particular in the field of education. The present study investigates the general job satisfaction and motivation of teachers in boys' secondary schools in Saudi Arabia, identifies the main contributory factors and explores the relationship between satisfaction and motivation and the effects of demographic variables such as age, qualifications, experience, length of service and training. In the quantitative phase, 737 teachers in 24 schools in Riyadh completed a self-administered questionnaire, then qualitative data were gathered by means of semi-structured interviews with 32 teachers. Factor analysis of the quantitative data, using SPSS, identified the following ten factors affecting job satisfaction: staff development; student progress; salary and promotion; supervision and status in society; educational system; marking pupils' work; workload; nature of the work; administration; and interpersonal relationships. Factor analysis also identified two main factors with regard to motivation, labelled 'intrinsic and altruistic' and 'extrinsic'. The interview data indicated that religion was a third motivating factor.

The findings show that teachers were generally satisfied with their jobs and that interpersonal relationships made the greatest contribution to their satisfaction, followed by school administration and the nature of the work. Satisfaction was moderately influenced by marking pupils' work, the educational system, supervision and social status, workload and conditions, salary and promotion, and student progress, whereas staff development contributed to teachers' dissatisfaction. The participating teachers were generally highly motivated, more so by the intrinsic/altruistic factor than the extrinsic and religious ones. The study also found a significant relationship between teachers' general job satisfaction and their general motivation. There were two other significant correlations: a relatively strong one between satisfaction and extrinsic motivation, and a less strong one between satisfaction and intrinsic/altruistic motivation. With regard to demographic variables, there were statistically significant differences in job satisfaction and motivation between teachers based on their qualifications, experience and subjects taught, whereas age, job grade, length of teaching experience at the present school, the number of lessons taught and having received in-service training were not associated with statistically significant differences between teachers in terms of either job satisfaction or motivation.

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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.

## Dedication

*I dedicate this work to my father and mother for their unconditional love, support and encouragement throughout my life and in particular during my years of education and the preparation of this thesis. I also remember my brother Turkey, whose parting left a deep void in my life and that of my parents. I humbly offer this thesis in honour to his blessed soul.*

# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This introductory chapter establishes the background to the empirical research, sets out the rationale and significance of the study, states the objectives and research questions, outlines the organisation of the thesis and defines key terms.

### **1.2 Background**

Education is considered essential for any nation to develop and prosper socially, intellectually and economically. Teachers can contribute greatly to this prosperity by maintaining the value of the education process, so it is vital for educational authorities at all levels to optimise the quality and effectiveness of teachers' performance. In order to implement educational policies successfully and to achieve targets, schools need motivated and committed teachers who are secure in their work and who are able to perform their duties to a high standard.

Saudi Arabia has recently undergone several decades of rapid and comprehensive change in the economic, social and educational fields. A pressing priority for the Kingdom is to develop the education sector, to which approximately £34 billion was allocated in 2013, representing a quarter of the annual national budget, rising to £35 billion in 2014 (Ministry of Finance, 2014). One may infer that if the aim is to enhance the educational process, then teachers and teaching practices should also be improved, since the success of any educational process must depend significantly on teachers' performance and effectiveness. To this end, it is widely considered essential that teachers are satisfied and motivated at work (Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013).

Indeed, the study of job satisfaction and motivation in education in general and among teachers in particular has attracted the interest of many researchers. Much literature addresses the importance of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, including its effects on their retention, attrition and absenteeism (Dupré & Day, 2007; Perrachione, Rosser, & Petersen, 2008; Oshagbemi, 1999; Shann, 1998), their productivity, creativity and performance (Al-Hussami, 2008; Ellickson, 2002) and their wellbeing (Akhtar, Hashmi, & Naqvi 2010). Satisfied and motivated teachers also



improve students' motivation and attainment (Bishay, 1996; Hurren, 2006; Jesus & Lens, 2005; Shann, 1998; Nguni, Slegers, & Denessen, 2006) and make it more likely that educational aims and work goals will be achieved (Aronson, Laurenceau, Sieveking, & Bellet, 2005; Otube, 2004; Rasheed, Aslam, & Sarwar, 2010; Warr & Clapperton, 2010).

Thus, in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere, teachers' job satisfaction and motivation can be seen to affect not just the teachers themselves, but their students, the quality of the educational process, the development of the educational system and the wellbeing of the wider community.

### **1.3 Statement of Problem**

Many studies have explored employees' job satisfaction and motivation from various perspectives. Researchers and managers alike seem to put substantial efforts into determining and examining the factors affecting job satisfaction (Gautam, Mandal, & Dalal, 2006; Spector, 1997). In the educational context, teachers' job satisfaction has been widely researched, especially in developed countries such as the UK and the USA (Koustelios, 2001), although Hinks (2009) argues that the topic is equally important to developing countries, for the same underlying reasons. Indeed, teachers in various regions of the world have been found to vary in their level of satisfaction at work.

MetLife (2011; 2012) reports a dramatic recent fall in US teachers' satisfaction, reaching its lowest level in 25 years, coupled with a rising number who intended to seek another profession or who did not feel that their current jobs as teachers were secure. In the UK, Klassen and Anderson (2009) identified a fall in teachers' job satisfaction since the 1960s, when extrinsic factors such as salary, buildings and equipment were largely responsible for teachers' dissatisfaction, whereas their counterparts in 2007 were more preoccupied with intrinsic factors including time pressure and students' behaviour. Thus, employees who appear satisfied with work now could well be dissatisfied in the future and vice versa (Gesinde & Adejumo, 2012). This suggests an ongoing need for research to determine how satisfied employees are with their jobs and to identify the factors affecting changes in satisfaction levels.

Meanwhile, studies of job satisfaction among teachers in Saudi Arabia have been few and limited in scope; furthermore, they seem unlikely to reflect accurately the current level of job satisfaction, especially in the light of the unprecedented economic, social

and educational developments in the Kingdom in recent years. Following rapid economic growth, education has been heralded as a major vehicle for continued progress, presenting teachers with many challenges in their work (Ministry of Education, 2012). Against this background, the present researcher's interest in teachers' satisfaction and motivation—and his belief in the need for a deep analysis of this topic in Saudi Arabia—originate from his research findings at master's level and his personal observations, interpretations and practice in this area, given in particular his experience as a schoolteacher and as a teacher trainer in Riyadh. The researcher also recalls his formal and informal meetings with many teachers and headteachers who voiced a multitude of concerns regarding their jobs. In addition, a number of conversations with administrators and supervisors led him to identify several noteworthy issues facing teachers, such as their social status, development opportunities, working conditions, workload and students' behaviour and motivation.

In the Saudi education system, the secondary level represents the final stage of general education, so secondary teachers face the pressure of preparing students for higher education. However, they have limited access to modern technological tools (Al-Dendani, 2010) and feel that the prevailing traditional teaching methods do not adequately stimulate students, while the role of teachers in general is undermined in terms of students' cultural progress and development. Perhaps unsurprisingly, some teachers are reluctant to work at the secondary level, preferring the elementary and intermediate stages (Alhagbani, 2006). Other Saudi teachers also appear to be abandoning teaching, preferring other administrative roles or early retirement (Alonzi, 2011), while teachers holding postgraduate degrees are particularly prone to seeking better opportunities in other sectors. There is thus a need for research to identify the factors affecting job satisfaction and motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia, in order to address the issues mentioned above.

In a similar vein, while an interest in job satisfaction and motivation has been extensively manifested in research carried out in developed countries, a limited number of studies have focused on these topics in developing countries (Garrett, 1999; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). For example, according to Michaelowa (2002), while teachers' job satisfaction has globally been associated with a wide range of pedagogical research, the topic seems to have attracted little attention in

developing countries. Therefore, it seems that there is scope for such research in developing countries in general, including Saudi Arabia, the context of the present study.

Not only is there a dearth of research endeavour in Saudi Arabia on the topic of job satisfaction and motivation in secondary schools, but it also seems that no genuine attempt has been made to investigate the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction in Saudi secondary schools in particular and the broader professional realm in general. Having exerted a great deal of effort to identify any relevant content in the literature on Saudi Arabia, the researcher has concluded that very little research has been undertaken on the topic of job satisfaction in secondary schools, while no research was found regarding the possible association between job satisfaction and motivation. Thus, it remains to be determined whether there is any association between motivation and job satisfaction among male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia.

Furthermore, the few studies which have addressed the topic of Saudi teachers' job satisfaction (e.g. Al-Amri, 1992; Al-Obaid; 2002; Al-Shrari, 2003; Al-Zahrani, 1995) have taken a quantitative approach and have not explored the topic in depth to determine the factors underlying teachers' job satisfaction. Not only have such studies failed to offer teachers the chance to discuss their views, feeling and opinions concerning their job satisfaction, but none has specifically examined the job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in the city of Riyadh, apart from that of Al-Tayyar (2005), which was restricted to psychology teachers. Moreover, it seems that no study has so far paid attention to teacher motivation when examining satisfaction. Indeed, the only two studies conducted into motivation among Saudi teachers (Al-Jasser, 2003; Shoaib, 2004) were limited to female respondents.

The current study aims to bridge the gap in existing research literature on Saudi secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and motivation. By addressing the need to identify the fundamental factors that may influence male secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, it seeks to contribute to the endeavours of the Ministry of Education (MoE) in addressing this topic. Thus, it responds both to an evident academic lacuna and to a pressing practical need of the Saudi education system, clearly identified in the researcher's personal communication and interaction with officials overseeing the development of the education system in the Kingdom.

## **1.4 Aim and Objectives**

The study aims to investigate job satisfaction and motivation amongst male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia. Its objectives are:

- To determine the level of general job satisfaction among male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia.
- To identify factors that might contribute to the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia.
- To determine the level of general motivation among male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia.
- To identify the factors that might contribute to the motivation of male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia.
- To determine whether there is a relationship between teachers' general job satisfaction and their motivation.
- To determine whether there are differences in job satisfaction and motivation between teachers based on age, qualifications, job grade, length of experience, length of service at present school, subject taught and whether they have received in-service training.
- To make recommendations to the MoE regarding possible ways to enhance secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.

## **1.5 Research Questions**

The questions which the study seeks to address are as follows:

1. What is the overall general level of job satisfaction amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
2. What factors contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
3. What is the overall general level of motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
4. What are the main factors affecting motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?

5. Is there a relationship between general job satisfaction and motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
6. Do job satisfaction and motivation vary in terms of demographic variables such as age, qualifications, job grade, length of experience, length of service at present school, subject taught and training?

## **1.6 Significance of the Study**

As mentioned earlier, among the many published studies of job satisfaction and motivation in general and in education in particular, most have been conducted in developed countries, which indicates a need for similar studies to be carried out in developing countries, including in Saudi Arabia, in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the phenomena in question and to extend understanding in this domain to developing countries in general and specifically to the Saudi education sector.

Moreover, while studies of job satisfaction and motivation conducted in developed countries have produced a wealth of knowledge and understanding of these phenomena, the great majority have been grounded in theories which originated and were elaborated in those countries. They offer an understanding of individuals' job satisfaction and motivation closely related to their social setting and to the reality of the social, economic and cultural background of their communities. Therefore, such studies may not be applicable to developing countries, because job satisfaction and motivation can be affected by social and cultural factors (e.g. Klassen, Al-Dhafri, Hannok, & Betts, 2011; Klassen, Usher, & Bong, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). However, the few studies conducted in developing countries have used the same concepts and theories employed by researchers in developed countries, with some adaptation of these concepts to the local context. For the current study, instruments were developed to reflect the research questions and to be appropriate to Saudi Arabia's educational context.

The current study will be the first to investigate the job satisfaction and motivation of male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia. In addition to demographic and socio-economic factors, it seeks to take account of social and cultural values reported in the literature that might affect teachers' satisfaction and motivation. Its significance can be summed up in the following points:

- It seeks to understand the factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction in general and will be the first to do so among Saudi secondary school teachers.
- It meets the need to investigate job satisfaction and motivation among Saudi secondary school teachers of all subjects, as the majority of studies previously conducted in Saudi Arabia have been limited by subject taught.
- It gives teachers the opportunity to express their feelings and views regarding job satisfaction and motivation, facilitating a deeper understanding of these phenomena, as the first study to use interviews in investigating satisfaction and motivation among male Saudi secondary schoolteachers.
- In recent years, both public and private sector organisations in Saudi Arabia have pursued Saudisation, seeking to reduce reliance on the expatriate workforce by increasing the numbers of Saudi nationals employed. Identifying the factors underlying job satisfaction and motivation for Saudi employees, particularly teachers, is an important step in this process.
- The findings of the present study will extend understanding of the factors affecting Saudi teachers' satisfaction and motivation, thus helping to fill the gap in the literature regarding such studies in developing countries.
- It is also hoped that the recommendations of the study will contribute to the formulation of new governmental policies in order to enhance job satisfaction and motivation among its teachers and to ensure that civil servants, including teachers, are more satisfied.
- Finally, it is hoped that the findings will provide valuable information and act as a springboard for further research related to other groups of teachers in Saudi Arabia.

## **1.7 Organisation of the Thesis**

The remaining chapters of this thesis are organised as follows.

Chapter Two provides the background to the study by presenting an overview of Saudi Arabia and its educational system, a discussion of recent developments and detailed information on teachers.

Chapter Three reviews the existing literature regarding job satisfaction and motivation; it also offers definitions of the concepts of job satisfaction and motivation,

introduces the relevant theories and discusses the factors influencing job satisfaction and motivation, including the demographic variables considered in the research. It reviews first the relevant international literature, then that from Saudi Arabia.

Chapter Four offers a detailed description of the research design and methodology. It discusses diverse issues related to research design, including selection of the population, the sampling of study participants, the choice of data collection instruments and procedures, the conduct and outcome of the pilot study and the validity and reliability of the research.

Chapter Five presents an analysis of the findings of the quantitative phase, using data gathered by means of a questionnaire, while Chapter Six does the same for the qualitative interview findings. Chapter Seven then offers a discussion and interpretation of the overall combined findings as these relate to the above research questions.

Finally, Chapter Eight summarises the findings, draws overall conclusions, considers the research contribution, makes recommendations for ways to enhance teachers' satisfaction and motivation in Saudi Arabia, considers the limitations of the present study and makes suggestions for future research.

## **1.8 Key Terms**

Detailed definitions of satisfaction and motivation are discussed in Chapter Three; meanwhile, the following are brief working definitions of some of the key terms and concepts used in the study.

**Job satisfaction:** While the literature offers many definitions of this key term, in this study, teachers' job satisfaction refers to general and specific positive feelings and attitudes of secondary school teachers in the Saudi educational context, related to the needs they expect to be met by their job.

**Motivation:** In this study, teachers' motivation refers to the driving force which underpins secondary school teachers' efforts to meet their work goals within the Saudi educational context.

**Secondary school teacher:** For the purposes of this study, teacher refers to a male individual holding a degree which qualifies him to teach in secondary schools.

**Secondary school** is the third phase of public education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which prepares students for university. It follows intermediate school and is the final stage of schooling, for students in the age range of 15 to 18 years.

**Educational supervisor:** An educational supervisor, in Saudi Arabia, is someone qualified and experienced in teaching, working as an official in an educational supervision centre, performing an advisory role, and monitoring and evaluating teachers' performance by visiting schools.

**Job grade:** The MoE operates a system of six grades in which teachers are employed according to their qualifications; e.g. Grade 4 is for those holding a degree but without teacher training, Grade 5 for those with a degree and teacher training, and Grade 6 for those holding a higher degree. Each grade has 25 levels and teachers are automatically promoted from one level to the next, within the same grade, each year for 25 years, and from one grade to another only if they obtain the appropriate qualification.



## Chapter Two

### The Saudi Arabian Education System

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to describe the general background of Saudi Arabia, in which this research study was carried out, focusing particularly on specific features of the education system, integral to the project. The first of three sections places the study within its geographical and cultural context, with a brief account of the location and population of Saudi Arabia. The second discusses the education system of the country, including its history and current structure. The final section concerns teacher training in general. It outlines the overall training system and professional development of teachers, in order to ascertain to what extent pre-service and in-service training contribute to the fulfilment of their needs.

#### 2.2 Historical Background of Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is named after the family of its first king, Abdulaziz Ibn Saud, who founded the Kingdom in 1932, bringing the tribes of the Arabian Sahara together under the rule of one state (Alhugail, 1997).

Saudi Arabia is the largest of the Middle Eastern countries, with an area of 2,240,000 square kilometres. It lies in the southwest corner of Asia, at the crossroads of Europe, Asia and Africa (Figure 2.1).



Figure 2.1: Map of Saudi Arabia (Wikipedia, 2011)

Islam is the kingdom's official religion and its principles are preserved in its laws. The public practice of any religion other than Islam is forbidden. Islam is central to the Saudi community; consequently, education policies stem from Islamic values and rulings. The chief objective of the Saudi educational system is to enable students to learn about their religion and to appreciate Islamic values in a correct and comprehensive way (MoE, 2008). It aims to instil the skills and expertise needed for developing Saudi society economically, socially and culturally. The country's official language and medium of education is Arabic, although students also study English from an early age.

### **2.3 The Education System in Saudi Arabia**

The Saudi education system is highly centralised. Most educational policies and curricula are determined by central government and supervised by the Supreme Council for Education. Courses, prospectuses and set books are fixed for all the Kingdom's educational institutions (Alissa, 2009). A major aspect of the education system is gender segregation, with males and females separated in schools, colleges and universities. All education, including university, special, technical and vocational education, is free of charge. Moreover, the government provides monthly stipends for students of universities or teachers' college. A growing trend is to provide opportunities for students to study abroad, such as scholarships for master's degrees and doctorates, and for undergraduate studies in some exceptional specialisms (Ministry of Higher Education, 2009).

Significant changes have gradually been made to the education system over the past decade. For example, women's education, previously totally autonomous, has been incorporated into the MoE, whilst teachers' colleges have been moved to the Ministry of Higher Education. Other ongoing reforms include King Abdullah's project to develop quality programmes, plans, human resources and technical equipment to enhance the quality of education and training. The project's primary objectives are:

1. Building global standards for various aspects of the educational process.
2. Developing an integrated system to evaluate education quality.
3. Developing the various components of the educational process, including:

- Making all curricula responsive to scientific and technological developments and meeting students' moral, cognitive, vocational, psychological, physical and mental health needs.
- Preparation of teachers to enhance their performance.
- Improving the learning environment, including integration of technical and digital facilities to make the classroom environment more conducive to learning.
- Strengthening endogenous capacities, skills and creativity (Tatweer, 2010).

General education in Saudi Arabia is managed by the MoE; the Ministry of Higher Education has authority over universities and administers the growth of higher education; and the Organisation for Technical and Vocational Education is responsible for industrial, commercial and agricultural education and technical training, in addition to all other aspects of vocational training (Alissa, 2009; MoE, 2008).

### **2.3.1 Ministry of Education**

The Ministry of Education, established in 1953 to replace the Directorate of Education, oversees all schools and institutes in Saudi Arabia (MoE, 2001). The General Presidency for Girls' Education, established in 1960, was abolished in 2003, and its roles and responsibilities of overseeing girls' schools, kindergartens and nursery schools and girls' literacy programmes transferred to the MoE. As a result, the Ministry administers boys' and girls' education (kindergarten, primary, intermediate and secondary), special education, adult education and teacher training. Its other responsibilities include establishing schools, providing facilities, textbooks and instructional resources, and handling school officials' and teachers' salaries, pensions and promotions (MoE, 2006).

The following policies have been adopted by the MoE in its endeavours to develop, upgrade and enhance the educational system and its outcomes:

- Registering all Saudi primary schoolchildren.
- Attracting enrolment by promising educational programmes that can meet the requirements of the Ministry and the educational market alike.
- Launching educational and training programmes for college teachers and others on a similar footing to enhance their skills and bolster their experiences.

- Upgrading the minimum educational standards for primary-level teachers applying to teachers' colleges to take a bachelor degree.
- Introducing educational and training courses for the whole community through the Social Service Centre in the teachers' colleges.
- Building schools and starting campaigns and courses to eradicate illiteracy.
- Establishing night schools for primary and secondary education.
- Improving students' abilities, talents and awareness in terms of scientific, cultural, social, sporting, practical and scouting activities and events.
- Supervising and allowing special educational facilities for special needs students, such as the blind, deaf and those with various incapacities.
- Striving to detect disabilities as early as possible and suggesting ways to cope with them.
- Endeavouring to introduce specialised library services such as talking libraries.
- Constructing more libraries and historical museums across the Kingdom.
- Striving to achieve autonomy by equipping Saudi citizens to teach at all educational levels and fields.
- Raising educational standards to reduce failures and dropouts.
- Exchanging industrial and cultural information with Arab, Islamic and friendly countries.
- Monitoring curricula and educational development programmes in schools and teachers' colleges to confirm the attainment of the Ministry's goals.
- Taking part in global and local expositions in order to introduce Saudi educational and cultural activities to the general public.
- Continuous management, oversight and provision of technical and material support to private education, to enhance their systems, procedures and overall standards.
- Working to increase national unity and assimilation by the application of a well-balanced educational system ( MoE, 2012).

## **2.3.2 General education**

Four stages constitute General Education in Saudi Arabia: kindergarten, primary, intermediate and secondary. These are outlined below, although the present study is directly concerned only with male secondary schools.

### **2.3.2.1 Kindergarten stage**

Children may attend kindergarten and nursery school from the age of three to five years. This stage is optional and not a prerequisite for entry to primary school. Most kindergartens are private and charge fees. The purpose of this stage is to inculcate basic skills and good conduct, preparing children for primary education.

### **2.3.2.2 Primary stage**

Practically, general education in Saudi Arabia begins at primary school. This stage, which children enter at six years old, represents the foundation of the general educational hierarchy. It provides six years of a focused approach to Islamic culture and Arabic language, in addition to subjects including mathematics, social studies, English (starting in grade four), art and physical education. On a typical school day, there are six 45-minute lessons. Students must pass all subjects at the end of grade six in order to carry on to the intermediate stage.

### **2.3.2.3 Intermediate stage**

The intermediate stage last three years. Students are admitted at the age of 12, once they have successfully finished the primary stage. They study Islamic studies, Arabic, geography, history, English, mathematics and general science. To be able to progress to the next grade, students must pass an examination at the end of each grade. Towards the end of the intermediate stage, they sit a final exam to progress to secondary school or to join other institutions, including vocational courses and colleges.

### **2.3.2.4 Secondary stage**

The objectives of the secondary stage include developing students' knowledge of Islam, basic thinking abilities and understanding about themselves and their culture (Alhugail, 1997). According to the MoE (2011), the main aims of secondary education are:

- To strengthen faith in God, while ensuring that all actions are pleasing to Him, and conforming to all orders and requirements of the Sharia.

- To reinforce devotion and allegiance to the Islamic state, in addition to aspiring to the noblest social standing and promoting a strong physical constitution, appropriate to the students' age.
- To harness students' skills and guide appropriately.
- To offer wider opportunities for students and to prepare them to follow their studies according to the different choices offered at the higher academic stages.
- To give students the opportunity to engage in various fields and activities.
- To address' students' intellectual and emotional problems in keeping with Saudi culture and support them to be successful in all walks of life.
- To maintain a positive consciousness among students so that they can challenge seditious ideas and distorted tendencies.
- To foster in students the quality of beneficial reading and the yearning to widen their scope of knowledge and productive work, as well as utilising their free time in activities that enhance their personality and the circumstances of their society.
- To instil the feeling of family cohesion with the purpose of constructing firm Islamic family values.
- To promote students' scientific thinking, research spirit, systematic analysis, use of reference sources and practice of academic methods.

Students are admitted to this stage at the age of 15, provided they have successfully completed intermediate schooling. Secondary education consists of three grades. In the first year, students follow the same general curriculum, whereas in the second and third years, they choose among four specialisms: forensic science, natural science, social and administrative sciences, and technical sciences. Since demand for the last two specialisms is limited, they are not offered in all schools. Students with high scores in the first year can benefit from the two choices, while students with low scores mostly follow an arts major. Assessment is based on an end-of-year examination in every subject. Successful students are awarded the Certificate of General Secondary Education at the end of the third year, entitling them to enter higher education. If a student fails in one subject or more, he may resit after two weeks, but if he then fails in any subject, he must repeat the whole academic year. As an experienced secondary school teacher, the researcher believes that this system is designed for students who

have similar abilities and interests, but does not always work with students with differing abilities, goals and interests. Moreover, the limited choice of scientific or arts streams does not meet all students' needs.

However, since 2005, the MoE has implemented a new "credit system" in some secondary schools, designed to develop students' abilities comprehensively. Its principles are: integration between courses (the study plan is divided between compulsory and optional subjects), flexibility and choice (it is based on the number of hours of study, which offers students the options of dropping and adding subjects), academic advice (each student is allocated an academic advisor) and evaluation (scores are awarded in accordance with the requirements and objectives of each subject). Moreover, failing a subject does not require repetition or re-examination of the whole course; instead, the student may study other subjects at a higher level and take the subject in which he failed during another semester, or replace it with a different subject. Finally, students are awarded a grade point average, representing the average of all the grades earned during the course (MoE, 2011).

### **2.3.3 Special education**

The aim of special education in Saudi Arabia is to provide every possible means to cater for the needs of children with special educational needs. The department in charge of special education was founded in 1963 (MoE, 2001). Generally, it runs schools at the primary, intermediate and secondary stages for blind and deaf students and those with physical, mental and learning difficulties.

### **2.3.4 Adult education**

The country's literacy rate was 96% in 2012, while in 1972 it was only 40%. In line with its pledge to make education free for all and to eliminate illiteracy, the MoE has created a large number of adult education centres. In addition, in far-flung rural areas, the government carries out intensive three-month adult education packages throughout the summer period.

### **2.3.5 Ministry of Higher Education**

Higher education (HE) was launched in Saudi Arabia in 1957, with one establishment now known as King Saud University. In response to the rapid development of HE, the Ministry of Higher Education was created in 1975 to oversee and address all HE issues

(Supreme Committee for Educational Policy, 2002). The Ministry is responsible for all HE affairs, including administration, planning and research. Besides, it has the authority to supervise, co-ordinate and follow up HE courses and curricula, while linking them with state development programmes, with the objective of supplying the different sectors with the required technical and organisational staff. The Ministry is also in charge of providing scholarships, enhancing international academic relations and establishing educational offices abroad (Ministry of Higher Education, 2009).

In 2012, there were 23 public and nine private universities across the country. Whilst many of these are linked to the Ministry of Higher Education, they enjoy considerable administrative and academic autonomy (Hakeem, 2012). Universities in Saudi Arabia usually have separate educational institutions for women and girls. However, many university programmes are addressed to both male and female students, the latter being provided with a separate room where lectures are broadcast through closed-circuit TV (MoE, 2008).

### **2.3.6 Daily and annual school schedules**

A typical Saudi school day begins at 7 am and finishes at 1 pm or 2 pm, depending on the season. Lessons last 45 minutes, separated by five-minute breaks. There are two main breaks: the first, after the third or fourth period, lasts around 40 minutes, while the second break is roughly 20 minutes, for prayer. There are five or six lessons per day at the primary stage and six or seven at the intermediate and secondary stages.

The school year normally begins in the first week of September and concludes at the end of May or occasionally in the first week of June. There is a two-week break between the two semesters, in addition to another two-week break during the religious seasons of Ramadan and Hajj. No teaching takes place during the last two weeks of each semester, which are dedicated to revision and examinations.

### **2.3.7 School curricula**

A characteristic aspect of general education in Saudi Arabia is that the same textbooks are used in each subject throughout all state schools. Boys and girls study the same subjects, except that home economics is taught only to girls. Alissa (2009) claims that the use of identical textbooks everywhere means that students often struggle to relate the contents to their own lives. Individual schools or regions cannot introduce any material to meet local needs. Therefore, textbooks have a great deal of control over the



learning and teaching process. The national curriculum and the overall regulations for general education are set by the MoE, which also supplies the books that teachers must follow in class. The teacher's role is to follow these and explain their contents to the students; however, few teachers have the chance to take part in developing the curricula or the textbooks, which are generally prepared by one or more experts (Musharaf, 2000; Alisaa, 2009).

Textbooks are revised only occasionally. More often they are reissued, or adapted slightly, with certain topics being supplemented or left out. Every student receives his or her own textbook for each subject taught. Hence, the availability of textbooks has an impact on educational quality, which also includes teaching approaches. As a result, the textbook content is not a variable that can affect relative education quality within the Saudi educational institutions, along with the teaching methods and techniques. Indeed, the MoE aims to provide "teacher-proof materials", in order to reduce the influence of teachers on curriculum application. As a consequence, during a characteristic classroom situation, the discussion between teachers and students comprises in general a number of "initiation-reply-evaluation" sequences. An archetypal discourse sequence begins with the teacher explaining a point; then he/she asks questions to assess whether the students have grasped it. Typically, the questions have a single correct answer. The rigid nature of such classroom discourse assigns the learner a passive role (Alisaa, 2009; Hakeem, 2012).

Some Saudi academics have criticised the lack of involvement of teachers in the selection of lesson content (Alisaa, 2009). For instance, Musharaf (2000) states that teachers are not involved in curriculum development at the theoretical or strategic stages, whereas it can be argued that teachers should be engaged and offered the opportunity at least to develop some parts of the curriculum.

### **2.3.8 Teachers' duties**

In a typical Saudi school, members of staff such as head teachers and student councillors are usually appointed by the local educational authority. Although they carry out management and administration posts, they receive no additional benefits compared to the teaching staff. Salaries are decided by the Civil Service Ministry; teachers often enjoy higher incomes than employees with similar qualifications in other government posts. They also often benefit from an automatic salary increase each year.

Male and female teachers who have the same qualifications receive the same salary, while the modules and subjects taught and the regions in which staff are based have no impact on their salary.

Teachers take about 24 lessons per week and spend the equivalent of one or two periods per day on preparation and planning, generally in the staff room, where they correct homework and prepare lesson plans. They are expected to arrive at school a quarter of an hour before the morning gathering and not leave until the scheduled end of the day. If a secondary teacher agrees to teach more than the standard 24 periods, he will be remunerated accordingly.

Teacher performance is evaluated by the headteacher and/or subject specialist educational supervisors, typically highly qualified people based at a supervision centre under the local educational authority. Supervisors visit teachers in the classroom once or twice a year to observe their teaching and monitor their development, while the headteacher or deputy head will observe each teacher in the classroom at least once during each school term.

Teachers' responsibilities, like the curriculum, are decided by the MoE. In order to have an appropriate understanding of the MoE's standpoint on the teacher's role, it is useful to review how the Ministry defines Saudi secondary teachers' responsibilities. According to the MoE (2004), these include apportioning a subject syllabus according to the daily timetable throughout the school year; providing a preparation book setting out the teaching approaches for each lesson, which teachers should keep with them during working hours; keeping a record of students' exam and coursework marks; monitoring their behaviour in class; assisting the administrative staff in keeping order in school; advising and supervising students; alerting the administration to any rule infringement; striving to achieve the educational aims; correcting any misconduct; overseeing the students' tasks in all areas; attending meetings of school boards; implementing the various tasks of supervision, correction, registering marks; and preparing exam procedures.

It can be argued that the aforementioned statements closely reflect teachers' responsibility to transmit knowledge, but also their limited decision-making powers. According to Bin Salamah (2001), teachers are not involved in the determination of

their responsibilities and tasks, and have no professional body which can negotiate with the government regarding their working conditions.

This section has outlined the Saudi education system and the place within it of secondary school teachers. The next turns to teacher training.

## **2.4 Teacher Training**

Enhancing the educational system is a major concern of the Saudi government. Training is an integral tool and a means of development which, if effectively employed, will achieve efficiency and competence in the development of the performance of teachers. Therefore, the MoE has paid special attention to the training of all education workers, to enable them to keep up with the requirements of change in the teaching profession. Accordingly, two kinds of teacher training packages are offered for student and practising teachers: pre-service and in-service programmes, supplied by educational colleges and teacher training organisations.

### **2.4.1 Pre-service training**

Pre-service training applies to students who are preparing to become teachers in schools and colleges. Generally, graduates of teachers' colleges are qualified to teach at primary and intermediate schools, while university schools of education qualify trainees to teach at all stages.

The main aim of teachers' colleges is to prepare Saudi nationals to teach in all areas as part of the Saudisation project. The first college was established in Riyadh in 1976, followed by several more throughout the country. The decision was made in 1987 to award graduates of teachers' colleges a bachelor's degree.

The major aims of these colleges are as follows:

- Provision of top quality professional and academic preparation and training for Saudi primary and intermediate teachers, while adhering to Islamic teachings and community values.
- Investment in an education and academic attainment that stems from deeply-ingrained ethics and Islamic beliefs.
- Fostering educational and academic preparation of in-service teachers and stimulating their understanding and educational awareness.

- Contributing to the implementation of educational, theoretical and practical research, with the purpose of developing curricula and primary school textbooks.
- The preparation, development and application of training courses for teachers, centred on the expectations of educational development.
- Cooperation with Saudi and foreign educational organisations on educational development and relevant research, and attending seminars and meetings to exchange experience and knowledge.
- Providing training courses for post-secondary school students, to prepare school laboratory assistants and administrators of educational resources, in order to serve the overall development of the Kingdom (King Saud University, 2011).

Bachelor's degree courses at teachers' colleges last four years, comprising eight semesters of 17 weeks, including registration and examinations.

Alternatively, students interested in the teaching profession can attend a university school of education, following a four-year course in a wide range of academic departments, such as Islamic studies, art, social studies, Arabic language and foreign languages. In such institutions, training may involve a period of teaching practice during the final year of study. Around 50% of a student's teaching practice is assessed by the principal of the placement school and the remaining 50% by the university supervisor. Nevertheless, schools have no influence on the training programme, which is generally set by the university and supervised by the Ministry of Higher Education.

Recently, the MoE has made it compulsory for any graduate student wishing to join the teaching profession to score at least 50% in an entrance test, whose major aim is to ensure that candidates meet minimum standards in academic skills and basic knowledge of the profession. Teachers are often employed according to their qualifications as follows: at grade 4 if they hold a degree without teacher training; grade 5 if they have a degree with teacher training; and grade 6 if they have a master's degree. Teachers cannot move from one grade to the next unless they obtain the relevant qualification. Nevertheless, since 1994, many new teachers have been employed at lower levels. One possible reason for this may be the large number of applicants to join the teaching profession. Subsequently, in 2009, nearly 200,000 teachers complained that they received a lower salary than they should have received compared with their counterparts

(Aljaid, 2009). Although the MoE has rectified this issue for some teachers, others are still waiting for justice.

### **2.4.2 In-service training**

Another form of training, for qualified teachers, is in-service training to develop their knowledge and understanding of their subject and any relevant teaching methodology and pedagogy. The MoE established the Educational Training Directorate in 1975 to contribute with other accountable bodies and educational organisations to the foundation, implementation and assessment of in-service teacher training packages (MoE, 2001). It has also established an educational training centre in each of the 42 general educational departments in the Kingdom. According to the Department of Educational Training (2010), the functions of these centres include:

- Offering training and development programmes to meet the needs of the local community,
- Preparing training portfolios,
- Monitoring and overseeing the application of training programmes and courses conducted by the Centre,
- Enhancing cooperation and coordination with private businesses in the areas of training and benefiting from their experience and expertise in the training field.

The MoE identifies the objectives of in-service training as follows:

1. The retention and re-education of those teachers and school officers who have been incompetently trained, and low achievers in terms of academic qualifications.
2. The provision of public school workforce with opportunities to develop further their skills and raise their academic standards.
3. Offering teachers the chance to keep abreast of developments in their subject area and specialism, and to strive to learn new teaching skills and techniques

The MoE encourages teachers to join these programmes by supplying them free of charge and paying for teachers' transport. Such training courses are also taken into account when assessing teachers in any recruitment procedures such as applying for a head teacher's or deputy head teacher's post, as well as when moving between schools. The courses, which are often held at the educational training centre of the relevant

regional education authority, last from two to five days and entitle the trainee to a certificate of attendance which can be added to his/her CV. Teachers can choose freely among the many programmes on offer, up to a maximum of four per term or eight per year.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented general information about Saudi Arabia and its education system. It has offered evidence of the great efforts which the authorities have made in recent decades to improve the quality of general education, especially secondary education. Likewise, higher education has witnessed major developments. However, despite the acknowledged value of the profound changes in the Saudi education system, there has been some criticism, particularly with regard to teachers' lack of autonomy over the curriculum, to employing new teachers at lower levels, and to teachers' limited participation in the formulation of their duties. Finally, while the Educational Training Directorate offers diverse in-service courses, these are all of short duration. The views of respondents regarding these criticisms and other factors potentially affecting teachers' satisfaction and motivation will be addressed at length in Chapters Five, Six and Seven.

Meanwhile, Chapter Three presents a review of the literature relevant to the study.

## **Chapter Three**

### **Literature Review**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter expounds the theoretical foundations and background of the present study, by reviewing literature relating to the topics of job satisfaction and motivation in general, in educational settings and among teachers in particular. It begins by examining various definitions of job satisfaction and motivation and highlighting the importance of these concepts, particularly for teachers. It then outlines theories of job satisfaction and motivation. Based on these theories and prior research, it discusses the role of determinant factors including demographic variables. The chapter concludes with a review of international and Saudi studies of job satisfaction and motivation, in order to establish the knowledge base on which this study builds.

#### **3.2 The Concept of Job Satisfaction**

This section discusses definitions of job satisfaction in general, before considering job satisfaction in teachers and the importance of job satisfaction.

##### **3.2.1 Definition of job satisfaction**

The word ‘satisfaction’, derived from the Latin *satis* (enough) and *facere* (do or make) (Oliver, 2010), denotes a feeling of happiness or pleasure because a person has achieved something or obtained what s/he wanted (Longman Modern English Dictionary).

There have been many attempts to define the specific term ‘job satisfaction’ over the last few decades (Giese & Cote, 2000; Okaro, Eze, & Ohagwu, 2010). One of the more commonly used definitions is that proposed by Locke (1976): “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (p.1300).

However, many authors and researchers suggest that there is no clear agreement about the concept of job satisfaction (Bernal, Castel, Navarro, & Torres, 2005; Evans, 1997; Giese & Cote, 2000; Monyatsi, 2012; Oplatka & Mimon, 2008; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). According to Oplatka and Mimon (2008), “there is no universal definition of the concept of job satisfaction” (p.136). Rhodes, Nevill and Allan (2004) suggest that the endeavour is conceptually problematic, while Evans (1997) views the

concept as inherently ambiguous as to whether it refers to circumstances deemed satisfactory or satisfying.

Al-Owaidi (2001) states that there are various interpretations of job satisfaction due to the complexity of the concept, while Okaro et al. (2010) also emphasise that job satisfaction is a complex concept comprising numerous related elements. Moreover, Al-Amri (1992) argues that differences in culture, beliefs, values and environment among writers can significantly affect their understanding of the concept. Similarly, the difficulty of defining job satisfaction can be attributed to the use of the term in different contexts and settings, where it can be conceptualised as a need, attitude, feeling or attribute. These four perspectives are now explored in order to broaden the understanding of job satisfaction.

#### **3.2.1.1 Job satisfaction as a need**

Some definitions are associated with the concept of individual needs and whether they are being met in the work environment. This view is consistent with the earlier ideas of job satisfaction addressed by Maslow's theory (1954) of hierarchical needs (food, security, social needs, needs for esteem and self-actualisation) and the two-factor or motivational-hygiene theory of Herzberg et al. (1957).

From this perspective, Bader (1997) defines job satisfaction as “the degree of satisfaction of the needs of the individual as a result of engaging in that work or occupation” (p.155). Others similarly state that job satisfaction represents the working environment that meets individuals' needs (Tewksbury & Higgins, 2006). However, since such definitions focus on individual needs, it can be argued that they ignore other related factors which may affect satisfaction, such as feelings, attitudes and the job itself.

#### **3.2.1.2 Job satisfaction as an attitude**

The second perspective is exemplified by Brayfield and Rothe (1951), who see job satisfaction as “[an] individual's attitude toward his work” (p.307). Numerous academics (e.g. Luthans, 1998; Oshagbemi, 1999; Oplatka & Mimon, 2008; Roelen, Koopmans & Groothoff, 2008) agree that job satisfaction is an attitude. Luthans (1998) defines it as an attitude developed by an individual towards a job and its conditions. Such attitudes may be positive or negative. For example, Vroom (1964) describes job satisfaction as “the positive orientation of an individual towards the work role which he



is presently occupying” (p.99). According to Weiss (2002), a positive or negative attitude depends upon the judgement of an individual towards the work environment, while for Akhtar et al. (2010), it is related to the individual’s positive and negative feelings about the job. Ilies and Judge (2004) assert that although job satisfaction has been defined as an emotional state, it is an attitudinal construct based on one’s evaluation of a job.

### **3.2.1.3 Job satisfaction as a feeling**

According to Griffin, Hogan and Lambert (2010), job satisfaction refers to a person’s subjective feelings about their work and how satisfied they are with it. In other words, job satisfaction represents the extent to which people like their jobs (Ganai and Ali, 2013; Muchinsky, 2000; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992) describe job satisfaction as an affective emotional reaction of individuals to the job they do and the environment in which they work.

An alternative hypothesis associates job satisfaction as a feeling with individual needs. Thus, Lambert, Hogan and Barton (2002) define job satisfaction as feelings that reflect one’s personal needs and whether these are fulfilled. Similarly, Evans (1998) defines job satisfaction as “a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be being met” (p.12).

From a rather different viewpoint, Schultz (1982) states that job satisfaction is “the psychological disposition of people toward their work and this involves a collection of numerous attitudes or feelings” (p.287). This definition appears to centre on the psychological state stemming from people’s feelings towards their job. For Oshagbemi (1999), job satisfaction is related to an individual’s positive emotional reactions towards their occupation, based on comparing the actual activities carried out by the individual with their desired outcomes.

### **3.2.1.4 Job satisfaction as specific aspects of the job**

Individuals usually have a number of tasks they must complete at work. According to Lawler (1973), job satisfaction can be seen as an affective response to particular features or tasks of the job role. Ashour (1988) agrees, stating that job satisfaction is more or less the level of gratification that can be attained through the different aspects or components of the job or occupational roles. Finally, Ladebo (2005) explores job

satisfaction in terms of its positive impact and benefits acquired through the various stages of an employee's service, or upon fulfilling certain elements of the job.

### **3.2.2 Definition of teachers' job satisfaction**

It can be concluded from the disparate definitions under the four categories above that the concept of job satisfaction encompasses various aspects of individuals' psychological tendencies and the environmental circumstances in which they work, all of which may contribute to pleasure or positive affect towards one's job.

In the educational context, according to Lawler (1973), teachers' job satisfaction is linked to the role they fulfil within schools; it is a positive relationship between teachers' desire to teach and what they want from the role, both of which are measured through their perceptions. This is supported by Ho and Au (2006), who maintain that teachers' satisfaction is a combination of what they need from their professional career and what they actually gain from it.

The definitions discussed above show that there are various interpretations of the concept of job satisfaction. Therefore, based upon the research objectives and literature review, this study adopts the following definition: *Teachers' job satisfaction refers to general and specific positive feelings and attitudes of secondary school teachers in the Saudi educational context, related to the needs they expect to be met by their job.*

### **3.2.3 Importance of job satisfaction**

The topic of job satisfaction among employees has received considerable research attention (Gautam et al., 2006; Giese & Cote, 2000; Okaro et al., 2010). Moreover, in organisational sciences, job satisfaction occupies a central role in many theories and models of individual attitudes and behaviour (Judge & Klinger, 2008). Similarly, the topic of teachers' job satisfaction has attracted the interest of many researchers (Abdullah, Uli, & Parasuraman, 2009). According to Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), studies conducted worldwide found that teachers' job satisfaction was the strongest factor that affected their overall life satisfaction. All of this research interest can be seen to reflect to the importance of job satisfaction to both employees and organisations.

Research has revealed an association between job satisfaction and various aspects of work, which may demonstrate its importance. For instance, according to Holdaway (1978), initial concerns regarding job satisfaction were the outcome of the assumption

that more satisfied workers would also be more productive. This view is supported by research evidence (Al-Hussami, 2008; Ellickson, 2002; Holdaway, 1978; Okaro et al., 2010; Oshagbemi, 2003; Noordin & Jusoff, 2009; Sledge, Milesb, & Coppage, 2008; Warr & Clapperton, 2010; Usop, Askandar, Langguyuan-Kadtong, & Usop, 2013). Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton (2001) conclude that satisfied employees are more likely to perform well in their jobs, while Lambert et al. (2002) found that high levels of job satisfaction were associated with positive behaviours such as support for rehabilitation and performance. Accordingly, satisfied employees are also likely to be more creative (Al-Hussami, 2008; Holdaway, 1978; Judge et al., 2001; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009).

Furthermore, it has been emphasised that satisfied employees are likely to be committed to their employers (Al-Hussami, 2008; Noordin & Jusoff, 2009). Conversely, job dissatisfaction is linked with high absenteeism (Dupré & Day 2007; Lambert et al., 2002; Monyatsi, 2012; Okaro et al., 2010; Oshagbemi, 1999; Perrachione et al. 2008) and turnover (Chang, Wunn, & Tseng, 2003; Griffin et al., 2010; Lambert et al., 2002; Oshagbemi, 2003; Sledge et al., 2008).

Satisfaction is also linked with employees' physical and mental wellbeing (Akhtar et al., 2010; Oshagbemi, 1999; Klassen et al., 2010; Roelen et al., 2008) and it is crucial to understand this relationship. Hence, Rutebuka (2000) argues that job satisfaction can be highly significant in ensuring the overall wellbeing of employees, considering how long they spend working within their lifetime.

With regard to the importance of teachers' job satisfaction, Perrachione et al. (2008) note that job satisfaction studies in the field of education have revealed effects on at least three important related outcomes: retention, attrition and absenteeism. Several researchers (e.g. Bogler, 2002; De Nobile & McCormick, 2008; Roos & Eden, 2008; Shann, 1998) report that teachers' job satisfaction may affect their retention. This leads DeStefano (2002) to suggest that researchers should examine teachers' job satisfaction from the human resources development and promotion perspective, as it may enable educational institutions and principals to improve retention rates.

Therefore, one way of perceiving teachers' satisfaction is in terms of the factors of attrition and retention. Houchins, Shippen and Jolivette (2006) posit that satisfied teachers judge themselves more positively when it comes to measuring levels of

retention. This view is emphasised by Monyatsi (2012), who argues that high job satisfaction among teachers motivates them to remain in the teaching sector. Conversely, lack of job satisfaction is a strong predictor of leaving the current school (Popoola, 2009). Accordingly, job satisfaction can to a large extent determine teachers' commitment, absenteeism and turnover (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008; Monyatsi, 2012; Shann, 1998).

Furthermore, job satisfaction can influence teachers' performance. According to Shann (1998), satisfied teachers are more likely to perform well, whereas Abdullah et al. (2009) affirm that dissatisfied teachers may not perform to the best of their abilities. Akhtar et al. (2010) found that job satisfaction was linked not only to performance, but also to teachers' involvement, commitment and motivation. Ostroff (1992) reports that job satisfaction motivates teachers to perform their tasks effectively, thereby improving the educational process. Hurren (2006) argues that job satisfaction is highly significant in education, since satisfied teachers will be more willing and enthusiastic.

As a result of the above effects, teachers' job satisfaction can lead also to students being more satisfied and enthusiastic about the learning process. According to Bishay (1996), job satisfaction is beneficial not only for teachers but also for students. It may be responsible for making students more enthusiastic towards learning (Hurren, 2006) and influencing their performance (Shann, 1998). Nguni et al. (2006) further suggest that satisfied teachers will be more willing to invest extra time and energy in their work. Their greater involvement in performing educational tasks and in spending time with students can have a positive impact on overall student attainment (Cerit, 2009). Conversely, dissatisfied teachers are less effective in the classroom (Bennell & Akyeampong 2007; Csikzentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986; Ganai & Ali, 2013).

Job satisfaction is also a key factor in enhancing teachers' welfare. Eyupoglu and Saner (2009) refer to satisfaction as the impact of their work on the psychological and physical wellbeing of the teaching staff. Additionally, several researchers (e.g. Borg & Riding, 1991; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979; Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1999) have reported a significant correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and stress, whereby teachers with high stress were found to be less satisfied with teaching. Moreover, Platsidou and Agaliotis (2008) report that perceived high job satisfaction among teachers correlated with low levels of burnout,

while other researchers (e.g. Griffin et al., 2010; Lambert et al., 2002; Popoola, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009; Tsigilis, Zachopoulou, & Grammatikopoulos, 2006) have found a significant relationship between burnout and lack of job satisfaction. Brackett, Palomera, Mojsa-Kaja, Reyes and Salovey (2010) found that secondary school teachers in England could be exposed to less burnout and higher job satisfaction, while staying in the profession for a longer period and being more efficient in the classroom setting. Thus, it can be argued that studies across different cultures show that measures of teacher burnout predict both subjective and objective health, as well as teachers' motivation and job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009).

In all these ways, teachers' job satisfaction contributes substantially to the growth and development of the educational system (Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013; Perie & Baker, 1997; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). Eyupoglu and Saner (2009) point out that higher job satisfaction among academics is positively associated with achieving the goals of education. Similarly, certain researchers propose that satisfied teachers are likely to achieve more work goals (Aronson et al., 2005; Warr & Clapperton, 2010). However, the level of job satisfaction differs among employees, so school administrators should take appropriate measures to increase the level of job satisfaction among teachers and in turn improve the teaching process (Hurren, 2006). Rocca and Kostanski (2001) argue that in order "to keep schools running effectively, increase teacher's productivity, teaching ability and ensure students are receiving an adequate and even superior education, certain facets of job satisfaction need to be addressed" (p.19). They add that this means addressing not only pay and development opportunities, but also resources and environmental conditions, including class sizes, classroom conditions and work demands.

To summarize, the literature indicates that job satisfaction has a potentially significant impact on teachers' retention, performance and wellbeing, physical and mental. Accordingly, educational authorities should understand what satisfies teachers and how they can increase teachers' satisfaction with the job, which the present study attempts to investigate among Saudi secondary school teachers.

Attention now turns to motivation, then to its relationship with job satisfaction.

### **3.3 The Concept of Motivation**

This section first explores the definition of motivation, then considers its importance for employees in general and for teachers in particular.

#### **3.3.1 Definition of motivation**

The word ‘motivation’ derives ultimately from the Latin root of *movere* (move) (Kızıltepe, 2008; Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004).

According to Kızıltepe (2008), motivation possibly constitutes one of the most investigated areas, particularly in the psychology and education fields. The large number of studies of motivation have led to the emergence of many definitions during the twentieth century (Campbell, 2007; Roos & Eeden, 2008). Malik and Naeem (2009) note the growing number of definitions, but comment that most refer to the notion of promoting enthusiasm to achieve particular goals. Similarly, Robbins (2003) describes employees’ motivation as “the willingness to exert high levels of effort to reach organizational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need” (p.205).

Campbell (2007) indicates that motivation is a construct that specifies the direction an individual may follow in their job, and the emotional energy and affective experiences which support or inhibit movement in that direction. Schunk, Pintrich and Meece (2008) support this focus on the direction of an individual’s goals, whereas Ryan and Deci (2000) provide a different perspective, in which they relate motivation to reasons for actions taken by individuals regarding their jobs, which may be attributed to intrinsic or extrinsic factors.

Furthermore, it has been suggested that the motivation of an individual is an inner force affected by personal factors which may change from time to time (Lindner, 1998; Roos & Eeden, 2008). However, these factors depend upon certain needs and motives of individuals. Campbell and Pritchard (1976) state:

Motivation has to do with a set of independent/dependent variables, relationships that explain the direction, amplitude and persistence of an individual’s behaviour, holding constant the effect of aptitude, skill and understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment. (p.73)

In view of this, Halepota (2005) describes motivation as an abstract concept which is related to various strategies that produce a variety of results at different points in time.

Thus, several authors suggest that motivation, like satisfaction, has no clear and universally accepted definition (Locke & Latham, 2004; Olorube, 2006; Rhodes, 2006).

### **3.3.2 Importance of motivation**

Motivation can be considered a key factor that can affect people's working conditions. Addison and Brundrett (2008) see it as extremely important for both personal and organisational performance. In this regard, Shaari, Yaakub and Hashim (2002) indicate that highly motivated individuals tend to perform well at work and to be more responsible and conscientious. Similarly, Halepota (2005) states that motivation makes employees work better and therefore results in higher productivity, as well as generating higher profits for their organisation.

Singla (2009) summarises the importance of employee motivation as follows; it:

- Improves performance level.
- Helps to change negative or indifferent attitudes of employees.
- Reduces employee turnover.
- Helps to reduce absenteeism.
- Reduces resistance to change.

While Garrett (1999) argues that the complexity of teachers' attitudes and working conditions means that there is no clear explanation of what motivates or de-motivates them, others do attempt such explanations. For example, Moreira, Fox and Sparkes (2002) state that teachers' motivation relates to their keenness and endeavour in carrying out their work and to their willingness to remain in education; dissatisfied teachers may seek alternative options with more attractive prospects for work achievements, career development and quality of life.

Another critical aspect of teachers' motivation to teach is its impact on students' motivation to learn (Jesus & Lens, 2005; Recepoglu, 2013). Thus, Rasheed et al. (2010) emphasise that motivated teachers contribute to the promotion of educational quality and the development of students into good citizens. Bishay (1996) found a positive correlation between teachers' motivation and student's achievements, while Michaelowa (2002) and Otube (2004) report that de-motivated teachers negatively affect the quality of education and students' learning and wellbeing.

According to Jesus and Lens (2005), teachers' motivation is also important for educational reforms, as motivated teachers are able to work towards reforming the

educational system. More importantly, motivated teachers can ensure that policy reforms are implemented. Additionally, teachers' motivation is important for their self-satisfaction and to achieve their goals. Therefore, it can be argued that teacher motivation contributes to the long-term success and performance of the educational system (Otube, 2004; Recepoglu, 2013).

It can be concluded that there is an ongoing debate on defining motivation and identifying the factors that motivate employees. However, for the purpose of this study, *teachers' motivation refers to the driving force which underpins secondary school teachers' efforts to meet their work goals within the Saudi educational context.*

### **3.4 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Motivation**

The ambiguity of the terms 'satisfaction' and 'motivation' can make it difficult to distinguish between them, resulting in their interchangeable usage in the literature (Addison & Brundrett, 2008). Dinham and Scott (2000) and Foster (2000) ascribe this confusion to their interrelatedness, while Lather and Jain (2005) argue that the concepts of job satisfaction and motivation underpin, reinforce and uphold each other. A satisfied worker is more likely to be motivated and vice versa.

Mukherjee (2005) identifies an interesting link between job satisfaction and work motivation as relating to inner psychological states. As such, they cannot be observed, only deduced from employees' conduct. Motivation can be stimulated through an individual's anticipations and beliefs of how his or her needs can be met by the results he achieves at work, while satisfaction is a workers' appraisal of how far his anticipations and needs are fulfilled.

Several studies have supported this relationship between motivation and job satisfaction. For example, Mertler (2002) found a direct link between increased levels of motivation and higher job satisfaction, while Karsli & Iskender (2009) studied 400 teachers in Turkey and concluded that those who were more highly motivated were more satisfied than their less well-motivated colleagues. Sargent & Hannum (2005) also found that the more satisfied teachers are, the higher their motivation and commitment to their work. Finally, Ahmed, Nawaz, Iqbal, Ali, Shaukat, & Usman (2010) suggest that certain motivational features play a crucial role in improving job satisfaction.

A link between job satisfaction and motivation is also supported theoretically (Mullins, 2005). Two-factor theory, for example, identifies a direct association between



the two (Herzberg et al., 1957), while in Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), there is an indirect link between the two concepts.

Nevertheless, a number of researchers still believe that satisfaction is not the same as motivation and that there is a major difference between them (Ganai & Ali, 2013; Thompson, 1996; Mullins, 2008). Job satisfaction is more of an approach or an inner condition, which can be associated with a personal sentiment about accomplishment or gain, whether quantitative or qualitative gain, whereas motivation is a process which may guarantee and allow for job satisfaction to occur.

Garrett (1999) also suggests that motivation is more intricate than satisfaction, since the latter depends on personal needs to prioritise biological and social requirements. However, satisfaction has a significant role to play in terms of reducing the starting and basic needs of people, which can also lead to the appearance of new or higher order needs in motivation theory.

The current study assumes motivation and job satisfaction to be distinct but interlinked concepts. However, job satisfaction remains the main concern throughout. The next section discusses theories of motivation and job satisfaction.

### **3.5 Theories of Job Satisfaction and Motivation**

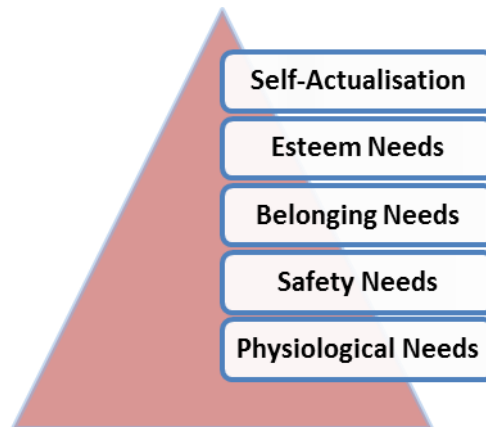
Given the multitude of studies of job satisfaction, an exhaustive account of motivation and job satisfaction theories would be impractical. Instead, this section presents a brief account of relevant theories and their application to job satisfaction and motivation, as well as their limitations as seen from a variety of points of view.

The theories can be split into two main categories: content and process theories (French, Rayner, Rees, & Rumbles, 2011; Gruneberg, 1979; Mullins, 2008). Content theories concentrate on the work factors that influence job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979), highlighting internal factors that affect people's behaviour. Most prominent are the needs hierarchy theory (Maslow, 1954) and two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959). Process theories are mainly concerned with the connection between job satisfaction and factors such as expectations, values, needs and perceptions (Gruneberg, 1979). Of particular interest is the initiation of behaviour and how it is managed and maintained (Mullins, 2008). Major contributions are expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) and equity theory (Adams, 1963).

### 3.5.1 Content theories

#### 3.5.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954) focuses on individual needs (Punnett, 2004), organised into a hierarchy of five levels (Figure 3.1). When individuals have fulfilled the set of needs at one level, they then pursue those at the level above (Wilson, 2010).



**Figure 3.1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs**

At the base, Maslow (1954) places physiological needs such as food, water and clothing, which are essential to the satisfaction and sustainability of life. However, it is not enough to meet these needs in the workplace. There should also be some sort of security achieved at the second level, meaning a safe workplace and the avoidance of physical harm, such as excessive heat, cold, the presence of poisonous chemicals, or the occurrence of accident or injury. When physiological and safety needs are met, the need to belong becomes important. Workers feel a need to belong and interact socially in good relationships. Next comes the need for esteem, divided into two types: self-esteem and esteem conferred by other people. Once all the foregoing needs have been satisfied, the individual may accomplish self-actualisation needs, at the top of the pyramid.

The higher needs are not critical for life, which means their attainment can be delayed, but an unfulfilled more basic need will lead to a crisis. Maslow therefore calls the lower needs “deficit needs” and the higher ones “growth” or “being needs” (Boey, 2010). Thus, the deficit needs must be satisfied before any growth can take place.

This hierarchy is underpinned by three basic assumptions. Firstly, once a need is satisfied, it becomes less important as a motivator, while different needs become

important, so people are constantly looking to satisfy a need. Second, people's needs are complex and influence their behaviour. Third, lower-level needs must be satisfied before higher ones. Therefore, these levels are dependent on one another (Callahan, Fleenor, & Knudson, 1986; Hellriegel & Slocum 2007). Nevertheless, Jain (2005) suggests that it may be easier to satisfy higher than lower needs.

Despite the wide use and application of Maslow's theory, it has been widely criticised. Several researchers (e.g. Wahba & Bridwell 1976; Hollyforde & Whiddett 2002) argue that its application is not straightforward. The factor analysis of Wahba & Bridwell (1976) does not support Maslow's classification; they report that testing the theory was problematic, especially with regard to measuring the strength of feeling about certain needs and exactly how people ascertain that needs have been met. Consistent with this, Hollyforde and Whiddett (2002) argue that it is difficult to categorise needs hierarchically.

According to Heylighen (1992), although needs are stated in simple terms and categorised in a fairly consistent manner, "self-actualisation is not clearly defined" (p.45). It is a problematic term, since it depends on the idea that individuals have talents, the use of which makes the achievement of self-actualisation possible. The difficulty with this idea is that each individual's context is highly complex and is often subject to differences between potential development and unrealised (manageable) development. As Maslow's work does not include a cohesive framework, it has been assessed negatively.

Furthermore, Maslow's theory is based on American organisations. While there may be some similarity in the values of Western countries, those of other cultures worldwide might differ and follow a completely different hierarchical structure. As a consequence, the theory is not applicable to other cultures (Harris & Hartman, 2002).

According to Heylighen (1992), Maslow drew on papers published in the 1940s and 1950s instead of conducting primary research. He was uncertain about how to assess individuals' needs. For instance, psychological needs were not based on experimental studies because of difficulties in investigating them. Thus, had Maslow conducted primary research, more sophisticated results might have emerged. Mullins (2008) identifies other weaknesses in Maslow's theory. For example, individuals who cannot satisfy all of their work needs may compensate by fulfilling other life needs. Thus,

managers should take into account the social lives of employees as well as their behaviour. People also differ in their needs, so some seek safety, while others prefer a higher wage or rank. Thus, motivation factors are not the same for everyone.

Despite these criticisms, Barker (1992) states that a hierarchy of needs does seem to exist, and that the needs identified by Maslow are valid and well-documented. Moreover, Mullins (2008) indicates that Maslow’s work has identified some of the motivators which have been the stimulus for further studies. Such a ranking model is a good basis for assessing motivation in the workplace. Although Maslow’s theory has some limitations, it has been influential in shaping organisational practices intended to motivate employees and meet their needs. Furthermore, it serves as a useful umbrella model in explaining the concepts of job satisfaction and motivation. A major weakness is that it does not deal with the specifics of work environments, but it is undoubtedly one of the best known older theories still widely quoted (Furnham, 2005; Williams, 2006).

### 3.5.1.2 Herzberg’s two-factor theory

Almost equally prominent is the two-factor theory, which Herzberg et al. (1959) based on qualitative empirical research, interviewing engineers about the issues and feelings that affected their attitudes towards their work. The theory assumes that factors relating to job satisfaction are wholly different from those connected to job dissatisfaction. Thus, Herzberg et al. (1959) propose two sets of factors: motivator factors and hygiene factors (Figure 3.2).

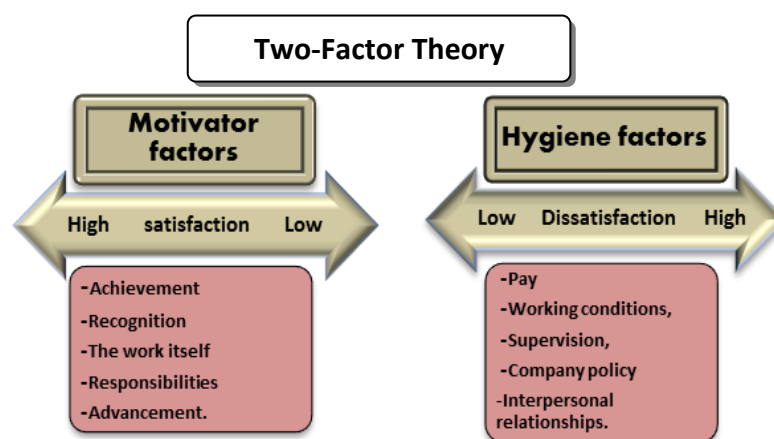


Figure 3.2: Two-factor theory

Motivator factors determine the job satisfaction that allows individuals to reach their psychological potential, and are usually intrinsic, related to job content. They include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibilities and advancement. By contrast, hygiene factors determine job dissatisfaction and tend to be extrinsic ones, related to the environment or context, including pay, working conditions, supervision, company policy and interpersonal relationships. Importantly, these factors are autonomous; low job satisfaction and high job dissatisfaction are not the same thing and vice versa; nor indeed are job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction related causally (Garrett, 1999; Wilson, 2010). Poor hygiene conditions will cause job dissatisfaction, so if conditions are improved sufficiently, dissatisfaction will be eliminated, but job satisfaction will not automatically result (Kyriacou, Kunc, Stephens, & Hultgren, 2003).

This theory has also been widely criticised, particularly over Herzberg's research methods (Agarwal, 2008; Locke, 1975; Vroom, 1963). According to Mullins (2008), the critical incident method and the positive or negative feelings that arise from an event's description both have an impact on eventual results. People are more likely to see a satisfying event at work (a motivator) as being caused by their own good performance, whereas they will see events producing dissatisfaction, such as hygiene factors, as caused by outside forces or other people. Interviewers also had to interpret the respondent's descriptions, so picking out individual dimensions is problematic, and there is a risk of interviewer bias.

There is also some doubt about the validity of Herzberg's theory, since it has not often been empirically tested and does not consider the variations between the attributes of individuals (Furnham, 2005; Ganguli, 1994). Moreover, there have been some concerns regarding the reliability of Herzberg's methodology. Findings depend on the interpretation of raters, who may interpret responses inconsistently (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2009). Finally, Herzberg has been accused of oversimplifying both the relationship between satisfaction and motivation, and the origins of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Ganguli, 1994; House & Wigdor, 1967).

Nevertheless, understanding of job satisfaction has been greatly enhanced by two-factor theory. Its real-world grounding has helped organisations to classify factors that lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction amongst workers. Sachau (2007) suggests that it is best to view motivation-hygiene theory as a framework that facilitates the understanding

of the duality of many factors such as “satisfaction/dissatisfaction, happiness/unhappiness, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, mastery/status, and psychological growth/psychological pain avoidance” (p.389). In educational research, it is widely accepted and the most commonly used theory of job satisfaction (Hill, 1994; De Nobile and McCormick, 2008).

In summary, Maslow’s and Herzberg’s theories are similar in some respects. According to Kyriacou et al. (2003), Maslow’s concept of low-level deficiency resembles Herzberg’s idea of hygiene factors, whilst motivator factors are similar to high-level growth needs. Moreover, when picking out factors that lead to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, both theories are often used. Despite this, employee needs are not seen as a basis for satisfaction or dissatisfaction in Herzberg’s theory, and while its main focus is on the parameters of job satisfaction, factors are not ranked into any hierarchy.

### 3.5.2 Process theories

This section examines the two most prominent process theories: expectancy theory and equity theory.

#### 3.5.2.1 Vroom’s expectancy theory

The basic premises of expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) are that the anticipated consequences of a person’s behaviour greatly affect that person’s motivation and that people derive satisfaction from what they see as the likely result of their actions. Before acting, individuals think about the likely effects, then act in the way that has the best chance of success and will also be most rewarding.

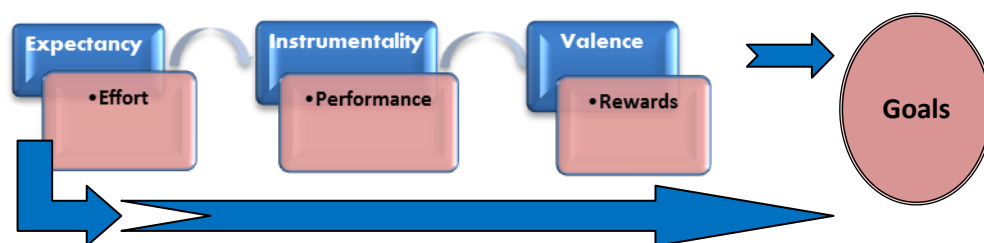


Figure 3.3: Expectancy theory

In their choice of work behaviour, employees take into account three factors, as shown in Figure 3.3: valence, which is the degree to which the expected outcomes are attractive or unattractive, instrumentality, which means how much they believe a set level of performance will lead to attainment of a desired outcome, and expectancy, the extent to which a worker thinks making an effort will achieve a goal (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007). Expectancy theory perceives motivation as a multiplication of these elements (Furnham, 2005; Martin & Fellenz, 2010). Consequently, when valence, instrumentality and expectancy are high, motivation will be high. Furthermore, if any one element is not present, then overall motivation will be zero. For example, even if a worker believes that her/his effort will lead to a performance worthy of reward, motivation will be zero if the valence of the expected reward is zero.

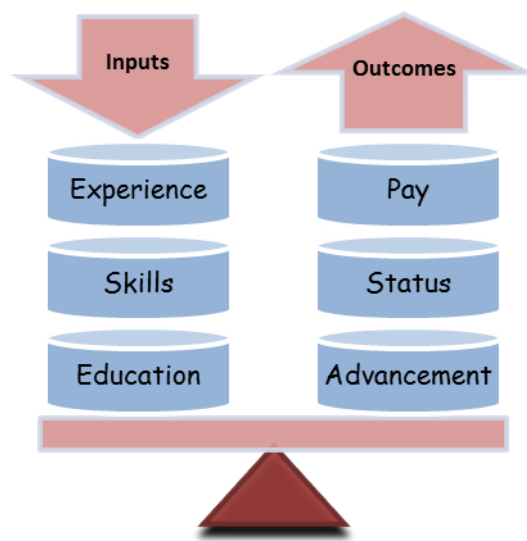
Expectancy theory also has limitations. Borkowski (2009) states that it does not take into account the relationship between the job satisfaction of an individual and their performance. Lee (1993) argues that it does not explain what kind of performance leads to job satisfaction or the expected rewards. It may not detail the specific differences in job satisfaction, or set out ideas about the actual factors behind employee satisfaction (Luthans, 1998). Moreover, Pinnington and Edwards (2000) argue that it is too simple in comparison with the complexity of motivation and job satisfaction. The notion of effort is difficult to define (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007), making it problematic to quantify variables, so correlations among empirical data are weak (Lee, 1993).

Another major criticism is that the theory may apply only to specific cultures which place emphasis on internal attribution and workers who think they have some control over their conduct and work environment, as found in the US, UK and Canada. Conversely, in Saudi Arabia and Iran, for example, people do not believe that they have significant control over their work and its environment, so expectancy theory cannot be applied easily (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2007).

Despite these limitations, the expectancy model has demonstrated some validity (Robbins et al., 2009) and holds great promise for predicting job satisfaction, occupational choice and behaviour in organisations (Sears, Rudisill, & Mason-Sears, 2006). Consequently, it occupies a key position in work motivation studies (Luthans, 1998; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996), and has been effectively applied to understanding behaviour in several organizational contexts (Furnham, 1994).

### 3.5.2.2 Equity theory

Equity theory (Adams, 1963) is a social comparison theory, concerned with the feelings of individuals about their treatment by managers in comparison with their colleagues. Satisfaction is determined by how individuals perceive equity, which determines the balance between inputs and outputs, allowing comparison with others. In other words, the theory focuses on relative under-reward of the individual and over-reward of others, which may result in a sense of being unfairly treated and thus in dissatisfaction (Griffin & Moorhead, 2010; Agarwal, 2008).



**Figure 3.4: Equity theory**

Equity theory is based on three main factors related to the understanding of motivation: inputs, outcomes and referents. As shown in Figure 3.4, inputs are what workers bring to an assigned job (e.g. experience, skills, education) while job-related rewards (e.g. pay, fringe benefits, status, opportunities for advancement, job security) are known as outcomes. The inputs and outcomes of one person are compared with those of the referent, i.e. another person or group, often peers in the workplace (George & Jones, 2005). If input/output ratios are maintained at the same level, job satisfaction results, as workers become motivated to keep the ratio at the same level, or try to increase inputs so as to increase outcomes. If unbalanced ratios or under-rewards are perceived, however, inequity and job dissatisfaction will result (Adams, 1963).



A feeling of inequity causes tension, which is unpleasant, so individuals tend to try to reduce inequity, by increasing or reducing their inputs or outputs relative to those of the other person. Alternatively, in response to inequity of any type, a worker may change his referent or “leave the field” (Adams, 1963, p.427).

Again, this theory has been criticised. Gruneberg (1979) suggests that it explains only workers’ satisfaction with pay but does not deal with other practical aspects of work. Vroom (1969) argues that it is complicated and impractical to test, while Mowday (1987) doubts whether overpaid workers will feel unhappy. A worker’s perceptions will determine feelings of equity or inequity, and these may not be accurate. Furthermore, individuals will differ greatly as to how sensitive they are to equity ratios and the balance of preference (Riggio, 1990).

From another point of view, Donovan (2002) notes an ambiguity regarding the comparisons individuals make, as equity theory fails to explain how referents are chosen. Accordingly, no empirical examination of this process has yet been made. Finally, the theory unrealistically assumes that workers use only one referent to evaluate their inputs/outcomes.

Nevertheless, a number of researchers, including Muchinsky (2000) and Jost & Kay (2010), view equity theory favourably. Bolino and Turnley (2008) report that it has received significant attention, particularly from organizational scholars. Moreover, studies by McKenna (2000) and Sweeney (1990) reveal how much it has helped to further the understanding of job satisfaction and motivation.

### **3.5.3 Content and process theories compared**

This review is helpful in understanding and explaining job satisfaction and motivation, by demonstrating their complicated and multidimensional nature and indicating that all theories in this field, whether of content or process, focus on human behaviour and behavioural management. All have their critics and none is comprehensive in scope (Mullins, 2008). In other words, no theory is definitively better than another. While needs theories are widely used in researching satisfaction and work effort, expectancy theory can be utilised in the prediction of organisational behaviour and equity theory offers a framework for the study of employee needs and effort (Landy & Becker 1987).

### 3.6 Job Satisfaction Factors

From the overview of motivation and job satisfaction theories presented in the previous section and other studies in the literature, it is clear that a variety of factors can influence job satisfaction. This diversity may be seen as reflecting the complex nature of the concept. According to Mullins (2008),

There is some doubt whether job satisfaction consists of a single dimension or a number of separate dimensions; some workers may be satisfied with certain aspects of their work and dissatisfied with other aspects. Job satisfaction itself a complex concept and difficult to measure objectively. (p.199)

Many researchers view job satisfaction as multidimensional (Conklin & Desselle, 2007; Roelen et al., 2008; Smith et al., 1969; Wharton, Rotolo, & Bird, 2000; William, McDaniel, & Ford, 2007). According to Chimanikire, Mutandwa, Gadzirayi, Muzondo, & Mutandwa (2007), “Job satisfaction is a multi-pronged concept affected by the interplay of factors emanating from the business environment, government policies and personality factors” (p.167).

Thus, multiple studies have sought to determine which factors contribute to satisfaction and which to dissatisfaction. Furnham (2005) indicates that the factors proposed in most studies of job satisfaction can be categorised into three main groups: organizational policies and procedures, such as rewards, supervision, decision-making and practices; the specific aspects of a job, such as workload, variety, autonomy and the physical working environment; and personal characteristics, such as self-esteem and overall life satisfaction.

Alternatively, Mullins (2008) identifies five groups of variables that affect job satisfaction:

- 1) Individual factors, such as character, education, qualifications, age and marital status;
- 2) Social factors, including relationships with colleagues, group working and standards and scope for communication;
- 3) Factors connected with culture, such as value systems and beliefs;
- 4) Organisational factors, including working conditions, management systems and the nature of the work;

5) Environmental factors, e.g. economic, social, political and technical influences.

Other researchers, such as Buitendach and De Witte (2005) and Armstrong (2006), propose two broad groups: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic factors apply to the individual and include personality, education, age and marital status, whereas extrinsic factors, such as promotion, colleagues, supervisors and recognition, lie outside.

In the educational context, certain researchers (e.g. Crossman & Harris, 2006; Mau, Ellsworth, & Hawley, 2008) have attempted to determine job satisfaction factors for teachers and suggest a threefold classification into environmental factors, such as colleagues, the work itself and leadership style, psychological factors like personality and attitude, and personal variables, including age and gender.

As the present study is concerned with the factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction, the following subsections discuss the most commonly cited factors, with special emphasis on education.

### **3.6.1 Pay**

Pay is a primary concern of individuals seeking work. Workers' remuneration is an incentive central to their personal finances and their social standing. Unless workers are happy with their salary, their attitudes and behaviour may be affected, so it is crucial that employers set pay at a satisfactory level (Milkovich & Newman, 2008; Singh & Loncar, 2010; Mhozya, 2007). Therefore, pay is a key component in determining job satisfaction. Its significance is greater than the purchasing power it confers, as it may also signal achievement and respect, or failure (Gruneberg, 1979).

Two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1957) suggests that increasing pay could prevent worker dissatisfaction, while equity theory (Adams, 1963) states that people will be satisfied when they view a reward structure such as pay as fair. Conversely, pay inequity is linked to low satisfaction (Sweeney, 1990). Similarly, expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) views pay as a reward that should meet workers' expectations.

In line with job satisfaction studies in general (Ranganayakulu, 2005; Terpstra & Honoree, 2004; Spector, 1997; Munyon, Hochwarter, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2010), pay has been found to have differing effects on teachers' satisfaction. Some studies report that pay contributes positively (Mora, Garcia-Aracil, & Vila, 2007; Kearney, 2008; Tickle, Chang, & Kim, 2011; Wisniewski, 1990), while for others it correlates with teachers'

dissatisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2009; Akiri & Ugborugbo, 2009; Akpofure, Ikhifa, Imide, & Okokoyo 2006; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Koustelios, 2001; Ladebo, 2005; Mhozya, 2007; Monyatsi, 2012; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Shah, Ali, & Khan, 2012; Ofili, Usiholo, & Oronsaye 2009). Moreover, Abd-El-Fattah (2010) found that pay did not significantly affect the job satisfaction of Egyptian primary school teachers; even after a pay increase, they remained dissatisfied with their profession.

It would be hard to draw general conclusions from these studies, since they were conducted in many different countries with diverse cultures. Money seems to have varying levels of importance in different cultures and can be more critical for workers who are unsatisfied with other aspects of their work (Gruneberg, 1979; Miner, 2007). For example, in poorer countries where teaching takes place outside and teachers have to take on additional jobs to provide for their families, pay may be more important. Teachers in these situations link job satisfaction or overall happiness with their salary (Michaelowa, 2002). Conversely, when workers attain a comfortable standard of living (in the United States for example), greater earnings increase satisfaction only up to a certain point, beyond which pay rises do not affect it (Robbins et al., 2009).

In the Saudi context, most researchers (e.g. Al-Gahtani, 2002; Al-Thenian, 2001) have found that teachers were satisfied with their pay. Similarly, Al-Zahrani (1995) found that most participating secondary school teachers in Jeddah believed their salaries matched their workload. However, other studies have found that teachers were less satisfied with their pay than with other job satisfaction factors (Al-Shahrani, 2009; Al-Shrari, 2003).

### **3.6.2 Promotion**

Promotion is of considerable importance for employees in any organization. According to Ranganayakulu (2005) and Lester (1987), besides entailing higher pay, it increases workers' social standing and can lead to personal growth. It is therefore considered very important in determining job satisfaction and has received considerable attention (Locke, 1976; Patchen, 1960; Vroom, 1964). Herzberg et al. (1957) view promotion as a satisfier in itself, while Adams (1965) argues that job satisfaction can increase when workers view promotion policies as fair and transparent.

In educational settings, opportunities for promotion are found to correlate with job satisfaction and influence teacher satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2009; Mwanwenda,

2004; Sirima & Poipoi, 2010). Similarly, Reddy (2007) found that promotion affected job satisfaction among special needs teachers in India, who were generally satisfied with adequate opportunities for promotion.

On the other hand, some researchers have found that teachers were dissatisfied with opportunities for promotion (Achoka, Poipoi, & Sirima, 2011; Adelabu, 2005; Dinham & Scott, 2000; Koustelios, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999; Mkumbo, 2011; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Mhozya (2007) interviewed and surveyed elementary school teachers in Botswana, only 15 percent of whom considered their opportunities for promotion adequate. The majority felt dissatisfied by the poorly defined promotion procedures. In a more recent study, Monyatsi (2012) found that most Botswanan teachers were dissatisfied with inadequate promotion opportunities.

In Saudi Arabia, Al-Zahrani (1995) similarly found that most teachers were not satisfied with the scope for promotion. More recently, Al-Hazmi (2007) reported similar findings regarding job satisfaction among female secondary school teachers in Abha, in southern Saudi Arabia, who complained that they had to wait more than four years to move to a higher pay grade. These few studies provide insufficient evidence that opportunities for promotion are an important factor in determining teachers' job satisfaction in the Saudi educational context, however. This suggests a lack of in-depth studies in this area. It is also important to note that promotions in Saudi Arabia occur annually without regard to a teacher's effort or the quality of their work; teachers all receive the same upgrade annually (section 2.3.8).

### **3.6.3 Supervision**

Supervision can be seen as a key factor affecting job satisfaction (Agarwal, 2008; Jain, 2005; Lester & Newstrom, 1992; Folsom & Boulware, 2004). Bradley and Ladany (2001) view supervision as the strategic interplay between supervisor and supervisee, which must be based on "trust and mutual respect" (Sullivan & Glanz, 2009, p.164). Supervision often entails helping or advising a worker, interacting in both a personal and formal capacity (Jain, 2005). Supportive, cordial, fair and honest supervision has been linked with increased job satisfaction of all staff members in many different settings (Borkowski, 2009; Ranganayakulu, 2005). Good supervisor-supervisee relationships cause workers to believe that their organisation allows more autonomy, support and freedom to make decisions (Hsu & Wang, 2008).

In educational settings, the standard of supervision significantly affects teachers (Sargent & Hannum, 2005; Monyatsi, 2012). Some studies have found them to be satisfied with their supervision (Abdullah et al., 2009; Cockburn, 2000; John, 1997; Koustelios, 2001; Usop et al., 2013). Monyatsi (2012) reports that a majority of teachers surveyed expressed satisfaction with their supervisors, who were easy to get along with and tactful, knew their jobs well and commended supervisees for their good work. More recently, Adebayo and Gombakomba (2013) surveyed 500 teachers in Zimbabwe and found that supervision was a major contributory factor in job satisfaction. By contrast, Castillo, Conklin and Cano (1999) and Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006) found that teachers were dissatisfied with the quality of their supervision.

Studies in Saudi Arabia have found that teachers were satisfied with their supervision, which was one of the main factors influencing their satisfaction (Al-Shrari, 2003; Al-Gahtani, 2002). However, Al-Asmar (1994) reports that teachers were dissatisfied with the amount of supervision and the techniques used by principals who had not undergone relevant training.

#### **3.6.4 Recognition**

A key outcome that employees routinely seek is recognition, which is “an effective motivation tool” (Grote, 2002, p.71) that validates their efforts to help the organisation succeed (Besterfield et al., 2011). Recognition can provide employees with feedback and support, thus improving their performance. It can be spoken (Chevalier, 2007), written (Besterfield et al., 2011), or monetary (Lester, 1987). Employees do not always respond to the same type of recognition; some will prefer monetary rewards, while others will desire positive supervisory feedback (Cook, 2008; Jain, 2005) or societal recognition (Pride, Hughes, & Kapoor, 2008).

Recognition may play a key role in determining job satisfaction (Daft, 2008; Saiti, 2007), dependent on the link between an employee’s input and its acknowledgment by the employer (Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002). Thus, when workers see their efforts being recognized, the quality of their work improves (Besterfield et al., 2011). Conversely, when recognition is not forthcoming, job satisfaction may decline (Persson, Hallberg, & Athlin, 1993). However, studies have revealed an inconsistent relationship between recognition and satisfaction.

Many educational studies (Alagbari, 2003; Al-Mansour, 1970; Al-Shrari, 2003; Al-Sumih, 1996; Castillo et al., 1999; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Kearney, 2008; Popoola, 2009; Sergiovanni, 1967; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009) have found recognition to be a source of satisfaction. More recently, Karavas (2010) found that teachers in Greece were generally happy with the recognition they received from the school and parents. Moreover, more than half were satisfied with their status in society and almost half were satisfied with the recognition received at school, from their employers or school governing bodies.

However, several studies (Fraser, Draper and Taylor, 1998; Siddique et al., 2002; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006) have found recognition to be a cause of dissatisfaction. For example, Popoola (2009) surveyed 2000 secondary school teachers in Nigeria and found that poor recognition within society was one of the main sources of job dissatisfaction, especially among female teachers.

Similarly, in Saudi Arabia, Al-Harbi (2003) and Al-Amer (1996) found that teachers were dissatisfied with the recognition they received from their school, while a majority of respondents to Al-Zahrani (1995) stated that they did not feel that society gave them enough recognition, which was a cause of dissatisfaction.

### **3.6.5 Interpersonal relationships**

Workplace relationships can strongly affect job satisfaction. Good co-worker rapport can both encourage and predict satisfaction (Bernal et al., 2005; Wall, 2008; Van der Heijden, 2005; McKenna, 2000). Maslow (1954) places interpersonal relationships on the third level (social needs), while for Herzberg et al. (1959), isolation and poor relationships can cause job dissatisfaction. Similarly, Harden Fritz and Omdahl (2006) argue that negative work relationships will have a detrimental effect on job satisfaction.

Many educational researchers have identified interpersonal relationships as a source of job satisfaction for teachers, and this factor mostly emerges as a satisfier, rather than a dissatisfier (Abdullah et al., 2009; Abraham, Ememe, & Egu, 2012; Benmansour, 1998; Boreham, Gray, & Blake, 2006; Dinham & Scott, 2000; Gujjar, Quraishi, & Bushra, 2007; Huberman, & Grounauer, 1993; Reddy, 2007; Usop et al., 2013). However, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) report that while some teachers acknowledged their relationships with colleagues as contributing a great deal to their

satisfaction with teaching, others had a largely negative view of their co-workers and did not want to cooperate with them, resulting in dissatisfaction for the former.

Interpersonal relationships with students also emerge as contributing significantly to teachers' satisfaction in some studies (e.g. Benmansour, 1998; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Ramatulasamma & Rao, 2003; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Reddy (2007) concludes that relationships with both students and parents provide major sources of teacher's job satisfaction.

As to Saudi teachers, several studies have found that interpersonal relationships emerge as a satisfier and that teachers are satisfied with their relationships with colleagues (Al-Gahtani, 2002; Al-Shahrani, 2009; Al-Thenian, 2001; Al-Zahrani, 1995).

### **3.6.6 Work itself**

Robbins et al. (2003) define the work itself as “the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results” (p.77). Thus, ‘work itself’ refers to the number and nature of the functions and tasks required of individual employees, which differ considerably from one role to another (Hanushek et al., 2004; Herzberg et al., 1957; Vroom 1964).

Researchers have found that the work content is usually a major factor of job satisfaction, as are the individual's interest in the work, the scope for innovation and employee independence (Hanushek et al., 2004; Sargent & Hannum, 2005; Locke, 1976; Jain, 2005; Lester, 1987).

Several educational researchers have found the work itself to contribute to teachers' satisfaction. De Nobile and McCormick (2008) found that both male and female Australian primary teachers were highly satisfied with the work itself. This finding is consistent with those of Abdullah et al. (2009), Achoka et al. (2011), Castillo et al. (1999) and Koustelios (2001). Employers should focus on improving working conditions in order to raise levels of job satisfaction (McKenna, 2000), which could mean granting employees more input into decision-making and more control over their working schedules (Kinzl et al., 2005). Perie & Baker (1997) surveyed US elementary and secondary teachers and found that working conditions such as safety, school atmosphere, teacher autonomy, support from the school and student behaviour all



correlated positively with job satisfaction. In general, the most satisfied teachers were those working in more supportive, safe, autonomous environments.

Having examined job satisfaction factors, let us turn to those affecting motivation.

### **3.7 Motivation Factors**

Various factors motivate employees (Williams, 2006), and individuals may be driven by different motivators at different times, in different ways (Cottringer, 2008). Therefore, having an understanding of the underlying causes of motivation is vital for any organization needing to identify what motivates members of staff to start to act, what characterises their selection of a certain action, and what sustains their interest over time (Lotz & Botha, 2008). Psychologists differentiate between two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic (Evans, 1998; Morris & Maisto, 2007; Robbins, 2003).

As motivation theory is closely associated with the factors that inspire and motivate people to act (McClelland, 1976), this section briefly refers to a number of recent studies that have shed light on what drives people to select teaching as a profession. Several researchers have investigated the factors affecting the decision of student teachers to go into teaching, divided into three main types: altruistic, intrinsic and extrinsic (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000).

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), intrinsic motivation is

...the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards. (p.56)

Numerous studies have stated that intrinsic motives influence the decision of student teachers to become teachers; working with youngsters is among these intrinsic reasons (Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Perie & Baker, 1997). Other studies mention enjoyment of the subject as a key motive (Karavas, 2010; Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Perie & Baker, 1997).

Teachers who are driven by altruistic motives see teaching as a socially valuable and vital profession and feel a pressing need to be involved in young learners' progression and growth (Roness, 2011). Altruistic factors can significantly influence student teachers' decisions to enter the profession, including a desire to contribute something to society (Richardson & Watt, 2006) or help students to be successful (Karavas, 2010).

On the other hand, the teaching profession is also preferred for extrinsic reasons. Ryan and Deci (2000) define extrinsic motivation as related to an activity performed to achieve certain separable outcomes. Yong (1995) argues that extrinsic motives are key factors affecting trainees' choice of a teaching career; his study found that "no other choice" and the "influence of others" were the most significant extrinsic determinants. However, Karavas (2010) found that pay, opportunities for promotion and the social standing of the profession ranked lowest in influencing trainee Greek teachers' decisions to enter teaching.

Addison and Brundrett (2008) found that the main motivators of primary schoolteachers in England were extrinsic factors, including positive reactions from children, attentiveness or good behaviour, and making noticeable progress. Teachers also reported experiencing a sense of accomplishment in having supportive colleagues around them. These findings support the widespread contention that teachers are motivated by a desire to help children to be successful. As to demotivators, the most significant were misbehaving and disengaged children, working hours and heavy workload. When Rashid and Dhindsa (2010) investigated the intrinsic factors that 351 science teachers in Malaysia identified as significant in inspiring them to continue teaching, all participants stated that these intrinsic factors were "important" or "very important", while enjoyment was perceived as the most significant factor influencing their motivation to teach science.

This brief review shows that the majority of studies exploring teachers' motivation have focused on the factors influencing the initial choice of career, while relatively few have investigated the motivation of qualified and practising teachers. Furthermore, there has been little or no such research in the Saudi context. These gaps have guided the choice of topic in the current study.

### **3.8 Demographic Variables**

Following the above review of factors identified in the literature as affecting job satisfaction and motivation, this section discusses the role of demographic variables. Previous studies (e.g. Asadi et al., 2008; Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013; Perrachione et al., 2008; Scott, Swortzel, & Taylor, 2005) have investigated how individual characteristics are related to job satisfaction, with inconsistent findings. Since one concern of this study is the relationship of job satisfaction and motivation with teachers' demographic

variables, this section discusses such variables, adducing evidence from various sectors, especially education. It considers in turn and in detail the main independent variables identified in the literature: age, educational attainment, length of experience, workload and rank or grade.

### **3.8.1 Age**

Many studies have documented an association between job satisfaction and employee's age (Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999; Mottaz, 1987; Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). Nevertheless, Spector (1997) asserts that the nature of this relationship remains uncertain. Indeed, many different types of correlation have been reported across studies: positive linear, negative linear, U-shape, inverted J-shape, and sometimes no significant relationship at all (Bernal, Snyder, & McDaniel, 1998).

Herzberg et al. (1957) suggests a U-shape, with three distinct stages. At the start of their careers, employees show high levels of satisfaction, which declines in middle age, then increases again in the years before retirement. Clark, Oswald, & Warr (1996) present strong evidence for this pattern and note that younger employees tended towards intrinsic satisfaction and older ones towards extrinsic. Several studies support this U-shaped age-satisfaction relationship (e.g. Diaz-Serrano & Cabral Vieira, 2005; Georgellis & Lange, 2007; Jones & Sloane, 2009).

Other researchers report significant variation in job satisfaction by age group (Akhtar et al., 2010; Al-Hussami, 2008; Koustelios, 2001; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Sirin, 2009; Williams et al., 2007), while a number of others (e.g. Asadi et al., 2008; Bernal et al., 1998; Scott et al., 2005; Fugar, 2007) report no significant relationship between job satisfaction and age.

In the educational context, Akhtar et al. (2010) discovered a positive association between age and job satisfaction in Pakistani school teachers, consistent with a study by Bishay (1996), who found that job satisfaction and motivation were linked to a teacher's age. Oshagbemi (2000) found that older teachers were more likely to be satisfied with their job than younger ones. In other studies, however, Oshagbemi (1997; 2003) found no age/satisfaction relationship in teachers or university academics respectively; nor did Ladebo (2005) or Castillo et al. (1999) in teachers.

Several studies have investigated the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and age in Saudi Arabia. For instance, Al- Qahtani (2002) argues that age is one of the

main predictors of secondary school teachers' job satisfaction, a finding supported by Al-Gous (2000), who report a link between age and job satisfaction. More specifically, Al-Thenian (2001) and Al-Moamar (1993) report that job satisfaction increased with Saudi teachers' age. However, other studies (Al-Huwaji, 1997; Al-Tayyar, 2005) have found no significant correlation.

### **3.8.2 Educational attainment**

The literature reports varied conclusions regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and educational attainment, both generally and among teachers. For instance, Scott et al. (2005) and Fugar (2007) found no significant correlation, whereas Sharma and Jyoti (2009) conclude that job satisfaction increases with educational attainment level. Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) looked at attainment in more detail and found that employees with higher educational qualifications (graduates and postgraduates) were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts with lower levels of education, a finding supported by the work of Artz (2008).

In the educational context, there is no consensus on the association between educational qualifications and the overall job satisfaction of teachers: some studies have found a negative association, some a positive one and others none at all. For instance, Ghazali (1979) found that non-graduate teachers were more satisfied than graduates, while Akhtar et al. (2010) report that teachers with a BSc were more satisfied with their job than teachers with masters' degrees. Similar results are reported by Akiri and Ugborugbo (2009) and by Abd-El-Fattah (2010), who suggests that those with higher qualifications may have been more aware of alternative career opportunities. Michaelowa (2002) also reports that when teachers are highly qualified, job satisfaction is reduced, explaining this by a supposed mismatch between professional expectations and work realities. The positive effects of higher qualifications, such as increased self-confidence, are counterbalanced by this negative effect, even if teachers hold a pedagogical degree.

Conversely, Abdullah et al. (2009) are among those finding a positive association with educational qualifications, reporting that graduate teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than non-graduates. This result, which the authors attribute to the higher income earned by graduates, is consistent with the findings of Wong and Heng (2009), who found that teachers in Malaysia holding a doctoral degree were more satisfied with

their salary than those with lower qualifications. However, many other studies (e.g. Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013; Castillo et al., 1999; Mora et al., 2007) have been unable to find a link between job satisfaction and educational level.

Studies in Saudi Arabia of the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and education levels have also produced contradictory results. For example, Al-Tayyar (2005) found that the job satisfaction of psychology teachers in secondary schools in Riyadh was not affected by their educational attainment and a similar lack of association is reported by Almeili (2006). However, Al-Thenian (2001) did find significant relationships between the two variables.

Overall, the very varied results of the above studies suggest that any association between the qualifications of teachers and their job satisfaction may depend on the contribution of other factors, such as the differences in the income and status accorded to teachers as a result of their qualifications.

### **3.8.3 Experience**

Length of experience is another variable which appears to play an important role in determining job satisfaction, although again, the relevant studies come to varied conclusions as to the strength of the relationship between these variables and whether it is positive or negative. Oshagbemi (2000) states that length of service in certain jobs can be used as a predictor of job satisfaction and suggests that workers with fewer years of experience will leave if dissatisfied, while those who are more satisfied tend to continue in their posts. Sharma and Jyoti (2009) found that satisfaction declined in the first five years, then increased, reaching a peak after twenty years of work experience, before declining again. They conclude that the effect on job satisfaction of experience in an organisation is cyclical.

In the educational context, many studies report a more or less straightforwardly positive relationship between length of experience and job satisfaction. Thus, Bishay (1996) found a positive correlation between length of tenure in the teaching field and job satisfaction and motivation, while Chimanikire et al. (2007) found that teachers with longer experience were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than those with less experience. Monyatsi (2012) investigated satisfaction among 150 primary and secondary teachers in Botswana and also reports a positive relationship between length of service and job satisfaction. Similarly, a survey of 785 secondary school teachers in

Pakistan by Gujjar et al. (2007) showed that those with fewer than ten years' experience were less satisfied than those with more. Akhtar et al. (2010) report slightly different results: that female teachers with 0-5 years of experience tended to be satisfied with teaching, while their male counterparts were dissatisfied. However, both male and female teachers with 6-10 and 11-15 years of experience were found to be satisfied with their jobs.

For Koustelios (2001), the explanation for the correlation of experience with teachers' satisfaction lies in the positive relationship between length of service and promotion, which suggests that like qualifications, experience may be linked to satisfaction via salary or status. Liu and Ramsey (2008) offer an explanation similar to that of Oshagbemi (2000): that teachers who are less satisfied leave the profession in the early years of their careers. It seems that this relationship is also affected by relations with the school administration. Teachers with longer experience were found to be more satisfied and had a better relationship with the school's administrators than their less experienced colleagues (Ma & MacMillan, 1999; Abdullah et al., 2009).

Fraser et al. (1998) and Hulpia, Devos and Rosseel (2009) are among those reporting an inverse relationship, whereby teachers who remained in their jobs for a long time displayed consistently higher levels of dissatisfaction. Similarly, Gupta & Gehlawat (2013) in India, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) in Norway and Chen (2010) in China found that teachers with less experience were more highly satisfied with their jobs than those with more experience.

In contrast to the associations discussed above, neither Abd-El-Fattah (2010) nor Oshagbemi (2003) found a significant relationship between experience and job satisfaction, among primary school teachers and UK university lecturers respectively. Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) also report finding no significant relationship between overall length of experience and job satisfaction among teachers in Cyprus.

In the Saudi context, Al-Thenian (2001) studied job satisfaction among teachers in public and private intermediate schools, concluding that those with extensive experience were more satisfied than younger, less experienced teachers, a result consistent with those of Al-Shbehi (1998), Al-Moamar (1993) and Al-Tayyar (2005). Other studies, however, found no statistically significant link (Almeili, 2006; Al-Gous, 2000).

### **3.8.4 Workload**

Workload is one of the main factors reported to influence employee job satisfaction in general and among teachers in particular. Some studies have found a strong relationship between workload and satisfaction (Smith & Bourke, 1992; Chughati & Perveen, 2013), others only a weak association.

Chen (2010) found that Chinese middle school teachers with a higher workload were less satisfied with their jobs, while Sirin (2009) reports that long working hours and a high workload negatively affected teachers' job satisfaction. These results are consistent with those of Liu and Ramsey (2008), who attribute this relationship to a lack of time for planning and preparation for classes. Similarly, Ari and Sipal (2009) found an association between job satisfaction and other factors such as high workload and working conditions, concluding that high workload and time pressures were the most stressful factors affecting the job satisfaction of teachers in special education centres in Turkey. Hean and Garret (2001) found that an excessive workload was one of the most important factors affecting Chilean secondary science teachers' job satisfaction, and that it was one of the main sources of dissatisfaction.

However, Butt and Lance (2005) argue that a reduction in workload does not necessarily lead to greater job satisfaction. The situation is complex, particularly in secondary schools, where teachers deliver more classes and need more time for preparation. In addition to teaching workload, teacher satisfaction is also affected by administrative workload (Smith & Bourke, 1992).

Of the few researchers to have explored this area in the Saudi context, Al-Gous (2000) found no significant relationship between male teachers' job satisfaction and workload, while Al-Obaid (2002) identified no such influence among female teachers.

### **3.8.5 Rank**

Grade or rank within the organisation is another factor that might affect job satisfaction, including among teachers, although few studies of this potential relationship are reported in the literature (Eyupoglu & Saner, 2009).

In education, Abdullah et al. (2009), Papanastasiou and Zembylas (2005) and Monyatsi (2012) have all reported significant positive correlations between teachers' satisfaction at different stages of their career and their position in the school. Holden and Black (1996) found that the rank of a random sample of 293 psychologists affected

their job satisfaction: full professors were more satisfied than associate professors and lecturers. Oshagbemi (2003) also found that in general, the higher the rank, the higher the job satisfaction. These results are supported by Eyupoglu and Saner (2009), who found that professors and associate professors were more satisfied than lecturers. In another study of academics in the UK, Oshagbemi (1997) found that lecturers were the least satisfied with their jobs, followed by senior lecturers, while professors were the most satisfied group. In contrast, Castillo et al. (1999) found that the position of agriculture teachers had no effect on their job satisfaction.

### **3.8.6 Section summary**

It can be concluded from the above review that various demographic variables seem to affect job satisfaction among teachers. Although the extent of this influence appears inconsistent, varying in extent, nature and polarity from one study to another and therefore perhaps sensitive to setting (as discussed in section 3.10), such research nonetheless broadly indicates the potentially important effects of these variables on teachers' job satisfaction, which suggests that they should be taken into account in the present investigation.

## **3.9 Studies of Job Satisfaction and Motivation in Teachers**

The previous sections have identified the factors related to job satisfaction in general and among teachers in particular, as well as some factors affecting teachers' motivation. In order to better understand the empirical evidence, this section reviews in detail some studies of teachers' job satisfaction in a number of developed and developing countries, including Arab countries, before turning to Saudi Arabia, where the present study was conducted. This pattern is then repeated for studies of motivation.

### **3.9.1 Job satisfaction studies**

#### **3.9.1.1 International studies**

Studies of job satisfaction among teachers have been conducted in many countries, mostly developed ones, while relatively few have been set in developing countries (Garrett, 1999; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Michaelowa, 2002). However, in recent years, a few such studies have been reported in some developing countries. Given the large body of studies at the global level, it would be very difficult to review them all here, so this subsection examines a sample of studies pertinent to the current study's aims,



encompassing a wide range of communities and cultures, before considering those set in Arab countries.

Sergiovanni (1967), in one of the earliest such studies, investigated job satisfaction among 127 teachers in New York, testing Herzberg's theory by identifying factors contributing to their satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Sergiovanni found that achievement, recognition and responsibility were determinants of satisfaction at work, while dissatisfaction was linked to management, relationship with students and colleagues, supervision, injustice, status and school policy. These findings were argued to be in keeping with Herzberg's universal outcomes.

Keung-Fai (1996) examined job satisfaction among 415 secondary school teachers in Hong Kong, using the Job Descriptive Index questionnaire to collect data. Satisfaction was evaluated in terms of five factors: work itself, salary, promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers. The study also explored the association between job satisfaction and certain demographic factors such as age and gender, finding that teachers' job satisfaction was generally moderate. They were broadly satisfied with supervision and their relationships with co-workers, but somewhat dissatisfied with their promotional opportunities, while there seemed to be conflict with work itself and with salaries. Significant differences were found among participants in respect of age and school type: in teachers aged 26-30 years, satisfaction was lowest in respect to promotional opportunities, co-workers and salaries, whereas it was highest regarding salaries and promotional opportunities in government schools. Length of service was not a significant determinant of satisfaction.

Castillo et al. (1999) used a questionnaire to examine factors associated with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in 293 American secondary school teachers of agriculture and the influence of demographic variables. The factors examined were work itself, achievement, development, recognition, responsibility, supervision, pay, relationships with colleagues and working conditions. They found that overall satisfaction was higher in female participants, who, in terms of particular factors, rated achievement as highest and responsibilities as lowest in importance, while male teachers perceived recognition and responsibilities as the most important factors, with work itself as the least important. As to factors causing dissatisfaction, females rated policy highest and working conditions lowest, whereas males placed supervision and

working conditions as the most significant factors and relationships as the least important. Unlike gender, no significant differences in job satisfaction were found to be associated with age, experience or length of service.

In Greece, Koustelios (2001) investigated by questionnaire the degree of satisfaction of 354 schoolteachers and the impact on it of gender, age, marital status, educational level, work experience and workload. Similar to Keung-Fai (1996), Koustelios (2001) considered satisfaction with regard to a number of factors: work itself, salary, promotion, supervision procedures, working conditions and administration. Participants were found to be particularly satisfied with work itself and with the supervision process, but less satisfied with their working conditions and dissatisfied with salaries and promotion. Age was found to be a significant indicator of various facets of satisfaction.

Hean and Garrett (2001) investigated job satisfaction among 47 Chilean secondary science teachers, using an open-ended questionnaire addressing demographic variables such as age, gender and experience. The factor most strongly contributing to satisfaction was working with students, followed by relationships with fellow teachers and prospects for the development of society, future generations and citizens in general. The first factor was more often expressed by female, younger and less experienced teachers. On the other hand, salaries constituted the primary source of dissatisfaction, followed by heavy workload, then student background and characteristics, assets and infrastructure, and poor in-service training, irrespective of gender, age and experience. As to the association between satisfaction and demographic variables, younger and less experienced teachers were more satisfied and had stronger ties with their pupils, while female participants were much keener than males on being in the company of young pupils. The authors recommend better training to improve teacher satisfaction. While the study contributes to identifying job satisfaction determinants in developing countries, its findings are limited by its small sample, given its quantitative nature, and by the fact that only science teachers were surveyed.

In a larger and broader questionnaire study, Crossman and Harris (2006) investigated job satisfaction among 233 British teachers within the context of various kinds of secondary school: community, foundation, independent, Roman Catholic and Church of England. They found significant differences associated with school type: overall satisfaction was highest in independent (i.e. self-regulating and privately-run) schools

and lowest in foundation schools. There were also significant differences in terms of age, gender and experience.

Mhozya (2007) used questionnaires to investigate job satisfaction among 160 public elementary schoolteachers in Botswana with regard to incentives, particularly remuneration and promotion, and to gender. Qualitative data were then gathered by interviewing 40 of the questionnaire respondents. Two-thirds of participants expressed dissatisfaction with promotion opportunities, while almost 90% stated that their salaries did not meet their expectations. Nevertheless, interviewees preferred teaching to any other profession. For instance, they expressed their enjoyment of teaching and interest in working with children, in addition to other benefits such as holidays and experience. The study found no significant differences in satisfaction with regard to gender.

Perrachione et al. (2008) investigated factors affecting satisfaction and retention among 201 schoolteachers in Missouri. They used a questionnaire to examine the degree to which satisfaction variables impacted the decision to stay in their teaching positions. Teachers were commonly “very satisfied” or “somewhat satisfied” with their teaching careers. Factors contributing to job satisfaction were the personal efficiency of instruction, working with students, upright students, support given to teachers, good school environment and small class size. On the other hand, work overload, poor salary, support from parents, student behaviour and large class size were found to contribute to dissatisfaction. Unsurprisingly, participants who expressed general job satisfaction were more inclined to stay in the teaching profession. No significant association was found between satisfaction and gender, age, qualifications or experience.

Abdullah et al. (2009) investigated factors influencing job satisfaction among 200 teachers in five Malaysian secondary schools and examined the association between satisfaction and a number of demographic variables, using a questionnaire addressing six dimensions: work itself, salary, working conditions, relationships with colleagues, promotional opportunities and supervision. They found that teachers had high satisfaction (81%). Four factors (work itself, relationships, promotion and supervision) affected job satisfaction positively, whereas teachers expressed dissatisfaction with their salaries and working conditions. As to the demographic variables, stronger satisfaction was associated with male gender, graduate status, higher rank and greater age.

Klassen and Anderson (2009) used a questionnaire to explore factors affecting job satisfaction among 210 English secondary schoolteachers, rating 16 factors of job dissatisfaction and comparing their findings with those of an early UK study by Rudd and Wiseman in 1962. They found that job satisfaction was unaffected by gender and experience and that it appeared to be lower than in 1962. Furthermore, while the 1962 teachers were mostly dissatisfied with external factors including pay, buildings and equipment, and with poor interpersonal relationships, their counterparts in 2007 were mostly concerned with factors related to teaching itself, such as pressure of time and students' behaviour.

A recent study by Demirta (2010) focussed on demographic variables and their relation to job satisfaction among a sample of 289 primary schoolteachers in Turkey. They used a questionnaire to gather data on job satisfaction and determinants including gender, age and experience characteristics. Levels of satisfaction were found to be high and to vary significantly with age, being highest among participants aged between 36 and 40 years, and lowest for those over 41. Satisfaction was also found to be low during the first five years of teaching, rising later until teachers with 10-20 years of experience were the most satisfied. However, teachers with more than 21 years of experience were even less satisfied than those with less than five years.

More recently, Monyatsi (2012) used a questionnaire to determine the level of job satisfaction amongst 150 primary and secondary school teachers in Botswana, to identify the factors influencing satisfaction and to examine the effect of demographic variables. The study concluded that teachers were in general satisfied with their jobs. Among the factors assessed, supervision and relationships with colleagues were found to contribute to teachers' satisfaction, as did work itself, albeit moderately, whereas promotion opportunities were a source of dissatisfaction. As to demographic variables, significant differences in satisfaction levels were found in relation to gender, age, qualifications and experience: male teachers were more satisfied than females, those with a degree in primary education were more satisfied than those with a diploma or master's degree, and satisfaction was found to increase with length of experience. The main shortcomings of this study are that it considered only five factors as affecting job satisfaction and that its methods were purely quantitative.

One of the earliest studies in the Arab region was undertaken by Al-Mansour (1970), who used a questionnaire to measure job satisfaction among 600 teachers in Baghdad and its relation to gender. The level of satisfaction was found to be moderate. Factors contributing positively to it were recognition by the headteacher, teachers' pride in the achievements of students, feeling valued by students and appreciating their own contribution to society. Conversely, factors causing dissatisfaction were poor teaching facilities, lack of appreciation by supervisors and badly designed infrastructure, leading to overcrowded classes and indifferent students. Finally, the study found statistically significant differences between male and female teachers, the latter being more satisfied with their jobs than the former.

In Jordan, Olimat (1994) investigated job satisfaction and contributory factors among 2233 secondary schoolteachers, taking account of gender, age, experience and qualifications, using a questionnaire which considered five dimensions: working conditions, salary, relationships with colleagues, incentives and administration. Respondents were generally satisfied, the most significant factors being relationships, conditions and administration, whereas they showed less satisfaction with their salary and incentives. The study also found significant differences in satisfaction according to age, experience and qualifications. Generally, experienced, older and more highly qualified teachers were less satisfied, but no statistically significant difference was found with regard to gender.

Ibrahim (2004) conducted a broadly similar study to investigate job satisfaction among 517 teachers in Libya. The demographic variables examined were gender, teaching level, marital status and qualifications, while the five dimensions of the questionnaire were working conditions, incentives, salary, interpersonal relationships and the principal. Job satisfaction was high overall, at around 75 per cent, and the most significant contributory factor was the relationship with the principal, followed by conditions, while teachers were less satisfied with salary and incentives. Greater satisfaction was shown by male teachers than females when it came to relationships with colleagues and the principal, as well as incentives. Teachers with higher qualifications showed less satisfaction than the less well-qualified, but there were no significant differences related to marital status or teaching level.

Khleel and Sharer (2007) used their own questionnaire with four dimensions (financial aspects, nature and conditions of work, achievement and relationships with administrators) to survey a sample of 360 teachers in Palestine, examining the relationship between job satisfaction and demographic variables. Teachers were moderately satisfied, expressing their satisfaction with the nature and conditions of work, achievement and relationships with administrators, whereas they were dissatisfied with financial aspects. Overall, gender was significant: females were more satisfied than males. Less qualified teachers (with diplomas) were also more satisfied those holding degrees, but no significant differences were found related to school level.

In the Arabian Gulf region, El-Sheikh and Salamah (1982) used their own questionnaire to explore six aspects of job satisfaction among 240 Qatari teachers, namely, school administration, promotion opportunities, incentive rewards, career status, working conditions and relations with colleagues and students. The study concluded that 67% of the sample were dissatisfied, the most influential factors being salary, promotion opportunities, incentives, teachers' status and working conditions, while the factors most associated with satisfaction were relationships with administrators and colleagues. Significant differences were found in terms of gender and teaching level, with females and primary schoolteachers being more satisfied.

Most of the studies reviewed in this subsection adopted a quantitative methodology and used questionnaires, whether purposely designed or existing instruments. Only one (Mhozya, 2007) supplemented this with interviews. The studies conducted by Abdullah et al. (2009), Ibrahim (2004), Keung-Fai (1996), Koustelios (2001) and Monyatsi (2012) considered only five or six dimensions of job satisfaction: work itself, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, working conditions and colleagues. A significant finding was that supervision appeared to be a factor commonly affecting satisfaction, while pay was most likely to be related to dissatisfaction in these studies.

Several differences were found among teachers in terms of their job satisfaction and the demographic variables considered. While the majority of studies report correlations between satisfaction and factors such as age, gender, qualifications and experience, neither Castillo et al. (1999), Monyatsi (2012) nor Crossman & Harris (2006) report any significant relationships of this kind. Surprisingly, most studies in the Arab world (Al Mansour, 1970; Ibrahim, 2004; Khleel and Sharer, 2007; El-Sheikh and Salamah, 1982)

show females as having stronger satisfaction than males; only Olimat (1994) reports no gender difference.

Variations in cultural and economic determinants may well have affected the results of the studies reviewed above, as may differences in methodology and sample size. The next subsection reviews equivalent studies undertaken in Saudi Arabia.

### **3.9.1.2 Studies of teachers' satisfaction in Saudi Arabia**

Through long personal experience in education in Saudi Arabia and his professional and personal relations, the researcher has noted that the job satisfaction of the average teacher has been much debated by educational practitioners, especially teachers, although little empirical research has been published in a Saudi educational context. The following studies have been identified as the most relevant to the present study.

Al-Amri (1992) explored job satisfaction among 263 public school teachers in Riyadh and examined its relationship with certain variables. The data were gathered using the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Teachers' job satisfaction was found to be generally average. Participants were highly satisfied in terms of achievement, supervision, colleagues and social status, less satisfied with school strategies, security and working conditions, and very dissatisfied with advancement, recognition and responsibility. The study can be seen to have two major shortcomings: its small sample of only five schools, which prevents generalisation, and the fact that the MSQ originated and was designed for use in a different national setting, making its use of dubious validity here.

Al-Zahrani (1995) conducted a study to investigate whether 149 secondary school teachers in the western district of Jeddah were satisfied. Using a self-designed questionnaire addressing several aspects of satisfaction, he found that the majority of participants were very satisfied with their co-workers, headteachers, pay and holidays, but dissatisfied with opportunities for promotion. One weakness of this study is that it does not indicate whether satisfaction differed according to demographic characteristics such as age and seniority. Another is that measurement of job satisfaction was limited to four factors.

Al-Shrari (2003) also designed a questionnaire to investigate job satisfaction among 100 teachers in the north of Saudi Arabia and to relate levels of satisfaction to variations in relation to gender, experience and workload. Participants were reportedly satisfied in

general, especially with the school management and educational supervision. In contrast, they expressed dissatisfaction with schoolbooks, pay and rewards, and the physical structure of the school. No statistically significant differences in teachers' satisfaction were found with respect to length of service or workload. The only significant difference was attributed to gender: men were more satisfied with supervision, teaching as an occupation and the physical structure of the school, while women were more satisfied with societal recognition. This study was limited to quantitative data and its sample was small compared to other quantitative studies.

Al-Obaid (2002) distributed a questionnaire to 500 female primary schoolteachers in Riyadh, to investigate their levels of job satisfaction and the factors contributing to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Three-quarters of respondents expressed satisfaction. Interpersonal relationships appeared to be the strongest contributory factor, while school facilities, pay and workload had less influence. Conversely, the strongest dissatisfaction factors were absence of involvement in curricular activities and decision making, and student misbehaviour. Apart from being restricted to females, which was a major drawback, the study had another feature in common with that of Al-Zahrani (1995): it failed to show the influence of teachers' demographic characteristics on job satisfaction.

Almeili (2006) used a questionnaire to investigate the opinions of 88 secondary teachers of science in Dammam regarding satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their work and to identify any correlation with experience and qualifications. Levels of satisfaction proved to be only average. Respondents stated that they were satisfied with school management, headteachers, co-workers, school location and the amount of teaching work, whereas salary and teachers' social position appeared to contribute to dissatisfaction. No significant association was found with length of experience or qualifications. The two major shortcomings of the study were that it was confined to science teachers and that the sample was small compared to similar quantitative studies.

This review has identified only five studies seeking to determine the factors contributing to the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of teachers in the Saudi general educational context at any level. Only two (Almeili, 2006; Al-Zahrani, 1995) surveyed secondary school teachers, and neither was set in Riyadh. All five studies were limited to a quantitative approach and used questionnaires to collect their data. While Al-Amri (1992) used the MSQ, a widely accepted tool for assessing teachers' job satisfaction, the



remaining researchers all designed questionnaires for their specific purposes. As a result, these studies have certain drawbacks, including their adoption of a purely quantitative approach. None explored the issue of teachers' job satisfaction in detail, since they failed to give participants opportunities to express their opinions and feelings in depth, as can be achieved through the use of interviews. Finally, Al-Zahrani (1995), Al-Shrari (2003) and Almeili (2006) used rather small samples (149, 100 and 88 participants respectively), compared with other quantitative research studies and with the large number of teachers working in Saudi Arabia.

To the extent that the findings of the Saudi studies are valid, it can be noted that teachers' degree of satisfaction was either average (Al-Amri, 1992; Almeili, 2006; Al-Shrari, 2003) or high (Al-Zahrani, 1995; Al-Obaid, 2002). Inspection of the factors affecting teachers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction at work suggests that personal interaction with co-workers is a key and shared determinant (Al-Amri, 1992; Al-Zahrani, 1995; Al-Obaid, 2002). Interestingly, while social position seemed to offer the most significant degree of satisfaction in the study of Al-Amri (1992), it was found by Al-Zahrani (1995) to contribute to the dissatisfaction of participants. Demographic characteristics are considered in only two studies (Al-Shrari, 2003; Almeili, 2006), with neither finding any relationship between length of service and satisfaction at work.

It is useful to compare the current study with those reviewed above. All address the issue of teachers' job satisfaction, although the present investigation specifically pertains to men teaching in secondary schools. It differs from previous studies in including an investigation of motivation. Moreover, while all other Saudi studies have employed a solely quantitative methodology, the present one employs mixed methods, using a questionnaire as its primary instrument and following it up with interviews, to collect deeper, multifaceted data. It is thus the first research to be carried out in Riyadh's secondary schools and utilising mixed methods. It is hoped that as such it will enhance understanding with rich contextual details.

### **3.9.2 Motivation studies**

This section reviews studies of motivation among teachers, following broadly the same pattern as the foregoing discussion of satisfaction studies: it begins with research conducted around the world, then turns to Saudi Arabia.

### **3.9.2.1 International studies**

While a number of academics have endeavoured to examine the topic of motivation at work, relatively few studies have so far addressed in detail the issue of teachers' motivation (Addison & Brundrett, 2008; Bhatti, Rawat, & Hamid, 2012). The majority of these address the reasons for student teachers choosing teaching as a profession. This section begins by reviewing these studies, before turning to those examining the motivation of serving teachers, a topic more closely related to the present study.

Kyriacou, Hultgren and Stephens (1999) surveyed 217 student teachers in England and Norway to investigate their motivations for becoming secondary schoolteachers. All participants answered a questionnaire and 24 were also interviewed. The majority identified the enjoyment they would derive from the subject they wanted to teach, working with students and the ability to use their subjects through teaching as most strongly motivating their choice of profession. Wadsworth (2001) carried out a similar study of 914 teachers in the USA, using a questionnaire and interviews. The responses of 96% of the teachers concerned intrinsic motivation; in other words, they wanted to be associated with teaching itself. Indeed, 85% stated that they would choose teaching if they were to begin a new career.

Roness (2011) used a questionnaire to examine the motivation of 225 recently qualified postgraduate Norwegian teachers for choosing teaching and how they envisaged their professional future. Respondents again valued intrinsic motivators highly. While altruistic motivators also appeared to be relatively important, there was less agreement on their significance. With regard to future prospects, a strong majority would choose teaching if they had to go through the recruitment process again.

Another recent comparative study explored reasons for selecting teaching as a career by administering questionnaires to a wide international sample of pre-service elementary and secondary teachers: 1438 Australians, 511 Americans, 210 Germans and 131 Norwegians (Watt et al., 2012). Overall, the most highly rated motivators were intrinsic value, the ability to practise teaching, the desire to serve society, working with children/teenagers and having positive pre-teaching and learning experiences.

In Jamaica, Bastick (2000) examined the elements of motivation and demotivation to choose teaching among 1,444 teachers, using a questionnaire and open interviews. Here,

most participants were motivated by extrinsic factors—holidays, money, job security and social status—followed by altruistic and intrinsic factors.

The next two studies to be reviewed addressed the motivation of teachers when in employment, as well as their reasons for choosing the profession. First, Hettiarachchi (2013) investigated motivation among 59 English teachers in Sri Lankan public schools, using interviews with five teachers as the primary data collection method, followed by a questionnaire prepared by the researcher. Over half of respondents were motivated to become teachers by intrinsic (40%) and/or altruistic (17%) factors. The study also identified a variety of factors motivating and demotivating teachers at work. The strongest motivators were related to students (their achievements, being in their company, their motivation, their gratitude and their acknowledgement of teachers), followed by the act of teaching itself, then the status of English in Sri Lanka and teachers' consequent high social status. Conversely, teachers were found to be demotivated by lack of teaching facilities, school administration, relationships with colleagues, and lack of parental involvement in their children's education.

Secondly, Hellsten and Prytula (2011) investigated why 279 newly recruited teachers in Canada opted for that profession and how important these motivations were in their first year in a school setting, using a questionnaire and interviews. As new recruits, respondents identified as important "making a difference in people's lives", "working with children or youth" and "the opportunity to teach subjects of interest". After teaching for a year, they were increasingly motivated by "having my own classroom", "salary and benefits" and "professional quality of life". The study also found significant differences according to gender, age and marital status.

Among the few studies of teachers' motivation while at work is that of Addison and Brundrett (2008), who administered a questionnaire to 69 primary schoolteachers of English and conducted 18 one-to-one interviews. The main motivators identified were extrinsic, such as receiving positive reactions from students and being surrounded by "supportive colleagues", while the most significant demotivators involved students' misbehaviour and disengagement, long hours and heavy workload. Demographically, teachers tended to be less motivated with age and more motivated with high rank and high qualifications. However, those with 11 to 20 years of experience and/or of service to the same school were most likely to show demotivation.

Another contribution to the sparse literature concerning practising teachers' motivation is that of Eres (2011), who devised a questionnaire completed by 397 Turkish primary schoolteachers, of whom 65% were reported to be generally well-motivated. The most important motivators identified as affecting participants were school management, parents, students and the physical qualities of the school. No significant gender differences were found, but motivation did vary with educational qualifications; for example, graduate teachers were more strongly motivated.

Of particular relevance to the present study is the apparent paucity of research into the association between job satisfaction and motivation in teachers. One of the few studies is by Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), who surveyed 461 teachers in Cyprus using a questionnaire. On motivation, they found that almost two-thirds of participants expressed the desire to go into teaching and that over half attributed this choice to working hours and holidays, while 40% were tempted by the salary and financial incentives. More than half stated that teaching suited their family lifestyles, while 15% were pressurised to apply by family members. As to whether teachers' satisfaction depended on factors that could have motivated them to decide on a teaching career, those who freely chose to become teachers showed more satisfaction than colleagues who stated that they were pressurised by their families to become teachers. Teachers who reported that they had an accurate vision of teaching before starting work also showed higher levels of satisfaction. Finally, gender and experience appeared not to affect satisfaction, which did, however, improve with age.

Convey (2010) prepared a questionnaire, completed by 716 teachers in US Catholic elementary and secondary schools, to examine the relationship between initial motivation and job satisfaction and to identify the factors motivating teachers to work in Catholic schools, taking account of any variations related to whether or not the teachers were Catholic and to whether they were employed in elementary or secondary schools. Religion was found to be the most significant motivating factor: slightly more than half of respondents chose as one their key motivators a reason related to religion, which was also a crucial indicator of their job satisfaction. The remaining 38% and 11% of the respondents identified professional reasons and convenience respectively. Elementary schoolteachers had higher levels of satisfaction and motivation than their secondary school counterparts, while Catholic teachers had higher internal satisfaction scores than

non-Catholics. Catholic teachers were also more satisfied than non-Catholics when self-esteem was taken into consideration. Finally, being motivated to teach within a given school because of its academic policies and environment were noteworthy predictors of teachers' satisfaction and their sense of efficiency.

Gupta and Gehlawat (2013) explored the influence of demographic variables including school type, gender, experience and qualifications on job satisfaction and motivation among 400 secondary school teachers in India. Quantitative data were collected by questionnaire. They found significant differences in motivation based on type of school and qualifications: teachers in private schools were more motivated than those in government schools, and teachers with graduate qualifications had higher motivation than their postgraduate colleagues. Significant differences were also found in terms of teacher's job satisfaction and motivation with regard to experience: less experienced teachers were more motivated and satisfied than experienced ones. However, the study was limited to assessing the effects of demographic variables on satisfaction and motivation, so does not address levels of motivation or other factors affecting it.

In Australia, Dinham and Scott (1996) studied motivation, satisfaction and health among 529 teachers and school administrators in primary, secondary and special needs schools, using a self-designed self-report questionnaire. Half of the teachers claimed that they had always wanted to be teachers. However, 38% said that teaching was not their initial option, while a fifth chose teaching in the absence of alternatives. More than half were satisfied with their jobs, while 40% were dissatisfied. Sources of satisfaction concerned the intrinsic rewards of teaching and focused on student and teacher achievement, whereas dissatisfaction was considered more extrinsic to administration and the national government. Scott et al. (1999) conducted a similar study in the UK, examining motivation, satisfaction and health at work among 609 teachers, head teachers and deputies at the reception/primary stage, using a self-report questionnaire based on the one that Dinham and Scott (1996) had originally designed. The UK teachers had much in common with their Australian colleagues, such as being strongly motivated by altruism, allegiance and personal development. Other common features included being highly satisfied with teaching, student learning, experience, success and professional development. As for the least satisfied teachers, they expressed their

dissatisfaction with issues from a general and social perspective, including the nature and speed of educational changes in policies, and the overall status and reputation of teaching.

One study conducted in the Arabian Gulf region is relevant here. Al-Habsi (2009) investigated the motivation of 150 teachers in Omani schools using questionnaires supported with subsequent interviews. Teachers' motivation was found to be generally weak and influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The demotivating factors included challenging working conditions, inadequate time for teaching activities and poor promotion opportunities, while positive motivators included being appreciated and acknowledged by the school administration. Significant differences were found between teachers having more than ten years' experience and those with no more than five years: less experienced teachers, for example, were keener on changing to another job. The author recommends a substantial decrease in teachers' workloads and an enhanced social status in order to improve motivation. A shortcoming of this study is that it was limited to five schools and 150 teachers. This small sample size could have influenced the findings; indeed, the researcher suggests that a more extensive and representative sample would have improved its reliability.

The studies outlined above constitute the majority exploring teachers' motivation before and after joining the profession. Several (Convey, 2010; Eres, 2011; Dinham & Scott, 1996; Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013; Roness, 2011; Scott et al. 1999; Watt et al., 2012; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004) collected their data via questionnaires, while Addison and Brundrett (2008), Al-Habsi (2009), Bastick (2000), Hellsten & Prytula (2011), Hettiarachchi (2013), Kyriacou et al. (1999) and Wadsworth (2001) used mixed methods (questionnaire and interviews) to overcome the shortcomings of using a single data collection tool.

In brief, the main determinants for choosing teaching as a profession can be categorised into three main themes: altruistic, intrinsic and extrinsic factors. It can be argued that varying findings regarding their influence on teachers' job motivation reflect the multidimensionality of motivation, the diversity of educational settings and the use of different methods to explore motivation factors, as well as cross-cultural variations. According to Kyriacou and Kobori (1998), the ambition of student teachers to enter the field of English teaching has global resonance in a wide range of countries.

However, it is possible that some differences between studies conducted in different countries may still exist, partly due to the diverse social and cultural settings in which teaching and learning take place.

An interesting finding from studies in developing countries, such as by Bastick (2000) in Jamaica and Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2004) in Cyprus, is that teachers were more likely to be motivated in their choice of teaching by extrinsic rather than intrinsic or altruistic motives, compared to teachers in developed countries such as the US, the UK, Canada, Norway, Germany, Australia and New Zealand. In addition, although intrinsic and altruistic factors may significantly influence the choice of teaching as a career in such developed countries, extrinsic factors were identified as the main motivators for teachers in service, as reported by Addison and Brundrett (2008) in England.

Generally speaking, there appear to be significant interactions between teachers' satisfaction and the factors originally motivating them to choose a teaching career. For example, as revealed by Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), higher levels of job satisfaction were reported by teachers who had always desired to be teachers, whose decision was unaffected by family pressures and who had a realistic view of teaching before starting their work. Alternatively, religion was established by Convey (2010) as a major motivating factor for some recruits in the selection of a teaching job and thus as a crucial indicator of those teachers' later job satisfaction.

### **3.9.2.2 Studies of teachers' motivation in Saudi Arabia**

An exhaustive search has yielded only two studies of teachers' motivation conducted in Saudi Arabia. In the first of these, Al-Jasser (2003) investigated motivation among 195 female teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in intermediate schools in Riyadh, with the aim of identifying the reasons for the low level of motivation. She prepared a questionnaire covering factors in three dimensions, related to the teacher, to educational supervisors and to school principals.

The second dimension had the strongest negative influence on teacher motivation, the most important factors within it being weak relationships between supervisors and teachers, supervisors' failure to enhance the areas where teachers were most effective, differences of opinion between supervisors and teachers, lack of attention to providing teachers with useful subject-related training and development, and a tendency to focus

on weaknesses without addressing them constructively. Almost as important, according to two-thirds of teachers, were factors related to school principals: their keenness on the smooth progress of school activities in accordance with set instructions, their clear direction and guidance of teachers by highlighting the positive aspects and key areas of development, their provision of an environment encouraging cooperation, support and teamwork, the regularity of their visits to classrooms to monitor teaching and teachers' interactions with students, their setting of clear-cut instructions and regulations for teachers to adhere to, and their domination of the entire decision-making process. Least important (55.54%) were factors related to teachers: overcrowded classes, poor infrastructure and equipment, opportunities for teachers to develop new skills and teachers' belief that their subjects were not valued appropriately.

Two main shortcomings were that the study adopted only quantitative methods and yet was limited to evaluating factors influencing motivation from the viewpoint of teachers, without testing the extent to which these factors actually influenced their motivation. In other words, the results do not allow the reader to determine the level of motivation among teachers, as its focus was on the views of teachers about whether these factors affected their motivation or not.

In the second study, Shoaib (2004) explored the motivation of 30 female EFL schoolteachers in Saudi Arabia, using semi-structured interviews to identify the various factors influencing their motivation. Further qualitative data were gathered from a focus-group interview with eight participants. An interesting finding was that the most important factor influencing respondents' career choices was the restricted job opportunities for women in Saudi Arabia, although several reported having begun to enjoy teaching after settling into their careers. An important demotivating factor was the conflict between job responsibilities and the inconvenience of the educational environment in which they had to work, rather than the content of the job itself.

Among the motivation factors, the study revealed that some had both negative and positive effects; for instance, pupils had the most notable impact on teachers' motivation, negatively and positively. In detail, the motivating factors were ranked in the following order: pupils (24), co-workers (17), facilities (5), teaching (3), management (3) and teachers' salaries (1). As to demotivating factors, the order was: students (18), facilities and resources (13), heavy workload (11), management (10),



non-curriculum work (8), co-workers (8), class sizes (7), studying and teaching (4), the syllabus (3), supervision (1) and parents (1). A further interesting finding was that the doubling of teachers' salaries did not seem to have had any motivational impact on the majority of respondents. In terms of social status, the majority of teachers had generally confident and positive opinions as to how they were perceived by other people. Finally, most participants intended to remain in the profession despite the demotivation factors.

Although teacher motivation has received increasing interest among educationists in a number of countries, it has received very little attention in Saudi Arabia. The only two studies identified were both unpublished and restricted to female teachers of EFL. They differed in approaches to data collection, with Shoaib (2004) using qualitative interviews and Al-Jasser (2003) developing a questionnaire to collect quantitative data. Consistently with the findings of other studies conducted in developing countries to examine teachers' motives for entering the teaching profession, Shoaib (2004) found that Saudi teachers were influenced by extrinsic factors. However, Al-Jasser (2003) identified interaction with educational supervisors as having the strongest negative effect on motivation and Shoaib (2004) also found this to have a negative impact.

### **3.10 Effects of Culture on Job Satisfaction and Motivation**

The wide range of studies of job satisfaction and motivation reviewed in this chapter took place in many cultural, social, economic and educational settings in diverse countries. While there is some similarity in their findings, there are also differences, especially between studies conducted in developed and developing countries. Some of these differences, as discussed above, may be ascribed to the divergent use of research methodology, to the methods used to measure job satisfaction and motivation, to the factors addressed and to the size of the study samples. However, the significance of cultural differences among the communities in which these studies were set should not be overlooked. This section is therefore concerned with studies that have explored the effects of culture on school teachers' perceptions of their satisfaction and motivation.

There has been much recent interest in cross-cultural differences in job satisfaction, especially since the advent of globalisation. The comparative studies of Hofstede are considered particularly influential. Culture, according to Hofstede (2001), can be described as mental programming which collectively differentiates people belonging to one community or group of individuals from others. In studies conducted in 50

countries and three regions, Hofstede (1984 and 2001) found that national culture accounted for much of the variation in workplace attitudes, with cultural values having more effect than any other variables on employees' attitudes and behaviour. He categorises national cultures along five dimensions: power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation.

This section discusses the first four of these dimensions, but not the last, which was added recently and has not been applied to Arab countries. It should also be noted that the present study is concerned with job satisfaction and motivation, but among publicly-employed teachers, not in the business domain or any other sector, and that the educational and business contexts can be seen to diverge. In addition, the current study does not adopt a comparative approach between countries; however, a critical account of Hofstede's model of cross-cultural variations may still facilitate a global understanding of the differences in the results of studies reviewed above concerning teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.

Hofstede (2001) defines 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), such as between senior managers and their subordinates. Hofstede assigns Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, a very high score of 95 on this dimension, indicating that Saudis are strongly inclined to abide by a hierarchical order according to which everyone has a position and which should not be questioned. Within educational contexts, Klassen et al. (2011) suggest that relationships involving teachers and students are affected by socially recognised power distance attitudes. In situations of high power distance, teachers and students establish hierarchical interactions, whereby both inside and outside the classroom, teachers dominate the communication process and students are respectful to them.

Individualism/collectivism concerns the degree to which people emphasise individual as opposed to group survival (Hofstede, 2001). In individualistic communities, people are more inclined to cater for themselves and their immediate family members, whereas in collectivist societies such as Arab ones, people tend to form 'ingroups' that look after them in return for allegiance. They also have a tendency to concentrate on the general goals of the ingroup rather than their own personal requirements, worries and aspirations. Strong social relationships are nurtured, with

everyone assuming responsibility for other group members. Within the educational context, teachers in individualist environments are more inclined to pay attention to self-focused motivational factors than those in collectivist ones, who are more focused on teaching motives that depend on group referents, including family-related or religious ones (Klassen et al., 2011).

The masculinity/femininity dimension concerns the extent to which cultures nurture or uphold variations between males and females in terms of work-related ethics. Arab countries score reasonably strongly (60) on this scale, but it does not seem directly applicable to the Saudi school setting, where the two genders are strictly separated.

Uncertainty avoidance refers to “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations” (Hofstede, 2001, p.161). Arab countries score 80 on this dimension, a fairly high score. In societies where uncertainty avoidance is high, individuals can reduce uncertainty by adopting stringent rules and regulations, as well as believing in absolute truth (ibid). According to Klassen et al. (2011), in a working environment where uncertainty avoidance is high, employees demonstrate strong allegiance to their managers and comply willingly with their demands and social expectations. Within the school environment, the teacher is seen as a source of knowledge, able to respond to all students’ queries, thus strengthening the hierarchical relationships between them.

Overall, Hofstede’s model is expected to be inspirational in terms of providing justifications and interpretations of the effects of culture on satisfaction and motivation at work. Nevertheless, some job satisfaction theories pay the model no attention, making their implementability across cultures less likely to succeed, as insights into job satisfaction vary from one cultural environment to another. There may be a link between some of Hofstede’s findings and the job satisfaction and motivation of teachers, since they belong to the community and may be influenced in terms of their satisfaction and motivation by their own cultural and societal values.

Klassen et al. (2010) used a questionnaire to investigate the collective efficacy, job satisfaction and job stress of 500 US, Canadian and Korean elementary and intermediate school teachers as related to the cultural dimension of collectivism. They found that collective efficacy was a predictor of job satisfaction across contexts, while collectivism

was significantly associated with job satisfaction in Korean teachers but not in North American ones.

In a later study, Klassen et al. (2011) explored the effects of power distance, uncertainty avoidance and individualism on the motivation of trainee teachers to select teaching as a career in Canada and Oman. Canadian respondents were shown to have more self-references and to demonstrate higher levels of individual-focused motivation and social utility ethics as career motivators than their Omani counterparts, who in turn showed greater interest in teaching as an alternative or contingency profession, along with higher rates of sociocultural impacts.

In summary, it is clear that culture can significantly affect attitudes at work. Observed variations in job satisfaction and motivation are in keeping with the idea that people may have different attitudes and needs; however, the relative significance of these requirements and how they are communicated may vary from one culture to another.

### **3.11 Overview of Job Satisfaction Factors Identified in the Literature**

This review of the most common theories dealing with satisfaction and motivation at work, and of research into job satisfaction and motivation—in general and among teachers in particular—has revealed widely differing findings and identified many factors which have been reported to affect satisfaction and motivation. While this variety and complexity make it hard to draw any fixed conclusions, it will be useful to offer here an overview of all factors and demographic variables related to satisfaction which have been mentioned earlier by researchers.

This section thus summarises the content of earlier sections with regard to factors identified as potentially influencing individual satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The various theories of satisfaction and motivation contribute to explaining and extending understanding of both phenomena and to identifying factors associated with them. Many empirical studies have claimed to determine factors influencing satisfaction and dissatisfaction in various countries, as summarised in Table 3.1. Many of the studies reviewed have also explored the effect on job satisfaction of various demographic variables, as listed in Table 3.2. These tables serve two purposes: to use these factors in the design of the current study and to compare them with those identified in its empirical phases (see section 8.5: Conceptual Framework).

**Table 3.1: Satisfaction factors reported in the literature**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>References</b>
Salary	Locke (1976), Smith et al. (1969), Gruneberg (1979), Herzberg et al. (1957), Adam (1963), Michaelowa (2002), Wong and Heng (2009), Keung-Fai (1996), Koustelios (2001), Hean & Garrett (2001), Mhozya (2007), Shah et al. (2012), Perrachione et al. (2008), Abdullah et al. (2009), Olimat (1994), Ibrahim (2004), El-Sheikh & Salamah (1982).
Principal	Smith et al. (1969), Platsidou & Agaliotis (2008), Cook (2008), Ibrahim (2004), Almeili (2006), Al-Zahrani (1995), Usop et al. (2013).
Supervision	Vroom (1964), Smith et al. (1969), Herzberg et al. (1957), Ranganayakulu (2005), Folsom & Boulware (2004), Sargent & Hannum (2005), Abdullah et al. (2009), Usop et al. (2013), Cockburn, (2000), John (1997), Koustelios (2001), Castillo et al. (1999), Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006), Keung-Fai (1996), Castillo et al. (1999), Koustelios (2001), Al-Shrari (2003), Adebayo and Gombakomba (2013).
Promotion opportunities	Herzberg et al. (1957), Smith et al. (1969), Locke (1976), Patchen (1960), Vroom (1964), Adam (1965), Buitendach & De Witte (2005), Armstrong (2006), Lester (1987), Abdullah et al. (2009), Achoka et al. (2011), Mwanwenda (2004), Dinham & Scott (2000), Koustelios (2001), Oshagbemi (1999), Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006), Mhozya (2007), Keung-Fai (1996).
Relationships with colleagues	Gruneberg (1979), Smith et al. (1969) Herzberg et al. (1957), Lawler (1973), Holdaway (1978), Maslow (1954), Harden et al. (2006), Wall (2008), Van der Heijden (2005), McKenna (2000), Abdullah et al. (2009), Benmansour (1998), Bernal et al.(2005), Boreham et al. (2006), Dinham & Scott (2000), Usop et al. (2013), Gujjar et al. (2007), Reddy (2007), Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006), Hean & Garrett (2001), Ramatulasamma & Rao (2003), Akhtar et al. (2010), Sergiovanni (1967), Keung-Fai (1996), Castillo et al. (1999), Klassen & Anderson (2009), Olimat (1994),Huberman & Grounauer, (1993).
Principal's recognition and reward for good work	Herzberg et al. (1957), Lester (1987), Daft (2008), Saiti (2007), Besterfield et al. (2011), Persson et al. (1993), Alagbari (2003), Al-Mansour (1970), Al-Shrari (2003), Al-Sumih (1996), Castillo et al. (1999), Chapman & Lowther (1982), Kearney (2008), Popoola (2009), Sergiovanni (1967), Sharma & Jyoti (2009), Al-Zahrani (1995), Karavas (2010), Al-Amri (1992), Fraser et al, (1998), Siddique et al. (2002), Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006),
Students	Reddy (2007), Perie & Baker (1997), Benmansour (1998), Hean & Garrett (2001), Ramatulasamma & Rao (2003), Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006), Reddy (2007), Sergiovanni (1967), Perrachione et al. (2008), Al-Mansour (1970), El-Sheikh & Salamah (1982), Perrachione et al. (2008), Klassen & Anderson (2009).
Relationships with parents	Reddy (2007), Karavas (2010), Perrachione et al. (2008).
Workload	Herzberg et al. (1957), Butt & Lance (2005), Chen (2010), Smith & Bourke (1992), Hean & Garrett (2001), Sirin (2009), Ari & Sipal (2009), Koustelios (2001).
Work environment	Ari & Sipal (2009).
School holidays	Mhozya (2007), Al-Zahrani (1995).
Development and self-growth	Herzberg et al. (1957), Ari & Sipal (2009), Hean & Garrett (2001), Rocca and Kostanski (2001), Castillo et al. (1999), Dinham & Scott (1996), Scott et al. (1999).
School management	Mullins (2008), Sergiovanni (1967).
School bureaucracy	Verdugo et al. (1997).
School policy & administration	Herzberg et al. (1957).

<b>Variable</b>	<b>References</b>
Status in society	Maslow (1954), Pride et al. (2008), Popoola (2009), Shah et al. (2012), Siddique et al. (2002).
Autonomy	Maslow (1954), Perie & Baker (1997), Furnham (2005).
Responsibilities	Herzberg et al. (1957), Castillo et al. (1999), Sergiovanni (1967), Usop et al. (2013).
Job security	Maslow (1954), Adam (1965), Adebayo and Gombakomba (2013), Al-Amri (1992).
Contributing to school decision-making	Herzberg et al. (1957), Furnham (2005), McKenna (2000), Al-Obaid (2002).
Job variety	Bryman & Cramer (1990), Furnham (2005).
Intellectual challenge	Noordin & Jusoff (2009).
Level of stress	Borg & Riding (1991), Davis & Wilson (2000), Klassen & Chiu (2010), Kyriacou & Sutcliffe (1979), Scott, Cox et al. (1999).

**Table 3.2: Demographic variables associated with satisfaction in the literature**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>References</b>
<b>Age</b>	Hickson & Oshagbemi (1999), Mottaz (1987), Sharma & Jyoti (2009), Spector (1997), Oshagbemi (2000), Herzberg et al. (1957), Clark, Oswald, & Warr (1996), Diaz-Serrano & Cabral Vieira (2005), Georgellis & Lange (2007), Jones & Sloane (2009), Akhtar et al. (2010), Al-Hussami, (2008), Koustelios (2001), McNall et al. (2010), Sirin (2009), Bishay (1996), Nestor & Leary (2000), Oshagbemi (2000), Bernal et al. (1998), Al-Qahtani (2002), Al-Gous (2000), Al-Thenian (2001), Al-Moamar (1993).
<b>Experience</b>	Oshagbemi (2000), Sharma and Jyoti (2009), Bishay (1996), Chimanikire et al. (2007), Monyatsi (2012), Koustelios (2001), Akhtar et al. (2010), Ma and MacMillan (1999), Abdullah et al. (2009), Gujjar et al. (2007), Gupta & Gehlawat (2013), Chen (2010), Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009), Hulpia et al. (2009), Al-Thenian (2001), Al-Shbehi (1998), Al-Moamar (1993), Al-Tayyar (2005).
<b>Qualifications</b>	Sharma and Jyoti (2009), Gazioglu & Tansel (2002), Artz (2008), Akhtar et al. (2010), Abd-El-Fattah (2010), Michaelowa (2002), Akiri & Ugborugbo (2009), Abdullah et al. (2009), Wong and Heng (2009), Ghazali (1979), Gupta & Gehlawat (2013), Castillo et al. (1999), Mora et al. (2007), Al-Shbehi (1998), Al-Thenian (2001).
<b>Rank</b>	Eyupoglu & Saner (2009), Abdullah et al. (2009), Papanastasiou and Zembylas (2005), Monyatsi (2012), Castillo et al. (1999), Holden and Black (1996), Oshagbemi (1997; 2003).
<b>Workload</b>	Smith & Bourke (1992), Chen (2010), Sirin (2009), Liu and Ramsey (2008), Ari and Sipal (2009), Hean and Garret (2001), Butt and Lance (2005).

Table 3.1 shows that the majority of reviewed studies have focused on factors such as salary, supervision, promotion, relationships, recognition, workload, students and development, principal and responsibilities. A few studies have also considered other factors such as school holidays, autonomy, work environment, job security, job variety, intellectual challenge and level of stress. All these elements have been taken into account in the construction of the current study. The table also shows that some issues have been addressed rarely or never, such as regulation and educational system, classroom discipline, student behaviour, social status of teachers, curricula, ICT facilities and in-service training.

Table 3.2 shows that the personal or demographic variables which have been addressed by the largest number of previous studies in terms of their association with job satisfaction are age, experience and qualifications, while rank/grade and workload have received rather less attention.

### **3.12 Conclusion**

This chapter has explored the concepts of job satisfaction and motivation, discussed relevant theories and reviewed the worldwide literature regarding studies of job satisfaction and motivation in general and among teachers in particular. It has revealed a lack of consensus on definitions of both concepts, due to their multifaceted nature and their complex interrelations, and has identified a wide range of factors and variables which have been argued to influence individual satisfaction and motivation. Many of these factors are related to the job context itself and others to personal characteristics or demographic variables. The studies reviewed were conducted in many different educational settings worldwide, with consequent cultural differences. The results of these studies also differ considerably, which suggests that there is no fixed set of factors or variables having the same effect on individual job satisfaction and motivation everywhere and at all times. In other words, differences in culture may well be responsible for some of the variability in the results of studies into job satisfaction and motivation among teachers, as discussed in section 3.10.

With cultural effects in mind, it is significant that relatively few of the studies of teachers' satisfaction and motivation reviewed in this chapter were set in Saudi Arabia and that none of those concerned with secondary school teachers was set in Riyadh. All of the Saudi studies were also found wanting in terms of their research methodology, all relying entirely on quantitative methods and some using data-gathering instruments designed for use in the West, failing to take account of the different cultural values. As to teachers' motivation, both of the studies set in Saudi Arabia had only female participants.

Thus, in order to address certain gaps in knowledge identified by this literature review, the current study adopts mixed quantitative and qualitative methods, employing a questionnaire as its primary instrument and following it up with interviews, in order to collect in-depth and multifaceted data regarding job satisfaction and motivation among

male secondary school teachers in Riyadh. The research strategy, design and methodology employed are described and explained in detail in the following chapter.



# **Chapter Four**

## **Research Design and Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodological strategy and design of the current study, describing in detail and justifying the specific methodological choices made. After reiterating the aim and research questions, it offers a brief description of the alternative quantitative and qualitative methodologies, discusses their respective advantages and drawbacks, then justifies the adoption of mixed methods to overcome the disadvantages of each. It next adumbrates the ethical considerations germane to the study, then considers in turn and in detail each of the two phases of data collection, beginning with the development of the main data collection instruments used: a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview schedule. Other aspects covered are the translation of the instruments, their reliability and validity, the piloting of each instrument, the study population and samples, the conduct of the main fieldwork procedures and the analysis of the data. Following brief consideration of some methodological limitations, the chapter ends with a summary.

### **4.2 Aim and Research Questions**

The aim of the study is to explore teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in boys' secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. As stated in Chapter One, the research questions are as follows:

1. What is the overall general level of job satisfaction amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
2. What factors contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
3. What is the overall general level of motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
4. What are the main factors affecting motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?

5. Is there a relationship between general job satisfaction and motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
6. Do job satisfaction and motivation vary in terms of demographic variables such as age, qualifications, job grade, length of experience, length of service at present school, subject taught and training?

### **4.3 Research Methods**

Research methodology can be described as a prototype entailing theoretical values as well as a structure that offers strategies about how research is carried out within a specific paradigm (Sarantakos, 2013). It is important to decide on the most appropriate methodology or combination of methodologies for any given study. Three broad groups of research methodologies can be identified: historical, descriptive and experimental (Gilbert, 2008; Verma & Mallick, 1999). All are valuable and each researcher must choose one or more according to his/her aims. Although Verma and Mallick (1999) assert that all three can be used in educational research, descriptive methods are most widely employed in this field (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011).

The present study adopts descriptive techniques because its aims are to explore job satisfaction and motivation and to identify respondents' related opinions and attitudes. It is therefore appropriate to offer an overview of descriptive research, which seeks to discover 'what is', i.e. to contend with present phenomena and describe them precisely and realistically (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Cohen et al., 2011; Procter, 2001). According to Gary (2009), "descriptive studies aim to 'draw a picture' of a situation, person or event or show how things are related to each other" (p.53), while Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen and Razavieh (2010) and Gay (1996) state that descriptive methods are suitable for investigating opinions, beliefs, demographic data, circumstances and processes. They are thus appropriate for the present study and its objectives.

Descriptive research in education uses diverse techniques, including case studies, surveys, development research, comparative research, ethnography, evaluation and action research (Verma & Mallick, 1999). One of the most common types of quantitative methods employed in descriptive research in education and other social sciences is the survey (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010; Verma & Mallick, 1999), which was used to collect data in the current study. Survey data may be collected by a number of methods, including self-completed questionnaires and structured interviews

(Ary et al., 2010; Blaikie, 2010; Cohen et al., 2011; De Vaus, 2014; Oppenheim, 1998). Surveys are generally intended to gauge the features of a population, whether at a particular time or over a period. Being descriptive, they establish what took place, rather than why. According to Gary (2009), surveys are frequently utilised to determine the weight and nature of social issues.

Babbie (2013) suggests that the survey is possibly the best method for a social researcher to gather authentic data to characterise a population too sizable to account for directly. It “can be a relatively inexpensive way to get information about people’s attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours; with a survey, you can collect a lot of information on a large sample in a short time” (Mitchell & Jolley, 2010, p.263). The disadvantages of the survey technique, according to Verma and Mallick (1999), include the insignificant role played by researchers, who do not usually meet questionnaire respondents directly. A further weakness concerns sensitive political or social issues of which respondents may not feel inclined to offer a factual account. However, Verma and Mallick (1999) note that a mixed methodology can overcome these disadvantages. Indeed, the present study uses a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods. The following section outlines these two approaches.

#### **4.4 Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches**

The most frequent categorisation of research distinguishes quantitative from qualitative methodologies (Creswell, 2014; David & Sutton, 2011). Data can be categorised as qualitative if they are presented in word form and depict circumstances, people or situations related to a certain phenomenon, and as quantitative when they are presented as precise figures, calculations or measurements with a number of interpretations (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2010; Huberman & Miles, 2002). The two approaches also have different theoretical and epistemic roots. According to Ray (1994) and Tayie (2005), completely different philosophical assumptions and drives lead to different targets and different research procedures. Broadly, quantitative research tends to be associated with the positivist paradigm, while qualitative research is usually constructivist (Gall et al., 2007; Newman, Newman, & Newman, 2011; Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008). These two paradigms make assumptions concerning the social realm. They also provide insights into how knowledge should be fashioned or experienced and

what counts as real issues, explanations and evidence. Table 4.1 compares them according to six philosophical criteria.

**Table 4.1: Comparison between positivist and constructivist paradigms**

<b>Criterion</b>	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Constructivism</b>
<b>Methods</b>	Quantitative	Qualitative
<b>Ontology</b> (nature of reality)	Reality is single, tangible and fragmentable	Realities are multiple, constructed and holistic
<b>Epistemology</b> (relationship of the knower to the known)	Objective: Knower and known are independent, a dualism	Subjective: Knower and known are interactive, inseparable
<b>The possibility of generalisation</b>	Time- and context-free generalisations are possible	Time-free and context-bound working hypotheses are possible
<b>The possibility of causal linkage</b>	There are real causes, temporally precedent to or simultaneous with effects	Impossible to distinguish causes from effects
<b>Principally oriented to the role of theory in relation to research</b>	Emphasises the deductive approach, i.e. on a priori hypotheses or theory	Emphasises the inductive approach, e.g. 'grounded theory'
<b>Axiology</b> (The role of values)	Inquiry is value-free	Inquiry is value-bound

Adapted from Lincoln & Guba (1985), Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998)

#### **4.4.1 Quantitative approach**

A quantitative study can be defined as “an 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 generalizations of the theory hold true” (Creswell, 1994, p.2). According to Bryman (2012), quantitative research employs a particular language largely to clarify how scientists go about examining natural variables, controls, measurements and experiments. Gall et al. (2007) describe quantitative methodology as an analysis based on the postulation that aspects of the social environment comprise an unbiased reality that is comparatively persistent across time and contexts. The overriding methodology is to define and elucidate aspects of this reality by gathering and analysing statistical data on performance and conduct.

Bell (2010) indicates that in quantitative research, facts are gathered in order to examine the association of one group of facts to another, using methods which may

generate quantifiable and sometimes generalisable findings. Thus, the quantitative paradigm was useful in this study to obtain sets of facts in a consistent form about teachers' demographic profiles and their feelings about job satisfaction and motivation. These could be studied in detail to measure the frequency of specific opinions and of the likelihood of associations between variables, for instance if perceptions varied with a particular demographic variable such as age. Another use for this approach was for the examination of the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction. It also allowed the researcher to investigate a sizable sample; indeed, one of the major benefits of quantitative research is that it enables the possible measurement of the responses of a large number of people to a limited number of questions, which can facilitate data comparison and statistical aggregation (Patton, 2002). Quantitative findings can be subjected to a wide range of statistical approaches (Baker & Charvat, 2008; Rubin & Babbie, 2013). Therefore, quantitative methods can yield a comprehensive, parsimoniously presentable and generalisable set of findings.

As to their weaknesses, Baker and Charvat (2008) argue that quantitative instruments can have low response rates. The design of quantitative research can also be more challenging than qualitative research, as it initially needs a more categorical description of the kinds of data to be gathered. Nevertheless, once collected, quantitative data can be more straightforwardly analysed (Verma & Mallick, 1999).

The advantages of the quantitative approach set out above make it suitable to address the present research questions. The researcher also received advice from the Saudi MoE that in Saudi Arabia the quantitative approach to social science research is generally preferred, as statistical data would make a particularly useful contribution to the Ministry's future decision-making. He therefore deemed it appropriate to conduct a quantitative survey.

#### **4.4.2 Qualitative approach**

The qualitative approach can be defined as an investigative procedure to understand a social or human issue, on the basis of constructing a multifaceted, rounded picture, shaped with words, recording detailed ideas and opinions of subjects, and carried out in a natural location (Creswell, 2014). Qualitative research normally investigates small groups of people, who provide explanations for purposes and meanings, as well as

activities. According to Rubin and Babbie (2013) and Williams (2003), qualitative methods include unstructured, detailed interviewing, group interviews and observation.

Qualitative methods offer a rich, in-depth examination of chosen social or educational issues, providing valuable insights and understanding of problematic areas. Qualitative researchers seek to understand individuals' feelings and views of the world around them. In other words, they seek insights instead of statistical information and are concerned with achieving a more detailed understanding of human behaviour and its underlying motives than a 'scientific' methodology can offer (Bell, 2010; Solomon & Draine, 2010). Qualitative research highlights how and why people behave in a certain manner; it is flexible, as the researcher has the opportunity to alter questions in the process of data collection; and its findings are easier for general readers to understand, being less formal and statistically focused (Hancock, 1998). Thus, qualitative research can comprise richer meanings and contents than quantified data (Babbie, 2013; Rubin & Babbie, 2013). One of the major aims of the present study was to investigate the key issues underlying factors of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation; a qualitative approach was considered useful in explaining them in depth. Keats (2000) suggests that qualitative interviews can effectively identify the factors and motivations behind the perceptions and beliefs of individuals.

However, the qualitative approach also has drawbacks and has been critiqued for being able to support only small-scale projects and not being generalisable, for being dependent on the personal explanations of researchers, for not allowing reproduction by other investigators, for requiring time-consuming data collection and for subsequent difficulties with its analysis (De Vaus, 2014; Fellows & Liu, 2008). In order to mitigate these limitations and those of the quantitative approach, while enjoying as many as possible of the advantages of both, the researcher chose to adopt mixed methods. The next section discusses the ways in which qualitative and quantitative methods can be successfully combined and meticulous attention paid to the issue being investigated.

#### **4.4.3 Mixed methods**

In mixed-method research, "the researcher mixes both qualitative and quantitative research approaches within one stage of the study or across two of the stages" (Mishra, (2005, p.261). Gary (2009) states that quantitative and qualitative methods may be utilised interdependently and in a variety of sequences. They can also be used

independently, concentrating either on one main research question or on various questions. Design selection will depend on the types of research question posed and on how the mixing of methods can add features to the study at hand.

While each approach has its limitations and benefits, their combination not only acknowledges the significance of conventional quantitative and qualitative research, but also provides a dominant third model that will frequently offer the most instructive, comprehensive, well-organised and beneficial research findings (Johnson & Christensen, 2007). The mixed-method researcher is less likely to leave out key findings or commit errors while using the combined paradigms. A number of authors consider this kind of research more precise and its outcomes more credible. For instance, utilising mixed methods can be viewed as empowering the research and filling the gaps of single-approach methods (David & Sutton, 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2011; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Furthermore, mixed methods are employed as part of a development procedure to allow the researcher to construct strong, effective, dependable measurement instruments and to confirm the findings, which can result in greater understanding (Bryman, 2012; David & Sutton, 2011). Williams (2003) suggests that a mixed-method study is more likely than a single method to answer the research questions; it offers stronger interpretations in most cases and facilitates the investigation of a wider variety of conflicting viewpoints (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003).

As to its limitations, the mixed-method approach may involve lengthy data collection and analysis, which can be demanding and challenging in terms of both time and money (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Hall, 2008). Nevertheless, it was considered useful to employ mixed methods in the current study, to identify the stronger areas of each data source, thus enhancing the rationality and dependability of the data gathered. With this approach, the researcher was able to explore further aspects and better highlight the research aims.

Creswell (2014) outlines six strategies for combining quantitative and qualitative methods, as follows:

**A sequential explanatory strategy** entails the gathering and analysis of quantitative data in the first stage, followed by a second stage where qualitative data are collected and analysed to strengthen and validate the findings of the quantitative phase.

**A sequential exploratory strategy** includes a first stage of qualitative data collection and analysis, followed by a quantitative stage that depends on the findings of the initial stage.

**A sequential transformative strategy** involves a two-stage project with a hypothetical perspective such as gender, race or social science theory covering the processes. There is a first quantitative or qualitative phase, followed by a qualitative or quantitative one relying on the initial stage.

**A concurrent triangulation strategy** requires the researcher to gather both quantitative and qualitative data, noting similarities and variations, so as to benefit from the strengths and overcome the limitations of each.

**A concurrent nested strategy** is where the researcher brings together quantitative and qualitative data so that a wide-ranging analysis of the research question is provided.

**A concurrent transformative strategy** is determined by the researcher's reference to a particular theoretical viewpoint in addition to the simultaneous collection of both quantitative and qualitative information.

Based on this terminology, the sequential explanatory strategy was decided for the current study, on the basis of the aim and research questions. Thus, it began with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. While the former were given priority, both methods were combined throughout the interpretation stage of the research. The researcher also took into account the advice of Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) that decisions about the descriptive design should comprise who the respondents are in the second stage and what sample sizes will be utilised for both components (section 4.10).

There are several reasons for choosing the sequential explanatory strategy. According to Creswell (2014), it is considered the most straightforward of the six main mixed-method strategies, being simple to apply because the steps fall into clear and distinct phases. He also affirms that the design aspects of this strategy make it favourable in terms of description and reporting. Besides, analysing the quantitative data and studying the initial findings can contribute to deciding which aspects to pursue qualitatively, such as by addressing quantitatively important findings or statistically significant outcomes and differentiating among demographic features (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Gary, 2009).



## **4.5 Data Collection Methods**

The current study comprised two stages, quantitative and qualitative, using questionnaires and interviews respectively to collect data. This section offers an overview of these methods and their importance.

### **4.5.1 Questionnaires**

A method of data collection commonly used in social research is the questionnaire (Adler & Clark, 2011; Hall, 2008; Rea & Parker, 2005; Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). This self-report method relies on each respondent following instructions set out in the research procedure (Johnson & Christensen, 2011). Such an instrument can provide primary data or valuable complementary information (Clarke, 1999; Gray, 2009).

Among their benefits, questionnaires allow a large body of data (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011; Denscombe, 2010) to be collected relatively quickly (Bell, 2010; Bryman, 2012; Sarantakos, 2013) over a wide geographical area (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008; Gall et al., 2007). In the present study, it would not have been feasible to gather information using observation, for example, given the large number of teachers and schools under examination. Another benefit is that all participants receive standard written guidelines, limiting the impact on the outcome of the researcher's appearance or conduct (Ary et al., 2010; Bryman, 2012). The analysis and discussion of statistical data are also quite straightforward and objective (Cohen et al., 2011). Finally, questionnaires are appropriate for gathering data on people's feelings, stimuli, opinions, endeavours and knowledge (Gall et al., 2007; Rea & Parker, 2005), as the current study requires.

In common with all research instruments, questionnaires also have drawbacks, which the researcher must consider. For example, Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) and Sarantakos (2013) note that they do not provide the opportunity to search for supplementary data or to elucidate the issues at hand. Some participants may not be able to respond to all questions (Denscombe 2010; Gray 2009). Indeed, some may not return the questionnaires (Bell, 2010), lowering the response rate and limiting the generalisability of the data (Denscombe, 2010). Despite these drawbacks, the present researcher concluded that a questionnaire was the most appropriate primary data collection instrument to study the large target population and to answer the research questions. To overcome the above weaknesses, the researcher personally administered

and collected the questionnaires. As discussed next, he also used interviews to collect further data in order to understand the issues at hand more comprehensively.

#### **4.5.2 Interviews**

Another technique frequently employed in qualitative research is the interview, which combines conversation and observation (Bryman, 2012; Holstein & Gubrium, 1998). Cohen et al. (2011) describe the process as a two-person conversation opened by the researcher in order to gather research-based data, while Kvale (1996) refers to an exchange of opinions around a topic of shared interest. Cohen et al. (2011) lists three purposes of interviews: as the main data-collecting tool, having a direct bearing on the research aims; to assess theories, to propose new ones, or to help determine variables and relationships; and to supplement other methods of data collection.

Using the interactive process, respondents are encouraged to reveal their opinions, frames of mind, approaches and explanations of what they have experienced (Gray, 2009). Thus, interviews can offer a richer and more profound view of a specific subjects or issues; more importantly, they can provide valuable data that may not be obtained otherwise.

Depending on the kind of data, hypotheses and aims that they want to investigate, researchers should choose among structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews, which differ in the manner and extent to which the researcher and the respondent are committed to the communicative act (Clark-Carter, 2010; Gall et al., 2007; Gray, 2009; Robson, 2011).

In a **structured** or standardised interview, the questions are closed and asked in a fixed order, ensuring that each participant is given a formally and structurally identical set of questions (Bryman, 2012; Merriam, 2009; Rubin & Babbie, 2013). According to Cohen et al. (2011) and Gray (2009), the questions have to be arranged beforehand so that a set of well-structured questions are articulated. The interviewer can thus determine the type of data considered valuable to answer the research question. The process also provides a more orderly, unvarying layout to be put in place for the research questions. A shortcoming of this kind of interview is its inability to elicit more profound data (Cohen et al., 2011; Sarantakos, 2013).

Conversely, **unstructured** interviews are characterised by flexibility and freedom (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003), given that their content and process begin with a

broad framework of themes, questions being generated as the dialogue progresses (Adler & Clark, 2011; Gall et al., 2007). The researcher is able to bring new resources into the conversation that s/he might not have prior knowledge of, but which crop up during the interview (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). The disadvantages include difficulty in designing the instrument and predicting the time required. Moreover, it can be hard to control a discussion which drifts away from the subject at hand, and extremely challenging to analyse the data (Adler & Clark, 2011).

**Semi-structured** interviews offer an intermediate method favoured by educational researchers because it enables them to elicit in-depth information by responding to interviewees' feedback within a general structure (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Gray (2009) and Gall et al. (2007) explain that a number of structured questions and some more open ones are combined to investigate the matter more profoundly and to elicit additional data. In other words, semi-structured interviews focus on a number of prearranged questions; however, their organisation and phrasing can be altered so that what appears unsuitable for a particular interviewee can be deleted or extra questions added (Robson, 2011). The interviewer needs to be flexible and imaginative, leaving room for any unanticipated alterations in the course of the conversation (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003).

Among the many strengths of the interview method underlying the current researcher's decision to use it is that participants may be asked to provide more detailed answers. A large number of open-ended questions can be asked, providing rich qualitative data, since participants do not have to write extensive responses (Bryman, 2012; Gray, 2009). Another benefit is that the researcher can explain any question which a participant struggles to answer (Bryman, 2012; Oppenheim, 1998). Furthermore, in contrast to written procedures, the face-to-face nature of the interaction allows the researcher to modify the field of enquiry, to follow up an attention-grabbing response or to explore key elements.

Conversely, the interview method has potential drawbacks. For example, factors such as the ethnic background, sex and social status of the interviewer may combine to prejudice the responses provided, thus compromising the reliability of the data (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Oppenheim, 1998). As for analysis and arrangement of the interview data, this can be a lot harder than the presentation of figures from the questionnaire data in a

table form, as the latter may be displayed with minimal explanation (Cohen et al., 2011). Furthermore, the construal of interview data will unavoidably be negotiated from the researcher's point of view (Verma & Mallick, 1999). Oppenheim (1998) also notes that interviews can prove more demanding, costly and time-consuming than questionnaires in social research.

Taking account of the above arguments, the researcher chose to employ semi-structured interviews, as serving the purpose of this study. Having determined a number of questions to be answered by the interviewees, he led each one through the process to express their opinions and input their ideas related to the research questions. The main motive for choosing semi-structured interviews was the desire to elicit accurate, in-depth data by giving respondents the freedom to interact at their leisure over a reasonable period of time. The issues to be discussed in the interviews were determined in accordance with the objectives of the research.

In short, after considering the benefits and drawbacks of questionnaires and interviews, the researcher decided to use both instruments in order to maximise the benefits of each while limiting their shortcomings. The questionnaire allowed the researcher to gather a large body of uniform data from many teachers. He then used a small number of interviews to add depth and richness to the research by exploring the ground more comprehensively.

#### **4.6 Ethical Issues**

A number of ethical issues are likely to arise in any social research project, whether involving people or documents, so researchers must take these issues into account and consider ways to tackle them (Blaxter et al., 2010). Some of the most significant are informed consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality and protection of respondents from being harmed (Bell, 2010; British Educational Research Association, 2004). In order to protect the rights of participants in the present research, the researcher paid due consideration to these ethical issues and adhered strictly to the ethical procedures of the University of York.

It is essential to obtain permission to carry out any research, as early as possible before starting to collect data, according to Bryman (2012). Bell (2010) notes that researchers cannot presume that they will be able to have formal conversations with people, ask them to fill out a questionnaire or obtain access to an organisation without

going through “clear official channels and obtaining permission” (p.33). Therefore, before beginning to distribute questionnaires, the researcher obtained a formal written document from the General Directorate of Education in Riyadh, permitting him to undertake this research; permission was also sought from all secondary schools in the province, which were notified of the aim of the study and were requested to support the researcher in administering the questionnaires.

The second ethical issue concerns participants’ consent. According to Anderson and Arsenault (1998), consent involves “the written or verbal permission of a subject stating that they agree to participate in a research activity” (p.253). Furthermore, potential contributors should be made aware of what they are consenting to be part of (Thomas, 2013; De Vaus, 2014). Thus, the first page of the present questionnaire introduced the researcher to respondents, clearly elucidating the objectives and the significance of the research. The researcher then gave other personal details at the end of the questionnaire so that respondents could contact him with any queries pertinent to the research study. Before distributing the questionnaire, the researcher met the headteacher of each school to introduce himself and clarify the purpose of the research. As there were a few sensitive questions, the researcher offered to give the headteachers a copy of the questionnaire to confirm that they were aware of its content and consented to its use.

As to the second phase of data collection, potential interviewees were informed in writing of the aims and significance of the research and those who were willing to be interviewed were asked to sign a consent form. Hatch (2002) emphasises the need to ensure that genuine informant consent is obtained. In the present research, it was recognised that teachers might feel under pressure from their headteachers to participate. Therefore, the researcher strongly reminded headteachers that participation must be free and voluntary; before each interview, he also assured participants that they were under no obligation to continue with the research process and could withdraw at any time without explanation.

The researcher also recognised that the importance of confidentiality and anonymity should not be underestimated. According to Rubin and Babbie (2013), the distinction between these concepts is that anonymity is a procedure making it difficult for a researcher to link any research information to a certain research respondent, whereas confidentiality means that where the researcher can identify a given person’s answer, he

pledges not to have it published and accessed by anyone. In the present study, anonymity within the questionnaire was addressed by the researcher promising that contributors' identities or schools' names would not be presented at the responding or documenting stage. Non-disclosure of personal or business details was actually considered during and after the study was carried out. As for the questionnaires, the researcher promised confidentiality by affirming that responses would be handled in the strictest confidence and employed for no purpose other than this study. In order to ensure confidentiality in the interviews, the researcher also promised that participants' responses would be treated in strictest confidence and used for no purpose other than this study. Moreover, their names would not be revealed, thus protecting them from consequences in terms of their careers or professional prospects. Respondents' names are not used in the study, but are encoded so that it would be impossible for anyone to identify them.

## **4.7 The Quantitative Phase of Data Collection**

As noted in section 4.4.3, the current study adopted a mixed-method approach as being most appropriate to address the aim and research questions (reiterated in section 4.2), using a questionnaire and interview as the primary sources of data. This section begins a detailed account of the quantitative phase by describing the development, structure and translation of the questionnaire.

### **4.7.1 Developing the questionnaire**

Before deciding on the design of the questionnaire, the researcher reviewed the literature on job satisfaction and motivation in general and in teachers in particular. In doing so, he was unable to identify an existing questionnaire fitting the aims of the current study and its context of Saudi Arabia, whilst considering a wide-ranging set of job satisfaction dynamics referred to in the literature (e.g. Popoola, 2009; Smith et al., 1969; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006). Therefore, he considered it essential to design a new job satisfaction/motivation questionnaire fitting the Saudi educational context.

In terms of motivation, the majority of studies reported in the literature (e.g. Karavas, 2010; Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Perie & Baker, 1997; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Roness, 2011) attempted to identify what motivated student teachers to choose teaching as a profession, while relatively few researchers (e.g. Addison & Brundrett, 2008; Rashid & Dhindsa, 2010) examined the nature of factors affecting the present

motivation of teachers. However, the literature offered significant guidance as to those factors potentially influencing teachers' motivation, which would be usefully addressed in the current study. The researcher concluded that three basic features should be considered: altruistic, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Thus, in developing the questionnaire, he took account of part of the content of the above studies, particularly those on the satisfaction and motivation of teachers.

The questionnaire was initially written in English, on the basis of guidance offered by the literature on questionnaire design, as well as the ensuing discussion with the researcher's immediate supervisor, who kindly offered to evaluate the questionnaire. The supervisor's wide experience helped the researcher to negotiate appropriate changes and develop the questionnaire design. The researcher also held open discussions with some Saudi secondary teachers and educational supervisors in order to elicit further suggestions about potential determinants of satisfaction and motivation in the particular context of the study. Later, these informants were shown a draft of the questionnaire and invited to make general comments and suggestions regarding material that should be added, deleted or clarified. By way of illustration, many suggested that questionnaire items referring to medical insurance were inappropriate, because such insurance was not yet offered to teachers, so these were removed. The term 'educational inspector' was also replaced by 'educational supervisor' in response to this feedback.

Discussions such as these enhanced the researcher's conception of the progressive process of the research, which involved a timeframe for completing the questionnaire. In developing the questionnaire, the researcher also gave particular attention to several considerations. According to Cohen et al. (2011), "a questionnaire's general purposes must be clarified and then translated into a specific, concrete aim or set of aims" (p.379). As a major objective of the current study was to investigate job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia, the researcher aimed to use the questionnaire to identify the factors affecting job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and motivation. Oppenheim (1998) posits that the preparation of any questionnaire should be an essential basis of the research design phase. Thus, a questionnaire is not merely a set of questions or simply a form to be filled by a respondent, but a measurement instrument used to gather specific types of information.

That said, the researcher still had to pay particular attention to the underpinnings of the questionnaire construction. His background reading included various books and articles on methodology and questionnaire design, and he took account of scholarly ideas regarding methodology whilst arranging the sections of the questionnaire parts. The following points attracted particular attention: expressing statements in the present tense wherever possible; avoiding leading questions, double questions and those requiring particular memory recall; ensuring that question wording was clear, short, simple and straightforward; but not being too concise and so failing to give participants enough information. It was also found to be very important to attend to the arrangement of the questions, which should be presented in a consistent order (Ary et al., 2010; Cohen et al., 2011; David & Sutton, 2011; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Denscombe, 2010; Simmons, 2001).

#### **4.7.2 Question types and scores**

In adhering to the above requirements, a questionnaire was designed to measure the job satisfaction and motivation of teachers in Riyadh City secondary schools. Participants had to choose the most suitable response to each of 48 items related to job satisfaction, three related to general job satisfaction, nine to motivation and three to general motivation.

It was decided that a fixed-response type would be more appropriate than an open-ended questionnaire; closed-ended questions are commonly used in survey research because they offer more consistency of responses and can be easier to process than open-ended questions (Babbie, 2013; Rubin & Babbie, 2013). Using closed-ended questions enables the researcher to avoid the pitfall of some participants giving responses that are, in effect, unrelated to the researcher's purpose. An additional benefit of closed-ended questions that goes almost unnoticed is their suitability when the variables are related to delicate topics or when answers are given in numerical form, such as income or age. One more advantage of closed-ended replies is that they are much easier to register and discuss and can frequently be given a code straight from the questionnaire, which can save valuable time and money (Babbie, 2013; Bailey, 1994; Simmons, 2001). Thus, closed questions are mainly used where many people are interrogated using self-completion questionnaires (Simmons 2001).



With regard to Babbie's (2013) argument that the major limitation of closed-ended questions is related to the researcher's organisation of answers, the way to deal with this is for the researcher to be directed by two organisational needs. The answer subsets provided should be comprehensive and should also comprise all of the potential responses. Therefore, the current study utilised 5-point Likert-type scales. Respondents were required to select one of the following responses to each item: Very satisfied/Extremely motivating/Strongly agree; Fairly satisfied/Very motivating/Agree; Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied/Moderately motivating/Neither agree nor disagree; Fairly dissatisfied/Mildly motivating/Disagree; and Very dissatisfied/Not motivating/Strongly disagree. The 5-point scale was selected in keeping with the literature on job satisfaction, particularly in education. The researcher considered it particularly suitable because it enables two positive and two non-positive choices, in addition to the middle response, which represents the impartial or undecided opinion. Thus, when respondents are unable to grasp a statement easily or cannot respond to it for one reason or another, they can select this response to avoid the researcher collating invalid or unreliable information (David & Sutton, 2011; Oppenheim, 1998).

Ary et al. (2010), Bryman (2012) and Simmons (2001) note the importance of giving clear and orderly written instructions to questionnaire participants, so that they know precisely what to do, including specifying how and where they should mark their answers. The researcher therefore presented a model showing how the questions should be answered and included a reminder to reduce the possibility of information being missed: "Please make sure that you have answered all the above statements" (Appendix A).

Similarly, emphasis was placed on the covering letter enclosed with the questionnaire, inviting teachers to participate, informing potential participants of the nature, aim and significance of the study and assuring them that all data would be kept confidential and that it would not be used for purposes other than the study itself. In order to encourage integrity of answers and ascertain the anonymity of the participants, they were especially requested not to add a name anywhere on the questionnaire, seek support to fill it in, or show gratitude. The researcher's name and his contact address were given at the end of the covering letter. The use of such a letter is suggested by

many scholars, including Ary et al. (2010), Cohen et al. (2011), Wiersma and Jurs (2005), Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) and Wimmer and Dominick (2011).

### **4.7.3 Structure of the questionnaire**

The questionnaire consisted of five parts (Appendix A):

- Part 1, comprising eight statements designed to gather data relating to respondents' demographic characteristics: age, qualifications, job grade, experience, service in the current school, number of lessons taught per week and training.
- Part 2, comprising 48 statements designed to elicit responses regarding various aspects of teachers' job satisfaction.
- Part 3, comprising three statements related to general job satisfaction.
- Part 4, comprising nine statements designed to elicit responses regarding different aspects of teachers' motivation.
- Part 5, comprising three statements relating to general motivation.

### **4.7.4 Questionnaire translation**

The questionnaire was initially drafted in English. However, its application in Saudi Arabia required it to be translated into Arabic. Following the guidance of Brislin (1970; 1980) and Rubin & Babbie (2013), the original text was translated into Arabic and the translation was edited and proofread for grammatical precision. The Arabic version was then back-translated into English and the resultant text matched against the original. This procedure was time-consuming, given the effect of cultural differences and the difficulty in finding direct Arabic correspondences for some English words. Nevertheless, the researcher thought it important to dedicate time and consideration to it, so as to avoid any problems arising from incompetent or inadequate translation, since "a poorly translated questionnaire will produce data which are misleading" (Bradley, 1994, p.43).

The Arabic translation of the questionnaire was checked by two holders of PhDs in language who were teachers of EFL at King Saud University in Saudi Arabia. Following this initial check, a third and fourth person, with a PhD and a teaching position in Arabic at Al-Imam Mohammed Bin Saud University, proofread the Arabic text for accuracy. The researcher met them to discuss their suggested minor changes to

make the questionnaire fit the curriculum and Saudi culture, then took these into account when making the necessary modifications. The translation was then double-checked by three secondary school teachers to identify any obstacles to comprehending the questionnaire. The Arabic version was next back-translated into English by a different teacher of English language at Al-Imam Mohammed Bin Saud University with a PhD and compared to the original. After some minor modifications which were required at this stage, the Arabic version of the questionnaire was finalised (Appendix A).

## **4.8 Reliability and Validity**

Validity and reliability are two very significant features of measuring tools to be taken into consideration by all researchers. According to Ary et al. (2010), research has no value and misses its target if it is not meticulous. Therefore, close attention should always be paid to reliability and validity (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002; Thomas, 2013). In practice, the two concepts overlap and seem to be interconnected: to be valid, a measure must be reliable, although the converse is not necessarily true (Frey, Botan, Friedman, & Kreps, 1991; Nunnally, 1978; Oppenheim, 1998; Sarantakos, 2013). This section discusses reliability and validity with particular reference to the questionnaire instrument.

### **4.8.1 Validity**

Cohen et al. (2011) assert that validity is crucial for the effective accomplishment of research; if a piece of research is deemed invalid, it is of little worth. Being valid is therefore a prerequisite for both quantitative and qualitative research enquiries. The validity of an item or instrument expresses the extent to which it “measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe” (Bell, 2010, p.119).

Academic researchers recognise many types of validity, the most widely used being face validity, followed by content, concurrent, predictive and construct validity (Gall et al., 2007; Clark-Carter, 2010; Cohen et al., 2011; Oppenheim, 1998; Sarantakos, 2013). According to De Vaus (2014), there is no perfect approach when deciding the validity of a measure and the means selected depend on the circumstances. The following subsections explain various kinds of validity invoked in the literature, then discuss the validity of the present study questionnaire.

#### **4.8.1.1 Face validity**

According to Bryman (2012), the most straightforward measure of validity is face validity, which an instrument has when it appears to measure what it is supposed to measure (Cohen et al., 2011; Clark-Carter, 2010; Gall et al., 2007; Sarantakos, 2013). The evaluation is undertaken by a number of assessors, who read the method of measurement and determine whether they consider it to do what its name suggests (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Judd, Smith & Kidder, 1991).

#### **4.8.1.2 Content validity**

Content validity concerns the extent to which a measure comprises a variety of meanings contained within a concept (Clark-Carter, 2010; Rubin & Babbie, 2013). It also refers to the extent to which the measure assesses the supposed content area which is contained in it (Lodico et al., 2010). Its establishment is based on judgements; in other words, scholars or other professionals draw conclusions as to whether the measure comprises the universe of aspects that constitute the concept itself (Cohen et al., 2011; Rubin & Babbie, 2013). There is often confusion between content and face validity; however, they should be treated as distinct. According to Shrock and Coscarelli (2007), the difference is that content validity is formally defined and relies on the findings of specialists in the content or capabilities evaluated by the test, whereas face validity is based on an impression of the test taken by non-specialists.

#### **4.8.1.3 Criterion-related validity**

De Vaus (2014) and Rubin and Babbie (2013) state that criterion-related validity shows the level to which test scores are correlated with an external indicator or variable, which can be assessed by matching the scores on the test according to one or more variables (criteria) with other measures or tests thought to measure the same characteristic (Cohen et al., 2011). Criterion-related validity can be of two types: concurrent and predictive (Cohen et al., 2011; Rubin & Babbie, 2013; Williams, 2003). According to Morrow, Jackson, Disch, & Mood (2011), the major distinction lies in the time at which the criterion is measured. Thus, concurrent validity demonstrates how effectively the test relates to other well-validated criteria of similar themes around the same time, whereas predictive validity indicates how effectively the test can project some future measure (Oppenheim, 1998).

#### **4.8.1.4 Construct validity**

Babbie (2013, p.154) describes construct validity as “the degree to which a measure relates to other variables as expected within a system of theoretical relationships”. It has been suggested that it frequently relies on the strength of the theoretical archetype. For example, David and Sutton (2011) posit that the appraisal of construct validity is contingent upon the initial theory’s strength. According to Lodico et al. (2010), it is viewed as one of the most complicated types of validity, since it is a combination of numerous validity methods. Nevertheless, Cohen et al. (2011) affirm that it can be attained by association with other criteria of the subject or by rooting the researcher’s structure in an extensive literature search which brings out the implications of a specific paradigm (i.e. a model of what that construct should be) and its integral components. Therefore, establishing construct validity is difficult and can be regarded as a research task in its own right (Ruane, 2005).

#### **4.8.1.5 Validity of the questionnaire**

In the current study, both the face and content validity of the questionnaire were investigated, with help from specialists in the area. There was a preliminary evaluation of these criteria prior to the pilot stage, in meetings and discussions with the researcher’s supervisor and with Saudi teachers and educational supervisors, as described in section 4.7.1. It was found that the questionnaire largely encompassed the correct areas; however, based on the comments and recommendations of these contributors, some alterations were made to some questionnaire items. Connaway and Powell (2010) recommend that when the first draft of a questionnaire has been finalised, and before its application, it should be assessed by one or more expert observers. If these are knowledgeable enough in research methodology, they can contribute to finding methodological flaws in the tool, by identifying defective scales, poor instructions, etc. In addition, a person familiar with the topic of the questionnaire can assist in appraising the face validity of the items.

When the researcher arrived in Saudi Arabia, he distributed copies of the questionnaire, with the covering letter described in section 4.7.2, to seven secondary school teachers in Riyadh city, then to three educational supervisors in the General Directorate of Education in Riyadh and finally to six specialist academic staff at the King Saud, Imam Mohammad bin Saud, Prince Nayif and Al Qassim universities. In

order to assess face validity, these collaborators were asked to indicate whether the questionnaire appeared appropriate for its purpose. To determine content validity, the academics were asked to consider whether items were placed in appropriate categories by evaluating them as ‘not relevant’, ‘minimally relevant’, ‘fairly relevant’ or ‘very relevant’. The researcher also asked them to make written comments and recommendations about the questionnaires, which he later collected personally. Finally, he invited three of the academic referees for interview in order to elicit further suggestions about the content of the questionnaire.

The referees agreed that all questionnaire items were clearly formulated, understandable and relevant to the aims of the study. Therefore, none were changed or deleted from the questionnaire.

As well as examining face and content validity, the researcher used the SPSS software package to gauge the questionnaire’s validity, applying the Pearson correlation coefficient to estimate the association between each item with the overall score of the related sub-scale, on the basis of the answers of participating teachers. Findings showed that each item was correlated to the sub-scale of which it was part at a substantial level (0.01) (Appendix E, Tables 1-4).

## **4.8.2 Reliability**

The second feature of instruments considered to determine their suitability is reliability, which can be defined as “the consistency of a measure of a concept” (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.158). Alternatively, it is the degree to which a test or process yields similar outcomes under comparable conditions in all instances (Bell, 2010; Clark-Carter, 2010; Oppenheim, 1998; Thomas, 2013), so that if a measurement is reliable, there is little likelihood that the score achieved can be ascribed to random causes or measurement error (Marczyk, DeMatteo, & Festinger, 2005). Berg and Latin (2008) assert that reliability is crucial in research, as it reflects the dependability of the findings. The two measures used to estimate reliability, namely external and internal reliability (Bryman & Cramer, 2011; Oppenheim, 1998), are outlined below.

### **4.8.2.1 External reliability**

The more common of the two types, external reliability, denotes the level of dependability of a measure over a certain period (Bryman & Cramer, 2011). It can be determined by the test-retest method, i.e. comparing the results on a particular occasion

with results from the same item and the same sample on another occasion (Adler & Clark, 2011). However, this method has been criticised on two accounts (Adler & Clark, 2011; De Vaus, 2014; Johnson & Christensen, 2011). First, if there is a short time between the two tests, participants may remember their answers to some questions. The second problem concerns intervening events and changed situations between the test and retest instances, so that if there is a long time between tests, differential learning can affect consistency. Oppenheim (1998) suggests avoiding these difficulties by using internal reliability, as discussed next.

#### **4.8.2.2 Internal reliability**

According to Walliman (2006, p.34), internal reliability can be described as “the degree to which the indicators that make to the scale or index are consistent”. This issue is particularly important in the framework of multiple-item measures, in which the question may arise as to whether the basic indicators gel together to form a single dimension (Bryman, 2012). Oppenheim (1998) points out that a test will achieve internal reliability if there is high correlation between its items.

Various techniques have been suggested to assess internal reliability, including the split-half and Cronbach’s alpha methods. Split-half reliability is assessed by running a single test that is split into two equivalent halves, then noting the associations between participants’ scores in respect of the two halves (Bryman & Cramer, 2011; Marczyk et al., 2005). However, the statistic most widely used to determine internal reliability is Cronbach’s alpha, a coefficient of internal consistency, assessing the degree to which the scores on individual items are in agreement with each other. Its values vary from 0 to 1.0, with a value of 0.80 or higher typically taken as a sign of high reliability (Morrow et al., 2011; Ruane, 2005; Ary et al., 2010). While there is no agreement upon the cut-off values for suitable levels of the alpha coefficient, a figure of 0.70 or higher is often sought in social science research (Heppner, Wampold & Kivlighan, 2008; Pole & Lampard, 2002). More specifically, Bauer (2000) affirms that reliability is widely accepted and perceived as being very high at  $r > 0.90$ , high at  $r > 0.80$  and acceptable in the range  $0.66 < r < 0.79$ .

#### **4.8.2.3 Reliability of the questionnaire**

Monette, Sullivan & DeJong (2011) and Wiersma and Jurs (2005) suggest that measures of internal reliability need only one testing session and no control group; another

advantage is that they offer the most obvious signs of reliability. It is for these reasons that the researcher utilised these techniques whenever applicable in the present study, to check the reliability of the questionnaire items. Cronbach's alpha, rather than test-retest, was used to evaluate the reliability of the questionnaire as a whole. The most important reason for choosing this technique was that even if teachers were happy to complete a questionnaire, they might not agree to do the same thing twice within a short period of time. Another important factor which the researcher considered was the time restraint: there was a pressing need to conduct the fieldwork promptly, gathering the data from the most important population of the study within three months, so it was not possible for the same questionnaire to be handed out twice as a pilot study.

The reliability of each section of the questionnaire was thus determined by using the SPSS program to calculate Cronbach's alpha. The values of the coefficient were 0.96 for the job satisfaction factors (whole scale), 0.87 for general job satisfaction, 0.92 for motivation factors and 0.89 for general motivation (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2: Reliability Coefficients**

<b>Section</b>	<b>No. of Items</b>	<b>Alpha</b>
<b>Job satisfaction factors</b>	48	.96
<b>General job satisfaction</b>	3	.87
<b>Motivation factors</b>	9	.92
<b>General motivation</b>	3	.89

\*Significance level of <.001

These values demonstrate that the tool was reliable. In addition, the degree to which the questionnaire items refer to each other is acceptable, and the association between these items can also be said to be very high. According to the typical Cronbach's alpha values referred to above, the extent of the similarity or internal reliability within the constituents of the questionnaire can be said to be high or very high.

#### **4.9 Piloting the Questionnaire**

Before using the questionnaire in the main study, it was important to ensure that it was suitable. A number of scholars assert that in order to refine the content and presentation of a questionnaire, it is usually advisable to carry out a pilot study (Bryman & Bell, 2011). As illustrated and explained by Adler and Clark (2011) and Peterson (2000), pilot studies represent a small-scale research endeavour which usually consists of using



a draft of a questionnaire or other instrument to survey participants comparable to those chosen for the main study, under real or simulated research conditions.

Such a pilot study should offer valuable data on many elements of the research project, such as providing the opportunity to assess the time needed to administer the instrument (Pole & Lampard, 2002). According to Peterson (2000), other benefits are to give an indication of the possible non-response percentages and to facilitate decisions as to the most appropriate distribution technique. A pilot study will also help the researcher to find potential defects, insufficiencies, uncertainties or problems in the research tools. Thus, this preliminary study is extremely significant in the research approach to determine problematic areas that may impact on the value and rationality of the questionnaire (Blessing & Chakrabarti, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2011; Lemon, Degenhardt, Slade, & Mills, 2010; Pole and Lampard, 2002).

Consequently, having subjected the questionnaire to the validity checks mentioned in section 4.8, the researcher conducted a small-scale pilot study in order to ensure that the items were clearly understandable and likely to elicit the responses needed to answer the research questions. Participants were chosen by a random sampling technique among 10 secondary schools from the various educational centres in Riyadh City. This was done by writing the names of all the secondary schools in each educational centre on pieces of paper and putting them in a box, from which the researcher pulled ten at random. As soon as the schools were chosen, the researcher called the headmaster of each school to organise a visit. He then visited each of the ten schools, where he met each headteacher to introduce himself and to deliver a letter of approval from the General Directorate of Education in Riyadh Province, explaining the purpose of the research (Appendix C).

The second phase of the selection of a random pilot sample was to choose six teachers from each school, by requesting a list of teachers at the school, numbering the list and drawing six numbers at random. The researcher then handed each of the sixty teachers in the pilot sample a copy of the questionnaire, including a covering letter explaining the aim of the research and how to respond to the questions. All respondents to the pilot questionnaire were secondary teachers who participated voluntarily and were asked to note how long the questionnaire took them to complete. A total of four days was allowed for finalising the process of responding to the questionnaires, after which the researcher revisited each school to collect the processed questionnaires. A

total of fifty were completed and returned, respondents reporting that the process had taken them between 10 and 15 minutes. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were then determined using the SPSS program, as explained in sections 4.8.1.5 and 4.8.2.3 respectively.

The findings of this pilot study led to a very few minor changes being made to the questionnaire as a whole. For instance, with regard to the question about job grade in the personal information section, teachers reported that “105 contracts” were no longer available, so this option was deleted. Furthermore, because some teachers stated that they needed up to fifteen minutes to complete the questionnaire, the wording of the covering letter was modified from “It should not take you longer than 10 minutes...” to “...not ... longer than 15 minutes...”.

#### **4.10 Questionnaire Sample and Administration**

It is important to note that the fifty teachers who completed pilot questionnaires were not included in the sample who later took part in the main study, following the advice of Bryman (2012) that the “the pilot should not be carried out on people who might have been members of the sample that would be employed in the full study” (p.264).

This section discusses the principles of sampling, their application to the main questionnaire survey, then its administration and conduct.

##### **4.10.1 Sampling**

The population and target population of any study should be clearly and accurately defined to ascertain an appropriate and archetypal sample. Population can be defined as “an aggregate of all cases that conform to some designated set of criteria” (Blaikie, 2010, p.173). A survey population is the people or phenomena involved in the study and from whom the researcher selects a sample (Lewin, 2005). The researcher must choose suitable subjects in a suitable environment representative of the general population. According to Gall et al. (2007) and Naoum (2007), a sample may be in the form of a specimen that can be drawn by the researcher to reveal what the entire population is like and to which research results can then be generalised.

Whenever a researcher seeks to make a generalisation about the findings of a study, it is essential to consider the sampling process. The two primary sampling procedures are probability and non-probability sampling. A probability sample is representative and

the results can be applied to the entire population, as every member of that population has a known and equal chance of inclusion (Adler & Clark, 2011; Cohen et al., 2011; Pole and Lampard, 2002; Robson, 2011). Rubin and Babbie (2013) assert that probability sampling is more representative than other methods because it avoids selection bias. There are many different forms of probability sampling, including simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and multi-stage sampling (Cohen et al., 2011; David & Sutton, 2011).

By contrast, non-probability sampling does not entail representing a larger population. Several authors advise of the risks of likely bias in sampling when every person in the target population does not have the same chance of being chosen for the study sample. According to Adler and Clark (2011), bias from that source may generate deceptive or inaccurate results. Consequently, generalisations cannot safely be made about the population (Pole & Lampard, 2002). Nevertheless, where there is no means to draw a random sample, the researcher will have to use a non-probability sample to gain access to members of the population who are willing to participate (David & Sutton, 2011). The three major kinds of non-probability sampling are convenience sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Cohen et al., 2011).

There is no ideal sample size applicable to all studies, as the nature of the population and the study objectives will vary (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Cohen et al., 2011). In practice, a number of scholars propose that quantitative research should use larger samples than qualitative research, where the sample size is generally smaller (Cohen et al., 2011; Sarantakos, 2013; Punch, 2009). Although concerns of time, money and organisational help, among other practical resources, may affect sample size (Cohen et al., 2011), a large sample is often favoured in order to ensure accuracy and reliability (Juliet, 2002). Thus, VanderStoep and Johnston (2009) posit that “The more people in the sample, the more it will ‘look like’ the population and thus the variability (margin of error) will be reduced” (p.29). Likewise, Robson (2011) suggests that the larger the sample, the smaller the possible error in generalising.

#### **4.10.2 Sampling procedures for the questionnaire**

In the current study, the researcher decided to use probability sampling, in order to ensure that the informants were representative of a specific identifiable population, namely male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia, and to allow the generalisation

of the findings from the sample to the whole of this population. The specific method used was multi-stage cluster sampling, which Adler and Clark (2011) describe as “a probability sampling procedure that involves several stages, such as randomly selecting clusters from a population, then randomly selecting elements from each of the clusters” (p.122). This procedure was implemented as described by Robson (2011) and Bryman (2012).

Before selecting the final sample elements, the researcher conducted three stages of cluster selection. In the first stage, an educational province (Riyadh) was selected from the total of 13 Saudi provinces. Subsequently, the Riyadh District was also chosen from the 12 national educational regions, being the largest amongst them. In addition, Riyadh city, which lies within the Riyadh district, is the most populous city in the Kingdom and its capital. It should also be noted that there are 11 educational supervision centres in Riyadh, covering the 89 male secondary schools spread throughout the city. Each centre is responsible for supervising and managing several schools and educational institutions, which may differ greatly from one centre to another.

To ensure proportionality in the selection of schools, the researcher used the random sampling technique. First, he calculated the number of schools in each centre and sought to obtain a list of the names of all schools under each educational centre, then assigned a code number to each school. The researcher wrote the numbers on slips of paper and put these into a container, from which he picked one number at a time until he had reached an appropriate sample of four schools from the first educational centre, a procedure which he repeated for the remaining centres. In this way, he selected 40 schools with a total of about 1020 teachers, each of whom was invited to complete a self-administered questionnaire.

There were a number of reasons for selecting the sample from the population of Riyadh City, apart from its being the capital city of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the largest city with the greatest number of inhabitants. Importantly, the city represents a truly diverse societal mix within the Kingdom. Riyadh also has the largest number of schools, students and teachers in Saudi Arabia (MoE, 2009). Another consideration is that it is the researcher’s home city, where he was formerly employed in the education sector, which was seen a factor facilitating the data collection process. In a country as large as Saudi Arabia, it would have been extremely difficult to obtain a sample of

schools representative of the entire country, given the limited time and funding available to the researcher for data collection. The same limitations made it unfeasible to sample the wide geographical area of a whole educational district. However, the Saudi educational system is under the centralised and unified control of the MoE, so that any developments can be assumed to affect equally all regions and all parts of any given region. Thus, a sample limited to Riyadh City could be seen to represent the various districts within the region. Similarly, aspects of job satisfaction and motivation in that city could be seen as analogous to those applicable to secondary schools situated in other cities in Saudi Arabia.

As a final point, it is worth noting that the majority of the research carried out by male researchers in Saudi Arabia has so far been confined to all-male educational institutions. The current study was no exception since, as stated in Chapter Two, an important aspect of Saudi culture is that boys and girls are not permitted to interact in any educational settings. It would therefore have been difficult for the researcher himself (being male) to gain access to girls' schools, so the study was confined to boys' secondary schools.

#### **4.10.3 Administrative preparation for the questionnaire**

Before leaving the UK to conduct the questionnaire survey, the researcher was required to obtain permission from the Saudi Ministry of Education to collect this quantitative data from teachers. First, the researcher's university supervisor addressed a letter to the Saudi Cultural Bureau in London, stating the researcher's need to conduct this phase of the study (Appendix C). The Cultural Bureau accordingly issued a letter to the MoE requesting the facilitation of the data collection process, along with a letter from the researcher himself requesting permission to conduct the field study without hindrance (Appendix C). The Ministry granted preliminary approval and communicated it to the cultural attaché in London, which allowed the researcher to implement the research tools providing that an application was made specifying the requirements (Appendix C). In addition, the researcher had to attach forms outlining the research tools to be used and describing the study sample. In order to save time, he attached a copy of the questionnaire in an email to the Cultural Bureau, which stated that it was willing to cooperate and grant such access.

Upon arrival in Saudi Arabia, the researcher approached the MoE again, submitting another formal request to be approved by the relevant authorities. To meet the Ministry's requirements, he supplied a copy of the questionnaire. Within three days, the MoE (General Directorate for Research) issued an approval letter informing the Director of Education Planning and Administration in the General Directorate of Education in Riyadh of the Ministry's willingness to facilitate the field study and the researcher's application of his research tool (Appendix C). A final letter of approval was also issued on January 2011, addressed to the headteachers of schools where the research would take place, which the researcher presented upon request during his visits to these schools (Appendix C). The survey was conducted during January and March 2011.

#### **4.10.4 Conduct of the questionnaire survey**

The researcher visited each school by arrangement, introduced himself to the principal and delivered the permission letter, elucidating the aim of the research and its significance. All principals were helpful, supportive and very welcoming. The researcher then handed over enough copies of the questionnaire for one to be distributed to each teacher at the school. While requesting the participants' assistance in replying to the questionnaire, the researcher stressed that their participation was entirely voluntary. The researcher allocated a week for completing the questionnaires, after which he returned to each school to collect them. However, some respondents needed more than a week, in which case the researcher returned later to collect any remaining completed questionnaires. In total, 1020 questionnaires were distributed and 737 were completed, representing a 72% response rate, while a further 15 were returned but were not completed.

The questionnaire data were then collated and analysed as outlined in the next section.

#### **4.11 Analysis of Quantitative Data**

The researcher coded all the data gathered in response to the questionnaire, then recorded them electronically, using the SPSS program for their analysis, as reported in Chapter Five and discussed in Chapter Seven. As for the statistical analysis techniques used, they were as follows:

- Cronbach's alpha was calculated to determine the internal reliability of the questionnaire items.
- Descriptive statistics—in the form of frequencies, percentages and means—were used in order to interpret and draw comparisons about the groups' responses and how they were distributed in the questionnaire.
- One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine statistically significant differences in responses among groups of teachers, based on demographic variables, in terms of their satisfaction and motivation.
- Fisher's LSD test was used to identify which groups were different when the F value of the ANOVA was significant.
- Factor analysis was performed in order to reduce the questionnaire variables to a smaller number of factors.
- The standard adopted for the level of statistical significance was .05.

This concludes consideration of the quantitative phase of data collection and analysis; attention now turns to the secondary, qualitative phase.

## **4.12 Qualitative Phase**

This section considers all aspects of the interview phase of data collection: the use of semi-structured interviews, the interview schedule, its validity, translation and piloting, the sample, administration and data analysis.

### **4.12.1 Interviews**

Interviews are considered one of the most important methods of collecting qualitative data. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), they constitute one of the most widely used techniques in qualitative research. Generally, researchers conduct interviews in order to support and verify questionnaire findings. Denscombe (2010) asserts that interview data supplement questionnaire results. If a questionnaire has interesting findings, researchers can then consolidate these findings or seek added detail or depth using interviews. In the present study, interviews were carried out in light of the findings of quantitative data analysis, with the aim of clarifying certain issues, expanding on others and developing a deeper approach to the research findings.

#### **4.12.2 Semi-structured interviews**

Generally, the type of interview carried out is determined by the nature and aim of the research objectives, as different research aims necessitate different levels of structure and types of questions (Gall et al., 2007). Careful consideration was therefore given to the aims and research questions of the current study. The researcher also reviewed the relevant literature thoroughly and had a series of discussions with his supervisor and colleagues who shared his interests. As noted in section 4.5.2, he subsequently decided to further investigate issues relating to the focus of the study using semi-structured interviews, for a variety of reasons. First, the researcher believed that this technique would allow him to collate the particular data needed for the research more efficiently. Using predetermined questions would enable him to guide and focus the interviews towards the study aims. It would also provide the opportunity to expand on interviewees' responses, allowing the researcher to delve deeper into their personal experiences to gain more detailed information. In doing so, participants could be directed throughout the process to voice their opinions and elucidate their ideas so that they would be of relevance to the study. Finally, semi-structured interviews facilitate more precise, in-depth data, as respondents are given the freedom to interact at their leisure within a reasonable time and without being interrupted.

Semi-structured interviews are moderately flexible, thus providing ample opportunity for the researcher to investigate certain features yet continue to stay focused on the same subject and remain in charge of the direction that the interview takes. Likewise, by posing their own questions, respondents can acquire a better and fuller understanding of the questions, as the researcher is able to clarify any unclear points. This enables interviewees to provide responses in keeping with their own experience. Therefore, semi-structured interviews are considered an appropriate instrument for gaining substantial data that would not otherwise be accessed (Cohen et al., 2011; Thomas, 2013).

#### **4.12.3 Interview schedule**

Taking into consideration the objectives of the research and steered by the results of the questionnaires, the researcher carefully prepared a semi-structured schedule of 12 interview questions concerning teachers' job satisfaction and motivation to cover certain features that required closer attention and a deeper investigation than was generated by



the questionnaire responses. The schedule (Appendix B) began with general questions on teachers' job satisfaction; whether their job satisfaction level had changed over the period; factors that impacted their job satisfaction/dissatisfaction; training programmes and opportunities; teaching facilities; interpersonal relationships; student achievement; workload, teachers' duties; promotion opportunities; the status of teachers in society and motivation factors. The final question invited interviewees' suggestions as to how teachers' job satisfaction and motivation could be enhanced.

The development of the interview schedule was mainly guided by a comprehensive review of literature on how to conduct an interview. Hence, open-ended questions were utilised, to give participants the opportunity to contribute what they saw as relevant in a richer and more spontaneous manner (Oppenheim, 1998). The wording and arrangement of the questions were designed carefully so that each participant had similar questions in a similar sequence, thus ensuring fairness and consistency in the interviews (Patton 2002).

#### **4.12.4 Validity of interview schedule**

To ensure the validity of the interview schedule, an initial assessment was carried out before the pilot study took place. This was essentially done through discussions with the researcher's supervisor, followed by showing the interview schedule to four specialists in the field to elicit their opinions and suggestions on the objectives and appropriateness of the questions. The researcher then met these referees to discuss their comments, which were largely favourable. After slight modifications had been made accordingly, the referees agreed that the interview schedule seemed to be pertinent and suitable for the study's purpose.

#### **4.12.5 Translation of interview schedule**

The interview schedule was originally drafted in English, then translated into Arabic, the respondents' first language. As with the questionnaire (section 4.7.4), the technique of back-translation was used to ensure the accuracy and lucidity of this process, with the successive assistance of three PhD students, studying English linguistics, Arabic and English linguistics respectively. The first checked the translation from English to Arabic, the second assessed the grammar and text of the Arabic translation for accuracy and the third then back-translated the Arabic version into English. The resultant English text was then checked against the original; only a few minor changes had to be applied

at this stage. The final Arabic version of the interview schedule is reproduced in Appendix B.

#### **4.12.6 Pilot study of interview**

Before using the schedule to interview the main study sample, it was essential to check if there were any ambiguities or other difficulties relating to the questions. A pilot study was therefore conducted to give the researcher additional feedback on how the interview schedule would be perceived and construed by the respondents and on how long it would take to pose and record responses to all the questions. According to Grady (1998) and Taylor, Sinha and Ghoshal (2006), carrying out a pilot interview generates feedback on a number of issues, including the rationality and clarity of the questions, in terms of both content and form, whether the questions will be pertinent to the intended respondents and whether useful information will be elicited in the process.

For this pilot stage, the researcher selected a random sample of three secondary school teachers in Riyadh and carried out an individual face-to-face interview with each in his respective school. Before each interview, the researcher gave the participating teacher a brief explanation of the aims of the study, assured him of confidentiality and sought his consent to record the session. Throughout the interviews, the researcher listened attentively to the interviewees' responses, and towards the end of the 45 to 60 minutes that it took them to answer all of the questions, he asked whether they had encountered any ambiguities or difficulties in doing so. While all feedback was constructive and no changes were deemed necessary, one question was modified in order to make it much clearer in the final version of the interview schedule.

In order to establish the reliability of the recording and transcription procedure, the researcher listened to the digital recording of each interview soon after it was completed, then transcribed it. Next, he asked two colleagues to listen to each recording and make their own transcripts, which were then compared with the researcher's transcripts. Only minor differences were found. The researcher and his colleagues agreed that these did not significantly affect the meaning of the interview responses and that confidence could be placed in the reliability of the transcription process.

#### **4.12.7 Interview sample**

Qualitative studies normally utilise a much smaller sample than quantitative ones (Bryman, 2012: Hartas, 2010). Barbour (2001) explains that rather than seeking

statistical generalisability or representativeness, qualitative research is generally inclined to mirror the variety within a given community. To select such a sample, the many techniques used by qualitative researchers include convenience sampling, purposive sampling, snowballing and theoretical sampling (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014). As the explanatory design aims to clarify initial, quantitative findings, the participants in the qualitative stage of such a study should be chosen from the population sampled in the initial quantitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Therefore, a purposive sampling tool was utilised in the present research, with 32 volunteers, all male secondary school teachers, being selected from widely dispersed locations within Riyadh. Several writers have asserted the acceptability of purposive sampling in qualitative research. For example, it has been suggested that qualitative samples appear to be purposive rather than random (e.g. Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006; Lindlof & Taylor, 2011). In addition, Ary (2010) posits that due to the reduced cost and convenience of purposive sampling, it constitutes a convenient tool for surveys which are based on personal attitudes and opinions.

Accordingly, the researcher first visited the schools where the questionnaires had been distributed in order to generate an interview sample from the same teachers who had participated in the questionnaire. He supplied each headteacher with a sample of the request form for those teachers wishing to participate in the interview, giving the title of the study and explaining its purpose and significance, along with a participant information sheet. The researcher informed teachers that if they wished to participate in the interview, they should write their names and contact information on the form and returned it, or contact the researcher in person by email or phone (Appendix D: Interview invitation, participant information sheet).

A total of 34 teachers who had participated in the questionnaire phase, with varied lengths of experience and subjects taught, volunteered for the interviews. However, while the researcher was preparing for the fieldwork and planning the interviews, three teachers changed their minds and declined to take part. Later, another teacher, with long experience in the field of education, expressed a strong desire to participate, so his name was added to the sample, making a total of thirty-two interviewees.

#### **4.12.8 Administrative preparation for the interviews**

As the interviews were scheduled to take place after the questionnaire survey and independently, the researcher was required to obtain separate permission from the MoE to conduct them with the teachers, following similar procedures to those used to gain authorisation for the questionnaire survey. The process again started with a letter from the researcher's university supervisor, addressed to the Saudi Cultural Bureau in London, stating the researcher's need to conduct the study and collect further data (Appendix C). The Cultural Bureau accordingly issued a letter to the MoE requesting the facilitation of the data collection process, along with a letter from the researcher himself requesting permission to conduct the field study without hindrance (Appendix C). The Ministry granted preliminary approval and communicated it to the cultural attaché in London, which allowed the researcher to implement the research tools providing that an application was made specifying the requirements (Appendix C). In addition, the researcher had to attach forms outlining the research tools to be used and describing the study sample. All these measures and arrangements were completed before the researcher left the UK to conduct the field study.

Upon his return to Saudi Arabia, the researcher once more approached the MoE, submitting another formal request to be approved by the relevant authorities and providing a copy of the interview schedule. The Ministry promptly issued an approval letter informing the Director of Education Planning and Administration in the General Directorate of Education in Riyadh of the Ministry's willingness to facilitate the second phase of data collection (Appendix C). A final letter of approval was also issued on 29th October 2011, addressed to the headteachers of participating schools (Appendix C). The interviews were conducted during November and December 2011.

#### **4.12.9 Conduct of interviews**

Upon selection of the interview sample, the researcher contacted all interviewees well in advance, by phone or in person, in order to identify a suitable date and time for them to attend the interviews. While some were available during the researcher's visit, others were not and so were invited to specify an alternative time when they would be able to take part. The researcher contacted each interviewee again prior to the interviews to confirm the arrangements. He then visited the schools on the agreed dates and carried out an individual face-to-face interview with each interviewee. Face-to-face interviews

were preferred because response rates tend to be higher for this type of interview, although they can be more expensive than other survey methods (David & Sutton, 2011; Gary, 2009). Furthermore, having personal interaction and building some kind of rapport with the interviewees enabled the researcher to achieve a deeper analysis of the subject (Ary et al., 2010; Denscombe, 2010; Gary, 2009), which, as Gillham (2000) argues, produces higher quality data.

At each school, the researcher met the headteacher, showed him the authorisation letter and explained the purpose of the study. This step was made easier by the fact that the researcher had already established a rapport with the headteachers and introduced them to his research subject during the quantitative phase of data collection. In general, there was a very welcoming reception from the school administrators, who were also cooperative in terms of providing appropriate settings for the interviews, such as a conference room, library, learning resource room, or a secretary's or undersecretary's office. Thus, the interviews were conveniently conducted in locations that could be described as extremely peaceful and private, preserving the special status of the process and avoiding any disturbance or disruption.

Although the participating teachers had already been informed about the study when completing the questionnaire, the researcher ensured that he gave each of them a copy of the participant information sheet (Appendix D) to read before taking part in the interview. After reading this information sheet, which highlighted the purpose of the research and provided all the details pertaining to the interview, participants were asked to sign a consent form, agreeing to participate in the interview (Appendix D). The researcher began by elucidating the aims of the interview, to encourage the participants to provide as reliable and honest responses as they could. He also explained the significance of the interviewees' opinions—that they would provide the researcher with a holistic understanding of the topic and enrich the study—and informed each interviewee that there would usually be no right or wrong answer. In addition, the researcher emphasised that all information would remain confidential and that they had the right to withdraw at any time, as outlined in the information sheet.

The researcher also asked participants to consent to the recording of the interviews, by reading and signing a form which explained the purpose and significance for the study of making such recordings (Appendix D). Recording interviews saves time and

avoids interruptions associated with taking notes (Gray, 2009; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Basit (2010:114) recommends that “ideally all interviews should be audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. This provides us with in-depth perceptions of the interviewees which can never be captured by note-taking during the interviews.” Thus, recording allowed the present researcher to document the interview data more accurately. While most participants consented, one expressed concerns about being recorded and refused altogether, while a second did not want one specific answer to be recorded, as it would prevent him from being “truthful and straightforward regarding this particular question”. In these two instances, the researcher was obliged to take notes instead of tape-recording. This meant that he had to listen carefully and note down what the interviewees said in the form of shorthand script, taking down as much information as possible, either during or immediately after the interviews in question.

Generally, the procedure that was followed during the interviews ensured that the researcher did not interfere with the flow of information while answers were being given. He usually waited until the interviewee was satisfied with each reply before proceeding to the following question, so as to show them that they were being listened to and that their feedback and opinions were of paramount importance. In addition, when an interviewee felt disinclined to respond to a sensitive question, his decision was respected and unchallenged. Gillham (2000) advises that a researcher who pays more attention to listening than to speaking will be able to direct the interview more efficiently, while Lindlof and Taylor (2011) describe listening as a crucial factor in building rapport once an interview is under way. Generally speaking, listening means “paying attention”. As expressions alone can convey insincerity, the art of paying attention to a speaker can signal respect and the belief that their ideas are of worth. After each response, the researcher gave a brief summary of what the interviewee had said. Participants could thus confirm whether the researcher had correctly understood the information they had given or inform him if it had been misinterpreted; this, according to Denscombe (2010) and Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003), is a very important step in order to derive an accurate understanding of interview data.

When each interview was complete, the researcher thanked the interviewee for the responses that he had given and for his cooperation in the process. The researcher also gave all interviewees his contact details in the UK, in case they should have any further

queries regarding the interviews, and offered to send them a short abstract of the major findings as soon as the study was completed. In general, interviews lasted between thirty and fifty minutes, depending on how detailed and diverse the replies were and on the number of examples given by the interviewees.

#### **4.12.10 Analysing the interview data**

Qualitative data from interviews are usually arranged and presented in the form of text written in letters, words and phrases (Lee & Fielding, 2009). The analysis of such data depends on the researcher's own interpretations, expressed in the form of texts, rather than variables and statistical language (Adler & Clark, 2011; Lee & Fielding, 2009). In the current study, the first stage of qualitative analysis required the researcher himself to prepare a transcription of the interviews, a very useful and important stage which familiarised the researcher with the data, in accordance with the advice of Langdrige (2004). As soon as each interview was completed, the researcher imported the audio recording to his own computer and began the transcription of the conversation, using headphones to listen to the digital recording and typing the transcription into a separate Word file for each interview. Despite using a slow playback facility, the researcher often found it necessary to listen to a section more than once in order to transcribe all that a participating teacher said and to verify the accuracy of the transcript. While this procedure was time consuming, it gave the researcher an excellent opportunity to become thoroughly familiar with his data by listening repeatedly to the recordings and rereading the text of each interview many times.

After transcribing all of the interviews, the researcher decided to analyse the qualitative data in the original Arabic, which was the mother tongue of all interviewees. Merriam (2009) suggests that a useful strategy for analysing interviews conducted in a different language is to analyse the data in the original language, then translate the findings into English. This strategy, according to Willig (2012), can reduce any issues related to the analysis of a translated copy of the interview transcript while keeping the analysis as close as possible to the original data, since any categories emerging from the analysis are directly informed by the original text.

The researcher's specific procedure was to read the original transcripts of each interview line-by-line three times, underlining the responses related to each question that had been asked. Next, he sought to highlight any evident agreements, similarities

and differences among the opinions and standpoints of the interviewees, so as to mark the places at which they had emerged and to identify consistent patterns from which different categories and themes would emerge. To simplify the process, he used a separate Microsoft Word page, on which he built a matrix of groupings of factors and concerns, then broke these down into narrower sub-categories.

The third step was to identify the main themes and sub-themes and attach them to relevant text in the transcripts. The coding process required the researcher to select the main themes and sub-themes, representing teachers' views on satisfaction and motivation, to prepare a list of these and to attach to each of them one or more illustrative excerpts from teachers' responses. For each theme and sub-theme which emerged from the transcripts a grid was prepared in which the text that was categorised within each sub-theme was grouped together. These emergent themes and sub-themes were important in answering the research questions.

Finally, the findings of the data analysis were translated into English. Although by his decision to analyse the original text the researcher had tried to avoid any problems related to translating the interview transcripts, Arabic and English have quite different structures and vocabularies, introducing the possibility of problems in translating the findings. In order to minimise such problems, the researcher discussed the translated text with some colleagues in order to establish the most faithful translation. Once the translation of the results of the analysis was completed, they were shown to a colleague specialising in English and Arabic, who was asked to carry out a back-translation from English to Arabic, to establish whether the Arabic original and the English translation were sufficiently close in meaning (Merriam, 2009). Again, this process was time consuming and costly; in the end, however, it offered an assurance that the resultant translation of the data was as accurate and fair as possible.

#### **4.12.11 Difficulties related to the interviews**

In spite of the researcher's efforts to ensure that interview conditions were as suitable as possible, there were some drawbacks and the process did not go as smoothly as had been expected. For instance, some interviews were frequently interrupted by students or other members of teaching staff knocking on the door of the interview room. In one case, it was difficult to find a suitable place which was private enough to carry out interviews. A room which would have been available was closed due to the temporary



absence of its usual occupant. As an alternative, the headteacher suggested the teachers' meeting room, which proved inconvenient because a group of teachers were chatting there. Accordingly, the interviews were postponed to the following day. Another set of interviews had to be postponed when all schools were suspended because of adverse weather.

As well as problems relating to the interview location, there were occasionally issues with the content of the interviews themselves. On a number of occasions, interviewees deviated from the topic and had to be discreetly guided back to the area of interest pertinent to the study. As two of the participants refused to have their interviews recorded, the researcher had to make notes; this may have led to not all of the data being captured. The researcher did, however, endeavour to capture all of the information and read the notes back to the interviewees so that they had the opportunity to reiterate any information that had been missed.

It is often considered difficult and tedious to transcribe an interview (David & Sutton, 2011; Hatch, 2002; Pole & Lampard, 2002). It can, for instance, take from four to seven hours to transcribe one hour of audio recording (Basit, 2010; Patton, 2002; Pole & Lampard, 2002). Nevertheless, the researcher went through the transcription process independently, taking four to eight hours to transcribe each interview, depending on the length of the responses. He also ensured that he was scrupulously familiar with the material by reading the text and listening to the recordings several times. Therefore, he was able to add context, nonverbal data and bracketed notations from his notes and memory while typing the interviews (Hatch, 2002).

#### **4.13 Methodological Limitations**

This final section briefly reviews some concerns regarding the methodology employed in this study. First, the questionnaire and interview methods have known weaknesses, as indicated in section 4.5. Nevertheless, adopting a mixed-method approach to data collection helped to overcome these issues, as using multiple techniques can potentially mitigate the limitations of individual methods. Language represents a second limitation: as the participants' first language was Arabic, both questionnaire and interview materials had to be translated from English into Arabic. While the researcher spared no effort to ensure accuracy and matched meanings, through the use of back-translation, it is possible that the translated questionnaire was not exactly identical to the original,

given the structural and idiomatic differences between English and Arabic. As to the interviews, the researcher repeatedly compared transcripts with the original information so that accuracy was ensured. In keeping with Huberman and Miles (2002), transcripts then underwent initial evaluations, which led to the introduction of a typology of groupings that summed up the information. With regard to the ensuing categories, they should offer a basis for profounder scrutiny. A final limitation was the existence of a gender disproportion in the sample, which can be attributed to the limited contact with females open to a male researcher in Saudi Arabia (section 4.10.2).

#### **4.14 Conclusion**

This chapter has explained the research strategy and methods, offered a rationale for choosing the methods, described in some detail the two instruments employed to collect data and highlighted their strengths and weaknesses. The current study is a descriptive survey combining the use of a questionnaire to gather quantitative data and semi-structured interviews to collect qualitative data. The chapter has detailed the development of these instruments, discussed the translation procedures and described the testing of their validity and reliability in order to ensure that they were appropriate for the current study. The target population and procedures for selecting the study sample of male secondary school teachers in Riyadh have been explained and the methods of data analysis described and justified. The next chapter presents the quantitative findings obtained from the questionnaire data.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Analysis of the Questionnaire Data**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents an analysis of quantitative field data gathered by means of the questionnaire, using the SPSS software version 19, and is divided into nine main sections. Section 5.2 reproduces the aims of the study and the research questions, then section 5.3 discusses the questionnaire response rate. Section 5.4 considers the demographic characteristics of the sample. This is followed in sections 5.5 to 5.7 by the details of a factor analysis conducted to reduce the variables of job satisfaction and motivation to a smaller number of factors. Section 5.8 presents descriptive statistics for the questionnaire responses and analyses them in light of the main research questions. The chapter concludes with a summary.

#### **5.2 Study Aims and Research Questions**

The aim of the study was to explore male teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in boys' secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. As stated in Chapter One, the research questions are as follows:

1. What is the overall level of job satisfaction amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
2. What factors contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among the participants?
3. What is the overall general level of motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
4. What are the main factors affecting motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?
5. Is there a relationship between general job satisfaction and motivation?
6. Do job satisfaction and motivation vary in terms of demographic variables such as age, qualifications, job grade, length of experience, length of service at present school, subject taught and training?

### 5.3 Response Rate

The researcher personally distributed a total of 1020 questionnaires to male secondary school teachers, of which 752 were completed and returned, yielding a response rate of 73.7%. However, 15 of these returned questionnaires were not appropriately filled in and were therefore excluded. Thus, 737 questionnaires were used for the data analysis, as shown in Table 5.1. The final response rate of 72.3%, which was somewhat higher than those of other studies on job satisfaction conducted in Saudi Arabia, such as Al-Obaid (2002) and Al-Sumih (1996) (62% and 66% respectively), may be attributable to a number of factors: the questionnaires, which were quick and easy to answer, were administered and collected personally by the researcher. The high response rate may also indicate that teachers were interested in this research, which they may have perceived as useful to them in their work. Finally, the researcher chose to conduct the survey at the most appropriate time in the academic year, when teachers were not busy preparing students for final or mid-semester examinations, or in marking exam papers; thus, teachers' pressure of work was unlikely to reduce participation.

**Table 5.1: Questionnaire response rate**

	Distributed	Returned	Unreturned	Incomplete	Usable
<b>Count</b>	1020	752	268	15	737
<b>Percentage</b>	100	73.7	26.3	1.5	72.3

### 5.4 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

This section presents the results of the descriptive data analysis, revealing the relevant demographic characteristics of the sample. Descriptive statistics are defined by Vogt and Johnson (2011) as “summarising, organising, graphing, and, in general, describing quantitative information” (p.104). Therefore, the first aim of this section is to give a description of the characteristics of participants in this study, while the second is to compare all responses using a frequency and percentage analysis in terms of eight characteristics: age, qualifications, job grade, length of teaching experience, length of service at present school, teaching load, subject area and training. The analysis of variables, in subsections 5.4.1 to 5.4.8, reveals the general characteristics of the participants. The frequencies and percentages of the variables in question are displayed in tables.

### 5.4.1 Age

**Table 5.2: Respondents' age**

	Variable	Frequency	%
<b>Teacher's age in years</b>	Under 25	38	5.2
	26-30	235	31.9
	31-35	196	26.6
	36-40	145	19.7
	41-45	70	9.5
	46-50	36	4.9
	Over 50	17	2.3
<b>Total</b>		<b>737</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Teachers were asked to indicate their age in years from among seven categories, each representing a range of five years, listed in Table 5.2 as frequencies and percentages of the 737 teachers in the sample (as for all other demographic variables). More than half were in the 26-30 or 31-35 age groups (31.9% and 26.6% respectively). The next most populous age group was 36-40, which made up 19.7% of respondents. Only 5.2% were in the under 25 group and even fewer (4.9%) in the 46-50 group, with the lowest proportion (2.3%) being over 50. A large majority of teachers (78.2%) were aged between 26 and 40 years. There may be several reasons for the small number of teachers aged under 25. A large number of students graduate annually, while the number of teaching posts available is relatively small, so applicants tend to face a delay before the MoE employs them. Graduate applicants must also sit an entrance test (section 2.4.1) and await the results. Some may also choose to enter teaching at a later age.

### 5.4.2 Academic qualifications

**Table 5.3: Respondents' academic qualifications**

	Variable	Frequency	%
<b>Academic qualifications</b>	Degree with educational preparation	478	64.9
	Degree without educational preparation	200	27.1
	Master's degree	50	6.8
	Doctorate	9	1.2
<b>Total</b>		<b>737</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Teachers' levels of academic qualification are listed in Table 5.3. Almost two-thirds (64.9%) held a bachelor's degree in education (i.e. they had undergone teacher training before graduating), while the second largest group (surprisingly large at 27.1%) was made up of holders of bachelor's degrees who had completed no teacher training before graduating. A few (6.8%) had master's degrees and the smallest proportion of respondents (1.2%) had doctorates. The table shows that the number of teachers in each category decreased as the qualification became higher.

### 5.4.3 Job grades

**Table 5.4: Respondents' job grades**

	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Job grade</b>	Grade One	12	1.6
	Grade Two	35	4.7
	Grade Three	22	3.0
	Grade Four	187	25.4
	Grade Five	456	61.9
	Grade Six	25	3.4
	<b>Total</b>	<b>737</b>	<b>100.0</b>

It can be seen from Table 5.4 that there were just 1.6 percent of grade one teachers, while 4.7% were at grade two and 3.0% were at grade three. Almost two-thirds of teachers (61%) were at grade five and a further quarter (25.4%) grade four. Those at grade six comprised only 3.4% of teachers, but it is important to note that to achieve this grade, a postgraduate degree was required, while the minimum qualification at grade five was a degree with educational preparation and that for grades one, two and three, a degree without educational preparation was sufficient qualification. The predominance of grades four and five may be attributed to the fact that teachers are often appointed at these grades because they hold a degree, with or without educational preparation.

#### 5.4.4 General teaching experience

**Table 5.5: Respondents' teaching experience in years**

	Variable	Frequency	%
Years of teaching experience	1-5	219	29.7
	6-10	214	29.0
	11-15	144	19.5
	16-20	92	12.5
	21 & over	68	9.2
<b>Total</b>		<b>737</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Respondents were asked how many years they had been teachers. Table 5.5 shows that the majority had less than 10 years experience, with similar proportions having either 1-5 or 6-10 years (29.7% and 29.0% respectively). A smaller proportion (19.5%) had between 11 and 15 years of experience, while the smallest group (9.2%) had over 21 years. Between these two extremes, 12.5% had 16-20 years' experience. It is clear that the majority of teachers had relatively little experience, of less than 10 years, while the more experienced teachers, with over 16 years of experience, made up only 21.7% of the total. It is notable that the percentage having less than six years' experience (29.7%) far exceeds those aged under 25 (5.2%). This supports the conclusions drawn in section 5.4.1 regarding the relatively late age at which teachers appear to enter the profession.

#### 5.4.5 Length of service in current school

**Table 5.6: Length of service at current school in years**

	Variable	Frequency	%
Years of service in current school	1-5	465	63.1
	6-10	175	23.7
	11-15	62	8.4
	16-20	30	4.1
	21 & above	5	0.7
<b>Total</b>		<b>737</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 5.6 shows how long respondents had been teaching in their current school. A very small proportion (0.7%) had taught for more than 20 years in their current school, while a slightly larger number (4.1%) had 16-20 years of service, followed by 8.4% in the 11-15 years group. However, most teachers (63.1%) had taught for less than five

years in their current school, while around a quarter (23.7%) had 6-10 years' service. Thus, a strong majority (86.8%) had less than 10 years' service as teachers in their current school, whereas fewer than five percent had over 16 years' service.

#### 5.4.6 Number of lessons taught

**Table 5.7: Number of lessons taught per week**

	Variable	Frequency	%
<b>Number of lessons</b>	1-5	44	6.0
	6-10	60	8.1
	11-15	108	14.7
	16-20	348	47.2
	21-24	177	24.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>737</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 5.7 shows the number of lessons that respondents taught per week. Relatively few (6.0%) taught fewer than five lessons per week, whereas the highest proportion (almost half, i.e. 47.2%) taught between 16 and 20 lessons. Nearly a quarter of teachers (24.0%) taught between 21 and 24 lessons per week, followed by 14.7% who taught between 11 and 15 lessons. Thus, most teachers (71.2%) gave between 16 and 24 lessons each week. Although it is MoE policy for teachers to deliver 24 lessons per week, the results of the current findings show that few if any of the sample did so. This may be attributed to the policy of expanding teachers' employment in recent years, which means that more teachers are available to deliver the lessons required, so that each teacher has a reduced workload.

#### 5.4.7 Subjects taught

**Table 5.8: Frequency and percentage of teachers by subject area**

	Variable	Frequency	%
<b>Subjects taught</b>	Islamic studies	120	16.3
	Arabic	115	15.6
	Chemistry and physics	104	14.1
	English	84	11.4
	Maths	80	10.9
	History and geography	70	9.4
	Biology	47	6.4
	IT	43	5.8
	Psychology and sociology	34	4.6
	Physical education	21	2.8
	Geology	19	2.6
<b>Total</b>		<b>737</b>	<b>100.0</b>



Teachers were asked to indicate which subjects they taught. As Table 5.8 shows, the largest group of respondents comprised teachers of Islamic studies (16.3%), followed by Arabic (15.6%) and chemistry and physics (14.1%). English, maths, history and geography were taught by slightly smaller proportions of teachers (11.4%, 10.9% and 9.4% respectively). Less common subject areas were biology (6.4%) and IT (5.8%), as well as psychology and sociology (4.6%). The least common subject areas were physical education and geology, taught by 2.8% and 2.6% of teachers respectively. The differences in the percentages of teachers by subject area can be explained by the varying weekly lesson requirements. Islamic studies and Arabic were allotted five lessons per week, meaning that more teachers were needed than for those subjects, like physical education, which were taught only once per week to each class.

#### 5.4.8 Teacher training

**Table 5.9: Respondents' training**

Variable		Frequency	%
Teacher training	Yes	530	71.9
	No	207	28.1
Total		737	100.0

Teachers were asked to indicate whether they had attended in-service training programmes. Table 5.9 shows that almost three-quarters of respondents had done so and that only 28.1% had not. The high percentage of teachers who had undergone in-service training is not surprising, as the MoE was found to have encouraged participation in these programmes and to have offered a wide variety of courses.

##### 5.4.8.1 Number of training programmes attended

**Table 5.10: Number of training programmes attended**

Variable		Frequency	%
Number of training programmes	1-5	334	63.0
	6-10	115	21.7
	11-15	51	9.6
	16-20	10	1.9
	21-25	10	1.9
	26 & above	10	1.9
Total		530	100.0

Teachers who reported having received in-service training were asked to indicate the number of programmes they had attended. Table 5.10 lists their responses in terms of frequencies and percentages for each of six categories. It can be seen that of the 530 teachers who had had some training, almost two-thirds (63%) had attended between one and five courses, followed by 21.7% of teachers who had completed between six and ten. Fewer than one in ten (9.6%) had attended between 11 and 15 courses, while 1.9% had taken between 21 and 25 courses and the same number 26 or more. In other words, a strong majority of teachers (almost 85%) had attended up to 10 training programmes.

#### 5.4.8.2 Duration of training programmes attended

**Table 5.11: Duration of training programmes attended**

	Variable	Frequency	%
<b>Duration of training programmes</b>	Less than one month	349	65.8
	1-3	150	28.3
	4-6	18	3.4
	7-9	2	0.4
	10 & above	11	2.1
<b>Total</b>		530	100.0

Those teachers who reported having attended training programmes were also asked to indicate how long these lasted. Table 5.11 shows that very nearly two-thirds (65.8%) of the 530 teachers had attended a course of less than one month in length. These courses were often held in the Directorate of Education training centre or at the school concerned, given their short duration. More than a quarter (28.3%) had completed a training course of between one and three months in duration, while only a few (less than 6%) had attended courses lasting four months or more. Such programmes, because of the relatively long period of attendance required, were found to be usually held at a university and to lead to the award of a diploma.

#### 5.4.9 Summary of demographic characteristics

Descriptive analysis revealed that a very large proportion of respondents (78.2%) were aged between 26 and 40 years. An even greater number (92%) had bachelor's degrees and almost two-thirds (64.9%) had received teacher training as part of the degree course. Almost as many (61.9%) held grade five positions. More than half (58.7%) of teachers had less than 10 years' experience in the field and a slightly greater proportion

(63.1%) had less than five years' service in their current school. Nearly half of the sample (47.2%) taught between 16 and 20 lessons per week. Finally, the analysis revealed that 530 respondents (71.9%) had attended training programmes, that almost two-thirds (63%) of these had attended between one and five courses and that slightly more than this proportion (65.8%) had attended a course of less than one month in length.

The next three sections explain factor analysis and its application to the non-demographic variables measured by the questionnaire.

## **5.5 Factor Analysis**

The purpose of factor analysis is to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller number of factors (Hartas, 2010; Rogerson, 2010) which are believed to “reflect underlying processes that have created the correlations among variables” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p.582). Factor analysis, according to Kline (1994), “is a statistical technique widely used in psychology and the social sciences. Indeed, in some branches of psychology, especially those in which tests or questionnaires have been administered, it is a necessity” (p.1) In general, it allows researchers to identify the relationships amongst a large number of variables by defining a set of common dimensions.

Factor analysis was utilised in the current study in order to determine the number of factors and how the variables were grouped; consequently, exploratory factor analysis was appropriate, since the research questionnaire consisted of many varied items. While the selection of these items (i.e. the variables) had been carefully based on a comprehensive review of the literature, any which did not load on a factor were disqualified from the study.

The analysis was conducted by means of SPSS v19. This software was applied to two sections of the questionnaire: part two, comprising 48 items measuring teachers' satisfaction with a variety of aspects of their jobs, and part four, consisting of 9 items designed to measure their motivation.

## **5.6 Job Satisfaction Factors**

Principal component analysis (PCA) was first employed to identify the number of job satisfaction factors to be extracted. Table 5.12 summarizes the results for the extraction of component factors and the percentage of variance explained by each of these factors.

For ten factors the total value exceeded 1.0. The percentage of variance ranged from 2.5%, for factor 10, to 11.4%, for factor 1. The extraction of these ten factors together accounts for 59.2% of the variance.

**Table 5.12: Total variance explained**

Factors	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	13.584	28.299	28.299	13.584	28.299	28.299	5.477	11.411	11.411
2	3.195	6.656	34.955	3.195	6.656	34.955	4.642	9.670	21.081
3	2.245	4.677	39.632	2.245	4.677	39.632	4.272	8.901	29.982
4	1.862	3.880	43.512	1.862	3.880	43.512	2.962	6.171	36.153
5	1.606	3.345	46.857	1.606	3.345	46.857	2.675	5.572	41.726
6	1.451	3.022	49.880	1.451	3.022	49.880	2.351	4.898	46.624
7	1.230	2.562	52.442	1.230	2.562	52.442	1.841	3.835	50.459
8	1.121	2.336	54.778	1.121	2.336	54.778	1.594	3.321	53.780
9	1.073	2.236	57.014	1.073	2.236	57.014	1.362	2.837	56.617
10	1.026	2.137	59.151	1.026	2.137	59.151	1.216	2.534	59.151
11	.952	1.984	61.135						

Extraction method: PCA

### 5.6.1 Varimax rotation of job satisfaction factors

The new eigenvalues and percentages of variance explained are also shown in Table 5.12. The next step in interpreting the ten factors was to rotate them. Table 5.13 presents the factor pattern matrix for the job satisfaction items using varimax with the Kaiser normalization rotation (KNR) method, which is commonly used to maximize the variance of squared loadings on a factor by producing some high and some low loadings for each factor (Everitt & Hothorn, 2011; Kline, 1994). In order to identify the highest loading for each variable, the interpretation begins with the first item on the first factor, moving from left to right and selecting the highest loading for that item on any factor. If it is significantly high, it loads onto this factor. The same technique is then applied to the remaining variables (Appendix F).

**Table 5.13: Results of PCA with varimax rotation for job satisfaction**

Statements	Components/Factor loadings									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28 ICT facilities	.791									
26 Support to improve your teaching	.749									
27 Classroom facilities and resources	.742									
22 New ICT opportunities	.735									
24 Professional development and self-growth	.709									
23 Training opportunities	.703									
25 Opportunity to pursue advanced degree	.680									
33 Financial support to conduct educational development programmes	.574									
2 The principal		.785								
32 School policy and administration		.775								
29 School management		.700								
35 Recognition and reward for good work from your principle		.686								
3 Evaluation by the principal		.634								
31 School bureaucracy		.559								
30 Schools staff meetings in general		.558								
44 Opportunity to contribute to school decision-making		.528								
41 Autonomy over teaching			.677							
42 Responsibilities			.674							
39 Classroom discipline			.641							
36 Classroom teaching			.596							
43 Job security			.537							
45 Job variety			.533							
40 Supervising extracurricular activities outside classroom			.506							
47 Intellectual challenge			.474							
37 Administrative paperwork you have to do			.389							
11 Student achievement				.809						
10 Students' motivation to learn				.751						
12 Student behaviour				.670						
14 Pressure from students about examinations				.504						
13 Relationships with parents				.493						
15 Workload					.717					
16 Classroom teaching load					.650					
19 Length of the working day					.615					
17 School working environment					.462					
48 The level of stress					.407					
6 Job grade system						.825				
5 Promotion opportunities						.821				
1 Your Salary						.585				
7 Relationships with colleagues							.746			
8 Social activities with colleagues							.711			
9 Relationships with students							.492			
20 Length of school holidays								.709		
21 The curriculum								.452		
46 Regulations and educational systems								.450		
38 Marking pupils' work			.419						.548	
18 Doing school work at home									.526	
4 Educational supervisor										-.565
34 Status of teachers in society										.329

Table 5.13 shows that all items had loadings greater than 0.5, with the exception of seven items (Q47, Q17, Q13, Q17, Q18, Q 21 and Q48) whose loadings were greater than 0.4 and two (Q34 and Q37) greater than 0.3. Kline (1994) regards factor loadings as high if they are greater than 0.6 (regardless of the sign) and acceptably high above 0.3, while Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) state that “a criterion for meaningful correlation is usually 0.3 or larger” (p.625). Furthermore, the results reveal that only one of the items had a loading of greater than 0.4 on more than one factor: Q38 (Marking pupils’ work) loaded .548 on factor 9 and .419 on factor 3.

**5.6.2 Interpretation and labelling of job satisfaction factors**

The last step was to label each of the ten job satisfaction factors. The labels and the loading of variables using varimax with KNR on each factor are presented in Tables 5.14 to 5.23.

**5.6.2.1 Factor 1**

**Table 5.14: Loading of variables on factor 1 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
28	ICT facilities	.791	Staff development
26	Support to improve your teaching	.749	
27	Classroom facilities and resources	.742	
22	New ICT opportunities	.735	
24	Professional development and self-growth	.709	
23	Training opportunities	.703	
25	Opportunity to pursue advanced degree	.680	
33	Financial support to conduct educational development programmes	.574	

Table 5.14 shows that factor 1 consisted of eight items, whose loading ranged between .574 for item 33 and .791 for item 28. Five of these items (Support to improve your teaching, Professional development and self-growth, Training opportunities, Opportunity to pursue advanced degree and Financial support to conduct educational development programmes) can be seen to relate to work development, while the other three (ICT facilities, New ICT opportunities and Classroom facilities and resources) are concerned with available facilities. Accordingly, this factor was named ‘Staff development’.

### 5.6.2.2 Factor 2

**Table 5.15: Loading of variables on factor 2 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
2	The principal	.785	Administration
32	School policy and administration	.775	
29	School management	.700	
35	Recognition and reward for good work from your principal	.686	
3	Evaluation by the principal	.634	
31	School bureaucracy	.559	
30	School staff meetings in general	.558	
44	Opportunity to contribute to school decision-making	.528	

Factor 2, as shown in Table 5.15, consisted of eight items whose loading ranged from .528 (item 44) to .785 (item 2). It can be seen that they were all concerned with the school principal or with school policy, administration and decision-making. Therefore, this factor was named ‘Administration’.

### 5.6.2.3 Factor 3

**Table 5.16: Loading of variables on factor 3 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
41	Autonomy over teaching	.677	Nature of the work
42	Responsibilities	.674	
39	Classroom discipline	.641	
36	Classroom teaching	.596	
43	Job security	.537	
45	Job variety	.533	
40	Supervising extracurricular activities outside classroom	.506	
47	Intellectual challenge	.474	
37	Administrative paperwork you have to do	.389	

Factor 3 comprised nine items, as shown in Table 5.16, with loadings ranging from .389 (item 37) to .677 (item 41). As they were all concerned with features of the teachers’ work itself, this factor was named ‘Nature of the work’.

#### 5.6.2.4 Factor 4

**Table 5.17: Loading of variables on factor 4 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
11	Student achievement	.809	Student progress
10	Students' motivation to learn	.751	
12	Student behaviour	.670	
14	Pressure from students about examinations	.504	
13	Relationships with parents	.493	

Table 5.1.7 shows that factor 4 comprised five items whose loading ranged between .809 (item 11) and .493 (item 13). It can be seen that all but one of these items were related to the achievement of the students, their motivation, behaviour and pressure on teachers regarding examinations, while item 13, on teachers' relationships with the parents, was included because in Saudi Arabia such relationships tend to be concerned with communication regarding their children's progress. Therefore this factor was named 'Student progress'.

#### 5.6.2.5 Factor 5

**Table 5.18: Loading of variables on factor 5 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
15	Workload	.717	Workload
16	Classroom teaching load	.650	
19	Length of the working day	.615	
17	School working environment	.462	
48	Level of stress	.407	

Factor five, as Table 5.18 shows, consisted of five items whose loading ranged between .407 (item 48) and .717 (item 15). As the component item entitled Workload had the highest loading, followed by Teaching load and Length of the working day, while the related variables of School working environment and Stress had lower loadings, the obvious name for the factor was Workload.



### 5.6.2.6 Factor 6

**Table 5.19: Loading of variables on factor 6 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
6	Job grade system	.825	Salary and promotion
5	Promotion opportunities	.821	
1	Your salary	.585	

Table 5.19 shows that factor 6 consisted of three items with loadings of .585 (item 1) to .825 (item 6), all related to salaries and promotion. One explanation of their grouping under one factor is that in the Saudi education system, there is a very strong link between salary and promotion in the sense that when a teacher is promoted to a higher grade, there is no advantage or benefit other than a salary increase. Therefore, this factor was named ‘Salary and promotion’.

### 5.6.2.7 Factor 7

**Table 5.20: Loading of variables on factor 7 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
7	Relationships with colleagues	.746	Interpersonal relationships
8	Social activities with colleagues	.711	
9	Relationships with students	.492	

As Table 5.20 shows, factor 7 consisted of three items, with loadings from .492 (item 9) to .746 (item 7). As all of these items concern relationships, this factor was named ‘Interpersonal relationships’.

### 5.6.2.8 Factor 8

**Table 5.21: Loading of variables on factor 8 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
20	Length of school holidays	.709	Educational system
21	The curriculum	.452	
46	Regulations and educational systems	.450	

Factor eight, as Table 5.21 shows, comprised three items whose loading ranged between .450 (item 46) and .709 (item 21), related to rather disparate matters: school holidays, the curriculum, and regulations and educational systems. Therefore, this factor was named ‘Educational system’.

### 5.6.2.9 Factor 9

**Table 5.22: Loading of variables on factor 9 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
38	Marking pupils' work	.548	Marking pupils' work
18	Doing school work at home	.526	

Table 5.22 shows that factor 9 consisted of only two items, loading .548 (item 38) and .526 (item 18). Given that work at home would include marking, it was named 'Marking pupils' work'.

### 5.6.2.10 Factor 10

**Table 5.23: Loading of variables on factor 10 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
4	Educational supervisor	-.565	Educational supervision
34	Status of teachers in society	.329	

As Table 5.23 shows, factor 10 also consisted of two items, loading -.565 (item 4) and .329 (item 34). The factor was named 'Educational supervision' because the more strongly loaded of its two variables was 'Educational supervisor'.

## 5.7 Motivation Factors

For the motivation section of the questionnaire, as with job satisfaction, PCA was employed to identify the number of factors to be extracted from the nine questionnaire items. Table 5.24 summarizes the results for the extraction of component factors and the percentage of variance explained by each of them. Two factors can be seen to have total values over 1.0, their extraction accounting for 38.1% (factor 1) and 24.7% (factor 2) of variance, a total of 62.9%.

**Table 5.24: Total variance explained**

Factors	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.351	48.350	48.350	4.351	48.350	48.350	3.437	38.186	38.186
2	1.312	14.578	62.928	1.312	14.578	62.928	2.227	24.742	62.928
3	.746	8.285	71.213						

Extraction method: PCA

### 5.7.1 Varimax rotation of motivation factors

In order to interpret the two factors, the next step was to rotate them, using varimax with KNR to identify the highest loading for each variable. The results are listed in Table 5.25.

**Table 5.25: Result of PCA with varimax rotation for motivation**

Items	Components/ Factor loadings	
	1	2
Q 3 Contributing to a better society	.816	
Q 2 Wanting to help students to succeed	.814	
Q 4 Working with students	.809	
Q 5 Using my professional knowledge and expertise	.785	
Q 6 Classroom teaching	.607	
Q 1 Doing a worthwhile job	.546	
Q 9 Recognition and status in society		.811
Q 8 Working condition		.773
Q 7 Your salary		.722

Table 5.25 shows that all items had high loadings on one factor or the other, greater than .06, except for item 1, whose loading on factor 1 was greater than 0.5, and that no variable had a loading greater than 0.5 on both factors. Therefore, no item was disqualified.

It is clear that factor 1 consisted of six variables and factor 2 of three variables, identified by the method explained in section 5.6.

### 5.7.2 Interpretation and labelling of motivation factors

The last step in factor analysis was to label each of the two motivation factors. The resulting labels and the loading of the variables on each factor using varimax with KNR are presented in Tables 5.26 and 5.27.

#### 5.7.2.1 Factor 1

**Table 5.26: Loading of variables on factor 1 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
3	Contributing to a better society	.816	Intrinsic and altruistic motivation
2	Wanting to help students to succeed	.814	
4	Working with students	.809	
5	Using my professional knowledge and expertise	.785	
6	Classroom teaching	.607	
1	Doing a worthwhile job	.546	

Factor 1, as Table 5.26 shows, consisted of six items with loadings from .546 (item 1) to .816 (item 3). Variables 4, 5 and 6 can be seen as intrinsic to teaching, while items 1, 2 and 3 are altruistic in nature, so this factor was named ‘Intrinsic and altruistic motivation’.

#### 5.7.2.2 Factor 2

**Table 5.27: Loading of variables on factor 2 using varimax with KNR**

N	Variables (Items)	Loading	Factor name
9	Recognition and status in society	.811	Extrinsic motivation
8	Working conditions	.773	
7	Your salary	.722	

Factor 2 consisted of three items with loadings which ranged between .722 (item 7) and .811 (item 9) (Table 5.27). All can be seen to be extrinsic to teaching, so this factor was named ‘Extrinsic motivation’.

### 5.8 Questionnaire Responses: Descriptive Statistics

The following subsections examine teachers’ responses to the second and third parts of the questionnaire, concerning respectively factors influencing their job satisfaction and their general job satisfaction, and to parts four and five, concerning respectively factors influencing their motivation and their general motivation.

The current study used a 5-point Likert-type scale, which is considered an ordinal scale, as explained in Chapter Four. In order to determine the degree of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, SPSS was utilised to analyse the data, mostly in terms of frequencies, percentages and mean values of individual response scores. Table 5.28 lists the equivalent mean value for each of the Likert scale values, as well as the rating terms and their interpretation. As the lowest possible score on the five-point scale was 1 and the highest was 5, the total range was  $5-1=4$ . The length of each of the five categories was thus calculated as  $4/5=0.8$ , giving equivalent mean values for the five categories of 1.00 to 1.80, 1.81-2.60 and so on, as shown in column 3 of Table 5.28. This gives each of the items on all of the rating scales an equal weight.

**Table 5.28: Mean values based on response scores**

Categories	Likert scale value	Equivalent mean value	Rating	Interpretation
<b>Satisfaction factors</b>	1	1-1.80	Very dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
	2	1.81-2.60	Fairly dissatisfied	Fairly Dissatisfied
	3	2.61-3.40	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied
	4	3.41-4.20	Fairly satisfied	Fairly Satisfied
	5	4.21-5	Very satisfied	Very satisfied
<b>Motivation factors</b>	1	1-1.80	Not motivating	Not motivating
	2	1.81-2.60	Mildly motivating	Mildly motivating
	3	2.61-3.40	Moderately motivating	Moderately motivating
	4	3.41-4.20	Very motivating	Very motivating
	5	4.21-5	Extremely motivating	Extremely motivating
<b>General satisfaction</b>	1	1-1.80	Strongly disagree	Very dissatisfied
	2	1.81-2.60	Disagree	Fairly dissatisfied
	3	2.61-3.40	Undecided	Moderately satisfied
	4	3.41-4.20	Agree	Fairly satisfied
	5	4.21-5	Strongly agree	Very satisfied
<b>General motivation</b>	1	1-1.80	Strongly disagree	Very demotivated
	2	1.81-2.60	Disagree	Fairly demotivated
	3	2.61-3.40	Undecided	Moderately motivated
	4	3.41-4.20	Agree	Fairly motivated
	5	4.21-5	Strongly agree	Very motivated

### 5.8.1 General level of satisfaction

This section concerns the first research question, about determining the overall level of teachers' job satisfaction. Teachers were given three items and were asked to choose which response best represented their feelings, on a five-point scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

Table 5.29 shows teachers' responses concerning their general job satisfaction. In response to item 1, it can be seen that almost four-fifths of teachers expressed satisfaction with their jobs in general, with a mean score of 3.83, among whom 17.9% were very satisfied. More than half (55.7%) of teachers indicated that they would take their current job if they had to start their careers again, with a mean score of 3.48. Most also indicated that if a good friend were interested in working in their job, they would encourage him to take it: 41.7% agreed and 14.8% strongly agreed with this proposition. Items 2 and 3 received fairly high 'undecided' responses of 24.8% and 22.4% respectively. The overall mean of 3.58 indicates that teachers were generally fairly satisfied with their jobs.

**Table 5.29: Responses concerning general job satisfaction**

N	Items	SD	D	U	A	SA	Mean
		%	%	%	%	%	
1)	In general, I am satisfied with my job.	1.6	9.2	10.9	60.4	17.9	3.83
2)	If I had to start my career again, I would take my current job.	3.8	15.7	24.8	39.1	16.6	3.48
3)	If a good friend of mine was interested in working in my job, I would encourage him to take it.	5.3	15.9	22.4	41.7	14.8	3.44
<b>Overall</b>		3.5	13.6	19.3	47.0	16.4	3.58

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; U=undecided; A=agree; SA=strongly agree; F=frequency; %=percentage

### 5.8.2 Factors influencing teachers' satisfaction

The second research question concerned identifying the factors influencing teachers' job satisfaction. Teachers were asked a general question about the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with each of 48 items, on a five-point scale from 'very dissatisfied' to 'very satisfied'. As noted in section 5.6, factor analysis revealed that these 48 items were grouped into ten factors, each of which is now examined in terms of the teachers' responses.

### 5. 8.2.1 Staff development

Table 5.30 shows teachers' responses to items grouped under the 'Staff development' factor, listed in order of mean score, with the item eliciting the most positive responses (item 24) at the top of the table. It can be seen that almost half of respondents (46.4%) expressed some degree of dissatisfaction with their professional development and self-growth, while only about a third were satisfied and a fifth were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Half of respondents also expressed dissatisfaction with financial support to conduct educational development programmes, while less than quarter were satisfied. For item 23, over half (53.7%) of respondents expressed some dissatisfaction with training opportunities, including almost one-fifth who were very dissatisfied. This result was surprising, as responses to the demographic questions indicated that over 70% of teachers had attended training programmes. The question of why such a high number of teachers had attended training programmes, yet were not satisfied with training opportunities, was seen to require explanation and so was investigated in more depth in the interviews, as discussed in Chapter Seven.

Responses to related items were even more negative: more than two-thirds of respondents were dissatisfied with their opportunity to pursue advanced degree studies (item 25), while an even greater percentage of dissatisfaction was expressed in response to item 26, concerning support to improve teaching. Only one in six expressed their satisfaction with this item and almost as many were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Over half of teachers also indicated their dissatisfaction with ICT facilities and new ICT opportunities. Items 25 and 26 received the highest scores for 'very dissatisfied', at around 30%; item 33 received the strongest neutral response (about a quarter); and item 24 had the highest response for satisfaction, totalling almost exactly one-third. This analysis reveals that participants were generally dissatisfied with the opportunities for staff development at their schools, the mean score being 2.47 and considerably more than half being dissatisfied to some degree overall.

**Table 5.30: Responses to items in factor 1 (Staff development)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
24	Professional development and self-growth	124	16.8	218	29.6	151	20.5	203	27.5	41	5.6	<b>2.75</b>
33	Financial support to conduct educational development programmes	127	17.2	242	32.8	193	26.2	144	19.5	31	4.2	<b>2.60</b>
23	Training opportunities	138	18.7	258	35.0	137	18.6	170	23.1	34	4.6	<b>2.59</b>
28	ICT facilities	153	20.8	235	31.9	149	20.2	171	23.2	29	3.9	<b>2.57</b>
22	New ICT opportunities	188	25.5	254	34.5	146	19.8	120	16.3	29	3.9	<b>2.38</b>
25	Opportunity to pursue advanced degree	206	28.0	248	33.6	126	17.1	121	16.4	36	4.9	<b>2.36</b>
27	Classroom facilities and resources	194	26.3	290	39.3	93	12.6	134	18.2	26	3.5	<b>2.33</b>
26	Support to improve your teaching	230	31.2	270	36.6	112	15.2	102	13.8	23	3.1	<b>2.21</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>23.1</b>		<b>34.2</b>				<b>19.7</b>		<b>4.2</b>	<b>2.47</b>

**5.8.2.2 Administration**

Table 5.31 lists teachers' responses to items under the 'Administration' factor, again in descending order of mean scores. It shows that most teachers (85%) expressed a positive level of satisfaction with the principal (item 2), with 40.2% very satisfied and fewer than 7% dissatisfied. Responses to item 3 (Evaluation by the principal) were only a little less positive, three-quarters being satisfied and fewer than one in ten dissatisfied. The results for item 35 were unsurprisingly similar: more than two-thirds of teachers expressed their satisfaction with recognition and reward for good work from the principal, with another small increase over item 3 in levels of dissatisfaction. Items 32 (School policy and administration, 29 (School management) and 31 (School bureaucracy) all had responses indicating approximately the same level of job satisfaction: around two-thirds of respondents were satisfied, with mean scores of 3.76, 3.67 and 3.65 respectively. As for staff meetings in general, over half of teachers said that they were satisfied or very satisfied, while only about a fifth were dissatisfied. The only item where satisfaction was only moderate, with a mean score of 3.18, was item 44, 'Opportunity to contribute to school decision-making', slightly less than half of respondents being satisfied, of whom fewer than one in ten were very satisfied, while almost a third were dissatisfied. In general, the analysis reveals that participants were



well satisfied with their administration, especially with principals, as the overall mean score was 3.7 and the overall proportion of satisfied respondents was two-thirds. Therefore, Administration is identified as a factor contributing to teachers' satisfaction.

**Table 5.31: Responses to items in factor 2 (Administration)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
2	The principal	13	1.8	33	4.5	65	8.8	330	44.8	296	40.2	<b>4.17</b>
3	Evaluation by the principal	16	2.2	46	6.2	121	16.4	329	44.6	225	30.5	<b>3.95</b>
35	Recognition & reward for good work from your principal	36	4.9	61	8.3	112	15.2	335	45.5	193	26.2	<b>3.79</b>
32	School policy and administration	32	4.3	63	8.5	109	14.8	373	50.6	160	12.7	<b>3.76</b>
29	School management	27	3.7	62	8.4	168	22.8	343	46.5	137	18.6	<b>3.67</b>
31	School bureaucracy	31	4.2	79	10.7	108	14.7	411	55.8	108	14.7	<b>3.65</b>
30	Schools staff meetings in general	41	5.6	124	16.8	151	20.5	326	44.2	95	12.9	<b>3.42</b>
44	Opportunity to contribute to school decision-making	73	9.9	145	19.7	157	21.3	298	40.4	64	8.7	<b>3.18</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>4.6</b>		<b>10.4</b>				<b>46.6</b>		<b>20.6</b>	<b>3.7</b>

### 5.8.2.3 Nature of the work

Table 5.32 lists teachers' responses to items in the 'Nature of the work' group. There was a high level of satisfaction with regard to their autonomy over teaching: almost three-quarters (74.4%) were satisfied, while only about one in eight (12.1%) expressed dissatisfaction. The mean score for this item was 3.78, the highest for factor 3. Unsurprisingly, the second highest mean (3.64) was in response to a related item on classroom teaching, where more than two-thirds were satisfied, while teachers also expressed a high level of job satisfaction in response to item 39 on classroom discipline, almost two-thirds being satisfied and only about a fifth dissatisfied. In response to items 42, 43, 45 and 37, on responsibilities, job security, job variety and administrative paperwork, mean scores were again high (3.56, 3.52, 3.38 and 3.35 respectively), with well over half of teachers being satisfied and only about one in five dissatisfied. Almost half (48%) were also satisfied with the intellectual challenge of the job, while this item received the highest neutral score (27.1%), a little higher than the total of dissatisfied teachers. Finally, regarding the supervision of extracurricular activities outside the

classroom, responses to this item were generally well spread across the categories and hardly better than neutral overall. The overall mean score of 3.45 for this factor indicates that teachers were generally fairly satisfied with the nature of their work.

**Table 5.32: Responses to items in factor 3 (Nature of the work)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
41	Autonomy over teaching	24	3.3	66	9.0	99	13.4	403	54.7	145	19.7	<b>3.78</b>
36	Classroom teaching	16	2.2	94	12.8	123	16.7	404	54.8	100	13.6	<b>3.64</b>
42	Responsibilities	33	4.5	104	14.1	110	14.9	390	52.9	100	13.6	<b>3.56</b>
43	Job security	69	9.4	96	13.0	99	13.4	318	43.1	155	21.0	<b>3.53</b>
39	Classroom discipline	31	4.2	120	16.3	114	15.5	378	51.3	94	12.8	<b>3.52</b>
45	Job variety	43	5.8	125	17.0	161	21.8	321	43.6	87	11.8	<b>3.38</b>
37	Administrative paperwork you have to do	39	5.3	123	16.7	179	24.3	332	45.0	64	8.7	<b>3.35</b>
47	Intellectual challenge	54	7.3	129	17.5	200	27.1	306	41.5	48	6.5	<b>3.22</b>
40	Supervising extracurricular activities outside classroom	58	7.9	186	25.2	183	24.8	252	34.2	58	7.9	<b>3.08</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>5.6</b>		<b>15.7</b>				<b>46.8</b>		<b>12.8</b>	<b>3.45</b>

#### 5.8.2.4 Student progress

Table 5.33 shows participants' responses to the 'Student progress' factor of job satisfaction. It can be seen that in response to item 11, more than half of teachers expressed themselves dissatisfied with the achievement of their students, while fewer than a third were satisfied. This is supported by responses to item 10, where over half of teachers indicated that they were dissatisfied with students' motivation to learn, whereas barely a quarter were satisfied. This result is disappointing in light of the close attention and financial support given by the Saudi government to progress and development in the education system. This point will be addressed in greater depth in Chapter Seven. It is noticeable that in response to item 12, regarding student behaviour, teachers were more evenly divided between satisfaction (41.8%) and dissatisfaction (42.5%) than for other items. Only two items achieved mean scores above 3. Responses to item 14 on pressure from students about examinations were slightly in favour of satisfaction (38.4%) rather than dissatisfaction (23.1%). The highest mean was for item 13: almost half of teachers were satisfied with their relationships with parents, while about a quarter were neutral and a few more than this were dissatisfied. The highest level of uncertainty was expressed in relation to item 14. In general, teachers were only

moderately satisfied with their students' progress, the overall mean score for this factor (2.89) being close to the upper limit (2.60) of the 'fairly dissatisfied' rating, while only about a third expressed satisfaction. This was explored further in the qualitative phase and is discussed in Chapter Seven.

**Table 5.33: Responses to items in factor 4 (Student progress)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
13	Relationships with parents	54	7.3	160	21.7	183	24.8	283	38.4	57	7.7	3.17
14	Pressure from students about examinations	38	5.2	198	26.9	218	29.6	251	34.1	32	4.3	3.05
12	Student behaviour	75	10.2	233	31.6	116	15.7	280	38.0	33	4.5	2.94
11	Student achievement	91	12.3	289	39.2	141	19.1	194	26.3	22	3.0	2.68
10	Students' motivation to learn	103	14.0	303	41.1	132	17.9	161	21.8	38	5.2	2.63
<b>Overall</b>			<b>9.8</b>		<b>32.1</b>				<b>31.7</b>		<b>4.9</b>	<b>2.89</b>

#### 5.8.2.5 Workload/conditions

Table 5.34 shows teachers' responses to items under the Workload factor. They expressed a high level of satisfaction with the school working environment, over two-thirds indicating that they were satisfied, while fewer than a fifth (18.6%) expressed dissatisfaction. Almost two-thirds of teachers (62.6%) indicated that they were satisfied with the length of the working day, while only a quarter were dissatisfied. In response to the directly related items 16 and 15, more than half of teachers said that they were satisfied with the classroom teaching load and with their workload, while less than a third expressed dissatisfaction. With regard to the level of stress, responses were almost equally split between satisfied (37.8%) and dissatisfied (39.4%), with almost a quarter neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. This was the only item with a mean under 3 (2.9); overall, over half (55%) of respondents were satisfied with variables related to workload and less than a third expressed dissatisfaction, while the overall mean score for this factor was 3.25, representing moderate satisfaction.

**Table 5.34: Responses to items in factor 5 (Workload)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
17	School working environment	34	4.6	103	14.0	85	11.5	405	55.0	110	14.9	<b>3.61</b>
19	Length of the working day	57	7.7	130	17.6	89	12.1	392	53.2	69	9.4	<b>3.38</b>
16	Classroom teaching load	58	7.9	157	21.3	132	17.9	345	46.8	45	6.1	<b>3.21</b>
15	Workload	67	9.1	175	23.7	110	14.9	349	47.4	36	4.9	<b>3.15</b>
48	Level of stress	92	12.5	198	26.9	168	22.8	244	33.1	35	4.7	<b>2.90</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>8.4</b>		<b>20.7</b>				<b>47.1</b>		<b>8</b>	<b>3.25</b>

**5.8.2.6 Salary and promotion**

Table 5.35 shows responses to items in the ‘Salary and promotion’ factor. Two-thirds of teachers indicated that they were satisfied with their salary, while fewer than a third were dissatisfied and a very small proportion were undecided. Conversely, only a fifth indicated that they were satisfied with the promotional opportunities, while half were dissatisfied. This was expected, since teachers saw no benefit in promotion beyond an increase in salary. Finally, responses to item 6 were almost equally split between satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the job grade system. Overall, satisfaction and dissatisfaction were roughly equal and the mean score was very close to the neutral value of 3, reflecting the sample’s satisfaction with salary and dissatisfaction with promotion opportunities.

**Table 5.35: Responses to items in factor 6 (Salary and promotion)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
1	Your Salary	88	11.9	127	17.2	37	5.0	348	47.2	137	18.6	<b>3.43</b>
6	Job grade system	104	14.1	196	26.6	133	18.0	237	32.2	67	9.1	<b>2.95</b>
5	Promotion opportunities	124	16.8	249	33.8	217	29.4	122	16.6	25	3.4	<b>2.55</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>14.3</b>		<b>25.9</b>				<b>32</b>		<b>10.4</b>	<b>2.98</b>

**5.8.2.7 Interpersonal relationships**

Table 5.36 shows teachers’ responses to the ‘Interpersonal relationships’ factor of job satisfaction. There was a very high level of satisfaction (92.5%) with relationships with colleagues, where the mean score was 4.41 (very satisfied). In answer to a related item, two-thirds of respondents were either very satisfied (20.9%) or fairly satisfied (45.6%)

with regard to social activities with colleagues. Almost 90% of teachers also indicated that they were satisfied with their relationships with students. The overall mean for the factor (4.08=fairly satisfied) was the only one above 4 for any of the factors.

**Table 5.36: Responses to items in factor 7 (Interpersonal relationships)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
7	Relationships with colleagues	4	.5	11	1.5	40	5.4	303	41.1	379	51.4	<b>4.41</b>
9	Relationships with students	13	1.8	23	3.1	54	7.3	406	55.1	241	31.7	<b>4.13</b>
8	Social activities with colleagues	13	1.8	92	12.5	142	19.3	336	45.6	154	20.9	<b>3.71</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>1.4</b>		<b>5.7</b>				<b>47.3</b>		<b>34.7</b>	<b>4.08</b>

### 5.8.2.8 Educational system

Table 5.37 lists responses relating to the ‘Educational system’ factor. Regarding the length of the holidays, almost two-thirds were satisfied, about a quarter were dissatisfied and one in eight were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Half of the sample were satisfied with the curriculum and a third dissatisfied, the mean score being just above 3. Finally, in response to item 46, teachers were almost equally divided between satisfaction (41.3%) and dissatisfaction (40.6%) with regulations and educational systems and almost a fifth were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. The overall mean of 3.15 indicates moderate satisfaction with this diverse factor.

**Table 5.37: Responses to items in factor 8 (Educational system)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
20	Length of school holidays	74	10.0	130	17.6	93	12.6	330	44.8	110	14.9	<b>3.36</b>
21	The curriculum	79	10.7	164	22.3	122	16.6	313	42.5	59	8.0	<b>3.14</b>
46	Regulations & educational systems	94	12.8	202	27.4	137	18.6	251	34.1	53	7.2	<b>2.95</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>11.2</b>		<b>22.4</b>				<b>40.5</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>3.15</b>

### 5.8.2.9 Marking pupils’ work

Table 5.38 shows that almost two-thirds of respondents were satisfied with the marking of pupils’ work, whereas fewer than a fifth indicated some level of dissatisfaction. In response to item 18, fewer than half of teachers (44.5%) indicated that they were satisfied with doing school work at home, while a smaller percentage (36.4%) were dissatisfied. As very few of the former were very satisfied, the mean for this item was

just under 3, while the overall mean for the factor was 3.26, indicating moderate satisfaction with marking.

**Table 5.38: Responses to items in factor 9 (Marking pupils' work)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
38	Marking pupils' work	30	4.1	112	15.2	128	17.4	366	49.7	101	13.7	<b>3.53</b>
18	Doing school work at home	101	13.7	167	22.7	141	19.1	293	39.8	35	4.7	<b>2.99</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>8.9</b>		<b>19</b>				<b>44.8</b>		<b>9.2</b>	<b>3.26</b>

### 5.8.2.10 Educational supervision

Table 5.39 shows participants' responses to the 'Educational supervision' factor. Nearly two-thirds of teachers were satisfied with their educational supervisor, while only one in eight were dissatisfied. On the other hand, more than half (56.7%) of teachers indicated that they were dissatisfied with the status of teachers in society, including nearly a quarter (23.7%) who were very dissatisfied, whereas about a quarter were fairly satisfied and very few (6%) were very satisfied, making the mean for this item only 2.55. The overall mean for the factor was close to 3, reflecting a general satisfaction among teachers with their interaction with the educational supervisor, balanced by dissatisfaction with their status in society. Teachers' dissatisfaction with their social status is examined further in section 6.9 and in Chapter Seven.

**Table 5.39: Responses to items in factor 10 (Educational supervision)**

N	Items	Very dissatisfied		Fairly dissatisfied		Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Very satisfied		Mean
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
4	Educational supervisor	27	3.7	62	8.4	168	22.8	343	46.5	137	18.6	<b>3.67</b>
34	Status of teachers in society	175	23.7	243	33.0	98	13.3	177	24.0	44	6.0	<b>2.55</b>
<b>Overall</b>			<b>13.7</b>		<b>20.7</b>				<b>35.3</b>		<b>12.3</b>	<b>3.11</b>

### 5.8.3 Relative contribution of job satisfaction factors

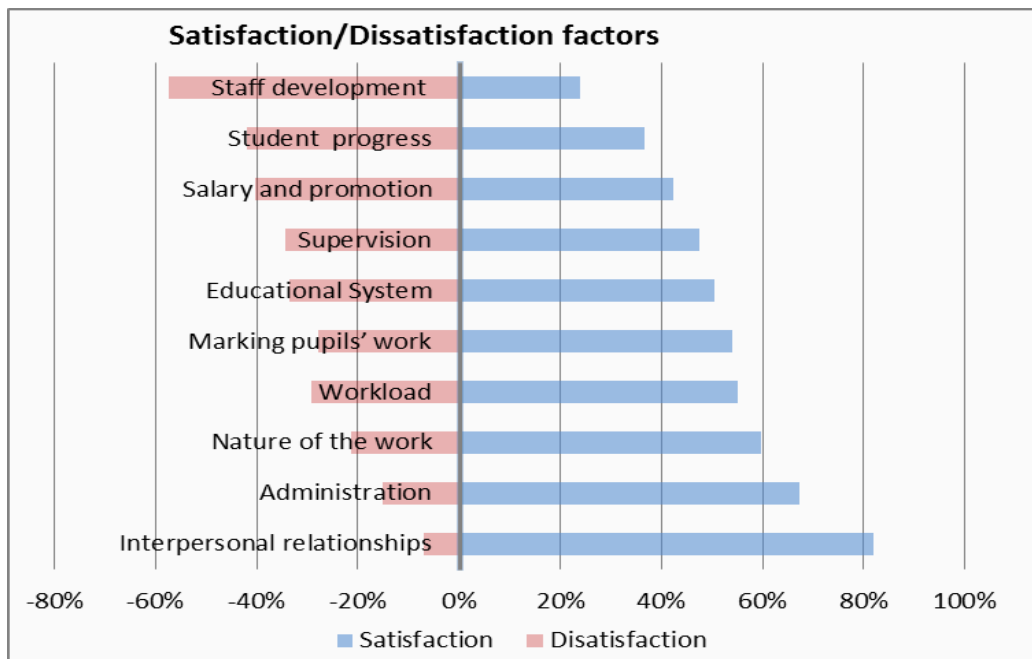
To establish the relative contribution of each of the ten factors to overall levels of job satisfaction, the figures for 'fairly satisfied' and 'very satisfied' for each item were totalled within each of the ten rating categories, then each total was divided by the number of items in that category to provide a mean percentage. For example, in the Workload category there were five items, numbers 15, 16, 17, 19 and 48. The total average percentage was calculated as:

$$\frac{\text{Item 15 (FS\%+VS\%)} + \text{Item 16 (FS\%+VS\%)} + \text{Item 17 (FS\%+VS\%)} + \text{Item 19 (FS\%+VS\%)} + \text{Item 48 (FS\%+VS\%)}}{\text{Number of items}}$$

where FS = fairly satisfied and VS = very satisfied. This gives:

$$\frac{52.3 + 52.9 + 62.6 + 69.9 + 37.8}{5} = 55.1\%$$

These total average percentages were ranked in order to give a simple indicator of teachers' job satisfaction levels across the section as a whole for each of the dimensions. Figure 5.1 summarizes the positive responses for each of the ten factors of job satisfaction.



**Figure 5.1: Teachers' responses for each of the ten factors of job satisfaction**

The graph shows that the factors influencing the job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia were in the following order, from most to least important: Interpersonal relationships contributed most strongly to satisfaction, with a mean of 82%, followed by Administration (67.2%), then Nature of the work (59.6%). Factors moderately influencing teachers' satisfaction were Workload (55.1%), Marking pupils' work (54%) and Educational system (50.5%), followed by Supervisor (47.6%) and Salary and promotion (42.4%). Student progress had the weakest influence on teachers' satisfaction, as only 36.6% were satisfied. Finally, Staff development contributed to teachers' dissatisfaction, 57.3% being dissatisfied, while only 23.9% were satisfied with this factor.

### 5.8.4 General motivation

This section addresses research question 4, about identifying the level of overall motivation. Teachers were given three items and were asked to choose which response best represented their feelings, on a five-point scale from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’.

Table 4.40 displays the teachers’ responses regarding their general motivation. In general, respondents displayed a high level of motivation, with a mean score of 3.75. Almost three-quarters indicated agreement (19.3%) or strong agreement (54.7%) with the proposition that they were motivated to continue in their jobs. More than half (55.2%) agreed and more than a quarter (26.7%) strongly agreed that they worked hard at their jobs. A clear majority (57.7%) of teachers stated that they would not wish to change careers, whereas only about a fifth replied that they would. Almost a quarter (23.1%) were unsure, which was a higher percentage of uncertainty than for any other item in this category.

**Table 5.40: Teachers’ responses on issues of general motivation**

N	Items	SD	D	U	A	SA	Mean
		%	%	%	%	%	
1	I work hard at my job	1.8	5.3	11.0	55.2	26.7	3.99
2	In general, I am motivated to do my job	3.4	10.0	12.6	54.7	19.3	3.76
3	I would rather do teaching than change to another job	7.3	12.9	23.1	35.0	21.7	3.50
<b>Overall</b>		4.2	9.4	15.6	48.3	22.6	<b>3.75</b>

SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; U=undecided; A=agree; SA=strongly agree; F=frequency; %=percentage

### 5.8.5 Factors influencing teachers’ motivation

Research question 3 was about identifying the factors influencing teachers’ job motivation. Teachers were given nine items in this part of the questionnaire and asked to indicate the extent to which the variables concerned motivated them to do their work. As indicated in section 5.7, factor analysis revealed that these were grouped into two factors, responses to each of them being discussed in turn below.



### 5.8.5.1 Intrinsic and altruistic motivation

**Table 5.41: Responses to items in factor 1 (Intrinsic and altruistic motivation)**

N	Items	Not motivating	Mildly motivating	Moderately motivating	Very motivating	Extremely motivating	Mean
		%	%	%	%	%	
3	Contributing to a better society	1.8	6.1	15.3	36.1	40.7	4.07
2	Wanting to help students to succeed	2.8	5.0	15.7	38.5	37.9	4.03
5	Using my professional knowledge and expertise	2.2	4.3	19.3	42.5	31.8	3.97
4	Working with students	4.9	7.5	23.7	32.6	27.3	3.73
1	Doing a worthwhile job	7.1	8.7	28.6	31.9	23.7	3.56
6	Classroom teaching	8.3	12.2	26.5	33.1	19.9	3.44
<b>Overall</b>		<b>4.5</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>21.5</b>	<b>35.8</b>	<b>30.2</b>	<b>3.8</b>

Table 5.41 shows responses concerning aspects of intrinsic and altruistic motivation in descending order of mean score on a scale from ‘not motivating’ to ‘extremely motivating’. It can be seen that ‘Contributing to a better society’ was the item which teachers felt most strongly motivated them to do their job: the mean score was 4.07 and over three-quarters of respondents found it more than moderately motivating. This was followed by item 2 ‘Wanting to help students to succeed’, with a mean of 4.03% and again, three-quarters of respondents being more than moderately motivated. Item 5, ‘Using my professional knowledge and expertise’ was the third most motivating item with mean score and percentages only a little less than for the preceding item. For the remaining three items in this group, ‘Working with students’, ‘Doing a worthwhile job’ and ‘Classroom teaching’, more than half of respondents indicated that their motivation was better than moderate, with mean scores of 3.73, 3.56 and 3.44 respectively. In general, these responses reveal that teachers were highly motivated by the intrinsic and altruistic factor, with a mean of 3.8.

### 5.8.5.2 Extrinsic motivation

**Table 5.42: Responses to items in factor 2 (Extrinsic motivation)**

N	Items	Not motivating	Mildly motivating	Moderately motivating	Very motivating	Extremely motivating	Mean
		%	%	%	%	%	
7	Working condition	11.9	16.1	32.4	26.7	12.8	3.12
8	Your salary	16.4	13.0	29.9	25.1	15.6	3.10
9	Recognition and status in society	24.4	18.0	26.5	19.4	11.7	2.75
<b>Overall</b>		<b>17.6</b>	<b>15.7</b>	<b>29.6</b>	<b>23.7</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>2.9</b>

Table 5.42 shows the responses of teachers concerning their extrinsic motivation, indicating that their working conditions were moderately motivating, with a mean of 3.12. About four in ten were very or extremely motivated, while about a third indicated moderate motivation and only one in eight were not motivated by working conditions. Results were similar overall for item 8, with a mean of 3.10, although the extreme options of ‘not motivating’ and ‘extremely motivating’ received slightly higher scores. In response to the final item, ‘Recognition and status in society’, almost a quarter of teachers said they were not motivated and more than a quarter were moderately motivated, whereas less than a third were very motivated or extremely motivated. The overall mean for the factor was 2.9, so it can be concluded that teachers were less motivated by the extrinsic factor than the intrinsic and altruistic one.

### 5.8.6 The relative contribution of motivational factors

To identify the relative contribution to overall levels of motivation of each of the two factors, Figure 5.2 shows graphically their overall mean values. The results indicate that teachers were generally more strongly motivated by the intrinsic/altruistic factor (3.8) than the extrinsic one (2.9).

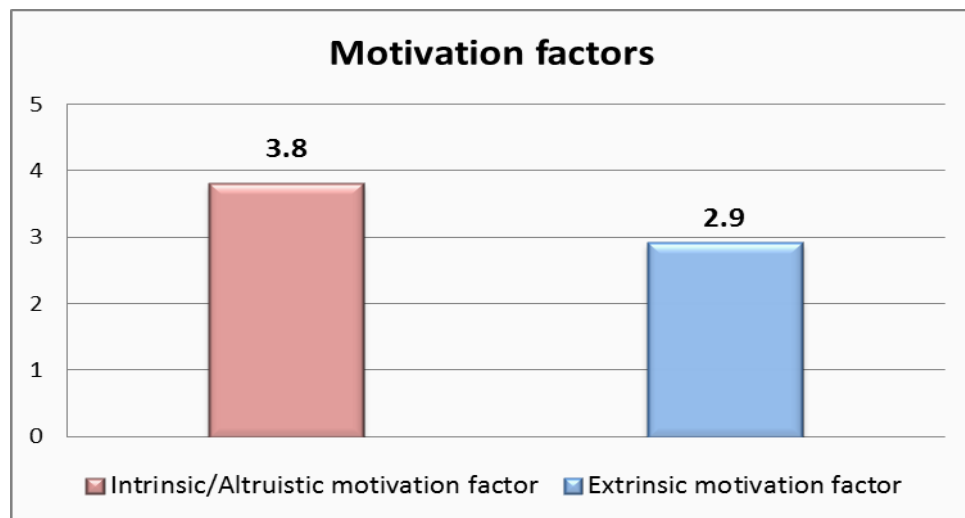


Figure 5.2: Teachers’ overall mean responses to the two motivation factors

### 5.8.7 The relationship of satisfaction factors to general job satisfaction

To establish the relationship between the various factors of job satisfaction and general job satisfaction, the bivariate correlation with a one-tailed Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the data. The resulting correlation matrix is shown in Table 5.43.

**Table 5.43: Correlation matrix of overall job satisfaction within the ten factors and general job satisfaction**

Factors	Staff development	Administration	Nature of the work	Student progress	Workload	Salary and promotion	Interpersonal relationships	Educational system	Marking pupils' work	Educational supervision
Administration	.419(**)									
Nature of the work	.524(**)	.580(**)								
Student progress	.490(**)	.360(**)	.458(**)							
Workload	.474(**)	.544(**)	.656(**)	.490(**)						
Salary and promotion	.411(**)	.349(**)	.418(**)	.306(**)	.408(**)					
Interpersonal relationships	.174(**)	.364(**)	.363(**)	.327(**)	.298(**)	.213(**)				
Educational system	.468(**)	.412(**)	.546(**)	.409(**)	.492(**)	.364(**)	.217(**)			
Marking pupils' work	.380(**)	.412(**)	.545(**)	.381(**)	.521(**)	.282(**)	.194(**)	.374(**)		
Educational supervision	.453(**)	.464(**)	.493(**)	.351(**)	.399(**)	.387(**)	.196(**)	.417(**)	.320(**)	
<b>General job Satisfaction</b>	.323(**)	.414(**)	.525(**)	.286(**)	.466(**)	.381(**)	.278(**)	.394(**)	.309(**)	.358(**)

\* Signif. L. E. .05 \*\* Signif. L. E. .01 (one-tailed)

The table indicates the existence of a statistically significant relation between general job satisfaction and each of the factors as follows: Staff development shows a strong correlation ( $r[737] = 0.32, p < .01$ , one-tailed); Administration is more strongly correlated ( $r[737] = 0.41, p < .01$ , one-tailed); and Nature of the work shows the strongest correlation ( $r[737] = 0.53, p < .01$ , one-tailed). Student progress is less strongly correlated ( $r[737] = 0.29, p < .01$ , one-tailed); Workload shows the second strongest correlation ( $r[737] = 0.47, p < .01$ , one-tailed); Salary and promotion has a relatively strong correlation ( $r[737] = 0.39, p < .01$ , one-tailed) and the Educational system factor is almost as strongly correlated as Salary and promotion ( $r[737] = 0.39, p < .01$ , one-tailed); whereas Marking pupils' work is less strongly correlated ( $r[737] = 0.31, p < .01$ , one-tailed). The Educational supervision factor also shows a strong correlation ( $r[737] = 0.39, p < .01$ , one-tailed), while the Interpersonal relationships factor shows the weakest correlation, being significantly strongly correlated but less so than Student progress ( $r[737] = 0.29, p < .01$ , one-tailed).

### 5.8.8 The relationship of general job satisfaction to motivation

In order to address research question 5, on the relationship of teachers' job satisfaction to general motivation and to the intrinsic/Altruistic and extrinsic motivation factors, the

data were subjected to a calculation of bivariate correlation with a one-tailed Pearson correlation coefficient. The resulting correlation matrix is listed in Table 5.44.

**Table 5.44: Correlation matrix of overall job satisfaction to general motivation and to intrinsic and extrinsic factors**

Categories	General job satisfaction
Intrinsic/Altruistic	.388(**)
Extrinsic	.452(**)
General motivation	.595(**)

\* Signif. L. E. .05    \*\* Signif. L. E. .01 (one-tailed)

The table shows a statistically significant relationship between general job satisfaction and general motivation, indicating a strong correlation ( $r[737] = 0.60$ ,  $p < .01$ , one-tailed); the relationship between general job satisfaction and extrinsic motivation shows a relatively strong correlation ( $r[737] = 0.45$ ,  $p < .01$ , one-tailed), whereas intrinsic motivation was less strongly correlated ( $r[737] = 0.39$ ,  $p < .01$ , one-tailed).

### 5.8.9 Differences based on demographic characteristics

The final research question concerned possible differences between secondary school teachers in terms of their job satisfaction and motivation based on their demographic characteristics. One-way ANOVA was used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences amongst teachers in their general job satisfaction and motivation according to their age, qualifications, job grade, general teaching experience, length of service in the current school, subject taught and training. These are discussed in turn below.

#### 5.8.9.1 Differences between teachers by age

One-way ANOVA was first used to determine whether there were any significant differences in teachers' general job satisfaction and motivation according to their age. The results listed in Table 5.45 reveal that there were no such differences and that age, therefore, did not correlate with job satisfaction or with motivation in this study.

**Table 5.45: Differences by age**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Between groups	3.857	6	.643	.862	<b>.522</b>
	Within groups	544.272	730	.746		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
<b>Motivation</b>	Between groups	6.600	6	1.100	1.623	<b>.138</b>
	Within groups	494.925	730	.678		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

**5.8.9.2 Differences by qualification**

Table 5.46 shows the ANOVA results for qualifications, which indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in overall job satisfaction and motivation amongst teachers based on their qualifications. An LSD test was used to determine which groups differed. The results, shown in Tables 5.47 and 5.48, reveal that teachers who held a PhD were significantly less satisfied than those who held only a first degree or a master's degree. With regard to their motivation, PhD holders were also less motivated than those who held a first degree, but there was no significant difference between them and those who held a master's degree. These results indicate that qualifications correlated with job satisfaction and with motivation in this study. One possible explanation for the reduced satisfaction levels of teachers who had obtained a PhD is that they were then unlikely to receive extra benefits, whether in their salaries or in terms of job status.

**Table 5.46: Differences by qualification**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Between groups	6.459	3	2.153	2.914	<b>.034</b>
	Within groups	541.669	733	.739		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
<b>Motivation</b>	Between groups	5.788	3	1.929	2.853	<b>.036</b>
	Within groups	495.737	733	.676		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

**Table 5.47: LSD test results of teachers' job satisfaction versus qualification**

(I) Qualification	(J) Qualification	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Doctorate	Degree with education preparation	-2.43422(*)	.86769	.005	-4.1377	-.7308
	Degree without education preparation	-2.23556(*)	.87877	.011	-3.9608	-.5104
	Master's degree	-2.11556(*)	.93380	.024	-3.9488	-.2823

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

**Table 5.48: LSD test results of teachers' motivation versus qualification**

(I) Qualifications	(J) Qualifications	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Doctorate	Degree with education preparation	-1.88819(*)	.83009	.023	-3.5178	-.2586
	Degree without education preparation	-1.91556(*)	.84068	.023	-3.5660	-.2651
	Master's degree	-1.21556	.89334	.174	-2.9694	.5382

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

### 5.8.9.3 Differences by job grade

One-way ANOVA was next deployed to determine whether there were significant differences among the teachers in their general levels of job satisfaction and motivation, based on the their job grades. Table 5.49 reveals that there were no significant differences of this kind. It would therefore appear that teachers' job grade had no effect on their level of job satisfaction of motivation in this study.

**Table 5.49: Differences by grade**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Job satisfaction	Between groups	1.386	5	.277	.371	.869
	Within groups	546.743	731	.748		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
Motivation	Between groups	1.855	5	.371	.543	.744
	Within groups	499.670	731	.684		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

#### 5.8.9.4 Differences by general experience

Table 5.50 lists ANOVA results for respondents' general teaching experience, indicating that there were statistically significant differences in job satisfaction and motivation amongst teachers based on the length of this experience.

**Table 5.50: Differences by general teaching experience**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Between groups	13.854	4	3.464	4.745	<b>.001</b>
	Within groups	534.274	732	.730		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
<b>Motivation</b>	Between groups	14.813	4	3.703	5.569	<b>.000</b>
	Within groups	486.712	732	.665		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

The LSD test was again used to determine which groups differed. The result, given in Tables 5.51 and 5.52, reveal that those groups with lowest scores in the general level of job satisfaction were those whose members had from 11 to 15 years of teaching experience and that the differences between these teachers and the other groups were statistically significant. Furthermore, the group with 11 to 15 years of experience was found to have a statistically significantly lower level of general motivation than the other groups.

**Table 5.51: LSD test results for teachers' job satisfaction versus general experience**

(I) Experience	(J) General experience	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
<b>11-15 years</b>	1-5 years	-1.09408(*)	.27498	.000	-1.6339	-.5542
	6-10 years	-.87117(*)	.27625	.002	-1.4135	-.3288
	16-20 years	-.96950(*)	.34208	.005	-1.6411	-.2979
	Over 21years	-1.18178(*)	.37712	.002	-1.9221	-.4414

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

**Table 5.52: LSD test results for teachers' motivation versus general experience**

(I) General experience	(J) General experience	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
11-15 years	1-5 years	-.98525(*)	.26245	.000	-1.5005	-.4700
	6-10 years	-.52641(*)	.26367	.046	-1.0440	-.0088
	16-20 years	-.97796(*)	.32650	.003	-1.6189	-.3370
	Over 21years	-1.37949(*)	.35994	.000	-2.0861	-.6728

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

#### 5.8.9.5 Differences by length of service in current school

The ANOVA results in Table 5.53 indicate no significant differences in teachers' general job satisfaction or motivation by length of service in their current schools. It would thus appear that this variable had no effect on the job satisfaction or motivation of the teachers in this study.

**Table 5.53: Differences by service at present school**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Job satisfaction	Between groups	.921	4	.230	.308	.873
	Within groups	547.207	732	.748		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
Motivation	Between groups	2.717	4	.679	.997	.409
	Within groups	498.808	732	.681		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

#### 5.8.9.6 Differences by teaching load

Table 5.54 lists ANOVA results showing that similarly, no significant differences were found among teachers in terms of general job satisfaction and motivation correlated with the number of lessons they taught each week. This indicates that their weekly teaching load had no influence upon either the job satisfaction or the motivation of teachers in this study.



**Table 5.54: Differences by teaching load**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Between groups	2.371	4	.593	.795	<b>.529</b>
	Within groups	545.758	732	.746		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
<b>Motivation</b>	Between groups	.697	4	.174	.255	<b>.907</b>
	Within groups	500.828	732	.684		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

### 5.8.9.7 Differences by subject taught

The ANOVA results in Table 5.55 indicate that again there were no significant differences among teachers in their levels of general job satisfaction correlated with the subjects they taught. However, a considerable difference was found among them in their motivation according subjects taught. Table 5.56 presents the results of the LSD test which was used in order to determine which groups differed from which others and to what extent. These show that there were significant differences in motivation levels between physical education teachers and all other groups except IT and geology teachers, the teachers of physical education being more highly motivated than those in the other groups. Furthermore, it can be seen that the groups whose motivation was generally the weakest were those who taught Islamic studies, physics, chemistry and biology.

**Table 5.55: Differences by subject taught**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Between groups	10.795	10	1.079	1.458	<b>.151</b>
	Within groups	537.334	726	.740		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
<b>Motivation</b>	Between groups	13.430	10	1.343	1.998	<b>.031</b>
	Within groups	488.095	726	.672		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

**Table 5.56: LSD test results for teachers' motivation versus subjects taught**

Subject (I)	Subject taught (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Physical education	Islamic studies	1.97381(*)	.58185	.001	.8315	3.1161
	Arabic	1.52671(*)	.58374	.009	.3807	2.6727
	Chemistry and physics	1.98214(*)	.58848	.001	.8268	3.1375
	English	1.75000(*)	.60014	.004	.5718	2.9282
	Maths	1.19464(*)	.60313	.048	.0106	2.3787
	History and geography	1.31429(*)	.61202	.032	.1127	2.5158
	Biology	1.87842(*)	.64566	.004	.6108	3.1460
	IT	1.13621	.65486	.083	-.1494	2.4219
	Psychology and sociology	1.53361(*)	.68271	.025	.1933	2.8739
Geology	1.38346	.77884	.076	-.1456	2.9125	

\* Mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

### 5.8.9.8 Differences by training

Table 5.57 indicates the absence of significant differences in overall job satisfaction and motivation between teachers who had attended teacher training programmes and those who had not. This suggests that training programmes had no effect on the motivation of teachers in this study.

**Table 5.57: Differences by training**

Categories	Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Job satisfaction	Between groups	.038	1	.038	.050	<b>.822</b>
	Within Groups	548.091	735	.746		
	<b>Total</b>	548.129	736			
Motivation	Between groups	.821	1	.821	1.206	<b>.273</b>
	Within groups	500.704	735	.681		
	<b>Total</b>	501.525	736			

## 5.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented an analysis of the quantitative data collected by means of the questionnaire. In summary, the findings indicate that teachers were generally fairly satisfied with their work and highly motivated, with overall mean scores of 3.58 and 3.75 respectively. In more detail, almost two-thirds of respondents expressed a positive level of job satisfaction, while about one-sixth were dissatisfied. With regard to general motivation, over two-thirds were fairly or very motivated, while only 13.5% were fairly or very demotivated.

Factor analysis was used to reduce the large number of variables to ten job satisfaction factors and two motivation factors. Interpersonal relationships were found to make the highest contribution to teacher satisfaction, followed by Administration and Nature of the work. Factors influencing satisfaction moderately, in descending order, were Workload, Marking pupils' work, Educational system, Educational supervisor and Salary and promotion. Student progress contributed slightly more to teachers' dissatisfaction than to their satisfaction, while Staff development contributed clearly to dissatisfaction, the majority of teachers being dissatisfied with the support provided to improve their teaching and with opportunities to pursue advanced degree studies. Over half of respondents also expressed some dissatisfaction with training opportunities and with the ICT facilities available in schools and classrooms.

With regard to motivation factors, almost two-thirds appeared to respond strongly to intrinsic/altruistic motivation, while there was a less positive response to the extrinsic motivation factor, the mean score being close to the neutral value, indicating moderate motivation overall.

A significant relationship was found between teachers' general job satisfaction and their general motivation. There were two other significant correlations: a relatively strong one between satisfaction and extrinsic motivation and a less strong one between satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. General job satisfaction also had statistically significant relationships with all ten satisfaction factors.

As to demographic variables, some were found to affect motivation and/or satisfaction, while others did not. There were statistically significant differences in both outcomes according to qualifications. For example, teachers having a PhD were less satisfied and less motivated than those with lower qualifications. There were also statistically significant differences according to general experience: those with 11 to 15 years of teaching experience were less satisfied and motivated than the other groups. There were some differences according to subjects taught, but no statistically significant differences in job satisfaction or motivation related to teachers' age, job grade, length of service at the present school, number of lessons taught or training.

In order to explore some of the areas covered in this chapter in more depth, Chapter Six presents the qualitative findings derived primarily from a series of interviews.

## Chapter Six

### Analysis of Interview Data

#### 6.1 Introduction

Following the analysis of the quantitative data gathered by means of the questionnaire, this chapter analyses the qualitative data elicited in interviews with 32 teachers, using illustrative excerpts from translated interview transcripts. The first section concerns respondents' general level of job satisfaction, followed by a discussion of whether this had changed over the period concerned. There is then an analysis of factors affecting job satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction, including training programmes, teaching facilities, interpersonal relationships, students' achievement, promotion opportunities, the status of teachers in society and workload. Factors influencing teachers' motivation are considered next, followed by interviewees' suggestions for improving teachers' job satisfaction. Finally, the qualitative findings are summarised.

#### 6.2 General Job Satisfaction

Teachers were asked about their general satisfaction, prior to exploring in more detail the factors contributing to their job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. As Table 6.1 shows, 22 interviewees replied that they were in general satisfied with their job, while seven were dissatisfied and three undecided.

**Table 6.1: General job satisfaction**

<b>Question</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Undecided</b>
<i>In general are you satisfied with your job as a teacher?</i>	22	7	3

##### 6.2.1 Reasons for changes in job satisfaction level

In order to discover whether their level of job satisfaction had changed during their teaching careers and to identify the factors that had caused any such change, the interviewees were asked the questions set out in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2: Changes in job satisfaction and reasons for these**

<i>Has your job satisfaction level changed over the period?</i>	
No	12
Yes	20
<i>Why?</i>	
<b>Increase</b>	<b>Decrease</b>
Experience and self-confidence	Lack of promotion opportunities
School principal	
School building	Limited ICT facilities
Salary	Students' misbehaviour
Job grade	

The second column of Table 6.2 shows that 12 interviewees responded that their level of job satisfaction had not changed, while almost two-thirds (20) indicated that for them it had changed. Their responses identifying causal factors can be divided into two groups: reasons related to teachers' characteristics, specifically self-confidence and experience, and external factors such as the school principal, school buildings, salary, job grade, lack of promotion opportunities, limited ICT facilities and students' misbehaviour. About two-thirds of these 20 interviewees indicated that their job satisfaction had increased over the period, whereas only a third said that it had decreased.

With respect to personal characteristics, six interviewees explained that early in their careers, they lacked teaching skills and experience, so did not have confidence required to cope with teaching. This adversely affected their job satisfaction. However, as they gained experience, they felt more comfortable, more confident and more involved in their work, which enhanced their job satisfaction. One said:

*When I started..., I lacked experience, especially in teaching methods and how to deal with students... I had low self-confidence, which made me feel dissatisfied.... Teachers deal with students at a sensitive age, who have different ways of thinking, expressing themselves and behaving, especially their negative behaviours. These issues caused me some stress and affected my personality and social life, even outside work. Gradually, with experience, I had the ability and self-confidence to deal with these problems. [T.2]*

External factors also affected job satisfaction positively. For example, three teachers attributed their improved satisfaction to changing schools. They declared that they had

moved from one school to another, looking for a principal who would respect them and appreciate their work. This reply is typical:

*After eight years of teaching, this is the first year... that I've felt satisfied with my job. All my previous... principals were either dictatorial, moody or uncooperative... I sometimes took several days off to avoid having to deal with the stress created by the principal. But this year, I am absolutely satisfied, as my principal has high quality management skills and all our efforts are appreciated. He is very flexible, supportive and cooperative. I've become more enthusiastic and enjoy doing my job and even any extra work. [T.15]*

Two teachers emphasized the importance of high quality school building services, which helped to increase their job satisfaction:

*How can I feel satisfied with my job and perform well at 45 degrees without air conditioning? I worked previously in a school where the air conditioning was extremely bad and needed daily maintenance. Fortunately the situation is better in my current school, which makes me feel more comfortable and satisfied. [T.11]*

Another five teachers indicated that the government's recent decision to increase teachers' salaries had boosted their job satisfaction:

*The latest salary increase has significantly reduced the financial burden on teachers. Since I have responsibilities towards a large family, I used to have additional work at night, which affected my social life, but I don't need this extra job any more. [T.29]*

A major factor causing increased job satisfaction for four teachers was advancement to what they saw as the appropriate grade for their qualifications:

*I was originally employed at grade two, although I was eligible for the fifth grade. I expected that the position would be improved within one or two years, but I spent eight years in this grade, which I felt was unjust, because other teachers were employed before me at the correct grades. I didn't feel satisfied until my grade was improved last year. [T.7]*

On the other hand, two teachers with higher degree qualifications, despite being upgraded consistently with their qualifications and having received salary increases, expressed lower job satisfaction than before, because they felt disappointed with their current positions and roles at the school:

*After struggling for years for my master's degree, then my PhD, I'm dissatisfied because I feel as if I'm being treated like any other teacher with a bachelor degree. I'm still teaching the same classes with the same numbers of lessons. I feel frustrated... because there is no opportunity... to be promoted and work at a higher institution which is consistent with my qualifications. [T.13]*

Four other teachers complained that the availability of ICT, especially internet access, was limited in their schools, hindering them from keeping abreast of recent developments, which reduced their satisfaction. For example, they could not use their free time to prepare lessons by acquiring up-to-date and relevant information:

*Ten years ago, only traditional educational methods were available, such as books and blackboards, but with the IT revolution, I need to use methods such as the internet in my teaching. Unfortunately it's not available in my current school..., unlike the previous one, which creates many obstacles... in providing students with appropriate information and communicating. [T.5]*

A serious issue contributing to low job satisfaction, according to four teachers, was that students misbehaved and were difficult to control:

*My job satisfaction has been influenced negatively by changes in student behaviour. Once they showed respect during lessons, but now they tend to have poor discipline. I spend about five minutes at the beginning of each class stopping them from talking and in some cases students even taunt me, saying that I don't have the authority to discipline them. [T.23]*

### **6.3 Factors Contributing to Teachers' Job Satisfaction and/or Dissatisfaction**

Interviewees were asked a general question about the main factors that influenced their job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, then invited to explain their answers: *What is the most important factor that impacts on your job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and why?* Their responses are categorised in Table 6.3 into two columns, showing factors contributing to satisfaction and to dissatisfaction respectively.

With regard to factors contributing to job satisfaction, it can be seen that the majority of interviewees were satisfied with their interpersonal relationships with colleagues, the administration and supervision (discussed in detail in section 6.5). Salary, holidays and school location also were mentioned as job satisfaction factors.

**Table 6.3: Factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction/dissatisfaction**

Satisfaction factors	Frequency	Dissatisfaction factors	Frequency
Interpersonal relationships	28	School teaching facilities	26
School administration / principal	26	Parents	24
		Promotion opportunity	23
Supervision	21	Training programmes	22
		Teachers' status in society	23
Salary	9	Students	18
School holidays	7	Health service (insurance)	15
School location	4	Number of students per class	11
		Incentives for teachers	6

Nine interviewees stated that salary positively affected their job satisfaction, since it met their needs and was commensurate with the effort that they put into their work:

*I am really satisfied with my salary... because it corresponds with the effort I make and because I can fulfil my financial, personal and family needs without needing to look for extra work... I can even save something from my salary each month. [T19]*

School holidays had a positive impact on the job satisfaction of seven respondents, who stated that these holidays provided an excellent opportunity for teachers to unwind and recover from a long academic year before returning afresh to their hectic schedule:

*School holidays are vital for teachers. It is only fair that after a long and gruelling year I can enjoy a well-earned holiday to enable me not only to relax, but also to prepare for the new academic term. [T5]*

Another factor contributing to job satisfaction was school location, according to four teachers, who said that the proximity of school to home gave them the advantage of having a short journey to work and spared them the strain and inconvenience of using public transport:

*The school's closeness to my home is extremely important for me because I can avoid traffic problems, especially in the morning peak times... A ten-minute walk is all it takes. [T23]*

On the other hand, factors such as teaching facilities, the support of parents, students, promotion and teachers' status in society appeared to be related to job dissatisfaction among interviewees. These are discussed below (sections 6.4.2; 6.5.4; 6.6; 6.8; 6.9). Another source of dissatisfaction almost half of interviewees was lack of access to quality health services:



*It's easy to see that there are deficiencies in teachers' health insurance credits, which forces me either to go to [expensive] private hospitals, or to wait... at least a month for an appointment in a government hospital. [T6]*

Large class sizes were said by eleven interviewees to have negatively affected their satisfaction. They stated that there were sometimes 40 students or more in a class and felt that such large numbers could affect the quality of the learning process inside and outside the classroom:

*Teaching large numbers of students affects the quality of what I offer... one class can have up to 50 students... This requires extra time and effort in organising students and preparing the appropriate environment. [I don't have] sufficient time to explain scientific material in the best way and according to the lesson plan... I have the extra workload that comes from having to correct homework and exams for more than 200... I'm definitely not satisfied... it's stressful for me and doesn't seem to yield any benefits for my students. [T18]*

Finally, six interviewees expressed their dissatisfaction with the incentives available to teachers and the lack of a clear system in the MoE pertaining to incentives. Despite some teachers having achieved an 'excellent' rating in their annual performance assessment, the only rewards they had received were as a result of personal initiatives by some principals:

*Outstanding teachers are treated as ordinary ... I think this is one of the most significant factors behind my job dissatisfaction. I once carried out a research study on teachers regarding the curriculum and showed its findings to the education administration. ...I didn't receive even a 'thank you' letter... my principal took it upon himself to praise my academic effort at the end of the year. [T8]*

## **6.4 Facilities and Work Development**

This section analyses teachers' responses regarding their satisfaction with in-service training opportunities and teaching facilities.

### **6.4.1 In-service training programmes**

In order to investigate satisfaction or dissatisfaction with in-service training, teachers were asked: *To what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the training*

programmes offered by the General Administration of Educational Training? Why?

Table 6.4 summarises their responses.

**Table 6.4: Satisfaction with training programmes**

<i>To what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the training programmes offered by General Administration of Educational Training?</i>	
Satisfied	6
Dissatisfied	22
Undecided	4
<i>Why?</i>	
<b>Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>
Training courses do not meet the needs of the teachers	Extend general knowledge
The content of training programmes is difficult to apply practically.	
Lack of qualified trainers	
Inappropriate time and duration of the training programmes	
Lack of incentives	

In-service training programmes emerged as one of the factors contributing to teachers' dissatisfaction, consistent with the questionnaire findings. Table 6.4 shows that more than two-thirds of interviewees claimed to be dissatisfied with training, for various reasons. These included the concern that courses did not meet teachers' needs that their content was difficult to apply practically, that there were insufficient qualified trainers, that programme timing and duration were inappropriate and that incentives for attending training programmes were lacking. Six participants were satisfied, due to the general knowledge obtained from attending these courses, while the remaining four had not attended any training programmes.

The failure of these programmes to meet teachers' needs in their fields of specialisation was one of the main reasons for dissatisfaction, being mentioned by 17 interviewees:

*When they announce training courses, I search in the list for one with which I can develop my skills in my field of specialisation as a physical education teacher, but I never find any... Some courses, in my opinion, are not beneficial to teachers at all, such as one in 'aesthetic intelligence' [said mockingly]. [T18]*

Fifteen teachers indicated that the reason for the failure of the training courses to meet their requirements and interests was that teachers were not consulted on their training needs:

*There should be a survey of all teachers in order to find out their training requirements, and in the light of this, programmes should be designed. ...pre-designed training programmes might or might not achieve teachers' goals. [T6]*

Fourteen of the teachers who were dissatisfied with the training programmes commented on their limited applicability in the real-world educational environment:

*I joined a training course about cooperative learning. The sessions were quite good and interesting. [But] I had 45 students in a class, while the techniques I learned required not more than about 20 students. Furthermore, the classroom didn't have the equipment and tools I would need to apply what I learned. [T3]*

*I had a course on Intel, but unfortunately I could not teach what I learned because we did not have enough computers in the school. [T32]*

Too few sufficient highly qualified professional trainers was another negative issue raised by 12 interviewees. Teacher trainers are commonly educational supervisors, school principals and highly experienced teachers, chosen by the General Administration of Educational Training. However, some may be inadequately qualified in terms of specialization or skills to deliver the course content effectively:

*Though the General Administration provides a variety of training courses, it still needs qualified and professional trainers in order to achieve the targets that these courses are being held for. [T24]*

*I have attended three training sessions [and have] decided that I will never attend ...any more. The reason is the old-fashioned method of training..., which made the sessions quite boring. [T4]*

Another factor contributing to the dissatisfaction of nine teachers was the inadequate time allocated to training programmes. These usually lasted from two to four days, whereas the interviewees felt that skills involved in certain programmes needed more time to be learned and absorbed. Therefore, such short training programmes offered little benefit compared to the longer ones, ranging between a full semester and a whole year, available only to personnel such as educational supervisors, head teachers and counsellors:

*I attended a training course for two days which, I believe, should be called a workshop rather than a training course. We had such a huge amount of information that we felt that the trainer was working very hard just to finish the course within this short time. [T20]*

*Why shouldn't teachers have long-term training courses which are offered to other staff in the education field? The only available training courses for teachers are usually very short, so we can't take full advantage of them and then apply them effectively. [T3]*

On the question of the time allocated to training programmes, seven teachers also complained that some were held in the morning, clashing with their teaching duties:

*The school doesn't provide a substitute teacher... when I attend training programmes. This causes a delay in the curriculum, which adds to my workload and has a negative impact on the students. So I prefer... not to join any morning training courses. [T15]*

Another factor that contributed to teacher dissatisfaction regarding the training programmes was the lack of incentives offered to the teachers who joined them. More than half of the interviewees indicated that they did not perceive any appreciation for the efforts they made to develop their skills, causing a loss of enthusiasm:

*At the beginning of my teaching career I was excited and joined many training courses, but after a while I become less enthusiastic. .. because I did not receive any sort of incentive or appreciation that distinguished between the teacher who makes an effort to improve his skills by attending the training courses and the teacher who does not. [T8]*

As noted in Chapter Five, there was an apparent contradiction between the high rate of teachers' attendance at training programmes and their dissatisfaction with them. When interviewees were asked why they still attended training, despite their dissatisfaction, fourteen replied that these courses provided the opportunity to meet teachers from other schools and exchange experiences and views on the educational process in general, for the benefit of both teachers and students:

*When I join a training course, I meet other teachers with different fields of specialization including my own. ...we discuss different aspects related to curriculum, teaching methods, exams, how to deal with students and how to improve their skills and abilities. This helps us to develop our academic skills. [T10]*

More than half of the interviewees (17) who were dissatisfied with the training programmes reported that their main purpose in continuing to attend these courses was to obtain certificates of participation to be added to their CVs:

*I'm not satisfied with the training courses that I've joined because I haven't benefited from them properly. However, I continue to attend them in order to get as many certificates as I can. ...in future they might be useful for an upgrade or ...financial incentives. [T16]*

In contrast, the six interviewees who expressed their satisfaction with the training programmes made available to them all said that this was because of their role in enriching teachers' general knowledge:

*I'm quite satisfied with the training programmes. In spite of the failures and criticisms that appeared during the courses, these courses sometimes have a positive side as well. They increase and update my own general educational knowledge. [T13]*

#### **6.4.2 School teaching facilities**

To explore the level of satisfaction with teaching facilities and the reasons for teachers' views on this matter, they were asked the following questions: *To what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the teaching facilities available in your school? Why?*

Table 6.5 shows, as with training programmes, that relatively few teachers were satisfied with the facilities: more than two-thirds expressed dissatisfaction, while only six expressed satisfaction, indicating that they did not need any new teaching facilities. Investigation of the reasons for teachers' dissatisfaction found it to be associated with the unavailability of ICT facilities in ordinary classrooms, matters related to resource rooms, the lack of new ICT opportunities, matters related to libraries, old equipment in schools and inadequate maintenance.

**Table 6.5: Satisfaction with teaching facilities**

<i>To what extent are you satisfied/ dissatisfied with the teaching facilities available in your school?</i>	
Satisfied	6
Dissatisfied	26
<i>Why?</i>	
<b>Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>
Unavailability of ICT facilities in classrooms	Traditional facilities are sufficient
Issues related to resource room	
Lack of new modern technology	
Computers in schools are old	
Lack of maintenance required for devices	
School library	

Only a small number of interviewees expressed satisfaction with the teaching facilities. It transpired that the nature of their fields of specialisation, such as physical education, meant that they did not depend on modern teaching methods and facilities:

*As a physical educational teacher, I don't need to use any kind of technologies such as a projector or a computer. [T31]*

Two of the six interviewees related their satisfaction with teaching facilities to being used to traditional teaching methods, which made them unwilling to change or even to integrate new technologies into their teaching:

*I fully trust my personal teaching skills and don't need any modern facilities... I believe that my long experience and my success in teaching many generations of students with a piece of chalk and a blackboard is quite sufficient and still effective. [T1]*

Among those teachers who were dissatisfied, the majority (22) criticized limited classroom facilities, complaining that most had only a board with chalk or pens. They regarded this as an obstacle to teaching effectively, especially where lessons required modern facilities such as computers and projectors:

*Displaying maps is an important part of many geography lessons. However, the lack of a computer or projector prevents me from presenting the lesson in an interesting and exciting way for the students. Thus, I usually use paper maps or draw maps on the board, which takes a lot of time... Digital maps are much easier to use and better... teaching with old-fashioned methods makes me feel that I'm not keeping pace with new technologies. [T14]*

The availability of ICT facilities being limited to the resources room was another concern for almost two-thirds of interviewees, who felt this to be completely insufficient for two reasons. First, one study room was not enough to cover the needs of the whole school:

*In my school there are 24 classes and one resource room. If I want to use it I must book it in advance. This allows me to use the room usually only three or four times a week. This is absolutely not enough, as it does not give the classes equal chances to benefit. [T26]*

As to the second reason, there were too few computers and other devices in the resource room even for the students in one class:

*We have one resource room with 20 computers, while I have 35 students in my class. This means that 15 students will not have computers and must share them with their classmates, two students on each computer. However, if I have a class with 40 students, I do not take them to the resource room at all, but teach them in the traditional way. [T22]*

The unavailability of modern teaching facilities was a further concern for 17 interviewees:

*Two years ago, I had a course about how to use the smart board. I found it very useful because it saves time, effort and displays information in a way that attracts the students' attention. Unfortunately we have not been supplied with these boards. [T27]*

In addition to the lack of modern devices, 16 interviewees expressed their dissatisfaction with the condition of the available devices:

*The computers are old, so we are not keeping abreast with the pace of modern developments. In addition, the software isn't updated, which makes these computers almost useless. [T2]*

Inadequate maintenance services for the ICT teaching facilities in the schools, according to 12 interviewees, restricted the use of such technologies. Having malfunctioning devices repaired required a written request to the General Directorate of Education in Riyadh, which usually meant waiting a long time for a response:

*When I teach in the resource room, I often notice more than one damaged computer. Though I always inform the resource room teacher and emphasise the importance of repairing them as soon as possible, this might take more than month. This... is a serious problem. [T22]*

Some interviewees also expressed dissatisfaction with other teaching facilities in the school, such as the library and the science and language laboratories. The concerns regarding the school library were mainly about the lack of appropriate, diverse and up-to-date materials meeting the requirements of the curriculum and the needs of both the students and the teachers, as indicated by nine teachers:

*I'm not happy with the school library, especially the quantity and quality of the books. They're old and most have nothing to do with what the students study. For instance, I asked my students to prepare an essay and when they went to the school library they found only one old book related to the essay topic.... I have taught in many schools and can tell you, from my experience, that school libraries are not supporting and enriching the subjects I teach and also cannot provide me with the knowledge and information that I need. [T19]*

With regard to the science lab, seven teachers complained about the limited capacity and the shortage of some basic materials needed for scientific experiments:

*I teach... chemistry, which depends on experiments, but the labs are not properly equipped and many materials are unavailable... I feel embarrassed when students ask me to perform an experiment practically instead of explaining it orally. [T13]*

Language laboratories also lacked basic requirements. Six interviewees were extremely dissatisfied with the poor supplies and instruments:

*I am not satisfied with the English language laboratory, because it lacks basic equipment, such as a voice tuner system that connects the teacher with his students, and there's a shortage of headsets. [T32]*

*I've been asking the school for years to provide me with English language tapes, but they say they're not available and I have to... borrow them from nearby schools... These tapes are basic requirements for every language lab and should be guaranteed from the beginning of the academic year. [T8]*

## **6.5 Interpersonal Relationships**

The next topic to be addressed was that of interpersonal relationships. In order to determine to what extent their relations with certain people impacted teachers' job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, interviewees were asked the following questions: *As a teacher, you interact with numerous categories of people: the principal, educational*



*supervisors, colleagues and parents. To what extent do these impact on your job satisfaction? Why?*

Table 6.6 shows that more than three-quarters of interviewees expressed satisfaction with their relationships with the principal and with colleagues, while two-thirds were satisfied with their relationships with educational supervisors. By contrast, three-quarters expressed dissatisfaction with their relationships with parents.

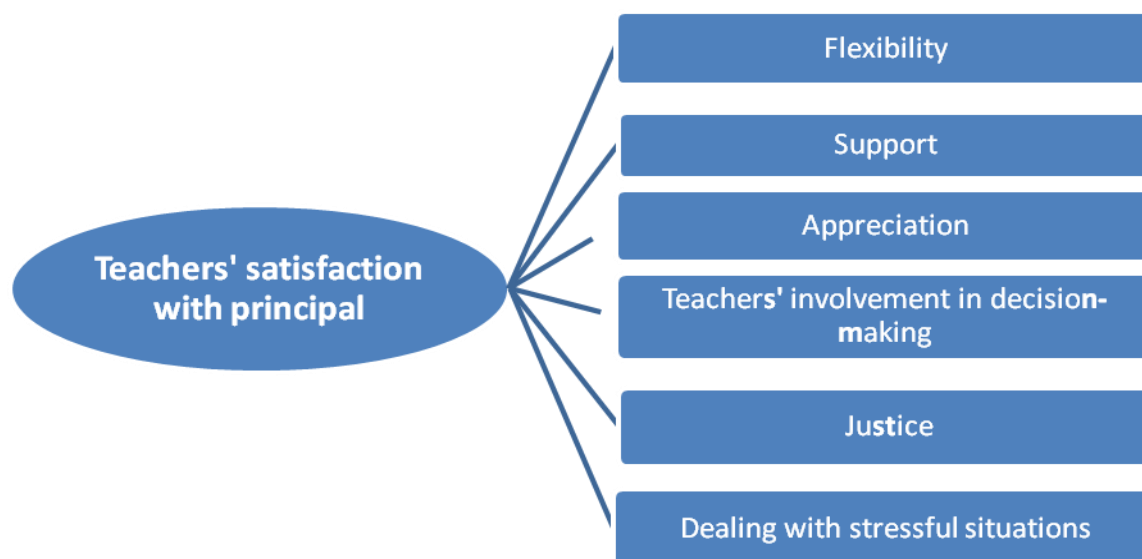
**Table 6.6: Job satisfaction as a result of relationships**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Undecided</b>
Principal	26	5	1
Educational supervisors	21	7	4
Colleagues	28	4	0
Parents	6	24	2

The following subsections deal in turn with the detailed responses regarding each of these categories of relationship, beginning with that between the teacher and the principal.

### **6.5.1 Relationships with the principal**

The 26 teachers who declared their satisfaction with their relationship with the school principal indicated that these relations had contributed to their job satisfaction for a variety of reasons, namely, the principal's flexibility, support, encouragement and appreciation of teachers' efforts, involving teachers in making decisions, the principal's sense of justice and his way of dealing with stressful situations, as shown in Figure 6.1.



**Figure 6.1: Reasons for satisfaction with the principal**

The principal's flexibility in dealing with teachers was the reason most often cited (by 20 interviewees) as contributing to teachers' job satisfaction:

*There are many good qualities in my principal, but the most significant feature is his flexibility. He understands and takes into consideration teachers' emergency circumstances. He also gives teachers enough time to do their duties without forcing or rushing them to work harder than they can. [T29]*

In addition to flexibility, nine interviewees particularly commented on the principal's ability to balance his commitment towards school rules with offering reasonable flexibility to his teachers:

*In spite of his commitments to rules and regulations, my principal does not hesitate to cooperate with me by changing my schedule or accepting my excuses when I need to leave school early for any serious reasons. [T22]*

The principal's efforts to provide facilities and support for teachers in order to improve their performance also contributed to job satisfaction in 13 teachers:

*My principal always encourages us to join workshops and training courses. Also, when we request new facilities, he does his best to provide them as soon as possible ... He is really keen on enhancing the teaching quality in our school. [T25]*

A further reason for teachers' satisfaction with their school principals was the latter's appreciation of their efforts, either by letters of acknowledgment or by other signs of gratitude, particularly for those who made outstanding efforts, as stressed by 17 interviewees:

*I am satisfied... especially with the school principal. He appreciates my work and thanks me for any positive effort that I've made. At the end of every year he gives dynamic teachers appreciation certificates. This acknowledgment encourages me to be more enthusiastic and productive.*  
[T11]

For 12 teachers, a factor contributing positively to job satisfaction was their involvement in school decision-making through the principal providing them with the opportunity and the freedom to express their views:

*Our school principal does not take decisions alone. He always arranges regular meetings with teachers, listens to our views and takes any necessary decisions by voting. This procedure makes me feel an important part of the school.* [T12]

Moreover, 14 interviewees explained that their job satisfaction with regard to the school principal was affected positively by his fairness in the distribution of duties:

*He deals with all the staff, including the teachers, equally and fairly, especially in giving work permits and in the distribution of tasks. For example, he gives more tasks to teachers who have ten lessons per week and less to those who have 20 or more.* [T4]

The principal's professionalism in dealing successfully with any stressful situations was noted by nine interviewees, one of whom commented:

*When I become angry either at the students or my colleagues, he listens quietly to my point of view and gives me the chance to express my feelings. Then he tries to solve the problems reasonably and calmly.*  
[T17]

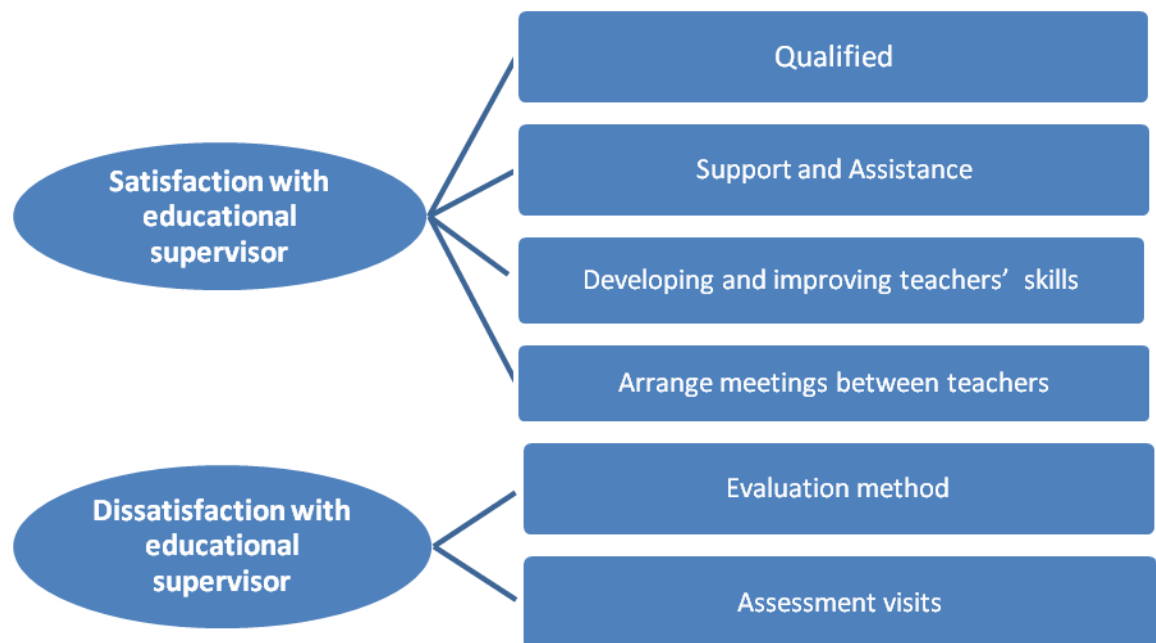
Half of the sample referred to a general improvement in principals' qualities due to the increased attention given to the selection of appropriate candidates by the MoE. They also recognized the Ministry's substantial efforts to improve the skills of principals already in post by providing long-term training opportunities and encouraging principals to attend them:

*In the last few years the Ministry has become stricter in choosing school principals. They have put high standards in place for this position, such as focusing on those with high academic qualifications, experience and personality. [T24]*

*I used to teach in a school where the principal's decisions were hasty and unreasonable and his relationship with teachers was not good. But since he joined a six-month training programme, he has totally changed and his personality, performance and management of the school have clearly improved. [T3]*

### 6.5.2 Satisfaction with supervisors

Relationships with educational supervisors appeared to be one of the factors that contributed to teachers' job satisfaction, as reflected in the analysis of interview responses. Consistently with the questionnaire findings, two-thirds of participants expressed satisfaction with supervisors for various reasons, including their qualifications, support and assistance, developing and improving teachers' skills, and efforts to arrange meetings between teachers. Only seven teachers expressed dissatisfaction, citing the methods of evaluation and assessment visits. The remaining four gave neutral answers. Figure 6.2 summarises the reasons given for satisfaction or dissatisfaction with supervisors.



**Figure 6.2: Factors in satisfaction or dissatisfaction with supervisors**

The recent general improvement in the process of supervision, particularly in supervisors' approaches, which may be the result of appointing more qualified supervisors with strong supervision skills, was the factor most often mentioned as contributing to satisfaction with educational supervisors:

*Supervisors have become better in recent years... they are more qualified, respectful and understanding. For example, the inspectors, as they used to be called, didn't have the high qualifications and the skills that supervisors have today. [T2]*

The support and assistance that teachers receive from educational supervisors was a further point made by 13 interviewees. For instance, their cooperation and responsiveness to the needs of teachers was mentioned by this interviewee:

*They are helpful, cooperative. I had... many difficulties in my former school and when I talked to the supervisor, he showed extreme understanding and helped me move to another school. He even called me after a while to ask whether I was satisfied in the new school. [T7]*

Eight other interviewees said that the supervisor's professionalism and his interest in developing and improving their academic skills had had a positive impact on their job satisfaction:

*My supervisor has helped me to develop my skills. Although he is my friend, he deals with me neutrally in school. Once he had some comments on the midterm exam questions that I'd prepared and sent me some notes about them... and advised me to attend a training course... It helped me a lot. [T9]*

Supervisors' role in organising positive meetings among teachers is another example of their professionalism and interest in providing chances for teachers to improve their performance and update their skills:

*Regular meetings arranged by my educational supervisor gave me the opportunity to meet my colleagues from other schools who teach the same subject. One of the activities... is a presentation or a sample lesson... followed by useful discussion among ...teachers and supervisors. These activities helped me a lot in sharing experience and building new relationships with different colleagues. [T13]*

Conversely, seven interviewees were dissatisfied with their supervisors, especially with regard to their evaluation methods or approach to teachers' performance. They

complained of deficiencies in the way supervisors followed up the assessment of teachers' performance:

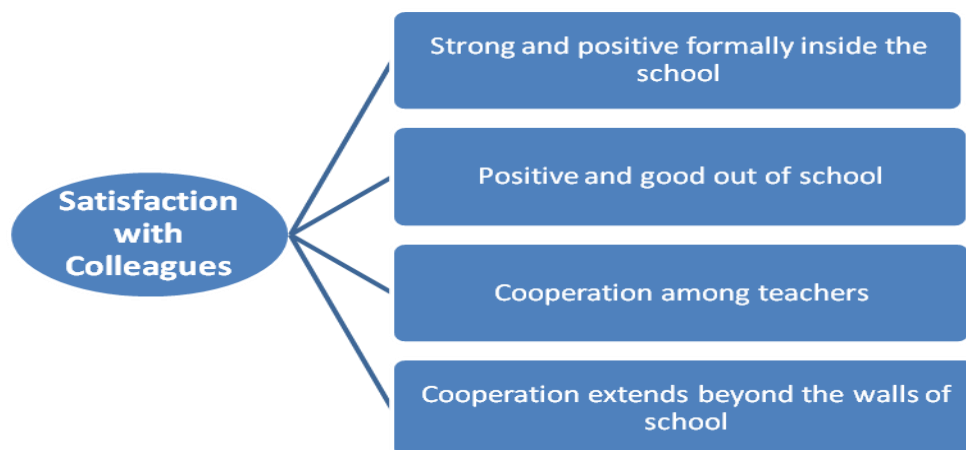
*The way the supervisor makes his visits and gives his assessment is not fair. The teacher should be informed and asked about a suitable time for such visits. ...he comes without notification and makes his assessment according to what he sees at that moment. [T11]*

Some complained that the annual assessment visits were too infrequent to assess thoroughly a teacher's performance and efforts throughout the year. Supervisors could not identify and evaluate teachers' strengths and weaknesses in just one visit:

*The supervisor makes a visit once a year, he enters the class, watches you teaching and at the end of his visit he evaluates a full year's work for the teacher. This is not fair for the teacher, as he might on that day be ill, tired or having any kind of problem. [T22]*

### 6.5.3 Relationships with colleagues

Twenty-eight interviewees stated that their relationships with colleagues contributed to their job satisfaction. They explained this by reference to the four aspects shown in Figure 6.3: strong and positive formal relations at school, good and positive relations out of school, cooperation among teachers and such cooperation extending beyond the school gates.



**Figure 6.3: Reasons for satisfaction with relationships with colleagues**

The formal relationships among teachers at school were described by 25 interviewees as strong and positive:

*I am very satisfied with my relationship with other teachers. It is based on mutual respect and strong ties among us. At school we have a room where teachers take breaks, sit together and talk as friends. The school also arranges evening meetings for staff once a month, at school, where teachers meet and socialise. [T29]*

These relationships seemed to be as good out of school as in, since 18 interviewees also declared themselves delighted with the nature of their relationships with colleagues outside the school:

*Beside my strong relationships with my colleagues at school, we also have the same warm relationships outside school. We meet and exchange family visits. Even when one of us moves to another school he remains committed to this close relationship. [T1]*

Cooperation among teachers through the spirit of teamwork away from individual interests was stressed by 20 interviewees:

*My colleagues always help me when I need them, for instance to review marks or take my place in times of emergency. I never hesitate to ask them any question and they in return are very helpful in giving information and advice on any issue I need help with. [T16]*

This cooperation extended beyond the school gates, as 11 teachers confirmed:

*Our relationships go beyond the borders of work. For example, I remember one of my colleagues faced a difficult financial situation. We all participated and collected the sum he needed, and I believe that the same support would be given to me by my colleagues in a similar case. [T14]*

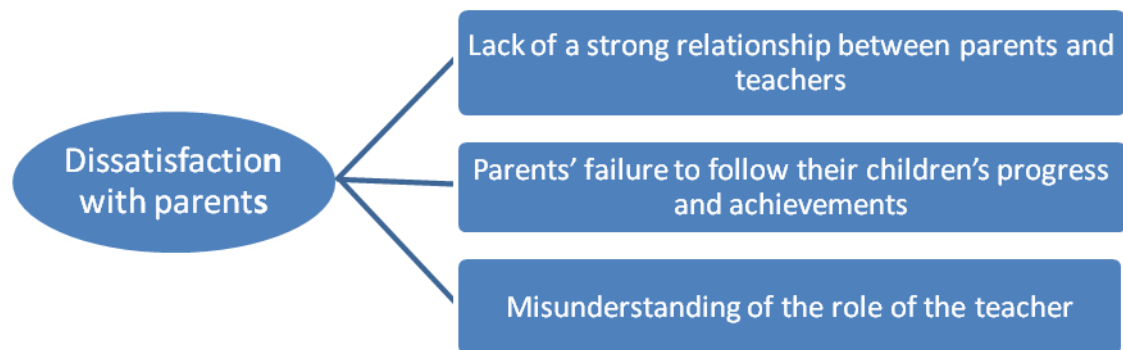
Finally, 14 interviewees referred to Islamic and Arab cultural and social traditions as playing an important role in shaping these positive relationships:

*We are a noble Islamic Arab community. Our social ties are very strong from family to workplace. Our Islamic principles reinforce the bonds of love and intimacy, cooperation and unity among us. I believe this has a great positive impact on our relationships... with colleagues. [T24]*

#### **6.5.4 Relationships with parents**

Unlike their relationships with principals, supervisors and colleagues, those between teachers and parents appeared to have a negative impact on job satisfaction for most interviewees. Three-quarters of respondents reflected their dissatisfaction with students' parents and their relationships with the school, confirming the questionnaire results.

Among the reasons given for their dissatisfaction with parents were the lack of a strong relationship between parents and teachers, some parents' failure to follow their children's progress and achievements, and misunderstanding of the role of the teacher, as illustrated in Figure 6.4.



**Figure 6.4: Reasons for dissatisfaction with relationships with parents**

The frustrating lack of a strong relationship between parents and teachers was mentioned by all the dissatisfied interviewees as a serious issue, despite great efforts by schools to establish and maintain continuous communication with parents:

*Teachers suffer a lot from the poor relationship between the students' parents and the school. Although every term the school holds a meeting for parents, their attendance is very weak. I teach 200 students and only five of their parents came to the last school meeting. [T32]*

The second reason for teachers' dissatisfaction with students' parents, as indicated by eighteen interviewees, was some parents' failure to follow their children's progress and achievements:

*The fact that most fathers are busy makes them neglect their children in school. Most parents don't follow their children's academic progress. This lays an additional burden on teachers. [T8]*

*The good students are usually followed by their parents, who constantly visit the school to ask about their children. What I need is to meet the parents of those who are weak, but they don't come, even when we send them a formal invitation. [T7]*

Finally, four teachers attributed their dissatisfaction with students' parents to the misunderstanding of the role of the teacher by the parents, who saw the teacher as solely responsible for their sons' failures:



*Most parents rarely show themselves in school, then they blame the teacher when they see the low marks their sons get. They accuse the teacher of not doing his job properly and defend their children. Parents should be the first to blame, for their lack of follow-up and lack of responsibility towards their children... Many of them don't even know whether their sons come to school regularly or not. [T14]*

## 6.6 Teachers' Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction with Students

In order to explore teachers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding their students and to elicit their interpretations of their views, they were asked the following questions: *To what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your students' academic achievement, overall behaviour and motivation to learn? Why is that?*

**Table 6.7: Reasons for satisfaction or dissatisfaction with students**

Categories	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Undecided
Students' motivation	5	23	4
Students' achievements	8	18	6
Students' behaviour	9	19	4

Table 6.7 categorises participants' responses to this question, showing that teachers' job satisfaction was negatively affected by all three of the aforementioned factors. More precisely, students' motivation towards learning caused dissatisfaction in as many as two-thirds of respondents, while students' behaviour and their achievements were each a source of dissatisfaction for over half the sample.

Student motivation was thus found to be one of the most influential factors negatively affecting job satisfaction among teachers, many of whom expressed dismay and deep dissatisfaction with students' attitude to learning. They complained that many students would not pay attention or could be utterly negligent in their approach to learning:

*Students are going from bad to worse... There are students who are quite brilliant and keen, but there are not many of these, while the majority show no interest in their studies and have very low motivation... They come to school just to make up the numbers... I'm not at all happy with this situation. [T10]*

Another group of teachers ascribed their dissatisfaction with student motivation to their unawareness of the importance and value of learning, making the teachers' role all

the more difficult and leading them to feel that their importance and contribution to student learning had been marginal:

*When I try to motivate some of these students by showing them the significance of educational attainment for their future careers, some turn round and say, "But sir, I don't really care about graduating or being top of the pile, I've got a middleman who will negotiate a career for me anywhere I want... or at worst I can apply somewhere where a diploma or certificate is enough to get by, regardless of the marks I achieve at the end."... It feels as if the student is saying that it is pointless for teachers to explain the lesson to him. This really frustrates me... [T14]*

In addition, 18 respondents expressed their dissatisfaction with their students' level of achievement, which some described as very low and not reflecting the effort that teachers exerted to present the academic material to them:

*I am very dissatisfied with the student achievement in my class, because I spend a lot of time preparing and delivering the lesson, but when it comes to asking a student something at the end of the class, most of them don't pay the slightest attention. Some students may even find it hard to remember what the previous lesson was about... There are extremely poor exam marks... I personally believe there are individual differences between students, and I am not asking that all my students should be outstanding, but the real issue is when a high percentage of those students are low achievers and irresponsible. [T27]*

Teachers' dissatisfaction in relation to their students was also linked to misbehaviour in school in general and inside the classroom in particular; several teachers indicated disappointment with behaviour such as sleeping during lessons. Indeed, a majority complained of such behavioural issues:

*Students falling asleep in the classroom... is a widespread phenomenon in our school. ... I find six and sometimes more students deep asleep when I first come into the classroom. I have to wake them up and ask them to go for a splash of cold water. The problem is that some students come back only to sleep again! In such cases, I have to stop explaining the lesson and wake them up again... This really disrupts the smooth running of the lesson and wastes time. [T6]*

Another issue related to student behaviour was raised by four respondents who reported facing major difficulties when attempting to control their students both before

and during the lesson, which was a key aspect of their dissatisfaction with their students:

*I find it really difficult to control some students, and this can sometimes make me so exhausted... The first thing I do when I arrive in the classroom is to get students organised in straight rows. I also have to monitor any chatting. Some students may not pay attention during the class and keep talking to classmates... others refuse to help or listen to my instructions and show a lack of respect... [T3]*

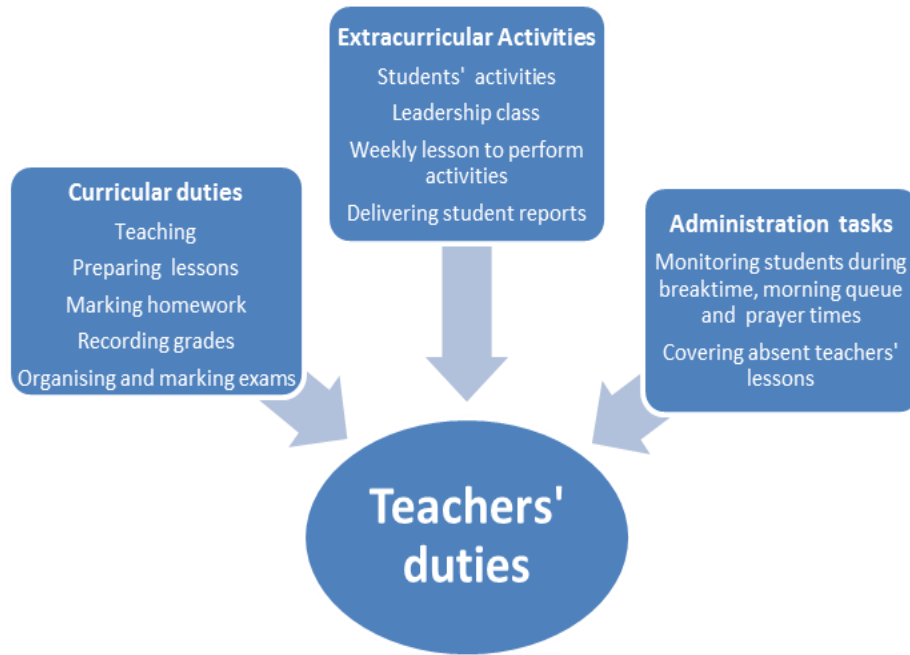
On the other hand, a few teachers gave no specific answer when asked whether they were satisfied or dissatisfied with their students' achievement, overall behaviour and motivation. Three appeared particularly unconcerned with problems of motivation or academic achievement, even when it came to such behaviour as sleeping during lessons, asserting that their main goal was to deliver the material to the students:

*My goal when I am in the classroom is to run a free-flowing lesson. I sometimes come across sleepers during the class, but those are generally low achievers. I tend to wake them up at the beginning, but if I carried on doing that for each and every one of them, my lesson would be over before I'd even started it! So I usually deal with such students by ignoring them and carrying on with my lesson. [T17]*

## **6.7 Workload**

To identify the types of duties assigned to teachers at school and to elicit their views as to their impact on satisfaction or dissatisfaction at work, interviewees were asked the following questions: *What kind of duties are you assigned to do? How do these duties influence your satisfaction/dissatisfaction?*

In the light of their responses, the nature of the tasks they were required to carry out were classified into three types: curricular duties, extracurricular activities and administrative tasks (Figure 6.5). The first relates to tasks associated directly with the educational curriculum, including preparing and delivering lessons, marking homework, keeping a record of students' grades and observations about their performance, and organising and marking exams.



**Figure 6.5: Teachers' duties at school**

The second area of duty was related to out-of-classroom educational activities, which involved carrying out supplementary and extracurricular activities, adding a lesson to each teacher's weekly schedule to be reserved for these activities. Teachers stated that they were required at the beginning of the academic year to decide whether to supervise a student group activity in school or to conduct a so-called leadership class, in which the teacher was responsible for a class in terms of the organisation and appointment of a class committee of students. They also had to oversee the participation of the class in various competitions and the morning radio, as well as delivering student reports after these had been signed by the school administration.

The third set of activities was related to managerial and administrative functions such as covering lessons for an absent teacher and supervising students during the morning queue. Teachers also took turns to supervise students during breaks, prayers and while leaving the school premises.

Table 6.8 summarises responses to the second part of the question about workload, which asked them how these duties influenced their level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

**Table 6.8: Influence of duties on job satisfaction/dissatisfaction by category**

<i>How do these duties influence your satisfaction/dissatisfaction?</i>		
<b>Category</b>	Satisfied	Dissatisfied
Tasks related to teaching	25	7
Tasks related to out-of-classroom educational activities	13	19
Organisational and administrative tasks	9	22

Two-thirds of participants stated that their job satisfaction had been affected negatively by the tasks assigned to them. In particular, 22 complained that tasks related to the organisational or administrative aspects of school life—which they considered extracurricular—increased the burden on teachers. Moreover, some of these duties were seen as unrelated to teaching and indeed possibly inconsistent with teachers’ educational objectives. Similarly, 19 interviewees indicated that tasks related to out-of-classroom educational activities had contributed to their job dissatisfaction, adding to the burden on their shoulders; in addition, many referred to certain aggravating factors such as the inadequate school resources and the large number of students. In contrast, 25 participants stated that their job satisfaction had been positively influenced by the tasks allocated to them in relation to teaching itself, i.e. to the educational curriculum.

The extent of dissatisfaction was thus greatest with regard to organisational and administrative tasks. For example, supervising students and monitoring their behaviour outside the classroom during breaks and morning queues or when leaving school were considered to overburden teachers:

*I am being pressurised by tasks that are of no educational value and which I consider a burden on the teacher... I teach 23 sessions weekly. This is not confined to explaining the subject material, but includes assigning homework, as well as preparing and marking exam papers, which requires a massive effort. I also have to carry out supervisory tasks, keeping an eye on students during prayer and break times... Sometimes, I feel exhausted after three consecutive classes..., but I have to do the supervisory duties assigned to me... [T8]*

Not only did these activities represent an additional burden for teachers, but 14 interviewees complained that they were not central to their work as teachers and so may have had some negative impact on student-teacher relations:

*I see [supervisory tasks] as far from the nature of my work as a teacher. I am supposed to deliver my lessons and maintain a good relationship with*

*the students... based on love and trust. This... is contrary to the supervision tasks... more specifically, monitoring students' behaviour during break times or prayers... What do you think students will feel when they see me do that? ...Some students, especially those going through their adolescent phase, will try to take advantage of the teacher's presence during the break to come into contact with the teacher in front of his colleagues in a manner that loses the teacher his prestige and breaks down the barrier of respect existing between him and the students inside the classroom. [T21]*

*I propose that the teacher should be exempted from those tasks, which should be assigned to supervisors who would be appointed specifically for this purpose. [T6]*

A further 16 interviewees identified standby lessons as contributing to their dissatisfaction. They were referring to the requirement that teachers should cover the classes and activities of teachers absent for any reason, a procedure imposed by the school administration to ensure the continuation of the educational process. These respondents considered this an extracurricular activity and an additional responsibility placed upon them. There were complaints of a lack a clear strategy as to how the process should be initiated, wasting teachers' time. The lessons covered would also often be unrelated to the covering teacher's subject:

*I believe that [covering] absent fellow teachers is one of the most undesirable and overburdening tasks for any teacher... Standby classes... represent an increase in teaching input and responsibilities... Also, students see replacement lessons as free time... they don't obey the instructions of the teacher... As such, time is not invested in performing something purposeful. [T22]*

*When I have spare time between classes, I tend to... use it productively to mark homework or prepare the next lesson. But the vice-principal may still surprise me with a lesson-covering task and make me sign a binding agreement... What is more, the class I am assigned to attend has no association whatever with the subject I teach. I see it as a huge waste of time for teachers and students alike. [T16]*

Another source of dissatisfaction, according to 19 interviewees, was out-of-classroom educational activities. They criticised the practice of assigning teachers such activities as increasing their workload and that of the students. They also complained of

the large number of students in schools, the inadequacy of premises and the shortage of resources needed to carry out these activities:

*Even in the classroom and in the presence of 40 students, it's difficult to carry out any activity... We have approximately 500 students and there is an outdoor activity each week... All students undertake one activity at the same time, which is impossible because the school is not well-equipped with the most basic needs to perform any activity and to accommodate such large numbers. [T23]*

*I have 23 lessons to teach each week and I'm responsible for leading a class, which I am required to organise and monitor, in addition to supervising the activities carried out by the class. I also distribute reports and test results, as well as attending leadership class once every two weeks. All this work makes me disorientated due to lack of time... This effort should be directed towards my own subjects. [T30]*

Conversely, more than three-quarters of teachers expressed satisfaction with duties related to teaching itself, considering these to be at the heart of each teacher's job:

*Attending classes and delivering lessons as well as giving students exams and homework and marking their work, or sometimes offering subject-related activities such as asking students to carry out small-scale research projects, are at the heart of my work, which I can carry out with peace of mind, as this makes me practically see the effect of my work on student achievement. [T4]*

However, seven interviewees expressed their dissatisfaction with teaching tasks, arguing that their allocated weekly teaching load of 24 lessons was too large:

*I teach almost 250 students because I have 24 lessons a week. I'm not satisfied with that, because I find it difficult to offer the work required of me in the most satisfactory manner. In other words, if I give students one task a week as homework, imagine how much time it would take me to correct the same amount when it comes to monthly examinations... Teaching so many students isn't easy... [T25]*

## **6.8 Promotion Opportunities**

Teachers were asked two questions regarding the relation between promotion opportunities and job satisfaction: *What is your opinion of the promotion opportunities that teachers have? How do they influence your job satisfaction?*

Their responses, summarised in Table 6.9, suggest that promotion opportunities contributed negatively to teachers' job satisfaction. In line with the questionnaire results, over three-quarters of teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the lack of promotion opportunities, with a job grade system which did not achieve justice between teachers, with a lack of any functional privileges and the ending of the annual salary increase after 20 years of service, while only seven were satisfied, attributing this to the annual salary increase.

**Table 6.9: Promotion opportunities and job satisfaction**

<b>What is your opinion of the promotion opportunities that teachers have? How do they influence your job satisfaction?</b>	
Satisfied	7
Dissatisfied	25
<b>Why?</b>	
<b>Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>
Lack of promotion opportunities	Annual salary increase
Job grade system does not achieve justice between teachers	
Lack of any functional privileges	
Annual salary increase stops after 20 years of service	

The majority of the 25 interviewees who expressed dissatisfaction with promotion agreed on a lack of promotion opportunities for teachers, who, once appointed, were likely to remain in teaching until retirement. This was blamed on the system imposed by the MoE, based on job grade or rank and simply determining the financial benefits that teachers would receive, subject only to an annual increase in their salaries:

*Teachers have no promotion opportunities, because we remain teachers throughout our career, with fixed salaries which increase with length of service. Financially this is good, but occupationally and professionally it is depressing... For many years we have heard that the ministry is going to create a new promotion system for teachers, but nothing has changed yet. [T3]*

Teachers also expressed dissatisfaction with the apparent injustice of the current job grade system. The annual salary increase, on the basis of experience rather than performance, was failing to distinguish between those teachers who worked hard and those who were less active or had poor performance:

*It kills the spirit of creativity among teachers, since it gives all of them, both excellent and hardworking teachers and the careless ones, the same increase in salary. [T20]*



*The job promotion system for teachers is really frustrating. It doesn't encourage teachers to work creatively. But if there was some kind of promotion for teachers based on quality and performance, teachers would compete and do their best to get promoted. [T15]*

In addition, 22 teachers complained that job grade or rank provided no functional advantages. For example, the tasks assigned to teachers remained the same, irrespective of experience:

*I have long experience as a teacher, but I am still doing the same job, teaching the same lessons, while other governmental employees working in the military sector, for example, are promoted. This routine makes the job boring and also in spite of my long experience I am still doing what a newly appointed teacher does: the only difference is the amount we receive at the end of the month. [T1]*

Sixteen others complained that while the grade system offered annual salary increases, this financial advantage ended after 20 years of service in education:

*I have been working as a teacher for 24 years. However, after these long years of experience, the annual increases in my salary have stopped in the last four years without any consideration for the effort I have made for many years and still make. [T21]*

Another source of dissatisfaction for four teachers was that obtaining a higher degree, such as an MA or a PhD, gave them no improved promotion opportunities corresponding to their qualifications:

*I was awarded a master's degree last year, but all I got was a small salary increase, whereas I was looking to be promoted to work as a lecturer at the university, where there are jobs that suit my new academic qualifications. [T28]*

On the other hand, seven interviewees were not concerned with the poor promotion opportunities. They declared their satisfaction with the current job grade system, explaining that although it provided no promotion opportunities, it offered financial security, which was adequate for them:

*Many of my colleagues complain about the lack of promotion opportunities, but for me this is not important. I am enjoying my job as a teacher as long as it gives me a guaranteed annual pay rise. [T17]*

## 6.9 Status of Teachers in Society

In order to explore the interviewees' opinions about society's views of teachers and to ascertain whether those views had influenced their job satisfaction, the participants were asked the following questions: *How do you feel about the status of teachers in society? What is its impact on your job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?*

More than two-thirds of the teachers felt that the status of the teacher in society was declining. Whereas teachers were once seen as having supreme authority and deserving of respect, they were perceived differently by some members of today's society. Teachers were now seen as ordinary people carrying out ordinary tasks, leading to them being treated disrespectfully and their important educational role being ignored:

*The teacher used to be held in high regard and earn strong appreciation in the community... however, over the years, especially now, teachers' status has decreased and we have less recognition and prestige. We need the whole community to understand that teachers are educators and mentors, as well as the holders of an honourable message, distinguishing us from employees in other sectors. [T16]*

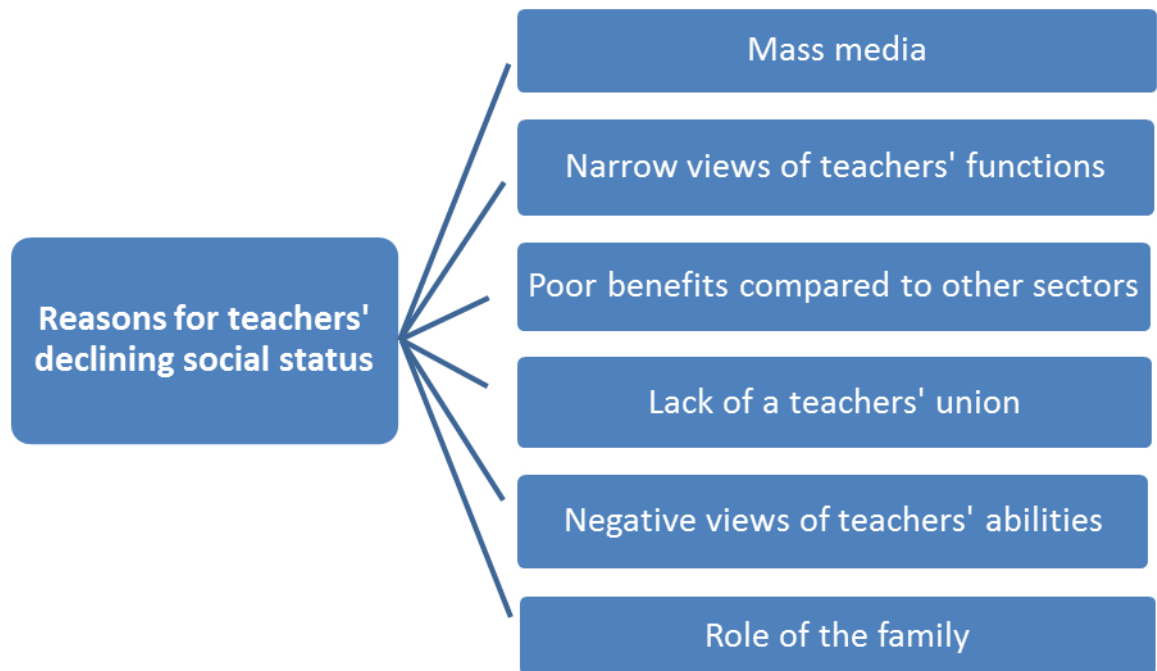
With regard to the effect of perceived social status on teachers' job satisfaction, Table 6.10 shows that 23 interviewees declared that it had a negative impact, while only five felt that society's appreciation had contributed positively to their job satisfaction. The remaining four showed no interest in the views of society, whether positive or negative, indicating that these had no impact on their job satisfaction.

**Table 6.10: Status of teachers in society**

<i>How do you feel about the status of teachers in society? What is its impact on your job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?</i>	
Appreciated → Positive → Satisfied	5
Undermined → Negative → Dissatisfied	23
Undecided → No effect → Neutral	4

Society's narrow view of teachers was perceived by a strong majority as undermining them, with a consequent negative impact on job satisfaction. These 23 respondents gave a number of reasons for this decline in teachers' status, as illustrated in Figure 6.6: the mass media, limited understanding of the function of teachers, the fact that teachers lacked certain benefits granted to those in other sectors, the lack of a

teachers' union, suspicions as to the abilities of teachers and the negative role of the family.



**Figure 6.6: Perceived reasons for the decline in teachers' social status**

The mass media, especially national newspapers and television, were seen as having a key role in highlighting the social position of teachers and as contributing to their low status by focusing on controversial events and attitudes. Mistakes by individual teachers were highlighted, sarcastic caricatures displayed and inappropriate content about teachers included in TV programmes, all of which contributed to the distortion of teachers' image in the eyes of other members of society, according to many interviewees. One teacher gave examples of this negative media focus:

*Day by day, there are recurrent cases that the press is racing to publish where one will come across headlines in some newspapers such as 'Teacher Physically Assaults a Student', 'Teacher Arrested over Something', 'Teacher Penalised over Something'... These are individual acts that are perpetrated by a limited number of people and don't represent the vast majority of teachers... Some TV series show the teacher as vulgar, negative and of a weak personality. This would shake the image of the teacher in society and undermine his status. [T21]*

The narrow views of many people regarding the function of teachers was a factor complained of by 14 teachers, who argued that this perception belittled teachers' real role and impacted negatively on their status in society. More specifically, public opinion

focused on perceived advantages of the teaching profession, such as high salaries, short working hours and long annual holidays:

*What really annoys me is the narrow-minded view that some people hold about the teacher's job. I often hear the same old comments... 'You teachers are the lucky ones... well-paid job, long school holidays and short hours of work... By 12 noon, it's all over and you are back to the comfort of your homes...' This view puts me down, because people do not realise my true educational role as a teacher and mentor, in addition to the nature of my work which requires me to deal with large numbers of students who differ in terms of capability and behaviour. Also, the efforts exerted by the teacher are carved out of his own time at home through the daily preparation of his lessons and correction of students' homework. [T12]*

Nine interviewees mentioned that teachers did not enjoy certain benefits granted to employees in other sectors, such as health insurance and a housing allowance. This, together with the poor promotional opportunities, had a negative effect on the general impression of teachers' social status:

*Other authorities give due respect to all staff members by offering them essential services. The most important... is health insurance, meaning free treatment for the employee and his family in private affiliated hospitals. We teachers also have no housing allowance or opportunities to be promoted at work, unlike other state employees. When people realise that the teacher is lacking in this respect, they start to think that he is incompetent and that his job is less beneficial, effective and appreciated than other jobs. [T31]*

The absence of a teachers' trade union or association serving their interests, resolving their issues or defending their rights was raised by nine interviewees as another factor leading to teachers' low status in society. They suggested that such a body could act as a link between the teacher and the MoE and that its goal would be to challenge any attempts to undermine teachers by communicating with other sectors and seeking to enhance teachers' status, as well as highlighting their leading role in the community:

*I believe that teachers are desperately in need of a union or association to uphold their interests. The absence of such an association... forces them to resort to the media such as TV channels and newspapers to express their concerns to key decision-makers in the ministry. This presentation of such issues or problems by teachers in the daily newspapers can adversely affect their status in the community. [T6]*

Five teachers stated that they perceived a social undermining of teachers' abilities because public opinion believed that students applying to colleges of education were often low calibre, as the more gifted students would normally go to university to study fields such as engineering or law:

*My first ever ambition was to be a teacher. Although I was well ahead in my studies, when I selected teaching as a profession, some of my relatives and acquaintances wondered why I had opted for such a career, as though it was wrong for me to do so. According to them, doing extremely well in my studies should have made me choose another career path other than education. [T8]*

The family had a key role to play in enhancing the status of teachers in society, but this had changed, according to nine interviewees, who perceived families as now contributing to the low social status of teachers, especially among their children. For example, rather than instilling love, respect and appreciation of teachers, some families were perceived to undermine teachers by criticising them publicly, which would diminish their value and status in society:

*I think that the family has contributed a lot to the current low status of teachers, with the parents' role shifting from a positive to a negative one. Once, they used to respect and appreciate the teacher because of his sense of duty and noble message and raise their children to act accordingly, but now some parents stand side by side with their children to defend them, even if they are at fault, and sometimes even confronting and objecting to the teacher's adopted approach to teaching in public and in a humiliating way... If the parents act in such a manner, then what does one expect from the children? Obviously, this would undermine the image and social standing of the teacher. [T26]*

In contrast to the many expressions of dissatisfaction above, only five interviewees perceived their status in society positively, saying that they felt appreciated and respected, which had increased their job satisfaction. They argued that teachers determined their own social status, through loyalty and dedication to their work.

*I think that the position of teachers in society is good. A teacher is one who leaves his own mark by imposing his status and earning admiration and never begs for it from others... A hardworking and loyal teacher is always respected and appreciated by society. [T2]*

Finally, just four respondents argued that the status of teachers in society and people's perceptions of them, even if negative, did not constitute a decisive factor in

terms of their job satisfaction, as long as they were dedicated to teaching as a profession and felt that they were fulfilling their educational mission as required:

*I have total faith in the proverb that says 'pleasing people is mission impossible'. I do not really care about what people are saying about teachers. Sometimes, I hear some comments on teachers which might bother other teachers, but as far as I am concerned, as long as my job is good and I perform it wholeheartedly, I am not interested in people's opinions. All I care about is the benefits I can offer to the student. [T5]*

## 6.10 Teachers' Motivating Factors

Having dealt in detail with job satisfaction, the interviews turned to motivation. In order to understand the factors affecting teachers' motivation, the interviewees were asked the following question: *What are the most important factors that motivate you in your work as a teacher and why?*

Analysis of the responses shows that a variety of factors were mentioned, grouped here under four major categories: intrinsic factors, altruistic factors, extrinsic factors and religious factors (Table 6.11).

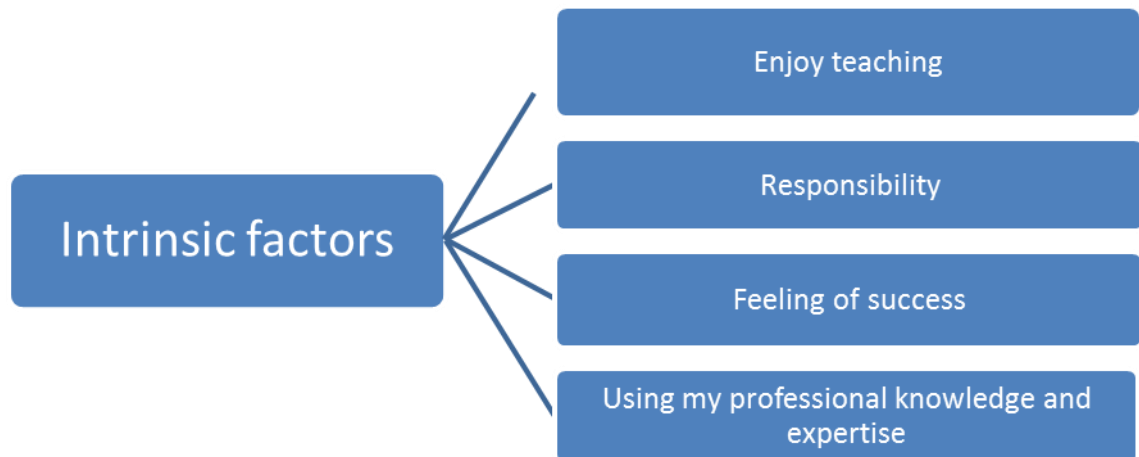
**Table 6.11: Interviewees' responses as to what motivated them in teaching**

<b>Factors</b>	Intrinsic	Altruistic	Extrinsic	Religious
<b>No. of responses</b>	23	17	13	9

Since many interviewees identified more than one motivating factor in their responses, Table 6.11 shows that the 32 respondents are recorded as giving a total of 62 individual responses as to the most important factors that motivated them. The category most often named was that of intrinsic factors, identified by over two-thirds of interviewees. Altruistic factors were the second most frequently identified, by more than half of the teachers. The third category was extrinsic factors, while religious factors emerged as the least likely to have motivated the teachers, being specified by barely a quarter of the total sample. It is worth noting that some respondents mentioned more than one motivating factor within a single category, while others identified factors in more than one category. In Table 6.11, the number 17 in the third column, for example, means that 17 of the 32 teachers specified at least one extrinsic motivating factor in their interview responses. The following subsections examine the four categories in descending order of frequency.

### 6.10.1 Intrinsic factors

The various factors mentioned within the intrinsic category can be analysed as corresponding to four individual sub-themes, also classified in Figure 6.7 in descending order of the frequency with which they were mentioned.



**Figure 6.7: Intrinsic motivating factors in order of frequency**

It was clear from the interview data that enjoyment of the job was perceived to be the most important motivational factor for interviewees when carrying out their teaching duties. For instance, 11 interviewees ascribed their motivation to the enjoyment and pleasure they derived from teaching, being an interesting and ongoing interactional activity, in particular with students in a classroom environment and away from other tedious and routine jobs:

*I enjoy teaching and this is the most important reason for me to teach, because I find great pleasure in my work, specifically teaching various subjects in the classroom using a variety of educational methods to deliver scientific material to students and responding to their questions. This represents a particularly interesting field for me and keeps me motivated all the time, compared to office or administrative work, which I see as boring. [T18]*

The sense of responsibility laid on teachers to accomplish their learning objectives was a factor motivating eight of the interviewees:

*As a teacher, I feel there is a big responsibility placed on my shoulders towards my students. In fact, I am the only one responsible for ensuring the delivery of the scientific material, which makes me endeavour to explain it to the best of my ability, without slacking or falling behind. I*

*often feel uncomfortable if I realise that one of my students has not been able to understand the lesson, so I try to explain it to him again in the classroom if possible or by giving free sessions outside school hours.*  
[T28]

Three interviewees, additionally, linked that responsibility to their roles as educators, not only as teachers. They asserted that parents entrusted them with a mission which they should honour. This was achieved by monitoring and supervising students' conduct and striving to correct any negative aspects of behaviour through advice and guidance:

*I have a massive duty towards these students, whether in the classroom or outside it... They are a big responsibility as far as I am concerned... So I treat them as my own children and care for their interests. This responsibility is not only restricted to looking after their academic achievement... I am also an educator. Before performing my teaching duties, I have to work on improving student behaviour and... rectifying any misconduct.* [T13]

Another intrinsic motivating factor, which was mentioned by six of the participating teachers, was their sense of personal achievement as a result of their students' academic success and behavioural development:

*Delivering the information to the students... is a challenge for each of us. But noticing that my students are developing academically or improving in terms of their overall behaviour at the end of the school year makes me feel successful and proud... This feeling of achievement has a positive impact... on my self-esteem..., self-confidence and motivation.* [T30]

For two of the six teachers who mentioned the sense of success as a motivating factor, this feeling was achieved by seeing the success of their former students, which enhanced their overall sense of success and contributed to their motivation:

*When I see one of my students reaping one career success after another, especially those on whom I had some kind of influence, it gives me a wonderfully indescribable feeling... One simple example... is when I visited a hospital a while ago for a medical check-up... While I was sitting in the waiting area, one of the doctors approached me and mentioned that I was his teacher and heaped his praise on me for being one of the people behind his academic and professional success. I really felt touched and was overwhelmed by a sense of pride for the contribution I had made to guide people like that doctor to where they wanted and ought to be.* [T24]



The feeling of success identified by one of the teachers came through his empowerment and involvement in the development of other teachers' performance through his instructional input when he was asked to perform a model lesson for new or pre-service teachers and those whose teaching skills needed improvement:

*During the last academic term, the educational supervisor asked me to deliver a model lesson from which some of my colleagues would benefit... I did not hesitate and felt enthusiastic... This particular task made me feel distinguished and efficient and a model for a successful teacher. Such an achievement is a source of inspiration for me. [T5]*

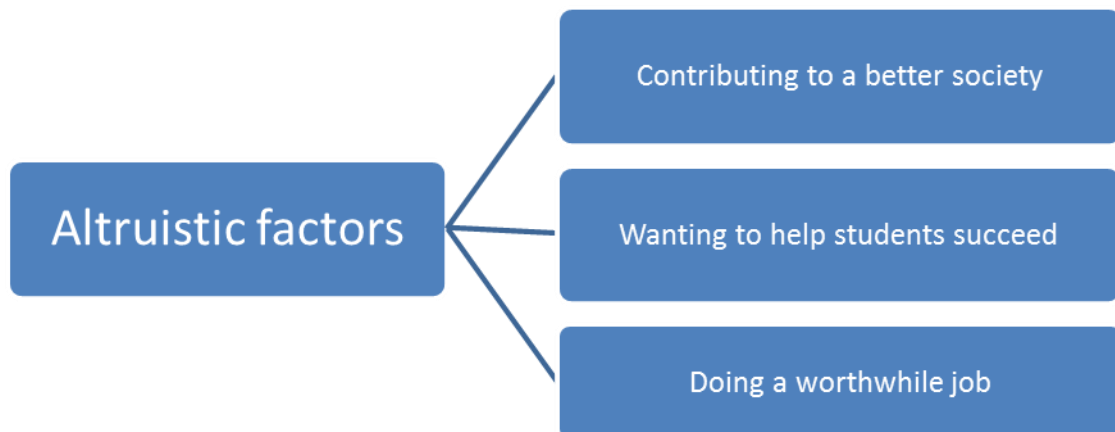
The final intrinsic motivating factor, identified by four interviewees, was having the opportunity to use the professional knowledge and expertise that the teaching profession had given them and which could be best achieved via a career in education:

*My everyday motivation is my teaching subject. I really enjoy this subject in the curriculum and I'm keen to carry on developing and to keep abreast of all developments in the field and in teaching as a whole. This career really gives me the opportunity to get more involved in this subject and to share my expertise and knowledge with students in an interactive manner. [T8]*

*Teaching is the only profession that enables one to give and take in the knowledge process without stopping. Teachers with an infinite predisposition to give are constantly abreast of the cultural and scientific research fields. [T23]*

### **6.10.2 Altruistic factors**

The second set of factors, mentioned by a total of 17 interviewees as motivating them at work, comprised diverse altruistic motives, categorised into three subthemes: the desire to contribute to a better society, helping students to succeed, and doing a socially worthwhile job (Figure 6.8). These are discussed below, beginning with the sub-theme most frequently invoked.



**Figure 6.8: Altruistic motivating factors in order of frequency**

Twelve participants referred to their desire to contribute to the development of society, making this the most important of the altruistic motivations, numerically speaking. These teachers saw education as a crucial foundation stone for the building of a better society:

*My motivation as a teacher is closely linked to the need to contribute to society. Without... doubt, these students are going to be future leaders and a strong foundation that society can fall back on... Being involved in their teaching contributes to producing and preparing a generation of good-natured citizens who are able to invest positively in improving and advancing society in all economic, political, and cultural spheres. [T20]*

*...This country gave us so much and it is about time we contributed to its growth... When I am in class facing my students, I can tell who amongst them would be a doctor, or an engineer, or a pilot or a minister and so on... I feel I have a massive part to play in the development of society. [T10]*

The second most frequently invoked altruistic motivating factor was helping students to achieve success at all levels, whether in the academic, public or practical spheres. This sub-theme was almost as important as the first, representing a desire expressed by eleven participants as one of the most significant factors behind their motivation at work:

*I am deeply motivated to play my part in supporting my students' aspirations to be successful in life and to achieve whatever they intend to do after they leave school .... I strive to introduce some positive changes*

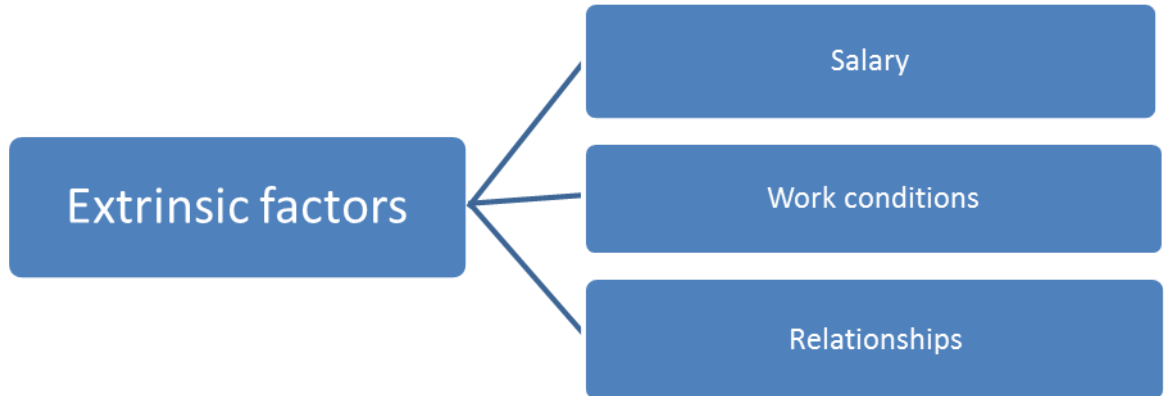
*into their lives and instil the love of learning... broadening their horizons to meet the different life challenges and circumstances head on. [T7]*

The final altruistic factor, identified by nine interviewees, was seeing teaching as a worthwhile service for society and one of the greatest and most honourable jobs, offering an almost sanctified message. Accordingly, these teachers saw their motivation to teach as stemming from their belief in the value of that message and its impact on their students:

*I firmly believe in the prominence and nobility of teaching as a message... I can even... say it is the most prominent and honourable of all professions, being the message of all prophets and apostles. It is also the message of educators, who are said to be the natural heirs to those prophets. In fact, this makes me proud of my career as a teacher and gives me extra motivation to perform my educational duty. [T14]*

### 6.10.3 Extrinsic factors

The third most influential set of factors were extrinsic ones, classified here into a number of sub-themes in order of importance: salary, working conditions and relationships within the workplace (Figure 6.9).



**Figure 6.9: Extrinsic motivating factors in order of frequency**

Pay was considered the most important of the extrinsic factors influencing the interviewees' motivation, with nine stating that salary represented an essential motivation factor for them:

*Nobody works for nothing. These days, money is essential in people's lives. ...For me a reasonable and adequate salary is quite important for my motivation... so I always make sure that I perform my work without delay or absence... [T32]*

One interesting finding was that for three teachers considering money as contributing to motivation, such motivation was not simply attributed to the amount of salary earned, but more importantly to the social value attached to it. Being highly paid gives teachers a sense of respect and superiority compared to other professions and reflects the interest and appreciation that the state shows towards teachers, which in turn is reflected positively in their motivation:

*As far as I'm concerned, the package I earn indirectly boosts my motivation. I receive a salary considered high compared to other professions, which makes me realise the extent to which officials value and appreciate my work and endeavours. This really increases my motivation and pushes me to contribute even more... as a teacher. [T1]*

Certain distinct advantages of teaching, in comparison with other professions, were seen as related to working conditions, which also emerged as a significant extrinsic factor in the responses provided by the participants. These included holidays and the hours of work in term-time. For example, teachers reported only having to work from seven in the morning until midday or one pm at the latest. According to five respondents, the number of working hours was a motivating factor for them, in keeping with their lifestyle needs and family commitments:

*My job offers me what other jobs may fail to offer... I find the working hours are well-suited to my lifestyle as I have a family to look after. I can use my own children as an example. I usually drop them off at school when I start and pick them up when I finish. [T22]*

Three other interviewees mentioned the additional benefit of taking a long annual holiday, in addition to some short breaks during the school year. This represented a vital incentive boosting the motivation of some teachers:

*I see the annual holiday as well as the two mid-term school breaks as very important incentives for me to be in teaching and to keep my job. These school breaks have the advantage of allowing me to share my family's holidays. [T4]*

Workload, in terms of the number of weekly lessons, also had an impact on raising the motivation levels of some teachers, although only for interviewees teaching fewer than 20 lessons a week:

*I feel that my interest and motivation to work have significantly improved because I used to be given 24 lessons a week and required to carry out*

*some extracurricular activities. This proved to be a burden... and even made me think of leaving teaching altogether. But this has changed recently with work pressures easing a little and lessons reduced to 18 a week. The new quota has offered me a better opportunity in terms of providing students with well-delivered lessons. [T19]*

The final extrinsic factor identified as motivating the interviewees was that of relationships, variously described in terms of interactions within the workplace, of good relationships based on respect and appreciation, and of cooperation and teamwork within the work environment, both with the administration and with colleagues, which represented a motivating factor for three interviewees:

*Personally, I see that the style adopted by the principal is a motivational factor for me at work. He has an excellent approach and is a good communicator, with me and other colleagues. For example, he gives particularly encouraging words and thank you messages when we come up with something creative. He is also always there in those situations when we need him most. [T25]*

*With my colleagues, I have some relationships which can be best described as wonderful and full of mutual respect and the spirit of cooperation. This makes me feel comfortable in the workplace and reflects positively on my performance. In addition, I receive full support and appreciation from some colleagues for the efforts I make at work, which is really encouraging and motivates me more. [T16]*

#### **6.10.4 Religious factors**

Finally, religion can be considered a motivational factor for some teachers, as reported by nine participants. Seeking reward from Allah and being accountable to Him for their work was motivating for them:

*Dedicating one's work to Allah Almighty is the largest motive for me by far. In my teaching and efforts in school, I seek reward from Allah alone, both in this world and the hereafter. This generates a feeling of happiness and thus gives me the extra zeal when teaching, so much so that I sometimes spend very long periods with my students striving to enhance their educational attainment. [T27]*

Other interviewees stated the importance of being accountable to Allah for the salary they received, which they should work honestly to deserve:

*I consider the religious aspect of my life as essential and a main reason for me to stay motivated, especially in terms of analysing my salary for*

*that particular month. For this money which I receive at the end of each month to be halal and deserved, I have to try to always be as much as I can a perfectionist and thus lead by example at work as in all other aspects of my life... Not to mention that after all I will be answerable for all of my actions before God Almighty. [T7]*

## **6.11 Teachers' Suggestions to Improve their Job Satisfaction**

At the end of the interview, the respondents were given an opportunity to offer their own proposals for the improvement of job satisfaction among their colleagues, in response to the following question: *“Do you have any suggestions that might enhance teachers' job satisfaction?”* Responses included the following:

- The majority of interviewees (19) highlighted the importance of promotion opportunities for teachers, suggesting that the MoE should introduce a new promotion system, taking into account teachers experience and proficiency.
- Fourteen respondents felt that teachers should keep abreast of recent developments by taking advantage of modern education technology and teaching aids, which schools therefore needed to be provided with, in sufficient quantity and quality.
- Thirteen participants saw it as increasingly indispensable for teachers to receive high quality training programmes, in terms of both design and content, which could contribute effectively to meeting their training needs.
- Twelve respondents were concerned with the need to improve the medical services offered to teachers, by the establishment of a private hospital for teachers or offering them health insurance.
- A suggestion by ten interviewees was that the relationship between school and home should be improved. This would involve increasing the number of meetings with parents and taking advantage of modern technology to ensure continuing communication between teachers and parents.
- The need for better incentives was mentioned by nine interviewees, who stressed that teachers need continuous encouragement, whether remunerative or moral. This could be achieved by finding a clear mechanism on the basis of which teachers would be entitled to receive such incentives, whether through the MoE or their own schools.
- Six teachers identified a pressing need to ease the burden on teachers' shoulders, especially in terms of reducing the number of lessons delivered weekly, which they suggested should not exceed twenty, as opposed to the current 24. In addition,

teachers should be exempted from the administrative work that they were currently assigned, including following up and supervising students outside school time.

- Finally, a limited number of respondents stated that a committee or association should be founded to cater for the needs and expectations of teachers, providing a link between the teacher, the MoE and other players in the education sector.

## **6.12 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented an analysis of the qualitative interview data in order to extend understanding of the issues raised by participants. Teachers expressed their general satisfaction with their work, and the factors influencing their satisfaction most strongly were relationships with colleagues, school principals, salary, supervision, school location and holidays. Conversely, school facilities, promotion, students, parents, workload, the status of teachers in society and health services were all factors contributing to their dissatisfaction. With regard to motivation to work, their responses indicate that they were motivated mostly by intrinsic factors (e.g. the enjoyment of teaching, responsibility, feelings of success and using their knowledge) and by altruistic factors (the desire to contribute to a better society, helping students to succeed, and doing a socially worthwhile job), while they were less strongly motivated by external and religious factors. Finally, teachers suggested some changes that would enhance their job satisfaction.

In the following chapter, these qualitative findings are further discussed and integrated with the quantitative ones derived from questionnaire responses, in relation to the research questions.

## Chapter Seven

### Discussion

#### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to discuss and interpret, in the light of the research questions, the quantitative and qualitative findings presented in Chapters Five and Six respectively, based on the data obtained from the responses of secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia to the questionnaire and interviews. In so doing, it draws on the literature review for relevant comparisons with the findings of previous studies and prevailing job satisfaction theories.

In order to take due account of both quantitative and qualitative results, discussion of each research question (listed in section 1.5) begins by considering the quantitative findings, which can be taken as representative of a typical participant, a male secondary school teacher in Riyadh. The most pertinent qualitative findings are then examined in the light of the possible interpretations of these quantitative results, taking account of the major theories and findings covered in the literature review.

#### 7.2 General Job Satisfaction

This section addresses the first research question: *What is the overall general level of job satisfaction amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?* (p.20).

The quantitative findings indicate that the level was relatively high: the overall mean score for general job satisfaction was 3.53 out of 5. Almost half (47.0%) of respondents were very satisfied and 16.4% were satisfied. More than half (55.7%) said that they would take the same job if they had to start their careers again and a similar number would recommend teaching to their friends. When overall job satisfaction was measured in terms of ten individual factors, the mean score was a little lower than the general mean score, at 3.24. These generally favourable findings are supported by the qualitative data, as two-thirds of the 32 interviewees responded positively when asked: "In general are you satisfied with your job as a teacher?" Seven others appeared dissatisfied, while three showed some indecision.

These positive findings are in line with those of previous studies of teachers in Arab countries, such as Olimat (1994) in Jordan and Ibrahim (2004) in Libya. Elsewhere,



Castillo et al. (1999), Perrachione et al. (2008), Abdullah et al. (2009) and Demirta (2010) all report strong job satisfaction among teachers. The findings of the current study are also in keeping with studies in Saudi Arabia, including Al-Shrari (2003), Al-Obaid (2002) and Al-Sumih (1996), who all found high levels of satisfaction among teachers. On the other hand, studies reporting an average level of job satisfaction among teachers include those of Khleel and Sharer (2007), Keung-Fai (1996), Al-Amri (1992) and Almeili (2006), these last two being set in Saudi Arabia. The only study identified in the reviewed literature where teachers were found to be generally dissatisfied with their jobs is that of El-Sheikh and Salamah (1982) in Qatar.

While male secondary school teachers were generally satisfied with their jobs, the present study found different levels of job satisfaction with respect to the contributory factors examined. Those found to make a strong contribution to job satisfaction included interpersonal relationships, while a moderate influence was identified with respect to educational supervision, for example. Factors tending to cause dissatisfaction included personal development and facilities. The next section discusses these factors further.

### **7.3 Factors Contributing to Teachers' Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction**

This section addresses the second research question: *What factors contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?*

One aim of this question was to determine which of the factors identified by the present study contributed most to teachers' job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The findings show that participants registered the strongest satisfaction with Interpersonal relationships (mean=4.08), followed by Administration (3.7) and Nature of the work (3.45). Factors contributing moderately to satisfaction included Workload (mean=3.25), Marking pupils' work (3.26), Educational system (3.15), Educational supervisor (3.11) and Salary and promotion (2.98). Student progress received the lowest mean score (2.89) of the moderately satisfying factors, with over half of participants expressing their dissatisfaction with students' achievement and motivation to learn. Finally, Staff development was found to contribute clearly to teachers' dissatisfaction (mean=2.47). The following subsections consider factors contributing first to teachers' job satisfaction, then to their dissatisfaction, beginning in each case with the factor having the strongest influence.

### **7.3.1 Factors contributing to job satisfaction**

The following three subsections consider the factors found to contribute most strongly to job satisfaction: Interpersonal relationships, School administration and Nature of the work.

#### **7.3.1.1 Interpersonal relationships**

The factor identified as having the strongest positive influence on participants' job satisfaction was Interpersonal relationships. Four-fifths (82%) of teachers expressed their satisfaction with their interpersonal relationships in general, with a mean score of 4.09. Within this, the strongest satisfaction was with relationships with their colleagues (92.5%, mean=4.41), while 86.8% were satisfied with relationships with students and two-thirds (66.5%) were satisfied with the availability of social activities with colleagues. Only 64.1% were satisfied with their relationships with parents, but these may be considered to be indirect relationships governed by—or closely related to—students' performance and achievements, rather than teachers' personal relationships. Consequently, for the purposes of factor analysis (section 5.6.2.4), relationships with parents are grouped and discussed with the Students' progress factor.

The above quantitative findings are supported by the qualitative data. In interviews, teachers expressed strong satisfaction with interpersonal relationships: 28 of the 32 interviewees were found to be satisfied with their relationships with their colleagues, 26 with their principals and 21 with their educational supervisors.

A possible explanation for this factor receiving the highest satisfaction rating in the present study lies in the characteristics of Saudi society mentioned earlier: its collectivism (Hofstede, 1984) and the encouragement of interpersonal relationships. Looking more closely at the interview findings, it could be argued that the high level of satisfaction among teachers with their relationship with colleagues reflects the positive characteristics of relationships among teachers, whether formal or informal; for example, relations at school based on mutual respect, strong ties among colleagues and support for each other. Each school usually has a staffroom where teachers take breaks, sit together and talk as friends. In addition, there is cooperation among teachers and a spirit of teamwork which overrides individual interests. These positive relations extend beyond school; teachers have regular gatherings outside the school, normally in the evenings, where they participate in activities such as sport once or twice each fortnight.

Indeed, a third of interviewees viewed their cooperation as extending outside the borders of work, so that teachers would support and help each other in any difficult situation. This may reflect a characteristic of Saudi society, where Islamic and Arab cultural and social traditions play the important role of encouraging individuals to affiliate to and work with the group, thus shaping these positive relationships. All of these considerations may help to explain the finding of the current study that Saudi teachers gave priority to interpersonal relationships with their colleagues, rating this factor as contributing highly to job satisfaction.

In the literature, relationships with colleagues are considered to constitute one of five factors influencing job satisfaction; good communication with colleagues and their support are necessary for job satisfaction, since these relationships with colleagues play an important role in achieving goals at work (Luthans, 1998; Mullins, 2008). In Maslow's theory (1954) interpersonal relationships fall within the third category of needs, named 'social needs'. In addition, when workers are isolated in their workplaces, a lack of relationships can cause dissatisfaction, so the need for interpersonal relationships should be met, in order to avoid the feeling of dissatisfaction, a point highlighted by Herzberg (1959). Although Herzberg categorises relationships as a hygiene factor contributing to dissatisfaction, the majority of studies reported in the literature state the opposite. Indeed, the present study has found interpersonal relationships to constitute a satisfaction factor, which is unsurprising, since the majority of studies conducted in educational settings have identified relationships as a source of job satisfaction for teachers, and this factor mostly emerges as a satisfier, rather than a dissatisfier.

It can be concluded that the findings of the current study are in line with those of others reported in the literature, such as by Keung-Fai (1996), Ma and MacMillan (1999), Scott et al. (1999), Hean and Garrett (2001), Abdullah et al. (2009), Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) and Usop et al. (2013), and those conducted in Arab countries, such as by Olimat (1994) and El-Sheikh and Salamah (1982) in the Arabian Gulf region. On the other hand, the present findings are inconsistent with those of Sergiovanni (1967), who found that dissatisfaction was linked to relationships with colleagues. In the context of education in Saudi Arabia, these results are consistent with the studies of Al-Amri (1992) and Al-Zahrani (1995), which found that teachers were

satisfied with their relationships with colleagues, and in particular with those of Al-Obaid (2002) and Almeili (2006), who found that teachers reported the highest degree of satisfaction with their relationships with colleagues.

### **7.3.1.2 School administration**

School administration was ranked as the factor contributing the second most strongly to teachers' job satisfaction. Table 5.31 shows that two-thirds of teachers expressed their satisfaction with their school administration and principal, with a mean score of 3.7, while 85% were satisfied with the principal himself. One possible interpretation of this high level of satisfaction is that it reflects the characteristics of good management in both running the school and dealing with teachers. This can be traced from teachers' expressions of satisfaction with principals' evaluation of their performance, with the recognition and reward for good work received from principals and with the opportunities principals gave them to contribute to decision-making.

The quantitative findings also seem to be supported by the results of the interviews, with 26 of 32 interviewees expressing satisfaction with the principal (Table 6.3). The interviews also revealed that principals' personal characteristics contributed importantly to high levels of satisfaction (section 6.5.1). These traits included flexibility and a charismatic style when dealing with teachers. Another important aspect was the integrity characterising the principals' work, as they strove to adhere to rules and regulations and to avoid favouritism in order to ensure that the principle of equality prevailed among the staff. Providing the assistance and support necessary for the development of teachers' skills seemed to be another key strength of principals, involving continuous encouragement and praise, whether in words or more formally through certificates of thanks and appreciation, which were often distributed in the closing ceremony of the school at the end of the academic year. This finding is consistent with the suggestion of Al-Mansour (1970) that principals' acknowledgement of teachers will influence job satisfaction.

Another point raised by the current findings relates to teachers' freedom of expression and opinion through their involvement in school decision-making, which had a significant positive impact on satisfaction with the school principal, according to twelve interviewees (section 6.5.1). This seems to agree with Bogler's (2002) statement that teachers may be largely satisfied when their principal is willing to share

information with them and take account of their views in relation to school decisions. Abraham et al. (2012) also found that interaction with principals can affect teachers' satisfaction, which explains why the principal needs to meet regularly with teachers to discuss school matters.

The present finding of strong job satisfaction regarding the school administration was unsurprising in the light of Saudi social culture, which places importance on personal relationships with others, especially at work. These results could also be interpreted in terms of the growing attention being given by the government to the education sector in general and school principals in particular, starting with the selection of appropriate candidates for school management positions. Thus, the MoE (2007) has stringent criteria for selecting school principals, such as holding a university degree and having two years experience as a deputy head. The candidate must also have a high appraisal mark for performance within the last two years and undergo a personal interview. Similarly, the findings can be interpreted in light of the Ministry's interest in enhancing principals' performance and professional skills through numerous and frequent workshops and training programmes, which they are motivated financially and morally to attend and which encourage them to build strong relationships with all school staff. One should also note the importance of establishing successful relationships with teachers, which agrees with the results of Ma and MacMillan (1999), emphasizing the role played by administrators in promoting teachers' satisfaction.

As to teachers' satisfaction with school administration, the results of the current study seem to align with findings reported in the literature that school administration was a factor contributing to teachers' job satisfaction. Ma and MacMillan (1999) found that teachers with more positive relationships with the administration reported higher satisfaction and similar findings are reported by Abraham et al. (2012), Bogler (2002), Perie and Baker (1997) and Usop et al. (2013), although Dinham and Scott (1996) identified administration as dissatisfaction factor among Australian teachers. The current findings are also consistent with those of studies carried out in other Arab countries, which found the school administration to be a factor contributing to teachers' satisfaction (Al-Mansour, 1970; El-Sheikh & Salamah, 1982; Ibrahim, 2004; Khleel & Sharer, 2007; Olimat, 1994). In the context of Saudi education, the present findings are

in line with those of Al-Zahrani (1995) and Almeili (2006), who found that teachers were satisfied with their school principals.

### **7.3.1.3 Nature of the work**

The nature of the work was also found to contribute to teachers' satisfaction, with a mean score of 3.46. Three-fifths of participants expressed satisfaction with this factor. Among its components (Table 5.32), three-quarters of teachers were satisfied with their autonomy over teaching and over half were satisfied with their responsibilities, job security, variety and administrative workload, while almost half were satisfied with the intellectual challenge of the job.

The findings with respect to autonomy over teaching are in line with the literature; for instance, Perie & Baker (1997) report that teacher autonomy was associated positively with job satisfaction, whereas Zembylas & Papanastasiou (2006) identify insufficient autonomy as a source of dissatisfaction. To the researcher's knowledge, no study conducted in Saudi Arabia has investigated autonomy in relation to teachers' job satisfaction. However, it is relevant that in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy, autonomy is considered important for individual self-esteem, while Herzberg (1959) argues that it is a hygiene factor and is thus important in order to prevent or reduce dissatisfaction.

Two-thirds of participants in the present study expressed their satisfaction with their responsibilities, while eight interviewees (section 6.10.1) indicated that they were happy with their responsibilities, whether related to the objectives of education or towards students generally, describing them as motivating them in their work. These results are consistent with Herzberg (1959), who views responsibilities as motivators contributing to job satisfaction. They are also in line with the finding of Bishay (1996) that teachers with high levels of responsibility reported significantly higher levels of satisfaction. Similar results are reported by Sergiovanni (1967), Castillo et al. (1999) and Usop et al. (2013). However, in the only relevant study found to have been conducted in Saudi Arabia, Al-Amri (1992) identified responsibility as contributing to teachers' dissatisfaction.

Nearly two-thirds of teachers also claimed to be satisfied with their level of job security, which is not surprising for several reasons. First, teachers in Saudi Arabia receive high fixed salaries which increase automatically with each additional year of service, so they are free of concerns regarding salary increments, as nine interviewees

stated (section 6.2). According to Locke (1976), money represents security for employees in developing countries, whilst it is a sign of achievement or acknowledgment in the developed world. Secondly, as four interviewees explained, teaching posts are available throughout the country, so teachers can choose among many different schools and have the opportunity to move from one to another, within and between cities, as personal circumstances dictate.

Maslow (1954) places security at the second level of his hierarchy of needs, whereas Herzberg (1959) has it as a hygiene factor which can prevent dissatisfaction. While few published studies have investigated the impact of job security on teachers' job satisfaction, the current findings are in line with those of Ololube (2006) and Adebayo and Gombakomba (2013), who found job security to be a source of job satisfaction in teachers. The only relevant Saudi study, by Al-Amri (1992), reports similar findings.

### **7.3.2 Factors contributing moderately to job satisfaction**

The following subsections consider factors (Marking pupils' work, Educational system, Supervision and status in society, Workload, Salary and promotion and Student progress) which appear to have contributed moderately to teachers' job satisfaction, or where overall, teachers reported that they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

#### **7.3.2.1 Marking pupils' work/preparation**

This factor, whose two components were marking pupils' work and doing school work at home, was found quantitatively to contribute moderately strongly to teachers' job satisfaction (Table 5.38), with an overall mean score of 3.26. Over half of respondents were satisfied, whereas only a quarter were dissatisfied. However, while nearly two-thirds of teachers were satisfied with marking, less than half were satisfied with working at home.

The qualitative data (section 6.7; Table 6.8) support these findings: three-quarters of interviewees were satisfied with doing duties related directly to teaching itself, such as marking, whether inside or outside the classroom. A possible explanation is that they considered these tasks to be essential and central to a teacher's job. Alternatively, they may have been happy to perform these duties because they were generally satisfied with their work. Thus, Nguni et al. (2006) suggest that satisfied teachers will be more willing to invest extra time and energy in their work and with students, while dissatisfied

teachers were found to be less effective with their students in the classroom (Csikzentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986).

### **7.3.2.2 Educational system**

The educational system, a factor whose three components were length of school holidays, the curriculum, and regulations and educational systems, was found to contribute slightly less than marking and preparation to teachers' satisfaction (Table 5.37): the overall mean score was 3.16, with half of teachers expressing satisfaction and a third being dissatisfied.

Satisfaction was highest for the school holiday component, with a mean score of 3.36 and satisfied participants outnumbering dissatisfied ones by more than two to one. This finding was supported qualitatively, as seven interviewees reported that holidays had a positive impact on their job satisfaction (section 6.3; Table 6.3); a long annual holiday and some short breaks gave them a valuable opportunity to wind down and enjoy themselves after a long and laborious academic year, as well as to prepare for the new year or semester in high spirits. These positive findings are consistent with earlier studies (Bastick, 2000; Kyriacou et al., 1999; Mhozya, 2007; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004) which found that a long annual holiday plus short breaks tended to attract candidates to the teaching profession.

Indeed, it was perhaps surprising that as many as a quarter of participants expressed dissatisfaction with the school holiday component. A possible explanation concerns the recent MoE regulations reducing teachers' annual leave by approximately 2 to 3 weeks. Teachers were required to attend for an additional week after the end of the school year and resume work two weeks before the start of the new one. Their presence during these periods was only a formality, as they were not required to carry out any curricular tasks. Some interviewees complained that the effect was to reduce their holiday entitlement, while too little benefit was gained from their extra time at work; for example, no training programmes or workshops were organised at school during these three weeks. Another partial explanation for some dissatisfaction may be the lack of flexibility available to teachers in deciding the timing of their holidays, compared with employees in other sectors.

The overall quantitative and qualitative finding of a moderately high level of satisfaction with school holidays is consistent with studies by Mhozya (2007) and



Karavas (2010), who found that school holiday arrangements influenced teachers' satisfaction positively. It is also consistent with a Saudi study by Al-Zahrani (1995), who found that a majority of teachers were satisfied with school holidays.

### **7.3.2.3 Supervision and teachers' status in society**

Table 5.39 shows that supervision and social status contributed moderately to teachers' satisfaction, as nearly half were satisfied with this factor and the mean score was 3.11. It is notable that while supervision has often been addressed in previous studies as one factor, it comprised two components in the current study: the educational supervisor and teachers' status in society. As with the salary and promotion factor, this combination can be seen to reflect a characteristic of Saudi education and in particular of the educational supervision system. As supervisors are appointed by the Educational Supervision Centre to visit each school once or twice a year, they are not usually seen in the school environment and do not deal with teachers on a daily basis, possibly leading teachers to see them as members of wider society rather than the school community. However, being aware of the importance of teachers' work, supervisors aim to help them overcome any difficulties they face at work. This may explain how important the role of the supervisor can be in minimising any sense of dissatisfaction among teachers with respect to society's view of the teaching profession. This may account for these two variables being grouped in one factor, although their individual results contrasted strongly.

Educational supervision was among the variables contributing most strongly to teachers' satisfaction: two-thirds of teachers were satisfied with their educational supervisor. This quantitative finding is consistent with published work showing that supervision had a positive impact on teachers' satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2009; Adebayo & Gombakomba, 2013; Cockburn, 2000; John, 1997; Keung-Fai, 1996; Koustelios, 2001; Sargent & Hannum, 2005; Usop et al., 2013). In the Saudi educational context, Al-Amri (1992) and Al-Shrari (2003) also found that teachers were satisfied with their supervision. The qualitative findings (section 6.5.2) support the quantitative ones: two-thirds of interviewees expressed satisfaction with their educational supervisors and suggested that they had good, close relationships with them. Supervisors were said to provide support, assistance and cooperation; they were responsive to teachers' needs; they took care to develop teachers' skills by organising

workshops; and they arranged meetings between teachers, which helped them to share experiences and build relationships with colleagues from other schools.

Such characteristics of supervision have been suggested by several researchers (Folsom & Boulware, 2004; Hsu & Wang, 2008; Ranganayakulu, 2005) to influence job satisfaction positively. The present results can also be viewed in the light of expectancy theory: Vroom (1964) argues that employees derive satisfaction from obtaining what they expect as a result of their efforts at work. Additionally, Herzberg (1957) considers supervision a hygiene factor, reducing dissatisfaction. Finally, the finding of a positive influence of educational supervisors on teachers' satisfaction can be understood, as mentioned earlier, in terms of Saudi society being collectivistic and encouraging interpersonal relationships, of the MoE's recent reforms of the educational supervision system, or of the many in-service supervision training programmes, which may have improved the supervision process, especially the ways in which educational supervisors deal with teachers, as stated in the interviews.

In contrast to the above, both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed a strong dissatisfaction among teachers with their status in society. Table 5.39 shows that more than half of respondents were dissatisfied with this, as were more than two-thirds of interviewees, who felt that the status of the teacher in society was tending to decline, that the importance of their role was being ignored by some members of the public and that they were less well appreciated than they should be (section 6.9), which reduced their job satisfaction. Interview responses suggest a number of contributory factors: the role of the media in highlighting negative issues and focusing on controversial events such as mistakes by individual teachers, the narrow views of many people who perceive only the financial and material aspects of teaching, the fact that teachers lack certain benefits granted to those in other sectors, the lack of a teachers' union, suspicions as to the abilities of teachers and the negative role of the family. Such obstacles appear to have a negative impact on the status of teachers in society and thus on some teachers' satisfaction. In this regard, the Deputy Minister of Education has recently argued (Alonzi, 2012) that teachers are currently socially undervalued compared to their predecessors, partly because of social change and media misrepresentation, and that they need to improve their image in society. The Ministry therefore intends to promote an integrative role between media and education and the Deputy Minister has called for

the launch of a national awareness campaign to highlight the importance of teaching and the value of teachers.

Few studies appear to have considered the effect of social status on teachers' satisfaction, perhaps because this variable is not linked directly to the nature of their work, nor therefore to teacher satisfaction, but is associated with recognition, one of the aspects of job satisfaction dealt with in a number of studies. However, the current findings are in agreement with Siddique et al. (2002), who found that 75% of teachers in Pakistan were dissatisfied with the recognition they received from society. Similar results are reported by Popoola (2009) in Nigeria and by Shah et al. (2012), who report that 65% of teachers in Pakistan expressed dissatisfaction with their social status. In the only equivalent Saudi study, Al-Zahrani (1995) found that the majority of teachers did not feel that society gave them enough recognition, which was a cause of dissatisfaction.

#### **7.3.2.4 Workload and working conditions**

Table 5.34 shows that the workload factor, including working conditions, also contributed moderately to teachers' job satisfaction, with an overall mean score of 3.26: over half of participants expressed their satisfaction with this factor, while fewer than a third were dissatisfied. Similar results were obtained for the core components of general workload and classroom teaching load. This may reflect the recent policy of the MoE to recruit large numbers of additional secondary schoolteachers, thereby reducing the number of lessons taught per week by most teachers; thus, two-thirds of teachers in the current study were found to teach no more than 20 lessons per week, from a possible 24 (section 5.4.6; Table 5.7). Alternatively, it may be that teachers with a high level of satisfaction tend to be more motivated in and engaged with their work (Sargent & Hannum 2005).

Consistent qualitative results were obtained on workload (section 6.7): three-quarters of interviewees expressed their satisfaction with the work assigned to them related to teaching the curriculum itself, such as preparing and delivering lessons, marking homework and arranging and marking exams. However, more than half complained that extracurricular tasks related to out-of-classroom educational activities increased their workload; they also reported that too few places were allocated for such activities, and that there was a lack of resources, equipment and materials for their implementation.

Furthermore, regardless of the intensity of work, it appears that teacher satisfaction may be negatively affected, especially by tasks not related to teaching. Thus, two-thirds of teachers interviewed indicated that their job satisfaction was reduced by being required to perform administrative functions unrelated to their teaching, such as covering absent teachers in lessons unrelated to their own subject, or supervising students during breaks, at prayer and when leaving or arriving at school (Table 6.8).

Butt and Lance (2005) found that the most common cause of excessive workload reported by secondary schoolteachers was the extent of work that they were required to do unrelated to their teaching. Consistent with this, fourteen interviewees complained that such activities not only added to their workload while not being central to their work as teachers, but also might negatively affect student-teacher relationships, since teachers had to act as observers, not educators. Therefore, teachers suggested that schools should employ specialised state supervisors to oversee these activities, as well as improving the conditions in which they were conducted and providing better materials and resources. These suggestions for enhancing teachers' job satisfaction are in line with those of Butt and Lance (2005).

Generally speaking, the findings of the present study suggest that teachers were satisfied with their teaching-related workload, but not with their supplementary workload, so that their overall level of satisfaction was moderate. These findings are consistent with those of a very recent study by Chughati and Perveen (2013), who report that teachers expressed satisfaction with their workload and that private school teachers were more satisfied with regard to the number of teaching hours. Sargent and Hannum (2005) found that teachers with high workloads were more likely to have a high level of satisfaction. Conversely, Ari & Sipal (2009), Chen (2010) and Hean and Garrett (2001) all identify workload as contributing to teachers' dissatisfaction. Among the few Saudi studies exploring this aspect, the current findings are consistent with Al-Obaid (2002), who found that workload contributed to teachers' satisfaction, whereas Al-Shrari (2003) and Al-Gous (2000) found no significant differences in teachers' satisfaction with respect to workload.

As to the working environment, Table 5.34 shows that it contributed positively to teachers' satisfaction, as more than two-thirds were satisfied and the mean was 3.61. This may reflect cooperative and supportive relationships with colleagues and school

principals, with which teachers expressed a high level of satisfaction (section 7.2.1) and which possibly contributed to a good educational atmosphere, improving the working environment by reducing tension in relations within the school.

### **7.3.2.5 Salary and promotion**

Teachers exhibited moderate satisfaction with the Salary and promotion factor; Table 5.31 shows that satisfied teachers slightly outnumbered unsatisfied ones, with a mean score of 2.98. The factor analysis used in this study classifies salary and promotion under one factor, whereas most previous studies of job satisfaction in general and in teachers have treated these components independently. Combining them here is justifiable if one takes into account the direct association between salary and promotion in the Saudi educational system: as noted in chapter 2, when moving from one grade to another, teachers are entitled to no additional benefits beyond an increase in salary. Within this one factor, however, the results for each component differed notably, so each component is now discussed separately.

Salary can be assumed to be a major consideration for anyone seeking employment, being key to their appropriate functioning in the community and contributing greatly to their personal financial standing (Milkovich & Newman, 2008). Nevertheless, as mentioned in the literature review, researchers have published mixed and inconsistent findings concerning the influence of salary on satisfaction at work: some have found it to be a satisfier and others a dissatisfier. The present study found salary to contribute positively to teachers' satisfaction: two-thirds were satisfied with their salary and the mean score was 3.43. The qualitative findings support these quantitative results, indicating that some interviewees saw their salaries as good, high and meeting their needs (sections 6.2 and 6.8). This accords with the literature, which notes that pay is evidently critical for employees to ensure that their financial needs are met (Singh & Loncar, 2010). At the same time, interviewees indicated that their salaries were consistent with the effort that they put into their work and that this positively impacted their job satisfaction. This is in line with equity theory, which states that some individuals can achieve satisfaction when the reward structure is viewed as just (Adam, 1963), while unfair pay is associated with low satisfaction (Sweeney, 1990). Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) views salary as a reward that should relate to

employees' expectations, while Herzberg (1957) has it as a hygiene factor limiting employees' dissatisfaction.

The positive findings of the current study were expected and may be attributed to the fact that teachers in Saudi Arabia receive relatively high salaries compared with employees in other sectors. The government's recent decision to increase teachers' salaries by 15% may also have enhanced participants' satisfaction with salary. It is worth noting that teachers pay no income tax in Saudi Arabia, unlike most other countries where relevant studies have been performed, which may have affected teachers' satisfaction positively. As to the third of respondents who took the contrary view, their dissatisfaction with salary may be interpreted as resulting from the difficulties faced by the MoE in the past, when as mentioned in Chapter Two, a large number of applicants to join the teaching profession, coinciding with budget restrictions, meant that many were employed at relatively low levels, earning less than they felt they deserved. While some of these teachers are now on the appropriate pay scale, others are still waiting to be upgraded.

The present findings are in line with some published studies (e.g. Kearney, 2008; Mora et al., 2007; Siddique et al., 2002; Tickle et al., 2011; Wisniewski, 1990) identifying salary as a factor contributing to teachers' satisfaction. On the other hand, they are inconsistent with others that found teaching salaries to be associated with dissatisfaction, the majority of which were conducted in developing countries (Abdullah et al., 2009; Akiri & Ugborugbo, 2009; Akpofure et al., 2006; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Karavas, 2010; Koustelios, 2001; Ladebo, 2005; Mhozya, 2007; Santhapparaj & Alam, 2005; Ofili et al., 2009; Perrachione et al., 2008). Studies in Arab countries by Olimat (1994) and Ibrahim (2004) found teachers to be only moderately satisfied with their salaries, while El-Sheikh and Salamah (1982) found them to be dissatisfied. As to studies of teachers' job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia, the current findings are consistent with those of Al-Shahrani (2009), Al-Shrari (2003), Al-Thenian (2001) and Al-Zahrani (1995), that teachers were satisfied with their salary, but inconsistent those of Almeili (2006), who found that salary contributed to teachers' job dissatisfaction. The contrasting finding of this last study may be explained by its small sample of 88 teachers, all of science subjects, who would commonly have a degree without an

educational component, thus being entitled to lower salaries than most teachers, with educational degrees.

In contrast to salary, promotion appeared to contribute to teachers' dissatisfaction in the current study: Table 5.31 shows that half of participants were dissatisfied with their promotion opportunities at work. The qualitative findings provide general support for this response, since three-quarters of interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with promotion opportunities (Table 6.9). Many also complained that the job grade system imposed by the Ministry did not help teachers to gain promotion, which suggests that the system does not meet teachers' needs. It comprises five grades, each having 25 levels; teachers are promoted from level to level within the same grade, each year for 25 years, the only effect being that their salary increases annually. In order to be promoted from one grade to another, a teacher has to serve for 25 years or obtain a higher degree. In addition, if a teacher is made head or deputy head teacher of a school, he will still be a teacher with the same remuneration and entitlements.

Some interviewees also complained that the grade system was unfair in making the annual pay rise automatically dependent on service and experience, rather than performance, as this removed any chance of competition and creative performance (section 6.8). Moreover, 22 teachers complained that the system offered no functional benefits. For instance, the activities allocated to all teachers were described as the same, whatever their length of service. Some also complained that the automatic annual salary increase would end after 20 years of service in education. According to these teachers, gaining a higher degree, including a PhD, did not offer them the enhanced promotion opportunities they considered appropriate to such a qualification.

The findings of the present study are consistent with those of studies reported in the literature (e.g. Dinham & Scott, 2000; Karavas, 2010; Keung-Fai, 1996; Koustelios, 2001; Mhozya, 2007; Mkumbo, 2011; Oshagbemi, 1999; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2006) that teachers were dissatisfied with promotion. However, other studies have reported contrary findings, that opportunities for promotion were associated with teacher satisfaction (Abdullah et al., 2009; Achoka et al., 2011; Mwanwenda, 2004; Reddy, 2007; Sirima & Poipoi, 2010). A study making such findings in the Arabian Gulf region was that of El-Sheikh and Salamah (1982), but the results of the present study are consistent with those of two studies set in Saudi Arabia, in which Al-Zahrani

(1995) and Al-Hazmi (2007) found that the majority of teachers were dissatisfied with their promotion opportunities.

### **7.3.2.6 Student progress**

The quantitative phase of the current study found students' progress to be a factor contributing moderately to teachers' satisfaction (Table 5.33): more were dissatisfied than satisfied, and the overall mean score was 2.89. As to the component variables, more than half of teachers expressed dissatisfaction with students' achievement and motivation to learn, while on student behaviour, their responses were almost equally divided between satisfied and dissatisfied. However, the qualitative phase found that the students' progress factor contributed to teachers' dissatisfaction, since between half and two-thirds of interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with students' motivation, behaviour and achievement respectively (Table 6.7). Any inconsistency between the quantitative and qualitative findings may be attributed to the difference in sample sizes between the two phases.

The qualitative results revealed that low motivation among students was one of the factors contributing most strongly to teacher dissatisfaction with their students, being mentioned by two-thirds of interviewees (section 6.6). There was evidence in the qualitative findings collated from the interviews suggesting that teachers were unhappy with the typically low level of motivation of students. It was perceived that students did not pay adequate attention when carrying out class activities, were not interested when given homework and prepared poorly for exams where they were expected to achieve high grades. In addition, some students tended to ignore the value and importance of academic attainment and knowledge, seeming to limit their efforts to gaining a higher secondary school certificate. They saw this as sufficient, as they aspired to careers that did not require the achievement of high graduation marks. Such behaviour is likely to play a major role in creating a state of frustration among teachers, thus contributing to increased levels of dissatisfaction, as stated in some interviews.

Interestingly, the results indicate that teachers in Saudi Arabia still face an uphill task in terms of steering their students' attention and efforts towards achieving a reasonable academic level through which they can successfully progress to the next stage and beyond. This is despite the widely held belief that secondary schooling is one of the most important stages in students' academic careers, as it plays a significant role in



determining their vocational and professional future. Approximately a third of teachers interviewed expressed their dissatisfaction with students' low achievement, opining that it did not reflect the efforts exerted by the teacher, either in lesson preparation or in delivering and explaining the subject content in class.

The dissatisfaction among teachers with student motivation and achievement seems to conflict with the argument of Karavas (2010) that students' motivation is one of the major responsibilities of the teacher, who should routinely identify means to raise and maintain student motivation and attention. However, in the Saudi educational context, boosting students' motivation and creating more positive attitudes in order to improve their level of achievement does not seem easy for teachers in the light of the challenges with which they have to contend, including large class sizes, overcrowding, limited access to technology and the lack of assistance and support from students' families. For example, two-thirds of teachers interviewed (section 6.5.4; Figure 6.4) were dissatisfied with the students' parents in this respect. They identified a number of factors leading to this dissatisfaction, including the apparent absence of a solid relationship between parents and teachers. In addition, they thought that parents did not pay enough attention to their children's academic achievement and misapprehended the teacher's role.

With regard to student behaviour, the qualitative data provide strong evidence (Table 6.7; sections 6.2 and 6.6) of the extent to which teachers were dissatisfied with the high occurrence of misconduct such as sleeping during lessons, about which more than half of interviewees complained, saying that such students would come to school without ensuring that they had had adequate sleep and rest at home. Such challenges faced by some Saudi teachers may reflect the weakness of relationships between schools and families, and the lack of parental cooperation and involvement with the education system. Other challenges which teachers said they faced when attempting to manage students and prepare them for lessons included poor attendance and talking to fellow students during lessons.

In this context, it should be noted that notwithstanding the efforts of the MoE to enhance the learning process in general and provide support for teachers to improve their performance in particular, as mentioned in Chapter Two, it has failed to recognise increased classroom overcrowding as one of the most important obstacles to effective teaching. Thus, a third of teachers interviewed seemed dissatisfied with the large class

sizes, sometimes reaching 40 or 50 students. Such large student numbers could restrict the ability of the teacher to control and maintain the behaviour of students, drain his energy and divert valuable learning time to class management and addressing behavioural issues. Therefore, in order to create a healthy and successful educational environment, class sizes should be reduced to an acceptable level (Almoghrabi, 2010; Alotaibi, 2012). A study by Perrachione et al. (2008) found that smaller class sizes can contribute to job satisfaction among teachers, whereas increasing the number of students reduces levels of teacher job satisfaction. Michaelowa (2002) also showed that teachers seemed to be less satisfied with their jobs when they had to be responsible for larger classes, confirming the findings of a study by Al-Mansour (1970). This may also be related to the finding (discussed in section 7.3.3.1) that the in-service training programmes available to Saudi teachers did not meet their needs, including in this case a need to learn how to deal with students' misbehaviour and how to control a crowded classroom.

The findings of the current study seem to agree with previous studies reported in the literature that the behaviour of students can have a negative impact on teachers' job satisfaction. For example, Perrachione et al. (2008) found that student behaviour, overcrowded classrooms and the absence of support from students' parents can affect teachers' level of satisfaction. They are also consistent with the findings of Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) that teachers' dissatisfaction can be attributed to students' lack of motivation and undesirable behaviour, and that teachers felt disappointed by their students' failure or bad behaviour. Conversely, Perie and Baker (1997) concluded that there were higher levels of teacher job satisfaction in schools where student misbehaviour, lack of interest and violent behaviour were not evident. Likewise, teachers who stated that student misconduct did not impact on their teaching seemed to have higher levels of satisfaction. In the Saudi educational context, Al-Obaid (2002) found that one of the most significant factors leading to dissatisfaction among teachers was student behaviour.

### **7.3.3 Staff development: a factor contributing to job dissatisfaction**

Staff development can be vital for improving and maintaining the efficiency of teachers, new or expert; in successful organizations, employees feel appreciated and believe that they have opportunities for growth and development (Forde et al., 2006; Shann, 1998).

Opportunities for personal growth and development are thus an important facet of job satisfaction (Butt & Lance, 2005; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). However, Table 5.30 shows that the current study found teachers' professional development and growth opportunities to be the only factor that contributed to their dissatisfaction, the mean score being 2.47. More than half were dissatisfied with this factor overall, while fewer than a quarter were satisfied. Among its components, more than two-thirds were unhappy with the support they received in order to improve their teaching, while more than half were dissatisfied with the training opportunities offered. This suggests that the MoE training programmes do not meet teachers' needs. Teachers were also dissatisfied with their schools' ICT facilities and with classroom facilities and resources. These findings are in line with reports in the literature that teachers were dissatisfied with their professional growth and development opportunities (Chen, 2010; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Scott et al., 1999). Similarly, Karavas (2010) found that half of teachers surveyed were dissatisfied with both the quality and quantity of professional development opportunities available to them.

The present qualitative findings are consistent with the quantitative ones in that two-thirds of teachers interviewed were dissatisfied with in-service training (Table 6.4), despite the range of training programmes offered by the MoE intended to keep them abreast of the changing requirements of the profession and of relevant teaching methods. This discrepancy may be attributed to the shortcomings of these programmes identified by more than half of teachers interviewed (section 6.4.1). These participants said that training failed to meet their specialist needs adequately and that some course content was difficult to apply in the real school environment, especially in crowded classrooms lacking ICT facilities. Another reason for the failure of the training courses to meet their requirements was that teachers were not involved in their design. Thus, Redman and Wilkinson (2002) argue that training programmes can waste time and money if not prepared carefully and in accordance with the organization's objectives and trainees' individual needs. Another weakness of training courses, mentioned by a third of interviewees, was that rather than qualified trainers, courses were commonly delivered by educational supervisors, school principals and experienced teachers, who might not have the specialized training skills to do so effectively. Others complained that the timing and duration of training programmes were inappropriate and that incentives for attendance were lacking.

The present study also found that three-fifths of teachers were dissatisfied with the opportunity to pursue advanced degrees, while half were dissatisfied with the financial support available to them to attend non-ministry educational development programmes (Table 5.30). This finding was expected, since the training available to teachers is usually limited to programmes provided by the General Administration of Educational Training. This suggests that the lack of alternatives available to teachers affected their satisfaction negatively. The opportunities in Saudi Arabia to attend educational events or to obtain a scholarship to pursue higher degree courses are often available only to supervisors, so that teachers who wish to study will have to apply for unpaid leave and bear all expenses themselves. This may have negatively influenced participants' satisfaction with regard to their self-development. Scholars have argued that the development and growth of teachers should not be limited to training programmes provided by employers, but should comprise a variety of courses. Mohan (2007) suggests that teachers should attend conferences, seminars and workshops to maintain essential contact with recent developments and pursue higher qualifications to continue learning. Similarly, Sharma and Jyoti (2006) argue that providing teachers with a range of academic courses, training and personal development programmes can help them to fulfil both their physical and psychological needs, thus enhancing their job satisfaction.

An interesting apparent contradiction in the findings of the present study was that around three-quarters of teachers had undergone training programmes (Tables 5.9 and 6.4), but that a majority were still not satisfied with training opportunities. One possible explanation is that some teachers attended training because it gave them a good opportunity to exchange experiences, knowledge and opinions on their teaching and on the educational process in general with others having different lengths of experience, as indicated by over half of interviewees. In this regard, Majgaard and Mingat (2012) state that in-service teacher training courses provide the opportunity to meet other teachers and share experiences, which helps teachers to remain motivated and increases their job satisfaction. Another possible explanation is suggested by the finding that more than half of interviewees participated in courses in order to obtain attendance certificates, which they could add to their CVs and work profiles. Moreover, despite the failures and criticisms raised by teachers during interviews, these courses sometimes have a positive side, including in updating teachers' general educational knowledge, which probably goes some way to meeting their needs in this respect.

A review of the literature indicates that few studies appear have examined the effect of training on teachers' satisfaction. However, the current findings are in line with those of Hean and Garrett (2001), who found that poor in-service training was a primary source of teachers' dissatisfaction and suggest that providing teachers with better in-service training programmes might improve satisfaction levels. By contrast, Kumar and Misra (2009) found that teachers who had training were significantly more satisfied than those who had not. The only relevant study identified as having taken place in Saudi Arabia (Al-Obaidi, 2002) found that female teachers were less satisfied with training than with other satisfaction factors.

With regard to teaching facilities, especially ICT, the qualitative findings support the quantitative ones: over three-quarters of interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with the teaching facilities in their schools; they complained that ICT facilities were unavailable in ordinary classrooms, that the computers and other ICT devices in the resources room were insufficient for the needs even of the students in one class, let alone the whole school, that computers were old and poorly maintained, that there was a lack of current technology and of internet access, an inadequate range of up-to-date materials and books in school libraries and a shortage of some basic materials in science and language laboratories (Table 6.5; section 6.4.2). This may indicate that even where teachers had attended training courses, they considered the shortcomings of school ICT facilities to be an important obstacle to using new teaching methods, developing their teaching skills or applying what they had learned. Moreover, the current study found the limited availability of ICT and particularly Internet access in schools to be one reason why participants' job satisfaction had declined since they began teaching, given that the use of ICT was increasingly essential to teaching, as four interviewees asserted (Table 6.2; section 6.2). These findings are consistent with those of Abraham et al. (2012) and Schneider (2003), who report that insufficient facilities influenced teachers' satisfaction negatively. Bingimlas (2009) suggests that teachers' satisfaction can be increased by making available adequate ICT facilities which they have the ability to use.

In brief, it can be concluded that the quantitative and qualitative findings clearly reflect teachers' dissatisfaction with their personal and professional development, which might be addressed by introducing more alternative opportunities for growth and

personal development, improving the quality of training programmes and providing schools with better teaching resources and ICT facilities.

#### **7.4 General Motivation**

The above two sections have discussed job satisfaction and its components; this section addresses the third research question: *What is the overall general level of motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?* The quantitative results set out in section 5.8.4 (Table 5.40) show that the mean score for the three items used to measure the general level of participants' motivation was 3.75, indicating a high level of general motivation. Although overall motivation when measured by the mean score for the combined intrinsic/altruistic and extrinsic factors (see section 7.5) was a little lower at 3.35, the study found a general tendency for teachers to be highly motivated in their work.

In terms of the three items used to measure overall motivation, almost three-quarters of participants indicated that they were generally motivated to do their jobs, while four-fifths claimed to work hard. This suggests that highly motivated teachers were likely to work particularly hard on behalf of their students. Indeed, the qualitative findings provide evidence with respect to the extra effort that teachers were prepared to make; for instance, some indicated in interview that they would sometimes spend additional time with their students in order to maximise the benefit to them. Some interviewees indicated that they would sometimes provide extra explanations to ensure that students understood the lessons, whether in the classroom or outside school hours (section 6.10.1). These findings are consistent with reports in the literature: Halepota (2005) and Shaari et al. (2002) note that highly motivated individuals are more likely to work conscientiously and well.

The current findings suggest further that highly motivated teachers would rather remain in teaching than change to another job. Several published studies (e.g. Roness, 2011; Wadsworth, 2001) have found that the majority of motivated teachers stated that they would choose teaching if they were to begin a new job, indicating a preference to remain in the teaching profession, while in the current study, more than half of respondents stated that they would rather teach than change to another job, as against only a fifth who responded negatively.

Similarly, the positive findings of the current study regarding the overall level of motivation among teachers are generally in line with those of previous studies. For example, Shaari et al. (2002) surveyed 245 secondary school teachers and found that their overall level of job motivation was high, 85% of the sample being highly motivated, while Eres (2011) found that 65% of teachers were generally well-motivated in their work. Further agreement comes from a recent study by Recepoglu (2013), which also found teachers to have a high level of motivation. However, findings contrary to those of the current study were reported in an Arab country by Al-Habsi (2009), who found Omani teachers' motivation to be generally low. The researcher has been unable to identify an equivalent study of the overall level of teachers' motivation in Saudi Arabia; the only two studies of motivation in Saudi teachers, by Al-Jasser (2003) and Shoaib (2004), were concerned with motivation factors alone.

This section has discussed the generally high levels of motivation among teachers participating in this study; the next considers the factors influencing these levels.

## **7.5 Factors Influencing Teachers' Motivation**

This section addresses the fourth research question: *What are the main factors affecting motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?* As with satisfaction, in order to determine which factors contributed most to teachers' motivation, factor analysis was used to reduce the large number of variables represented in the questionnaire instrument to two main motivation factors, labelled 'intrinsic/altruistic' and 'extrinsic' (section 5.7; Tables 5.25-5.27). This categorisation is consistent with studies reported in the literature, classifying teachers' professional motives as altruistic, intrinsic and extrinsic (e.g. Bastick, 2000; Evans, 1998; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Karavas, 2010; Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Roness, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Watt et al., 2012; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). In the present study, a third factor, religion, emerged from the qualitative data. The combined findings reveal that these three factors affected teachers' motivation to varying degrees; in short, teachers tended to be more motivated by the intrinsic/altruistic factor than the extrinsic and religious ones. The quantitative results show them to be strongly influenced by intrinsic/altruistic motivation, with a mean score of 3.8, while the mean score for extrinsic motivation was close to the neutral value of 3, indicating a moderate influence (Tables 5.41-5.42). The qualitative data (Table

6.11) were consistent with these findings: two-thirds of interviewees were motivated by intrinsic elements and more than half by altruism, while fewer than half appeared to be influenced by extrinsic motivation and fewer than one-third by religious motivation.

The quantitative and qualitative findings with respect to these factors are discussed in turn in the following sections, beginning with the strongest influence on teachers' motivation.

### **7.5.1 Intrinsic and altruistic motivation**

Intrinsic and altruistic motivation have an important influence on people at work, according to numerous studies of the motivation of employees in general and of teachers in particular. Many researchers (e.g. Hettiarachchi, 2013; Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Roness, 2011; Wadsworth, 2001; Watt et al., 2012) report that altruistic and intrinsic motivation are the factors most strongly motivating people to join the teaching profession, while studies of teachers' in-career motivation show that they remain the most influential in motivating them to continue teaching (e.g. Dinham & Scott, 1996; Hellsten & Prytula, 2011; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Shoaib, 2004). The current finding that intrinsic/altruistic motivation was the most influential motivating factor, ahead of external motivation and religion, is wholly consistent with these prior reports. Indeed, the quantitative findings listed in Table 5.41 show that two-thirds of questionnaire respondents were motivated by intrinsic and altruistic considerations, while the interview data, as noted above, were more or less identical in terms of intrinsic motivation but differed slightly in one respect, i.e. that only a little more than half of interviewees appeared to be motivated by altruism.

As to the ranking of the individual aspects of the intrinsic/altruistic factor in terms of their impact on teachers' motivation, the quantitative results shown in Table 5.41 place 'contributing to a better society' first, followed by 'wanting to help students to succeed' and 'using my professional knowledge and expertise'. The mean scores for all three items were close to 4, and in each case three-quarters of respondents declared the item to be very motivating or extremely motivating. Two further themes emerged from the interviews as being important to teachers' intrinsic motivation: responsibility and feelings of success. These five elements of intrinsic/altruistic motivation are now discussed in turn.



The quantitative finding that contributing to a better society was the most strongly motivating item among the six comprising intrinsic/altruistic motivation is supported by the qualitative data; as reported in section 6.10.2, twelve interviewees expressed their desire to contribute to the development of society, while some teachers stated that the country had given them a lot and that it was now their turn to contribute to its growth. These findings might be interpreted as indicating that these participants saw the teaching profession as one of the most appropriate ways for them to fulfil their desire to contribute to the development of society by preparing a generation of good citizens. This interpretation is very closely aligned to the suggestion of Hartney (2006) that altruism seems to lie behind teachers' professional motivation, as they may consider teaching to be the most effective way for them to make a contribution to their respective communities. They may also view their profession as rich in knowledge that should be shared with others; most importantly, they may see it as a valued opportunity to contribute to the shaping of future generations. Similarly, Hean and Garrett (2001) found that contributing to society and future generations was the factor most strongly motivating teachers, while other studies (Al-Mansour, 1970; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Roness, 2011; Watt et al., 2012) identify the desire to make a contribution to society as motivating people to become teachers.

The desire to help students to succeed was found quantitatively to be almost exactly as strongly motivating for teachers as the wish to contribute to a better society, as Table 5.41 shows. Qualitatively, almost as many interviewees (eleven, rather than twelve) spoke of being motivated by a desire to help students to achieve success and of striving to introduce some positive changes into their lives. Again, this is in line with the literature: Bernhardt (2012) states that teachers who are altruistically motivated consider teaching to be a career with a high social value and that they have a real desire for a positive influence on the progress and development of young people. The current findings are also consistent with Shoaib (2004), who found that teachers were mostly motivated by working with students, educating them about issues affecting their lives.

Teachers responding to the questionnaire also found using their professional knowledge and expertise to be strongly motivating. Indeed, Table 5.41 shows that if those who responded 'moderately motivating' are included, this item received the largest number of positive responses of all the six contributing to the intrinsic/altruistic

motivation of teachers. This result might be interpreted as showing that respondents viewed teaching as the right job for them, where they had the opportunity to use and share their professional knowledge, whether with colleagues or students. In Saudi Arabia this applies particularly at the secondary stage, where teachers teach a specialist subject, whereas at elementary school they commonly teach subjects other than their specialism, which may be of less interest. In this respect, this finding corresponds closely to that of Ryan and Deci (2000) that intrinsic motivation can be present in the association between people and actions. As such, individuals are intrinsically motivated to perform some activities but not others, while not every person is intrinsically motivated to perform any specific activity. Another possible explanation is that the teachers viewed their professional requirement to keep up with all new developments in their specialty and in the field of teaching in general as encouraging them to learn and to enable their students to benefit from the knowledge that they gained.

As noted in section 6.10.1, the interview data revealed two further themes related to intrinsic motivation, namely responsibility and feelings of success, both of which influenced teachers' motivation positively. The literature review identified several studies showing that responsibility made a significant contribution to both satisfaction and motivation in teachers (Dinham & Scott, 1996; 2000; Sergiovanni, 1967; Shoaib, 2004), while in the current study, a third of interviewees were found to be intrinsically motivated by responsibility. This sense of responsibility was seen to be related to a desire to achieve their learning objectives with respect to their students' achievements. Some interviewees indicated that they were motivated by delivering the lessons so as to provide knowledge, being solely responsible for ensuring the delivery of such subject knowledge to the students. This is consistent with Shoaib's (2004) identification of an aspect of intrinsic motivation in the teaching career, when teachers themselves feel that they are responsible for the tasks they have to perform and thus for everything that is linked to those tasks.

Although fewer interviewees referred to a feeling of success as an intrinsic aspect of their work contributing to their motivation, it is noteworthy that six of the 32 said that they felt successful and proud of the fact that they saw students improving and making academic progress during the school year. They were also motivated by the career success of their former students. A possible interpretation is that the success of the

students may have reflected positively on teachers' feelings about the outcome of their work and its impact on their students; therefore, the teachers may have felt happy and successful in achieving their goals in teaching. This finding of the influence of students on teachers' motivation is consistent with several studies in the literature, which have reported that students have a significant influence on teachers' motivation (Addison & Brundrett, 2008; Dinham & Scott, 1996; 1999; 2000; El-Sheikh and Salamah, 1982; Evans, 1997; Eres, 2011; Hean & Garrett, 2001; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Karavas, 2010; Perrachione et al., 2008; Shoaib, 2004).

### **7.5.2 Extrinsic motivation**

The second strongest motivating factor identified by the current study is extrinsic motivation, which, as defined by Ryan and Deci (2000), refers "to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (p.55). Several studies have reported that extrinsic motivation has an influence on teachers' motivation (e.g. Addison & Brundrett, 2008; Dinham & Scott, 2000; Eres, 2011; Hellsten & Prytula, 2011). Some have found it to have motivated teachers to join the teaching profession (e.g. Bastick, 2000; Karavas, 2010; Yong, 1995; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). As to the current study, the quantitative data indicate that extrinsic motivation contributed to the motivation of questionnaire respondents, but only moderately, i.e. less so than the intrinsic/altruistic factor discussed above, which supports the contention that extrinsic factors motivate teachers less than intrinsic and altruistic ones.

The difference in strength between these two main factors is borne out by a comparison of the data in Tables 5.41 and 5.42, which show overall mean scores for the six intrinsic and altruistic items of 3.8, against 2.9 for the three extrinsic items. As to the components of extrinsic motivation, working conditions and salary had almost identical means of 3.12 and 3.10 respectively, while recognition and status in society scored lowest of all motivation components, with a mean of 2.75. These findings are supported by the qualitative data, in that only 13 of the 32 teachers interviewed reported that extrinsic factors contributed positively to their motivation. It is worth noting that some of these respondents mentioned extrinsic factors together with altruistic and intrinsic ones as motivating them.

Salary was considered very or extremely motivating by well under half (40.7%) of respondents (Table 5.42), a result supported by only nine of the 32 interviewees

identifying salary as an incentive. This suggests that Saudi teachers do not give high priority to extrinsic motivation at work. In this regard, while it is true that teachers receive a much higher salary than the majority of other Saudi workers, that they have enjoyed a recent increase of 15%, as mentioned in Chapter Two, and that two-thirds of teachers expressed satisfaction with their salaries (section 7.3.5), there does not seem to be an impact on their motivation at work commensurate with the financial benefits granted to them. This low priority for salary as a motivational factor reinforces the conclusion that participants in the present study were predominantly motivated by intrinsic and altruistic variables over extrinsic ones. For instance, a good salary and a pay rise can be seen as signs of recognition, with three interviewees (section 6.10.3) ascribing their motivation not merely to the financial package itself, but more interestingly to the moral value assigned to it. Having a highly paid job not only represents for teachers the respect of the community, but also gives them a sense of advantage in comparison to other professions. This reflects the interest and appreciation shown by the government towards teachers, which appears to have the indirect effect of increasing their motivation. It could be that money is not as necessary for these teachers as is normally the case with most people. The interview findings suggest that teachers were preoccupied with other issues that in their opinion were more important than financial gain, demonstrating their susceptibility to intrinsic rather than extrinsic factors.

These findings are consistent with those of a study by Hellsten and Prytula (2011), who report that teachers were motivated by several factors including their salary and benefits. They are also very much in line with a study conducted in Saudi Arabia by Shoaib (2004), showing that salary was one of the extrinsic factors motivating teachers but that it was not significantly influential, affecting teachers' motivation less than a number of other influences. Although nearly two-thirds of the thirty teachers in her study reported that their salaries were adequate or high, fewer than half of that number stated that the salary had a positive impact on their motivation at work.

As with the salary component, the qualitative results of the current study support the quantitative finding that working conditions had a moderately positive influence on the motivation of teachers: only eight of the 32 interviewees indicated that these motivated them (section 6.10.3). Furthermore, the interviews provided evidence as to what aspects of working conditions teachers perceived as motivating. The first was the convenience

of the teaching hours, from 7.00 am until midday or 1.00 pm, a shorter working day than most other jobs, as well as being in keeping with respondents' family and personal circumstances, according to five of them. This is consistent with reports in the literature (e.g. Addison & Brundrett, 2008; Al-Habsi, 2009) that long working hours had a negative influence on teachers' motivation. The second motivating aspect of working conditions was the annual school holidays, seen as a distinctive feature of the teaching profession and mentioned by a quarter of the interviewees. This result was not surprising, as the school holidays are identified in the literature as one of the extrinsic factors motivating teachers and attracting graduates to join the profession (e.g. Bastick, 2000; Kyriacou & Benmansour, 1999; Mhozya, 2007).

As noted above, recognition and the status of the teacher in society made the smallest contribution to motivation identified in the current study, with a mean score of only 2.75 for this item (Table 5.42). This is consistent with the finding of the current study on satisfaction, discussed in section 7.3.3, that more than half of teachers were dissatisfied with the status of teachers in society. Given the declining social position of teachers for a number of reasons mentioned in that discussion, it may be that the current recognition and status accorded to teachers in Saudi society are insufficient to contribute positively to their overall motivation at work. This is again consistent with reports in the literature that the status of teachers in society in the majority of developing countries and in some developed ones is perceived to have decreased somewhat within the last few years and that their social status has been shown to demotivate teachers (Bennell, 2004; Hettiarachchi, 2013). The current findings share some ground with Adelabu (2005), whose study in Nigeria found that teachers had poor motivation and were dissatisfied, a major factor being their low social status. Note that while teachers in the present study gave priority to intrinsic and altruistic factors as contributing to their motivation at work, this does not mean that one should pay no attention to the improvement of their status, to make them feel valued and respected by members of the broader society, which might eventually influence their motivation positively.

Finally, the interview data revealed an additional theme to add to the three components of extrinsic motivation identified from the questionnaire survey, which was that of relationships with colleagues and the administration, mentioned by three interviewees (section 6.10.3). This can be understood in the light of two features of

Saudi society: being more collectivistic and encouraging interpersonal relationships, both among colleagues and between employees and employers. It is notable in this context that the current study found interpersonal relationships to be the factor contributing most strongly to teachers' satisfaction (section 7.2.1.1). These findings are consistent with other studies of Saudi education by Al- Jasser (2003) and Shoaib (2004), who found such relationships to be one of the most important factors motivating teachers.

### **7.5.3 The religious factor**

In addition to the intrinsic/altruistic and extrinsic factors addressed above, religion emerged from the qualitative phase of the current study as a third significant factor affecting teachers' motivation. It is worth reiterating that the official religion of Saudi Arabia is Islam, whose tenets are given legal force by the Kingdom's constitution and legislation. Islamic teachings are thus at the heart of the community and of the education system. Analysis of the interview data (section 6.10.4) shows religion to be a factor contributing to teachers' motivation. Nine of the 32 interviewees reported that it played an important role in motivating them to work, since they saw it as providing an incentive and an encouragement for Muslims to be high achievers, as Allah will raise their status to that of pious worshippers. Muslims thus see work as an act of worship and obedience to their Lord, leading them to strive to gain rewards both in this life and in the hereafter. Some interviewees indicated that their motivation at work was related to the hope of divine reward. In his classification of types of motivation, Alnghimshi (2003) places religious motivation under "afterlife motivation", related to the spiritual needs of the individual, such as the religious, ritual and moral aspects, which he considers among the strongest motives and highest in status.

In addition to the concept of work as worship, Islam can also be seen as providing encouragement for believers to approach job-related tasks positively. For Muslims, it is important that employees perform to the best of their abilities to meet the requirements of their work in order to ensure that their contributions are of a high standard, both from a professional perspective and more importantly from a religious one. The idea of faithfulness is at the heart of Islamic moral behaviour; therefore, it is essential for a Muslim seeking a halal (literally, 'permissible', i.e. morally legitimate) income to perform to the best of his/her ability in order to earn a well-deserved salary. Three

interviewees stated that they received inspiration from the belief that if they performed well, they would have done their part in being self-accountable in this life, before being held accountable in the hereafter. As such, interviewees' identification of religion as a motivating factor may be ascribed to their high religious and moral values associated with work; they appear to have seen their religion as a major driving force, reflected positively in their achievement. The pleasure derived from this achievement may in turn have increased their desire and motivation to work.

No previous study appears to have identified a religious factor in teachers' motivation, with the exception of Convey (2010), whose investigation of teachers' motivation and job satisfaction in US Catholic elementary and secondary schools concludes that religion was the most important motivating factor. Slightly more than half of participants reported that their selection of a teaching job was underpinned by their religious convictions and reported a high level of job satisfaction because of this choice.

## **7.6 The Relationship of General Job Satisfaction to Motivation**

This section addresses the fifth research question: *“Is there a relationship between general job satisfaction and motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia?”* The concepts of satisfaction and motivation appear related and can be difficult to differentiate, with the terms sometimes being used interchangeably in the literature (Addison & Brundrett, 2008). However, there is a clear distinction, addressed in Chapter Three, and a relationship which content theories see as direct, while process theories see it as indirect (Mullins, 2005).

As to the current study, Table 5.44 shows a matrix of one-tailed Pearson correlations between general satisfaction and the general, extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions of motivation, which were found respectively to be strongly, relatively strongly and less strongly correlated. This finding of a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and motivation is consistent with published reports of such relationships (e.g. Mertler, 2002; Mukherjee, 2005; Mullins, 2005; Sargent & Hannum, 2005). In the educational context, Karsli & Iskender (2009) found that teachers who were highly motivated expressed higher levels of job satisfaction than colleagues with low motivation. The current findings are also in line with Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), who found that teachers' satisfaction was subject to factors which could have

motivated them to choose a teaching career and that teachers who wanted to teach were more satisfied than those pressurised by their families to teach. No prior research appears to have investigated the relationship between satisfaction and motivation in Saudi teachers.

## **7.7 Demographic Variables**

The final research question was: *“Do job satisfaction and motivation vary in terms of demographic variables such as age, qualifications, job grade, length of experience, length of service at present school, subject taught and training?”* To address this, one-way ANOVA was used to detect any statistically significant differences among teachers in general job satisfaction and motivation according to the following seven demographic variables, i.e. personal characteristics and background factors: age, qualifications, job grade, general teaching experience, length of service, subject taught and training. An LSD test was used when the F value of the ANOVA was significant at the .05 level, in order to determine which of the groups differed. The following subsections consider these variables in turn.

### **7.7.1 Age**

As discussed in Chapter Three, studies reported in the literature have disagreed as to the relationship between age and job satisfaction, showing no consensus on the shape of the association between these two variables, which has been found variously to be positively linear, negatively linear and U-shaped, while other studies have found no significant relationship. Indeed, the current study found teachers' age to have no significant relationship with their general job satisfaction or motivation. This finding is consistent with that of Crossman and Harris (2006), who report that secondary school teachers in the United Kingdom did not differ significantly in their job satisfaction in relation to their age. Similarly, Perrachione et al. (2008), Ladebo (2005), Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), Castillo et al. (1999), Oshagbemi (1997) and Dinham and Scott (1996) found no significant association between age and job satisfaction in teachers.

However, the present findings are not consistent with those reporting that teachers' age did have a significant relationship with job satisfaction, such as Abraham et al. (2012), Hellsten and Prytula (2011), Akhtar et al. (2010), Demirta (2010), Abdullah et al. (2009), Crossman and Harris (2006), Koustelios (2001), Oshagbemi (2000), Bishay (1996), Keung-Fai (1996) and Olimat (1994).



In the context of Saudi Arabia, Al-Tayyar (2005) and Al-Huwaji (1997) report findings similar to that of the present study, indicating no significant relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and their age, whereas Al-Qahtani (2002), Al-Gous (2000), Al-Thenian (2001) and Al-Moamar (1993) found a significant correlation, with older teachers being more satisfied with their jobs than younger ones. Thus, as Spector (1997) suggests, the relationship between age and job satisfaction remains uncertain.

### **7.7.2 Qualifications**

In contrast to age, the present study found significant inverse relationships of general job satisfaction and motivation with level of qualifications (section 5.8.9.2; tables 5.46, 5.47 and 5.48). Teachers with a doctorate were less satisfied than those holding only a bachelor's or a master's degree, while respondents with a PhD showed less motivation than those with a bachelor's degree; however, there was no significant difference in motivation between bachelor's and master's degrees.

These findings of correlations of qualifications with satisfaction and with motivation are unsurprising and can be explained with reference to the interview findings (section 6.2). Some interviewees stated that they felt less satisfied after obtaining a higher degree, which suggests that when teachers with higher degrees, especially PhDs, returned to work after receiving their postgraduate award, they had to face the reality that their actual jobs might not be wholly appropriate to their level of experience and newly acquired qualifications. Respondents also complained that the MoE paid inadequate attention to this issue and that there was no clear mechanism for the Ministry to take full advantage of the postgraduate academic market. These teachers may also have sensed a lack of incentives for their expertise, as they were unlikely to receive further benefits, whether in their salaries or in terms of their job, status or promotion. It can be said that as soon as teachers in Saudi Arabia succeed in obtaining higher degrees, they experience an incompatibility between their aspirations or expectations and the reality of their work, which may influence their satisfaction negatively. According to Munoz de Bustillo and Macias (2005), "The key to job satisfaction is, in fact, in the fit between the objective conditions of the job and the worker's expectations" (p.663), while Bennell and Akyeamong (2007) suggest that less well-qualified teachers tend to have lower expectations of their work and thus higher levels of job satisfaction than more highly qualified ones.

The findings of the current study are also consistent with equity theory (Adams, 1963), according to which an individual evaluates his/her job in terms of the ratio between inputs, such as academic qualifications, and outputs, including salary, recognition and promotion, compared to the ratio of other employees. Where there is imbalance between these ratios or where less reward is obtained for similar inputs, the employee is likely to experience inequity and consequent dissatisfaction with work. S/he may respond by leaving the field in order to minimise inequity.

Thus, highly qualified teachers are likely to be relatively dissatisfied with their jobs and may seek job opportunities other than teaching which they see as more rewarding and commensurate with their academic qualifications. In this regard, a Saudi newspaper, *Al-Iktisadiyya* (2010), reports:

The Ministry of Education revealed the loss of 300 teachers employed in public education to other sectors. The Ministry attributed their decision for leaving , especially concerning MA and PhD holders, to a search for better job opportunities at a number of sought-after universities.

Another Saudi newspaper, *Al-Watan* (2008), refers to the frustration of a number of highly qualified teachers, reporting that more than 200 academic members of staff had left the ministry to work for universities and private sector institutions. The newspaper also notes that the best job opportunities offered by the ministry failed to meet the expectations of returning postgraduates.

The findings of the present study seem to be consistent with those reported in the literature, such as by Michaelowa (2002), who found that teachers' satisfaction decreased once when they achieved higher qualifications. Authors including Akhtar et al. (2010), Abd-El-Fattah (2010), Akiri and Ugborugbo (2009), Abdullah et al. (2009), Michaelowa (2002), Khleel and Sharer (2007), Ibrahim (2004), Olimat (1994) and Ghazali (1979) also report a significant relationship between job satisfaction and qualifications, whereby teachers with higher qualifications are less likely to be satisfied.

Notwithstanding the large body of evidence of such a negative relationship between job satisfaction and qualifications in teachers, a few studies have found no significant relationship: Perrachione et al. (2008), Mora et al. (2007) and Castillo et al. (1999). The few relevant studies set in Saudi Arabia are somewhat more equally divided between those reporting a significant relationship between the two variables (Al-Thenian, 2001; Al-Shbehi (1998) and those which found none: Almeili (2006), Al-Tayyar (2005). It

should be noted that each of these last two studies sampled fewer than 90 teachers, that all of these were teachers of science (Almeili, 2006) or psychology (Al-Tayyar, 2005) and that neither study had more than five teachers with a master's degree in its sample. These limitations may help to explain the inconsistency with the current results.

### **7.7.3 Experience and length of service**

The present study found significant differences in general job satisfaction and motivation among teachers based on the number of years for which they had been teachers (section, 5.8.9.4; tables 5.50, 5.51, 5.52), but this relationship was more complex than for level of qualifications, producing a roughly U-shaped curve. The detailed quantitative findings were that teachers with over 16 years of experience in education were more satisfied and motivated than those with between 11 and 15 years, as were those with one to ten years. In other words, teachers showed relatively high levels of job satisfaction at the start of their careers, but satisfaction tended to decline after about ten years, recovering again to reach the highest level in those who had been teaching for more than 16 years. A possible partial explanation is related to the annual increase in salary awarded by the MoE, which means that salary increases with experience. Another factor, mentioned with regard to qualifications, may be that dissatisfied teachers will eventually tend to find alternative employment, so that those who remain the longest are those who are most satisfied. This explanation is offered by several authors, including Abdullah et al. (2009), Oshagbemi (2000) and Liu and Ramsey (2008).

An alternative explanation may lie in changes to the work setting, such as moving from one school to another, differing quality of resources, conditions or management, which two-thirds of interviewees (Table 6.2; section 6.2) mentioned as affecting their levels of satisfaction. Another possible explanation concerns the large number of Saudi teachers employed at lower levels, earning less than they should have received, as mentioned in Chapter Two (section 2.4.1). Such teachers may well have believed that these conditions would improve in due time, so if the delay in this improvement exceeded their expectations, they are likely to have felt a sense of dissatisfaction. However, the government's recent decisions to address this issue by restoring all teachers to the appropriate levels will perhaps have had a positive effect on the job satisfaction of those affected. Indeed, nine interviewees indicated that their satisfaction

had increased after many years of teaching as a result of improvements to salary or job grade (section 6.2; Table 6.2).

The finding that satisfaction was highest among those with the longest experience is consistent with that of Demirta (2010) that satisfaction was low through the first five years of teaching, after which it increased to a maximum at 20 years of experience. Other researchers who report that more experienced teachers were more satisfied include Akhtar et al. (2010), Abdullah et al. (2009), Chimanikire et al. (2007), Liu and Ramsey (2008), Gujjar et al. (2007), Ma and MacMillan (1999) and Fraser et al. (1998).

By contrast, Chen (2010), Al-Habsi (2009), Hean and Garrett (2001), Crossman and Harris (2006) and Olimat (1994) all found a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and work experience, whereby less experienced teachers were more satisfied than those with more experience. Again, this suggests that dissatisfied teachers are perhaps more likely to leave the profession, while those remaining are by default more satisfied. The present findings regarding teachers with one to fifteen years of experience are consistent with such a negative relationship.

However, the findings cannot be said to agree with those of Abd-El-Fattah (2010), Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009), Klassen and Anderson (2009), Perrachione et al. (2008), Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), Castillo et al. (1999) or Dinham and Scott (1996), none of whom found a significant relationship between the two variables.

As to studies conducted in Saudi Arabia, findings similar to those of the present study are reported by Al-Thenian (2001), Al-Shbehi (1998) and Al-Moamar (1993), who found that teachers with longer experience were more satisfied than less experienced teachers. Al-Tayyar (2005) found that experience was associated with differences in only two aspects of job satisfaction: more experienced teachers were more satisfied with their salary and job grade than the less experienced ones. Other Saudi studies (Almeili, 2006; Al-Shrari, 2003; Al-Gous; 2000) found no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and teachers' experience.

Finally, no significant differences in general job satisfaction or motivation were found among secondary school teachers according to their length of service in their current schools. It would thus appear that this variable had no effect on the job satisfaction or motivation of the teachers in this study.

#### **7.7.4 Number of lessons taught per week**

In common with length of service in the current school, no statistically significant relationship was found between teachers' general satisfaction or motivation and the number of lessons taught per week. This negative finding in the quantitative phase of the study is consistent with the qualitative results: in interviews, four-fifths of the participants expressed their satisfaction with the number of sessions assigned to them (section 6.7; Table 6.8), which is unsurprising if one takes into account that around three-quarters of the sample were allocated fewer than 20 lessons per week (section 5.4.6; Table 5.7), whereas the MoE specifies 24 per week. Furthermore, it is ministry policy to minimise any disparity in workload among teachers by allocating extra administrative tasks or school activities to those with the fewest classroom hours. Occasionally, teachers may also be requested to complete their teaching rota in other schools, thus further limiting variation in hours taught.

The findings of the current study are similar to others reported in the literature, such as Castillo et al. (1999) and Koustelios (2001), who also found no significant association between satisfaction and teaching workload. By contrast, Chen (2010), Ari and Sipal (2009) and Liu and Ramsey (2008) did find significant relationships, reporting that teachers with a greater workload were less satisfied than those with fewer teaching hours.

As far as Saudi Arabia is concerned, the present study is in keeping with those of Al-Shrari (2003), Al-Gous (2000) and Al-Obaid (2002), none of whom established a significant association between teaching workload and satisfaction or motivation.

#### **7.7.5 Subject taught**

The results were somewhat more mixed with respect to the variable of subject taught, which was found to have no significant relationship with teachers' general level of job satisfaction, although this was found to be highest among physical education teachers. Motivation, by contrast, did differ significantly on the basis of subjects taught (Table 5.56): the LSD test results show clearly that physical education teachers were more highly motivated than teachers of other subjects, and while teachers of Islamic studies, physics, chemistry and biology were generally motivated, their motivation scores were significantly lower than those of physical education teachers.

This finding is interesting but not particularly surprising, given the nature of physical education teaching work in Saudi Arabia. One possible explanation refers to the benefits enjoyed by physical education teachers compared to others. For example, as discussed in sections 7.3.2.6 and 7.3.3, other teachers were found to face a number of difficulties, such as with the unavailability of teaching technology or limited access to its benefits, and with student achievement. In contrast, physical education teachers reported no such difficulties, enjoying the availability of sporting equipment and venues appropriate to all classes. Another important factor is that physical education teachers appeared not to face the same pressures and workload as other teachers, including advance preparation and explanation of lessons, preparing for exams and correcting homework. Nor, indeed, does physical education tend to put pressure on students, being considered a recreational activity that has no effect on their success or failure. Thus, students are more inclined to enjoy the subject and be at ease with the teacher, which may in turn reflect positively on his job satisfaction and motivation. Finally, physical education teachers are not required to deliver late classes at the end of the school day, because of the extremely hot climate in Riyadh.

Among the few studies reported in the literature to have investigated the association of subject taught with satisfaction or motivation, the present findings are in line with those of Bishay (1996), who found some significant differences. Another more recent study by Ganai and Ali (2013) found a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction of teachers and the subject taught, with secondary teachers of science being more satisfied than social science teachers. However, the results of the present study do not seem to be consistent with those of Mkumbo (2011), who found no link between these two variables.

#### **7.7.6 Job grade**

Another variable whose effect on teachers' job motivation and satisfaction has rarely been studied is job grade, where the current study found no significant association. One possible explanation for this lack of effect on level of job satisfaction or motivation is that the MoE grades teaching posts according to a system which offers no incremental benefits beyond an annual increase in salary even if a teacher moves from one grade to the next, while the workload—in terms both of teaching hours and additional duties—is also unaffected by job grade. In interviews, a majority of teachers (section 6.8; Table

6.9) expressed the view that the grade system was not helpful in obtaining extra benefits or promotion.

The above findings are in line with those of Castillo et al. (1999), who report that the rank of American teachers had no influence on their job satisfaction, whereas Abdullah et al. (2009) and Papanastasiou and Zembylas (2005) did find significant differences in Malaysia and Cyprus respectively, whereby teachers with a low rank or position in their school were found to be less satisfied with their jobs than those with a higher rank or position.

### **7.7.7 Training**

As for in-service training, the current study again found no significant association with either job satisfaction or motivation: teachers who had attended in-service training programmes did not differ in their general job satisfaction or motivation from those who had not done so. A possible explanation for this lack of effect is that those training programmes available to teachers may not have met their needs and aspirations sufficiently to affect satisfaction or motivation. Indeed, half of the questionnaire respondents who had attended training programmes were dissatisfied with them, while 22 of the 32 interviewees (section 6.4.1; Table 6.4) indicated that the training programmes currently offered to them were ineffective in improving their level of satisfaction and that they needed to be revised and developed in order to match the reality of work and better meet their training needs.

The results in this regard are consistent with the finding of Al-Tayyar (2005) that no training programme had any influence on job satisfaction. Kumar and Misra (2009), by contrast, did find that teachers who had had training were significantly more satisfied than those who had not.

## **7.8 Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the quantitative and qualitative results presented in Chapters Five and Six, systematically addressing the research questions. Secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia were found generally to be fairly satisfied at work. The factors contributing most strongly to their satisfaction were interpersonal relationships, school administration and the nature of the work, while marking pupils' work, the educational system, supervision, teachers' social status, workload, salary/promotion and student progress contributed moderately. The only factor affecting satisfaction negatively was

staff development. General motivation was high, with teachers motivated more by intrinsic and altruistic factors than by extrinsic and religious ones. General job satisfaction was correlated with general motivation and with extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors. However, while the participating teachers were in general fairly satisfied and highly motivated at work, some issues emerged as negatively affecting their satisfaction, such as opportunities for growth and development, in-service training, teaching resources and ICT facilities, promotion, student motivation and behaviour, and teachers' low social status. Finally, with regard to demographic variables, there were statistically significant differences in job satisfaction and motivation among teachers based on their qualifications, experience and subjects taught; however, age, job grade, length of teaching experience at the present school, number of lessons taught and having received in-service training were not associated statistically significantly with either job satisfaction or motivation. The next chapter, which concludes the thesis, will offer suggestions as to how the Saudi government might address these issues to enhance teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.



## **Chapter Eight**

### **Conclusions and Recommendations**

#### **8.1 Introduction**

The current study has investigated job satisfaction and motivation among male teachers in boys' secondary schools in Saudi Arabia, with a number of aims: to determine their general levels of job satisfaction and motivation, to identify factors that might influence their job satisfaction and motivation, to establish whether there is any relationship between satisfaction and motivation, and to determine whether levels of satisfaction and motivation vary with demographic variables such as age, qualifications, job grade, length of experience or service, subject taught and training. This chapter summarises the main findings, discussed in Chapter Seven, draws general conclusions, outlines the contribution of this research to knowledge, offers some recommendations for policy to enhance teachers' satisfaction and motivation in Saudi Arabia, discusses the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for future research.

#### **8.2 Summary of Findings**

The findings summarised here are drawn from the quantitative data gathered during the first phase of the study, when 737 teachers in boys' schools in Riyadh completed a self-administered questionnaire survey, and a subsequent qualitative phase, comprising semi-structured interviews with 32 of those teachers. Both instruments were piloted and tested to ensure their validity and reliability. The response rate for the survey, before elimination of 15 incomplete questionnaires, was high, at 73.7%.

The broad findings on general satisfaction, both quantitative and qualitative, indicate that the teachers were fairly satisfied with their jobs. Factor analysis was used to reduce the large number of variables represented by 48 questionnaire items on satisfaction and nine on motivation to ten satisfaction factors (staff development, student progress, salary and promotion, supervision and status in society, educational system, marking pupils' work, workload, nature of the work, administration, and interpersonal relationships) and two motivation factors: intrinsic/altruistic and extrinsic. The interview data indicated that religion was a third motivational factor. Three factors (interpersonal relationships, school administration and nature of the work) were found

to contribute strongly to teachers' job satisfaction, while six of the ten factors contributed moderately or inconclusively to their satisfaction and just one (staff development) was found to contribute to their dissatisfaction. The next three subsections consider these ten satisfaction factors in descending order of the strength of their positive contribution.

### **8.2.1 Factors contributing strongly to satisfaction**

The factor having the strongest positive impact on the job satisfaction of the teachers surveyed was interpersonal relationships. Survey data indicated a high level of satisfaction reflecting teachers' good relations with colleagues, administrative staff, educational supervisors and students. Moreover, the interview data confirmed the strong positive influence of these relationships. Teachers considered their colleagues to be supportive and cooperative, ready to help each other and to work as a team, showing mutual respect and maintaining these positive relations outside school. The predominance of this factor is not surprising, since Saudi society is collectivistic and Saudi teachers would be expected to give priority to interpersonal relationships at work when reflecting on their job satisfaction.

After interpersonal relationships, school administration was found to be the factor most strongly contributing to teachers' job satisfaction. Participants were highly satisfied with their principals, whom they saw as providing them with recognition and reward for their good work, as evaluating their performance fairly and as involving them in school decision-making. The interview data support these findings, as principals were described as showing flexibility and equity in dealing with teachers. Another key strength of principals appeared to be offering the support and encouragement necessary for the development of teachers' skills.

The third factor strongly contributing to teachers' satisfaction was the nature of their work. Participants were particularly satisfied with their autonomy over teaching, their professional responsibilities, classroom discipline and the security and variety of the job, but less so with administrative paperwork, intellectual challenge and supervising extracurricular activities. Indeed, the interview data suggest that this last component was a cause of dissatisfaction.

### **8.2.2 Factors contributing moderately to satisfaction**

The six factors that were found to have a moderate impact on teachers' job satisfaction were workload and working conditions, marking pupils' work, the educational system, supervision and status in society, salary and promotion, and student progress.

Teachers participating in the study appeared moderately satisfied with almost all components of the workload and working conditions factor (length of the working day, classroom teaching load, workload and level of stress), while the school working environment contributed more strongly to their satisfaction. Interviewees expressed satisfaction with all tasks related to teaching, but dissatisfaction regarding out-of-classroom educational activities, which they saw as an unwelcome additional burden on them. They were also dissatisfied with having to do organizational and administrative tasks, which they considered unrelated to their teaching.

Marking pupils' work had an overall effect quantitatively equal to that of the workload factor, comprising a relatively strong positive contribution to satisfaction from the marking of pupils' work and a less positive contribution from doing school work at home.

The third factor in this category was the educational system. Teachers expressed moderate satisfaction with all three items comprising this factor: the curriculum, regulations and educational systems, and the length of the school holidays, including a long annual holiday and mid-term breaks.

Supervision and social status, which also contributed moderately to teachers' satisfaction, comprised two components. First, quantitative data identified the educational supervisor as a positive component, while many interviewees also expressed their satisfaction with their educational supervisor, appreciating his qualifications, support and efforts to develop teachers' skills. By contrast, the second component, the status of teachers in society, was found in both phases to have contributed to teachers' dissatisfaction. The majority of interviewees who were dissatisfied indicated that teachers' declining status was partly responsible, some reasons for this decline being the negativity of the national media, poor health insurance, housing allowances and promotional opportunities, and the lack of a teachers' union.

The salary and promotion factor was also found to contribute moderately to teachers' satisfaction. Both quantitative and qualitative findings indicate that teachers were satisfied with the salary component itself, but that they considered promotion opportunities to be poor and were dissatisfied with the current job grade system because of the lack of any functional privileges for teachers beyond the automatic annual salary increase. They thought that this neither achieved justice among teachers nor encouraged competition and creative performance.

Finally, student progress appeared to influence teachers' satisfaction weakly and slightly negatively, while in interviews, teachers were most dissatisfied with students' motivation, achievements and behaviour.

### **8.2.3 Staff development – a cause of dissatisfaction**

A single factor was found to contribute clearly to teachers' dissatisfaction: more than half were dissatisfied with staff development opportunities. As to the components of this factor, the majority of teachers were dissatisfied with the support provided to improve their teaching and with opportunities to pursue advanced degree studies, while half expressed dissatisfaction with financial support for educational development programmes. Over half of respondents also expressed some dissatisfaction with training opportunities and with the ICT facilities available in schools and classrooms. When these were discussed in interview, around two-thirds of teachers expressed dissatisfaction with schools' ICT facilities and with in-service training programmes, both of which failed to meet their practical needs and their desire to keep abreast of developments in pedagogy. They were also unhappy with library and laboratory facilities, reinforcing a view that restricted staff development and related inadequacies limited teachers' opportunities to move beyond what they saw as inappropriate traditional teaching methods.

### **8.2.4 Motivation**

As with satisfaction, teachers' motivation was found to be generally high. The findings suggest that highly motivated secondary school teachers were more committed, more likely to work hard on behalf of their students and prepared to spend more time with them. In addition, more than half of participants expressed a desire to stay in teaching and indicated that they would encourage friends who wished to join the teaching profession to do so. Of the three motivational factors identified above, participants were

found to be more strongly motivated by the intrinsic/altruistic factor than by the extrinsic and religious ones.

The component of intrinsic/altruistic motivation which was found to have the strongest positive impact on teachers was the belief that they were contributing to a better society, followed by wanting to help students to succeed, using professional knowledge and expertise, working with students, doing a worthwhile job and classroom teaching. The interview data also indicate that responsibility and feelings of success both influenced teachers' motivation positively.

Extrinsic motivation was found to have a moderate quantitative effect, via three components: working conditions, salary, and recognition and teachers' status in society. Qualitatively, the interviews revealed relationships, holidays and low workload as additional extrinsic motivators. Some interviewees also provided evidence that they were motivated by religion. Their beliefs appeared to play an important role in motivating them to work hard and honestly in the hope of divine reward and to fulfil their Islamic duty.

### **8.2.5 The relationship between satisfaction and motivation**

The findings reveal a significant correlation between teachers' general job satisfaction and their general motivation. General job satisfaction was also significantly correlated with intrinsic/altruistic motivation and with extrinsic motivation. Finally, there were significant correlations between general job satisfaction and all ten satisfaction factors.

### **8.2.6 The effect of demographic variables**

As to variation related to demographic variables, statistically significant differences were found in teachers' general job satisfaction and motivation according to their qualifications, experience and subjects taught. Those holding a doctorate were found to be less satisfied than their peers with bachelor's or master's degrees and less well-motivated than teachers holding only a bachelor's degree. Experience had a complex effect, with those having between 11 and 15 years' experience being less well-motivated and satisfied than those with either more or less experience than them. Subject taught had no significant relationship with general job satisfaction, although physical education teachers emerged with the highest level of general satisfaction. Their motivation, by contrast, was significantly higher than that of their colleagues teaching Islamic studies, physics, chemistry and biology. Finally, satisfaction and motivation

were not significantly affected by age, job grade, length of service at the present school, the number of lessons taught or training.

### **8.3 General Conclusions**

This study has investigated job satisfaction and motivation among male secondary school teachers in Riyadh. As discussed in Chapter Three, there is no consensus amongst researchers on defining these complex concepts, whose understanding is complicated by the many different variables that may directly or indirectly influence them. Indeed, many authors have concluded that job satisfaction is not a single consolidated entity, but a multidimensional concept which can be seen as a dynamic paradigm influenced by a number of factors, including the work environment, social factors, personal characteristics and certain aspects of the work itself.

The variation in findings among studies of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation reported in the literature may be partly explained by this conceptual complexity, partly by differences in definitions and measurements, partly by the range of quantitative, qualitative and mixed research methods and partly by the use of different sample sizes. In addition to these theoretical and methodological factors, other potentially relevant variables include the cultural determinants of the setting, which may in turn influence the factors assumed to determine job satisfaction and motivation (Hofstede, 1984; 2001; Mead, 2005). For instance, Herzberg et al. (1959) identify salary as a dissatisfaction factor, while the current study found it to affect teachers' satisfaction positively. Teachers in Saudi Arabia pay no income tax, for religious reasons, whereas in most other countries where such studies have been performed, the requirement to pay tax on their income may affect teachers' overall job satisfaction and motivation negatively. In other words, the determinants of satisfaction at work may vary from one society to another according to the socio-cultural and legal frameworks in force.

A related finding was that some teachers' motivation was affected by religion, a factor which has not been addressed in other studies. Also of cultural relevance is the collectivist nature of Saudi society, where individual behaviour seems to be group-oriented (Hofstede, 1984; 2001), so that interpersonal relationships are important in the work environment. Indeed, they had the strongest influence on satisfaction in the current study. Thus, it may be that Saudi teachers tend to rate their job satisfaction according to how happy they are with their colleagues and superiors, to a greater extent

than those in highly individualistic cultures, who do not prioritise interpersonal relationships when assessing their satisfaction at work (Hofstede, 1984; 2001). The findings of the present study confirm that different people have different attitudes towards work, regardless of the similarity in their working conditions. In this regard, Huberman (1993) argues:

We should be modest in thinking it possible – desirable – to explain fully the elements of professional satisfaction for all teachers. Obviously, people are different, their personal journeys too diverse, their lives too discontinuous for this to be possible. It also true that one person's happiness is another's misery. (p.263)

A final point worth highlighting is that this study has attempted to build its theoretical and methodological framework on other studies while taking the Saudi context into consideration. Therefore, it was essential to focus on cultural and religious values and on the socio-economic situation, making it important to use both quantitative and qualitative methods to address the research questions empirically.

#### **8.4 Contribution to Knowledge**

The current study makes a significant contribution to knowledge regarding satisfaction and motivation among teachers, not only in the context of Saudi Arabia but at the regional and international levels. While it has built on reports in the literature of previous studies into teachers' satisfaction and motivation, this study distinguishes itself from earlier ones by its focus on those factors related to teachers' satisfaction and motivation which apply particularly to Saudi Arabia and to developing countries more generally.

Most published studies of job satisfaction and of motivation among teachers have been conducted in Western countries, such as the USA (e.g. Perrachione et al., 2008; Convey, 2010), Australia (e.g. Dinham & Scott, 1996) and the UK (e.g. Crossman & Harris, 2006; Klassen and Anderson, 2009; Scott et al., 1999), while very few studies anywhere (e.g. Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2004; Convey, 2010) and none in Saudi Arabia have examined both job satisfaction and motivation in teachers. Thus, by providing evidence of a strong relationship between Saudi teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, the present study makes an original contribution to the body of knowledge at the international level, as well as filling a gap in the literature regarding such studies in non-Western countries.

At the level of developing countries and the Arab world, few studies have addressed the issues of teachers' satisfaction and motivation in secondary schools. Those which have done so (e.g. Abdullah et al., 2009; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Keung-Fai, 1996; Popoola, 2009) have investigated either satisfaction or motivation, not both together. Again, the present study is original because it has tackled both issues using quantitative and qualitative research methods. In Saudi Arabia itself, there have been few studies of teachers' satisfaction and motivation and the majority of these have been set in elementary schools (Al-Shrari, 2003; Al-Obaid, 2002; Almeili, 2006). Therefore, the present study is valuable in bridging a gap in knowledge, being the first study of satisfaction and motivation among teachers in Saudi secondary schools.

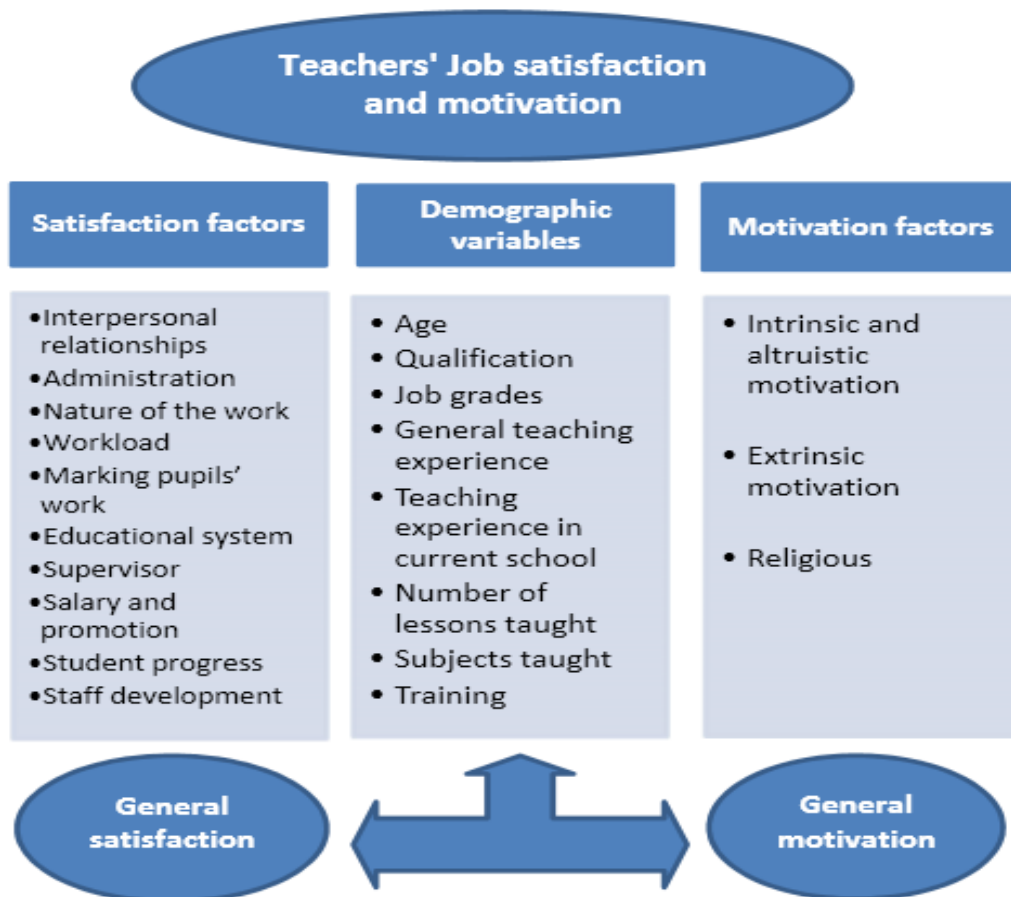
Surveying the literature revealed that empirical studies of teachers' satisfaction and motivation have used either quantitative research methods (Crossman & Harris, 2006) or qualitative ones (Almeili, 2006), while few have employed both. Thus, this study makes an original contribution to the body of knowledge by using mixed methods (triangulation), being the first study of secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia to do so. It is worth mentioning here that the sample size (737) was large enough to represent all male secondary school teachers in the City of Riyadh. The study did not rely on standardised questionnaires developed and used by earlier researchers. Instead, instruments were developed on the basis of the research questions and of appropriateness to the Saudi context.

Although the study did not set out to address the issue of religion, in-depth interviews revealed that it was an important factor in teachers' motivation and job satisfaction. This issue is worth studying further.

## **8.5 Conceptual Framework**

This section presents the conceptual framework derived from the study findings. Figure 8.1 shows Saudi male secondary teachers' job satisfaction and motivation to have three dimensions, affected by several factors and variables. These factors were identified from the questionnaire and interview results, many having been derived from the literature and adapted to the present context.





**Figure 8.1: Conceptual framework of the study**

The three dimensions of the framework are satisfaction factors, motivation factors and demographic variables. The first dimension consists of ten factors, such as interpersonal relationships, which reflect the nature of the phenomenon of job satisfaction as a multidimensional construct within which a number of factors or aspects influence, connect or overlap with each other. Motivation is seen to consist of just three main factors: altruistic/intrinsic, extrinsic and religious motivation, the last of which emerged from the interviews with teachers, a number of whom considered religion to be a critical part of daily life. The third dimension comprised eight demographic variables including qualifications, experience and subjects taught. The arrows in Figure 8.1 indicate statistically significant associations between these three demographic variables and differences in general satisfaction and general motivation, between general satisfaction and general motivation, between satisfaction and altruistic/intrinsic motivation and between satisfaction and extrinsic motivation. The framework can be seen to reflect the nature of Saudi culture and of the Kingdom's education system.

## **8.6 Limitations of the study**

Like other empirical studies, this study had some limitations, notwithstanding the researcher's attempts to follow valid and reliable research procedures, using mixed methods to gather data from a large and representative sample with a high response rate.

The geography of Saudi Arabia, in particular the very large distances between many settlements, would have made it difficult for the researcher to target a population representative of the whole country in the limited time of approximately three months available for field study and at affordable cost. Therefore, it was necessary to limit the study to secondary schools in a single area, the one chosen being the city of Riyadh. While the sample was large enough to be considered representative of this target area, the results cannot be generalised to all parts of Saudi Arabia. In particular, small towns and rural areas, which would have been very difficult to include in the study for the abovementioned reasons of cost and distance, must be assumed to be likely to differ in many circumstances from the large cities. Thus, the study population, limited to Riyadh City, cannot be considered representative of Saudi Arabia as a whole. Nonetheless, the results may be validly generalised to other large Saudi cities, since the national education system is centralized and uniform, with all sectors of education being under the control and supervision of the MoE, and teachers in these cities being likely to work under broadly the same conditions.

Another limitation arises from the fact that for cultural and religious reasons, the Saudi education system is strictly segregated by gender. Thus, as the researcher is male, the study sample was necessarily drawn exclusively from male teachers in boys' secondary schools. It was not possible to access girls' secondary schools, because male researchers are not allowed to contact female teachers and interview them. If this could have been done, the researcher could have compared the two sexes in relation to job satisfaction and motivation, but the actual findings represent male secondary school teachers only. As more than half of Saudi teachers are female, further research is therefore needed to explore their satisfaction and motivation throughout Saudi Arabia.

## **8.7 Recommendations for Education Policymakers**

The findings of the current study demonstrate that male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia were satisfied with some aspects of their jobs (e.g. interpersonal relationships, administration, nature of work), while they were dissatisfied with others

(e.g. staff development, students' progress and promotion). The study also found that teachers were generally well-motivated at work. On the basis of these findings, the following detailed policy recommendations are made in the hope that they may assist the Saudi MoE, local education authorities and secondary schools to improve teachers' satisfaction and motivation by addressing such matters as teachers' professional development programmes, training and personal development, advancement, promotion, teaching facilities and reducing the workload.

### **8.7.1 Advancement and promotion**

The results showed that teachers were dissatisfied with their promotion prospects, as the current grade system does not meet their needs. Therefore, there is a need to improve the system and to achieve justice between teachers. The problem with the current system resides in the fixed automatic annual salary increments. The system is also based on length of experience, rather than performance. This study recommends that the education authorities review the current system in order to base teachers' promotion on performance instead of experience and to ensure that the promotion system is concerned not only with financial benefits but also with professional ones.

Educating teachers to a higher level, particularly to that of a degree in education, would improve teachers' knowledge, skills and ability to teach wider subject matter, thus enhancing the learning and teaching process for students. Therefore, making available relevant programmes for obtaining a degree in education would be very helpful in advancing teachers' knowledge of their subjects and improving students' outcomes and performance. This study recommends that the MoE work on establishing a systematic programme to give teachers the opportunity of advancing their educational qualifications.

### **8.7.2 Training programmes**

The finding that the majority of teachers were dissatisfied with opportunities for in-service training programmes indicates a significant need to improve teachers' job satisfaction and motivation by taking steps in this area. It is recommended that the MoE introduce effective on-job and in-service training programmes that contribute to developing teachers' teaching skills. The study further recommends that efforts be exerted to improve the quality of training, including design and content, as well as

meeting relevant teachers' needs. This also requires teachers' participation in choosing and designing the content of training programmes.

Local and international conferences, workshops and seminars benefit teachers' skills in teaching and develop the learning process. Thus, teachers should be required to attend such courses, as well as both short- and long-term training programmes in domestic or international organisations. This could be done in collaboration between the Saudi MoE and educational institutions in other countries. The study also recommends introducing a strategic programme of cooperation among local secondary schools, which would help teachers to benefit from the experience of colleagues in other schools.

It is recommended that schools, local educational authorities and Ministry officials encourage teachers to attend relevant internal and external training courses by providing them with incentives, both financial and in kind (e.g. promotion).

### **8.7.3 Teachers' workload**

It was clear from the study findings that some teachers faced problems related to class sizes, the average number of students per class in some schools being as high as 40 or 50, exerting pressure on teachers to cope with such large class sizes. Therefore, it is recommended that local authorities work to reduce the average number of students per class, ideally to 30 or below. This could be achieved by providing more purpose-built schools, gradually replacing outdated buildings, which in turn would facilitate the recruitment of more teachers.

The study also found that some teachers were overworked by having to teach for 24 hours each week, which may have affected their ability to maintain the quality of teaching and learning. They would also be unable to follow educational best practice, because their workload would not allow them to attend the necessary in-service training. In order for teachers to be more effective, their workload should not exceed 20 contact hours per week, with the rest of their time at work being allocated to training and personal development, to preparing classes and to marking students' work.

### **8.7.4 Facilities and resources**

The results of the study showed that schools were not equipped with adequate ICT facilities of the kind which would help teachers to organize their time, prepare their teaching material and lessons, use new and attractive teaching methods, etc. Therefore, this study recommends that the MoE provide all schools with sufficient ICT facilities in

general and particularly in classrooms, where teachers need equipment such as computers and projectors to deliver their lessons. Teachers should also be provided with personal computers or laptops and access to the Internet. The use of these technologies and teaching aids would help them to remain up to date with educational developments.

This study also recommends that the local authorities and the MoE equip libraries with computers, online resources and new textbooks, ensuring that they are updated as necessary. This will help students and teachers to enhance their knowledge in a range of subjects including computing and to keep abreast of contemporary knowledge.

### **8.7.5 Relationship between school and home**

The results of this study demonstrate that the relationships of schools and teachers with students and their parents are weak. Therefore, improvements are necessary in this area, since a strong relationship enhances students' and teachers' mutual understanding, encouraging students and parents to contact teachers, arrange meetings, develop and maintain communication through the Internet. It is recommended that parents be encouraged to visit schools regularly and frequently. This could be achieved through the preparation of varied programmes of activities at school in which parents would be invited to participate, thus strengthening the relationship between school and home and helping teachers to maintain close ties with their students' parents.

### **8.7.6 Status of teachers in society**

The study found that teachers were dissatisfied with their status in Saudi society. Therefore, it recommends that the MoE and relevant organisations work on establishing campaigns and local friendly groups which would collaborate with schools to create a healthy atmosphere between schools and local communities. It was also found that the media tended to portray a negative image of teachers' social status and to focus on teachers' individual problems, thus damaging their collective status in Saudi society. Teachers are also criticised for receiving different types of benefits from those granted to other government employees, such as accommodation allowances and private medical insurance. Therefore, this study recommends that the Ministry of Education and schools cooperate with the media (newspapers, TV, Internet, social networks, etc.) to present teachers positively and improve their social status.

The study also recommends that the MoE work on establishing an association or union for teachers, whose aims would include improving the quality of teaching and

safeguarding teachers' rights and interests. In the light of the important role of schools and the MoE in addressing teachers' rights, their problems and their social status, it is further recommended that schools and the Ministry work on developing a strategy for the production of weekly or monthly bulletins, programmes for development, etc. This would help to increase public awareness of teacher's role and social status, thus contributing to their integration into society. The study also suggests that parents' participation in workshops would play a critical role in raising their awareness of teacher's status in society.

### **8.7.7 Cooperation between teachers, local authorities and the Ministry**

Schools and local educational authorities might usefully cooperate to create a committee or department linking teachers with the education authorities and the MoE, allowing them to express their problems and requirements directly. This body, which could be formed of teachers and head teachers, would collect teachers' suggestions and complaints regularly and pass them on to the Ministry.

### **8.7.8 Teachers' suggestions**

At the end of each interview, teachers were invited to offer suggestions to improve their jobs and positively motivate them towards the learning and teaching process. The study recommends that the following summary of these suggestions be considered by policymakers.

Promotion is critical in education; therefore, the MoE could introduce a new promotion system to encourage teachers to improve their performance and the quality of their teaching. Teachers need help to develop their skills in modern education technology, which would also help to ensure good quality of teaching. They should also be invited to identify their own training needs, to suggest the content of training courses and thus to receive more valuable training. Better relations and more meetings between teachers and parents should be encouraged, by creating communication channels such as email, the Internet and other facilities.

The medical services provided by the government should be improved, for example by establishing private hospitals for teachers and providing them with health insurance. Financial incentives could be improved by the introduction of clear mechanisms. The weekly workload should be lightened by reducing administrative work and the

supervision of students outside working hours. Finally, teachers should have an association which would cater to their needs and follow up their problems.

## **8.8 Suggestions for Future Study**

The current study used quantitative and qualitative research methods to investigate teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, which yielded valid and reliable results. Based on its findings and conclusions, some recommendations can be made for other researchers who wish to investigate job satisfaction and motivation, particularly in the education field. Constraints in domains such as culture, time and resources have meant that the study has not addressed a number of issues which it is recommended that other researchers should investigate in the future.

- Since this study has not investigated job satisfaction and motivation among female teachers, because of cultural constraints, other researchers might focus on female teachers in Saudi Arabia. The present study could be replicated by using the same research methodology, thus enabling such a researcher to compare her results with those of this study, in order to identify any similarities and differences. This would enhance and extend knowledge of job satisfaction and motivation and the effects on them of gender differences.
- Future studies of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation could be conducted in private schools, again providing a useful comparison with the results of the present study, which was set in the public sector.
- As the present study was limited geographically to the city of Riyadh, future studies should be conducted in other cities and regions of Saudi Arabia. Once more, these would provide valuable comparative data if built on the methodology of this study rather than being designed anew.
- This study could likewise be replicated with a sample drawn from teachers at early educational stages, viz. primary and/or intermediate schools, which would help to broaden understanding of teachers' satisfaction and motivation and to determine whether at other levels it is influenced by the same or different factors.
- Given that religion and culture were found to have some effect on teachers' motivation, it is recommended that future work should study teachers' job satisfaction and motivation from religious and cultural perspectives, particularly to

assess the impact of these factors on teachers in Saudi Arabia. A comparative study of teachers in Saudi Arabia and other countries would then be valuable, in order to determine more clearly whether and how culture plays a role in influencing teachers' satisfaction and motivation.



## **Appendices**

Appendix A: Questionnaire and covering letter

Appendix B: Interview schedule

Appendix C: Access letters

1- Related to conducting the questionnaire

2- Related to conducting the interviews

Appendix D: Interview invitation, participant information sheet and consent form

Appendix E: Tables of validity and reliability statistics not in main text

Appendix F: Factor analysis tables not in main text

**Appendix A: Questionnaire and covering letter**

**The University of York  
Department of Educational Studies**

**Questionnaire on Job Satisfaction and Motivation  
among Male Secondary School Teachers  
in the City of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia**

**Khalid Al Tayyar  
2010**

Dear Colleague,

I am currently undertaking research as a requirement to obtain a PhD degree in Education from the University of York in the United Kingdom, and I would like to invite you to take part in the investigation that I am undertaking.

My research explores the determinants of job satisfaction and its relation to motivation among male secondary schools teachers in Riyadh. As part of my investigations I am hoping to gather some data from practicing teachers relating to their work and their feelings towards it. To do this I have prepared a questionnaire that explores different aspects of the job.

As an education worker, I am aware of your busy schedule, but your co-operation in answering this questionnaire will be of great help in determining factors related to job satisfaction. Please give your opinions honestly and frankly; there are no right or wrong answers. It should not take you longer than 15 minutes to answer the questions.

Your response will be treated in strictest confidence and will not be used for any purpose other than this research. You will note that you are not asked to write your name on this form.

- ❖ **Part one** seeks general information about you.
- ❖ **Part two** investigates forty-eight components of job satisfaction.
- ❖ **Part three** consists of three statements about overall job satisfaction.
- ❖ **Part four** investigates nine components of motivation.
- ❖ **Part five** consists of three statements about overall motivation.

**Example:**

N	Components	Very satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Fairly dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
23	Training opportunities		✓			

**Directions:** Please read carefully the instructions at the start of each section, then apply them to each item. In the example above, from part two,

- If you feel very satisfied with training opportunities, please tick ‘Very satisfied’.
- If you feel fairly satisfied, with it please tick ‘Fairly satisfied’ (as shown above).
- If you are not sure that you are satisfied or dissatisfied, please tick ‘Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied’.
- If you feel that you are fairly dissatisfied, please tick ‘Fairly dissatisfied’.
- If you feel that you are very dissatisfied, please tick ‘Very dissatisfied’.

- ❖ **Please make sure that you answer all the questionnaire items.**

Thank you for your participation and time.

## Part one: Personal information

### A. What is your age?

- Under 25     26-30     31-35     36-40     41-45     46-50  
 Above 50

### B. What are your academic qualifications?

- Degree with education preparation     Degree without education preparation  
 Master degree     Doctor of Philosophy

### C. Which Job Grade are you on?

- Grade One     Grade Two     Grade Three  
 Grade Four     Grade Five     Grade Six

### D. How many years of experience as a teacher do you have? :

- 1-5 years     6-10 years     11-15 years     16-20     21 years or above

### E. How many years have you been teaching in this school? :

- 1-5 years     6-10 years     11-15 years     16-20     21 years or above

### F. How many lessons do you teach in a week?

- 1-5     6-10     11-15     16-20     21-24

### H. What is your major? .....

### I. Have you had any additional training?    Yes    No

If your answer is yes, please give a number: .....Length.....

## Part two: Components of job satisfaction

The purpose of this section is to give you a chance to say how you feel about your present job, what things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with. Here are some statements about your present job. Please read each statement carefully then decide how satisfied you feel about the particular aspect of your job described by the statement.

To what extent are you satisfied with each of the following aspects of your work as a teacher? Please tick (✓) the box which best represents your response from the following:

		Satisfied  Dissatisfied				
No	Components	Very satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Fairly Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
1	Your salary					
2	The principal					
3	Evaluation by the principal					
4	Educational supervisor					
5	Promotion opportunities					
6	Job grade system					
7	Relationships with colleagues					
8	Social activities with colleagues					
9	Relationships with students					
10	Students' motivation to learn					
11	Student achievement					
12	Student behaviour					
13	Relationships with parents					
14	Pressure from students about examinations					
15	Workload					
16	Classroom teaching load					
17	School working environment					
18	Doing school work at home					
19	Length of the working day					
20	Length of school holidays					
21	The curriculum					
22	New ICT opportunities					
23	Training opportunities					
24	Professional development and self-growth					
25	Opportunity to pursue advanced degree studies					

No	Components	Very satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Fairly Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
26	Support to improve your teaching					
27	Classroom facilities and resources					
28	ICT facilities					
29	School management					
30	School staff meetings in general					
31	School bureaucracy					
32	School policy and administration					
33	Financial support to conduct educational development programmes					
34	Status of teachers in society					
35	Recognition and reward for good work from your principal					
36	Classroom teaching					
37	Administrative paperwork you have to do					
38	Marking pupils' work					
39	Classroom discipline					
40	Supervising extracurricular activities outside classroom					
41	Autonomy over teaching					
42	Responsibilities					
43	Job security					
44	Opportunity to contribute to school decision-making					
45	Job variety					
46	Regulations and educational systems					
47	Intellectual challenge					
48	Level of stress					

### Part three: General job satisfaction

For each of the statements below, please tick (✓) the box which best represents how strongly you agree with it.

No	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	In general, I am satisfied with my job.					
2.	If I had to start my career again, I would take my current job.					
3.	If a good friend of mine was interested in working in my job, I would encourage him to take it.					

### Part four: Components of motivation

To what extent do the following factors motivate you to do your work? Please tick (✓) the box which best represents your response in each case.

No	Components	Not motivating	Mildly motivating	Moderately motivating	Very motivating	Extremely motivating
1.	Doing a worthwhile job					
2.	Wanting to help students to succeed					
3.	Contributing to a better society					
4.	Working with students					
5.	Using your professional knowledge and expertise					
6.	Classroom teaching					
7.	Working condition					
8.	Your salary					
9.	Recognition and status in society					

## Part five: General motivation

For each of the following statements please tick (✓) the box which best represents your level of agreement with it.

No	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	In general, I am motivated to do my job					
2.	I work hard at my job.					
3.	I would rather do teaching than change to another job.					

Please make sure that you have answered all the above statements.

Thank you for your participation and time.

Khalid Al Tayyar  
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Department of Educational Studies  
United Kingdom  
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Tel: 05551224154



بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

# استبانة الرضا الوظيفي والدافعية

لدى معلمي المرحلة الثانوية الحكومية بمدينة الرياض

جامعة يورك (بريطانيا)

1432هـ - 2011م

إعداد الباحث:

خالد عبد الله الطيار

## بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

وَفِيهِ اللَّهُ

سَعَادَةُ الْأَسْتَاذ:

السَّلَامُ عَلَيْكُمْ وَرَحْمَةُ اللَّهِ وَبَرَكَاتُهُ ...

أخي العزيز نظراً لقيامي بدراسة حول الرضا الوظيفي وعلاقته بالدافعية لدى المعلمين. لذا أرحب بدعوتك للمشاركة من خلال الإجابة على هذه الاستبانة والتي تهدف للتعرف على العوامل المؤثرة على الرضا الوظيفي وعلاقتها بالدافعية لدى معلمي المرحلة الثانوية للبنين بمدينة الرياض. ولتحقيق أهداف هذه الدراسة فإنني أأمل جمع بعض المعلومات حول رضا وشعور معلمي المرحلة الثانوية الحاليين تجاه عملهم، من خلال مساهمتك بالإجابة على هذه الاستبانة المعدة للكشف عن جوانب مختلفة للعمل حول الرضا الوظيفي والدافعية.

وتعاونك بالإجابة على هذه الاستبانة والتي لن تستغرق أكثر من 10 دقائق سيساعد كثيراً في تحديد العوامل المرتبطة بالرضا الوظيفي وعلاقتها بالدافعية لدى المعلمين في مجال عملهم، عليه أمل التكرم بالإجابة على الأسئلة بدقة وموضوعية تامة. علماً بأن الإجابات تعتمد بالمقام الأول على رأيك فليس هنالك إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة.

- تُذكر أن إجابتك على العبارات ستُعامل بسرية تامة ولن تُستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث العلمي لذا ستلاحظ أنه لم يطلب منك كتابة اسمك على الاستمارة.

### تعليمات الاستبانة:

الجزء الأول: معلومات عامة تحتوي على بعض الجوانب الشخصية للمشاركين في الإجابة على هذه الاستبانة.  
الجزء الثاني: يتكون من 48 عبارة حول عوامل الرضا الوظيفي.  
الجزء الثالث: يتكون من ثلاث عبارات حول الرضا الوظيفي العام.  
الجزء الرابع: يتكون من 12 عبارة حول الدافعية.  
الجزء الخامس: يتكون من ثلاث عبارات حول المستوى العام للدافعية.

### مثال:

رقم العبارة	العبارة	راضي بشدة	راضي	مؤكد	غير راضي	غير راضي بشدة
0	فرص التدريب المتاحة لك					

تلاحظ في المثال السابق خمس اختيارات للإجابة:

- إذا كنت تشعر أن رضاك عنها بدرجة عالية جداً، فاختر (راضي بشدة).
- أما إذا كنت راضي عنها ولكن ليس بدرجة عالية، فاختر (راضي).
- وإذا كنت غير متأكد عن مدى رضاك أو عدم رضاك حول العبارة فاختر (غير متأكد).
- أما إذا كنت تشعر بعدم الرضا عنها، فاختر (غير راضي).
- وإذا كنت غير راضي عن العبارة بدرجة كبيرة جداً، فاختر (غير راضي بشدة).

❖ تأكد من فضلك أنك أكملت جميع البيانات المطلوبة في هذه الاستبانة.

الآن اقلب الصفحة من فضلك وابدأ بالإجابة

شاكراً ومقدراً حسن تعاونكم

## الجزء الأول:

### المعلومات الشخصية

فضلا ضع علامة ( ✓ ) داخل المربع المناسب لإجابتك فيما يلي:

أ- العمر:

أقل من 25     25 - 30     31 - 35     36 - 40

41 - 45     46 - 50     أكثر من 50

ب- المؤهل العلمي:

بكالوريوس تربوي     بكالوريوس غير تربوي  
 ماجستير     دكتوراه

ج - المستوى الوظيفي:

المستوى الأول     المستوى الثاني     المستوى الثالث  
 المستوى الرابع     المستوى الخامس     المستوى السادس

د - عدد سنوات خدمتك في مجال التعليم:

أقل من 5 سنوات     6 - 10     11 - 15     16 - 20     أكثر من 21

هـ - عدد سنوات الخدمة في المدرسة الحالية :

أقل من 5 سنوات     6 - 10     11 - 15     16 - 20     أكثر من 21

و- نصابك الأسبوعي من الحصص :

أقل من 5 حصص     5 - 10     11 - 15     16 - 20     21-24

ز- التخصص: .....

ح - هل حصلت على دورات تدريبية؟:

نعم     لا

إذا كانت إجابتك (نعم) فضلا اذكر عددها: .....

الهدف من هذا الاستبيان هو إعطائك الفرصة لتبدي مدى شعورك بالرضا تجاه عملك الحالي , ما لأمر الذي تعتقد بأنك راضٍ عنها وما الأمور التي تعتقد بعدم رضائك تجاهها . هنا بعض العبارات حول عملك الحالي. فضلاً أقرأ العبارات بتمعن وبعدها قرر مدى شعورك بالرضا من خلال إجابتك على تلك العبارات المتعلقة بوصف عملك

### الجزء الثاني: الرضا الوظيفي

♦ إلى أي مدى تشعر بالرضا عن العوامل التالية والمرتبطة بعملك كمعلم؟

فضلاً ضع إشارة (√) داخل المربع للإجابة التي تمثل مستوى رضاك من بين الاختيارات التالية:

رقم العبارة	العبارات	راضي بشدة	راضي	غير متأكد	غير راضي	غير راضي بشدة
1.	راتبك الشهري					
2.	مدير المدرسة					
3.	تقييم المدير للأداء الوظيفي للمعلم					
4.	المشرف التربوي					
5.	فرص الترقية					
6.	نظام المستويات الوظيفية للمعلم					
7.	علاقتك بزملائك المعلمين					
8.	الأنشطة الاجتماعية مع الزملاء					
9.	علاقتك بالطلاب					
10.	دوافع الطلبة نحو التعلم					
11.	تحصيل الطلاب العلمي					
12.	سلوكيات الطلبة					
13.	العلاقة مع أولياء أمور الطلبة					
14.	الضغط من قبل الطلبة حول الاختبارات					
15.	أعباء العمل					
16.	أعباء التدريس داخل الصف					
17.	أجواء العمل داخل المدرسة					
18.	تأدية الأعمال المدرسية بالمنزل					
19.	طول اليوم الدراسي					
20.	طول الإجازة المدرسية					
21.	المنهج الدراسي					
22.	فرص توفر تقنية وتكنولوجيا المعلومات الحديثة					
23.	فرص التدريب					
24.	التطوير المهني و الذاتي					
25.	الفرص المتاحة لتحقيق درجات علمية أعلى					
26.	الدعم المادي المتاح لتطوير أدائك التربوي					
27.	المصادر والوسائل المتاحة داخل الصف					
28.	وسائل تقنية وتكنولوجيا المعلومات					
29.	الإدارة المدرسية					
30.	الاجتماعات المدرسية للمعلمين بصفة عامة					
31.	سير العمل داخل البيئة المدرسية					

رقم العبارة	العبارات	راضي بشدة	راضي	غير متأكد	غير راضي	غير راضي بشدة
32.	السياسة الإدارية للمدرسة					
33.	الدعم المادي لتنفيذ برامج لتطوير العملية التعليمية					
34.	مكانة المعلم لدى المجتمع					
35.	الثناء والتقدير من قبل مديرك نظير الأعمال الجيدة					
36.	التدريس داخل الصف					
37.	الأعمال الإدارية الكتابية التي يطلب منك أدائها					
38.	تصحيح واجبات الطلاب					
39.	النظام داخل الصف					
40.	الإشراف على الأنشطة المدرسية خارج الصف					
41.	الاستقلالية في تدريسك					
42.	المسؤوليات المناطة بك كمعلم					
43.	الأمن الوظيفي					
44.	الفرص المتاحة للمساهمة في قرارات المدرسة					
45.	التنوع في العمل (مثل: الأنشطة، حضور الحصص، متابعة الطلبة... الخ)					
46.	الأنظمة واللوائح التعليمية (مثل: نظام الإجازات، الترفقات، الاختبارات... الخ)					
47.	التحديات العلمية والمستجدات في مجال العمل					
48.	مستوى الضغوطات					

### الجزء الثالث : الرضا بشكل عام

• إلى أي مدى تشعر بالرضا عن العوامل التالية؟

بجانب العبارات بالأسفل ضع إشارة (✓) داخل المربع للإجابة التي تمثل درجة موافقتك من بين الاختيارات التالية:

رقم العبارة	العبارات	موافق بشدة	موافق	غير متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
1	أنا راضٍ عن عملي بصفة عامة					
2	لو تحين علي أن أبدا عملي من جديد فإني سأختار عملي الحالي					
3	لو أن صديقا يرغب بالعمل بمجال عملي سأشجعه علي ذلك					

#### الجزء: الرابع: الدافعية

♦ إلى أي مدى تحفزك العوامل التالية لأداء عملك؟

فضلا ضع إشارة ( √ ) داخل المربع للإجابة التي تمثل أجابتك المناسبة من بين الاختيارات التالية:

رقم العبارة	العبارات	محفز بدرجة عالية جدا	محفز جدا	محفز إلى حد ما	محفز بدرجة قليلة	غير محفز
1	عملي الذي أقوم به جدير بالاهتمام					
2	أريد مساعدة الطلاب لتحقيق النجاح					
3	المساهمة في بناء مجتمع أفضل					
4	العمل مع التلاميذ					
5	استخدام معلوماتي وخبراتي					
6	التدريس داخل الصف					
7	ظروف العمل					
8	الراتب الشهري					
9	التقدير والاحترام من قبل المجتمع					

#### الجزء: الخامس: الدافعية بشكل عام

بجانب العبارات بالأسفل ضع إشارة ( √ ) داخل المربع للإجابة التي تمثل درجة موافقتك من بين الاختيارات التالية:

رقم العبارة	العبارات	موافق بشدة	موافق	غير متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
1	بصفة عامة أنا متحفز لأداء عملي					
2	اعمل بجد لأداء عملي					
3	أنا أفضل العمل كمدرس على غيره من الأعمال الأخرى					

فضلا تأكد انك أكملت الإجابة على جميع البيانات المطلوبة في هذه الاستبانة. شاكرًا ومقدرًا حسن تعاونكم

الباحث

خالد عبدا لله الطيار  
جامعة يورك (بريطانيا)  
E-mail: [k-altayyar@hotmail.com](mailto:k-altayyar@hotmail.com)  
Tel: 05551224154

## **Appendix B: Interview schedule**

### **General questions**

1. In general are you satisfied with your job as a teacher?
2. Has your job satisfaction level changed recently? Why?

### **Factors**

3. What is the most important factor that impacts on your job satisfaction/dissatisfaction? Why?

### **Facilities and work development**

4. To what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the training programmes offered by the educational administration? Why?
5. What kinds of teaching facilities are available in your school? To what extent do these impact on job satisfaction?

### **Interpersonal relationships**

6. 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 satisfaction? Why?

### **Students' achievement**

7. To what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your students' achievement? Why?

### **Workload**

8. What kind of duties are you assigned to do? How do these duties influence your satisfaction/dissatisfaction?

### **Promotion opportunities**

9. What is your opinion of the promotion opportunities that teachers have? How do they influence your job satisfaction?

### **Status of teachers in society**

10. How do you feel about the status of teachers in the society? What is its impact on your job satisfaction/dissatisfaction?

### **Motivation**

11. What is the most important factor that influences your motivation? Why?

### **Suggestions**

12. Do you have any suggestions that might enhance teachers' job satisfaction and motivation?

## المقابلة الشخصية

### الرضا الوظيفي العام:

- 1- بصفة عامة هل أنت راضي عن عملك كمعلم؟
- 2- من خلال مسيرتك الوظيفية هل حدث تغير في مستوى رضاك الوظيفي؟ ولماذا؟  
عوامل الرضا الوظيفي:
- 3- ما اهم العوامل المؤثرة في رضاك او عدم رضاك الوظيفي؟ لماذا؟  
التدريب
- 4- الى اي مدى انت راضي او غير راضي عن برامج التدريب المتوفرة من قبل ادارة التدريب التربوي؟ ولماذا؟

### الوسائل التعليمية

- 5- ما نوع الوسائل التعليمية المتوفرة في مدرستك؟ والى اي مدى تؤثر تلك الوسائل على رضاك الوظيفي؟

### علاقات العمل

- 6- كمعلم انت تتعامل مع مجموعة من الافراد يشملون : الطلاب, المدير, المشرف التربوي, الزملاء, الاباء. الى اي مدى هؤلاء يؤثرون على رضاك الوظيفي؟

### الطلاب

- 7- الى اي مدى انت راضي أو غير راضي عن تحصيل الاطلاب العلمي, سلوكيات الطلبة, دافعية الطلبة للتعلم؟ ولماذا؟

### ضغوط العمل:

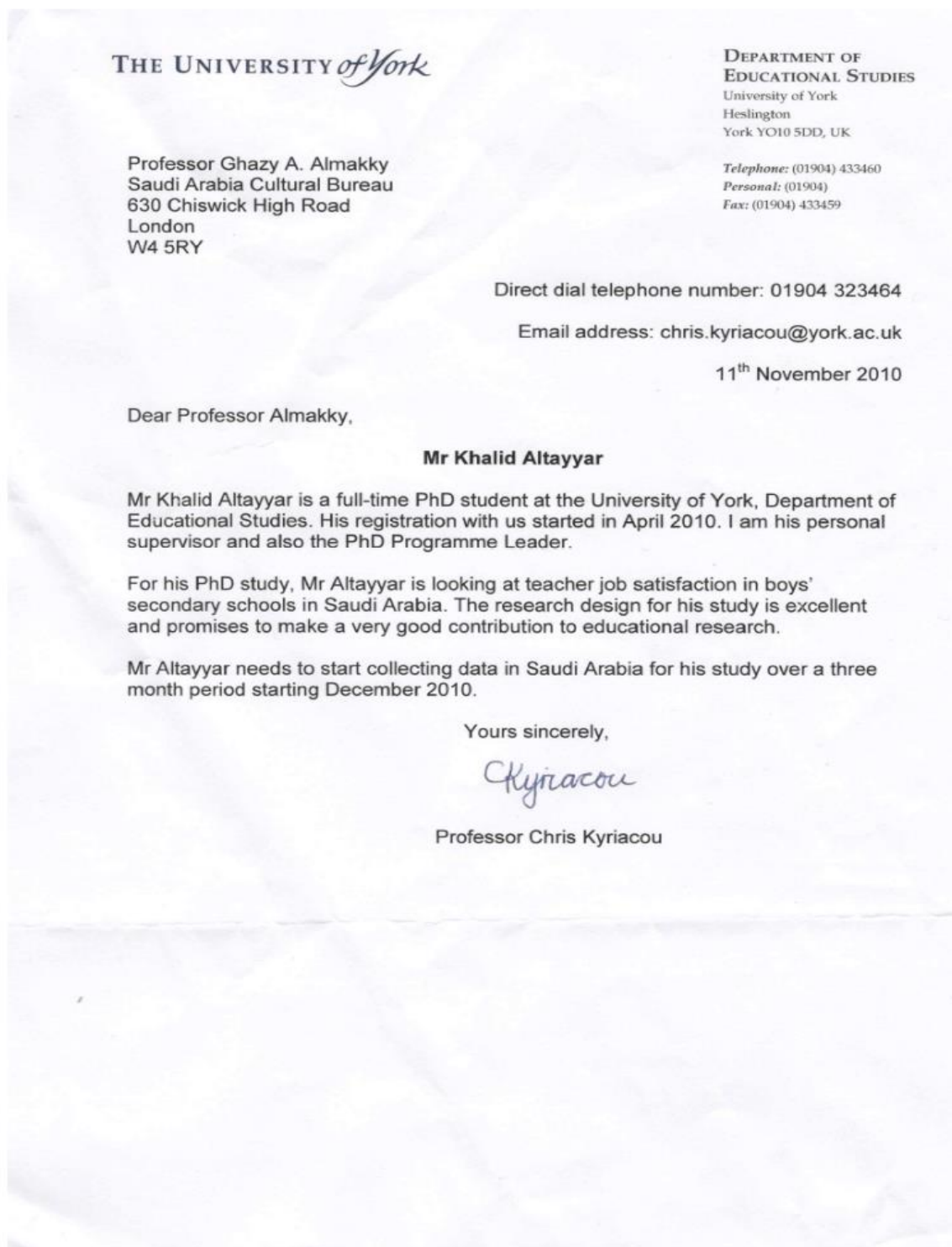
- 8- ما طبيعة المهام المطلوب منك ادائها؟ وكيف تؤثر تلك المهام على رضاك او عدم رضاك الوظيفي؟  
فرص الترقية:
- 9- من وجه نظرك كيف ترى فرص الترقية المتوفرة للمعلم؟ وكيف تؤثر تلك الفرص على رضاك الوظيفي؟  
المكانة الاجتماعية للمعلم
- 10- كيف ترى مكانة المعلم في المجتمع؟ وهل يؤثر ذلك على رضاك او عدم رضاك الوظيفي؟  
الدافعية:

- 11- ما اهم العوامل المؤثرة على دافعية العمل لديك؟ ولماذا؟
- 12- هل لديك اي اقتراحات والتي من شأنها ان تحسن من مستوى الرضا الوظيفي والدافعية لدى المعلمين؟



## Appendix C1: Access letters related to conducting the questionnaire

### Support letter from the supervisor regarding the fieldwork in Saudi Arabia



الرقم: ٣١١٥٤١٢٢٦  
التاريخ: ١٤/١٢/٢٠١٤ م  
المشرف: ج. د. ن



المملكة العربية السعودية  
وزارة التربية والتعليم  
( ٢٨٠ )  
وكالة الوزارة للتخطيط والتطوير

الإدارة العامة للبحوث

الموضوع: بشأن الطالب / خالد بن عبدالله الطيار

سعادة المحقق الثقافي السعودي في المملكة المتحدة وايرلندا وفقه الله  
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد:  
إشارة إلى الطلب المقدم من طالب الدكتوراه بجامعة يورك ببريطانيا / خالد  
بن عبدالله الطيار ، بشأن تسهيل مهمته عند تطبيق أدواته ميدانياً .  
نفيد سعادتكم أنه لا مانع لدينا من حيث المبدأ من قيامه بتطبيق أدوات بحثه  
على أن يتقدم بطلب يحدد فيه ما هو المطلوب مع إرفاق نسخ من الأدوات التي  
سوف يستخدمها وتحديد لعينة الدراسة .  
ولمزيد من الاستفسار يمكن الاتصال على الأستاذ/ عبدالرحمن بن عبدالله الغنم  
على هاتف (٠٠٩٦٦١٤١٢٣٦٢٤)

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ، ، ،

كشفاً  
١٤١٢

مدير عام البحوث  
د. محمد بن عبدالله الضويان

**Letter concerning the fieldwork**

**(Translated from Arabic)**

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia  
Ministry of Education  
Ministry Deputy for Planning and Development,  
General Directorate of Research  
N. 311541446  
04/12/1431 H

Subject/ Concerning Student: KHALID AL TAYYAR

Dear Saudi Cultural Attachment in Bureau in the United Kingdom and Ireland,

Peace be upon you:

Referring to the request letter provided by the PhD student at the University of York in Britain / KHALID ABDULLAH AL TAYYAR to facilitate the research mission to apply his research tool to collect data during the fieldwork.

We would like to inform you that we have no objection to facilitating his mission and he must submit a request in which he specifies what is required, enclosing a copy of the tools which he will use, together with specification of research samples.

For further enquiries, please phone Mr. Abdulrahman Abdullah Al-Ghannam on 0096614123624.

Yours faithfully,

General Manager of Research

D. Mohammed Abdullah Al-Dowayan



الجمهورية العربية السعودية  
وزارة التربية والتعليم  
( ٢٨٠ )

إدارة الوزارة للتخطيط والتطوير  
الإدارة العامة للبحوث

الرقم: ٣٤١١.٦٧٤  
التاريخ: ٥٠٤٤٠٦١٨٦  
المشرف: برون

الموضوع: بشأن الطالب/ خالد عبدالله الطيار

سعادة مدير عام التربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض (بنين) وفقه الله

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد:

تجدون سعادتكم برفقه استبانة الطالب/ خالد بن عبدالله الطيار ، أحد طلاب الدراسات العليا لمرحلة الدكتوراه بجامعة يورك في بريطانيا بشأن بحثه بعنوان "الرضا الوظيفي لدى معلمي المرحلة الثانوية في المملكة العربية السعودية".  
أمل من سعادتكم التكرم بالتوجيه بتسهيل مهمته .

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ، ، ،

كهنه  
١٨  
٢٠١٤

مدير عام البحوث

د. محمد بن عبدالله الضويان

ص. للإدارة .  
ص. لخدمات البحث  
ص. للباحث .

**Letter concerning the fieldwork**

**(Translated from Arabic)**

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia  
Ministry of Education  
(280)  
Ministry Deputy for Planning and Development,  
General Directorate of Research  
N. 32110674  
16/01/1432 H

Subject/ Concerning Student: KHALID AL TAYYAR

Dear General Directorate of Education in Riyadh Region (boys).

Peace be upon you:

Please find enclosed a questionnaire prepared by KHALID ABDULLAH AL TAYYAR, a post-graduate PhD student at the University of York, regarding his research entitled “Job satisfaction and motivation amongst male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia”.

I beg your Excellency to issue the necessary instructions to facilitate his mission.

Peace be upon you and the mercy and blessings of Allah.

**General Manager of Research**  
**Dr. Mohammad A Althoyan**



المملكة العربية السعودية  
وزارة التربية والتعليم  
الإدارة العامة للتعليم بمنطقة الرياض  
بنيان

بشأن: تسهيل مهمة باحث

إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

وفقه الله

الثانوية

المكرم مدير مدرسة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد:  
بناء على تعميم معالي الوزير رقم ٥٥/٦١٠ وتاريخ ١٤١٦/٩/١٧ هـ بشأن تفويض الإدارات العامة للتربية والتعليم بإصدار خطابات السماح للباحثين بإجراء البحوث والدراسات . وبناء على خطاب سعادة مدير عام البحوث بالوزارة رقم ٣٢١١٠٦٧٤ وتاريخ ١٤٣٢/١/١٦ هـ بشأن تسهيل مهمة الباحث / خالد بن عبدالله الطيار - طالب الدراسات العليا بجامعة يورك ببريطانيا - لإجراء دراسة بعنوان: (( الرضا الوظيفي لدى معلمي المرحلة الثانوية في المملكة العربية السعودية )) وتتطلب الدراسة تطبيق أداة البحث على عينة من المعلمين في المدارس الثانوية بمدينة الرياض .  
ونظراً لاكتمال الأوراق المطلوبة نأمل تسهيل مهمة الباحث ، مع ملاحظة أن الباحث يتحمل كامل المسؤولية المتعلقة بمختلف جوانب البحث ولا يعني سماح الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم موافقتها بالضرورة على مشكلة البحث أو على الطرق والأساليب المستخدمة في دراستها ومعالجتها.

والله يحفظكم ويرعاكم ،،،

عبدالله السديري  
١/١٩

مساعد المدير العام للشؤون التعليمية

د. محمد بن عبدالعزيز السديري  
١٩

**Letter concerning the fieldwork  
(Translated from Arabic)**

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia  
Ministry of Education  
General Department of Education for Boys in Riyadh,  
Department of Planning and Development

N. 32119859  
19/01/1432 H  
Attachments:

Re: Facilitating a researcher mission

Dear Principal of ..... School

In reference to the directive of His Excellency the Minister No. 55/610 dated 17/09/1416H, on delegating the General Administration of Education to issue letters of permission for the conduct of research studies, and to the letter received from the Director General of Research in the Ministry of Education No. 32110674 dated 16/01/1432H, concerning facilitation of the research of KHALID AL TAYYAR, a postgraduate student at the University of York in United Kingdom, entitled *Job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia*, which requires him to apply his research tool amongst a sample of *male teachers in secondary schools in Riyadh city*.

Due to the completion of all required documents, we ask you to facilitate his mission, noting that the researcher holds the entire responsibility in relation to all aspects of the research and that the permission of the Education Directorate does not necessarily mean its agreement with the research methodology used in his studies or with the procedures for analysis of the data.

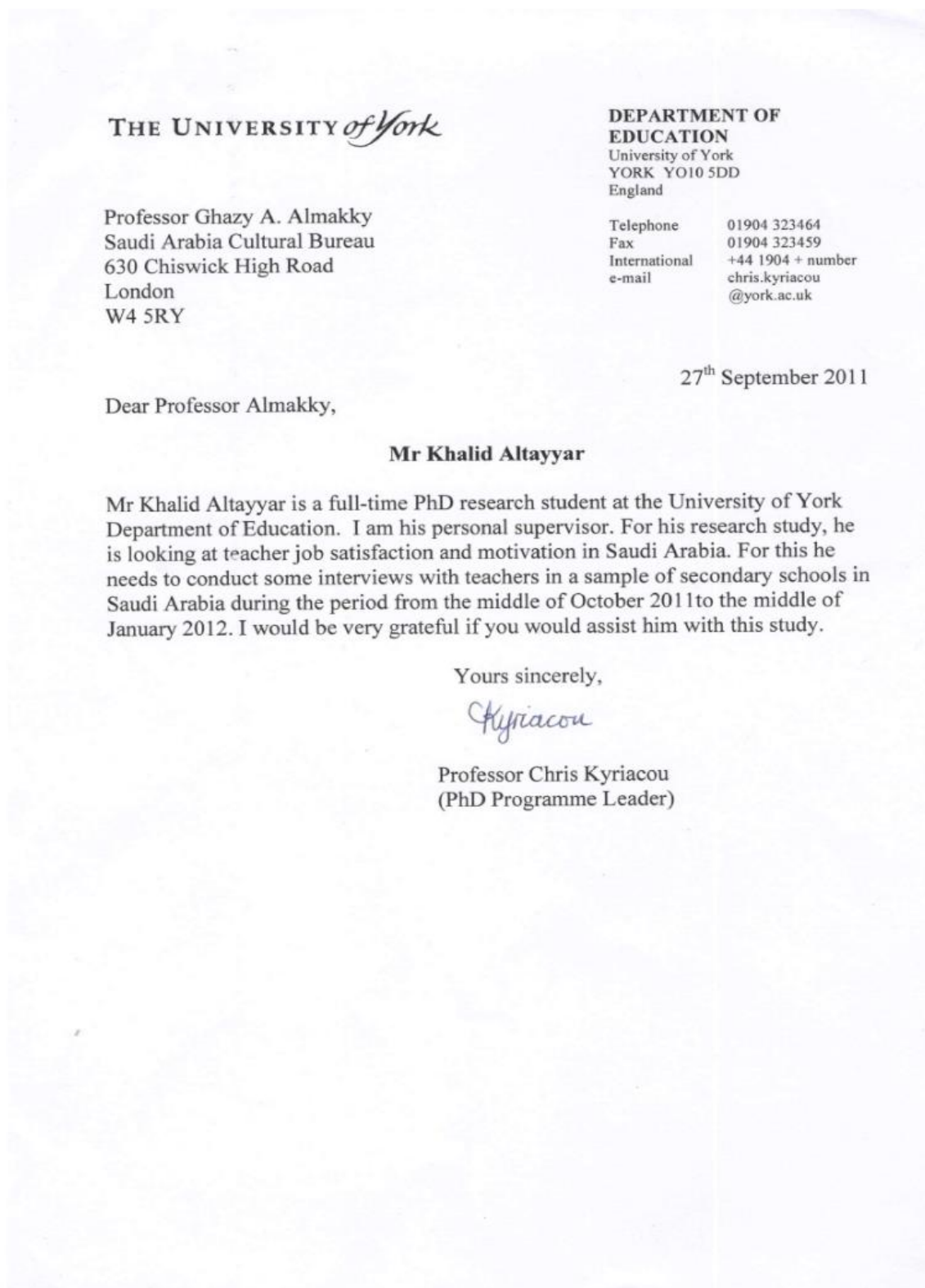
May Allah bless and watch over you.

Assistant Director-General for Educational Affairs

D. Mohammed Abdulaziz Al-Sudairy

## Appendix C2: Access letters related to conducting the interviews

### Support letter from the supervisor regarding fieldwork in Saudi Arabia





**Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia**

Cultural Bureau in the  
United Kingdom & Ireland



**سفارة المملكة العربية السعودية**

الملحقية الثقافية  
بالمملكة المتحدة وإيرلندا

إفادة

التاريخ: 03/10/2011

الموافق: 06/11/1432

رقم الملف: S11767/2

رقم الهوية الوطنية: 1027949757

معاملة طلب رحلة علمية للمملكة رقم: 1337819

يُفيد المكتب الثقافي السعودي في بريطانيا بأن الطالب/ خالد عبدالله عبدالعزيز الطيار مُتبع من قبل وزارة التعليم العالي لدراسة درجة الدكتوراه تخصص Education في جامعة The University of York وبدأ الطالب دراسته في ابريل 2010م ، ولازال على رأس بعثته حتى 2013/03/31م، وقد مُنحت هذه الإفادة بناء على طلبه لتقديمها إلى إدارة البحوث في وزارة التربية والتعليم بالمملكة العربية السعودية، لتسهيل مهمته في جمع المعلومات والاستبيان والدراسة ، والتي هي جزء من مشروع رسالة البحث لدرجة الدكتوراه ووفقا لخطاب المشرف الأكاديمي بالجامعة.

نرجو التكرم من سعادتكم بإعطاء الطالب خطاب يفيد بقبولكم مساعدته في جمع المعلومات الخاصة بمشروع البحث.  
مع وافر التحية والتقدير، ،

الملحق الثقافي في المملكة المتحدة وإيرلندا

أ.د.غازي بن عبد الواحد المكي

NO..... DATE:..... ENC.....

630 Chiswick High Road, London W4 5RY, E-mail: saebuk@uksacb.org Website: www.uksacb.org  
Tel: +44 (20) 3249 7000 Faxes: +44 (20) 3249 7004 / +44 (20) 3249 7005 / +44 (20) 3249 7006

**Letter concerning the fieldwork  
(Translated from Arabic)**

Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia  
Cultural Bureau in the United Kingdom & Ireland

**Statement**

03/10/2011

06/11/1432H

Student No: S11767/2

Application request for study trip (fieldwork) to Saudi Arabia Ref: 1337819

The Royal Cultural Bureau of Saudi Arabia in London hereby declares that the student KHALID ABDULLAH AL TAYYAR has been granted a scholarship by the Ministry of Higher Education to study for the degree of PhD in Education at the University of York, which study commenced in April 2010 to 31/03/2013 and that the scholarship remains in force to date. This statement was given to him at his request to be submitted to the General Directorate of Research in the Ministry of Education to facilitate his mission to collect the data and apply the research tools, as part of the research for his doctoral degree, according to a letter from the University's academic supervisor.

We request of Your Excellency to kindly provide the student with a letter stating your agreement to assist him in gathering the data needed for this research project.

Please accept our sincere appreciation

**Prof. Ghazy A. Almakky**

**Cultural Bureau in the  
United Kingdom & Ireland**



المملكة العربية السعودية  
وزارة التربية والتعليم  
(٢٨٠)

وكالة الوزارة للتخطيط والتطوير  
الإدارة العامة للبحوث

الرقم: ٣٤١٧٥٩٨٦٠  
التاريخ: ١١/١٠/١٤٣٤  
المشروعات: —

الموضوع: بشأن مهمة الطالب/ خالد بن عبدالله الطيار

سعادة الملحق الثقافي في المملكة المتحدة وايرلندا

وفقه الله

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد:

إشارة إلى خطاب سعادتكم بشأن تسهيل مهمة الطالب/ خالد بن عبدالله الطيار حول جمع المعلومات الخاصة بمشروع بحثه لدرجة الدكتوراه بجامعة يورك نفيد سعادتكم أنه لا مانع لدينا من حيث المبدأ من تسهيل مهمته على أن يتقدم بطلب يحدد فيه ما هو المطلوب مع إرفاق نسخ من الأدوات التي سوف يستخدمها وتحديد عينة الدراسة .

ولمزيد من الاستفسار يمكن الاتصال على الأستاذ/ عبدالرحمن بن عبدالله الغنم على هاتف رقم ( ٠٠٩٦٦١٤١٢٣٦٢٤ ) .

وتقبلوا وافر التحية والتقدير ، ، ،

كفنتح  
١٠

مدير عام البحوث

د. محمد بن عبدالله الضويان

ص: للإدارة :

**Letter concerning the fieldwork  
(Translated from Arabic)**

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia  
Ministry of Education  
Ministry Deputy for Planning and Development,  
General Directorate of Research  
N. 321759860  
10/11/1432 H

Concerning Student: KHALID AL TAYYAR

Dear Saudi Cultural Attaché to the Bureau in the United Kingdom and Ireland,

Peace be upon you:

With reference to your request to facilitate the research mission of the student KHALID ABDULLAH AL TAYYAR to collect data as part of his research to obtain a doctorate degree at the University of York in Britain.

We would like to inform you that we have no objection to facilitate his mission and he must submit a request in which he specifies what is required, enclosing a copy of the tools which he will use, together with specification of research samples.

For further enquiries, please contact Mr. Abdulrahman Abdullah Al-Ghannam on 0096614123624.

Best wishes,

General Manager of Research

D. Mohammed Abdullah Al-Dowayan

الرقم: ١٤١٨٧٤٧٤٤  
التاريخ: ١١/٢٥/١٤٣٤  
المشرفات: ح



المملكة العربية السعودية  
وزارة التربية والتعليم  
(٢٨٠)

وكالة الوزارة للتخطيط والتطوير  
الإدارة العامة للبحوث

الموضوع: بشأن تسهيل مهمة الطالب/ خالد بن عبدالله الطيار

سعادة مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير (بنين)  
الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض  
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد:  
تجدون سعادتكم برفقه أداة الطالب/ خالد بن عبدالله الطيار، أحد طلاب  
الدراسات العليا لمرحلة الدكتوراه بجامعة يورك في بريطانيا بشأن بحثه بعنوان  
"الرضا الوظيفي والدافعية لدى معلمي المرحلة الثانوية الحكومية بمدينة الرياض"  
آمل من سعادتكم التكرم بالتوجيه بتسهيل مهمته .  
وتقبلوا وافر التحية والتقدير ، ، ،

١١/٢٥

مدير عام البحوث  
د. محمد بن عبدالله الضويان



ص. مع التحية لسعادة الملحق الثقافي في المملكة المتحدة وإيرلندا .  
ص. للإدارة .  
ص. لخدمات البحث  
ص. للباحث .

**Letter concerning the fieldwork  
(Translated from Arabic)**

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia  
Ministry of Education  
Ministry Deputy for Planning and Development  
General Directorate of Research  
N. 321872722  
25/11/1432 H  
Attachments: 2

Re: Facilitating the research mission of student: KHALID AL TAYYAR

Dear Director General of Planning and Development (boys), General Directorate for Education in Riyadh

Peace be upon you:

Please find enclosed the interview schedule of KHALID ABDULLAH AL TAYYAR, a postgraduate student at the University of York, regarding his PhD research entitled “Job satisfaction and motivation amongst male secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia”.

I beg your Excellency to issue the necessary instructions to facilitate his mission.

With sincere greetings and appreciation

**General Manager of Research  
Dr. Mohammad A Althoyan**

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



المملكة العربية السعودية  
وزارة التربية والتعليم  
الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم / البنية التحتية للتعليم  
إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

الرقم : ٢٢١٩١٩٦٦٢  
التاريخ : ١٤٢٤/١٢/٢٢  
المشروعات : /

### تسهيل مهمة باحث

اسم	سجل تجاري
خالد بن عبد الله الطيار	١٠٢٧٩٤٩٧٥٧
العام الدراسي	الجامعة
١٤٣٢هـ / ١٤٣٣هـ	دكتوراه
دكتوراه	يورك في بريطانيا
عنوان الدراسة: الرضا الوظيفي والدافعية لدى معلمي المرحلة الثانوية بمدينة الرياض	
عينة الدراسة : معلون .	

وفقه الله

المكرم مدير مدرسة .....

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ، وبعد :

بناء على تعميم معالي الوزير رقم ٥٥/٦١٠ وتاريخ ١٧/٩/١٤١٦هـ بشأن تفويض الإدارات العامة للتربية والتعليم بإصدار خطابات السماح للباحثين بإجراء البحوث والدراسات . وحيث تقدم إلينا الباحث (الموضحة بياناته أعلاه) بطلب إجراء دراسته ، ونظراً لإكمال الأوراق المطلوبة نأمل تسهيل مهمته . مع ملاحظة أن الباحث يتحمل كامل المسؤولية المتعلقة بمختلف جوانب البحث ، ولا يعني سماح الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم موافقته بالضرورة على مشكلة البحث أو على الطرق والأساليب المستخدمة في دراسته ومعالجتها.

شاكرين طيب تعاونكم ،

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

صالح بن إبراهيم التوجري

**Letter concerning the fieldwork  
(Translated from Arabic)**

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia  
Ministry of Education  
General Department of Education for Boys in Riyadh,  
Department of Planning and Development

N. 321919662

02/12/1432 H

Attachments:

**To facilitate a researcher's mission**

Name: KHALID AL TAYYAR

School year: 1432-1433H

Degree level: PhD

University: University of York, United Kingdom

Study title: Job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia

Study sample: teachers

Dear Principal of ..... School

Based on the directive of His Excellency the Minister No. 55/610 date 17/09/1416H on delegating the General Administration of Education to Issue letters of permission for the conduct of research studies, and as the researcher whose details are given above has made a request to conduct this study and that all necessary documentation has been completed, we ask you to facilitate his mission.

Please note that the researcher holds the entire responsibility in relation to all aspects of the research and that the permission of the Education Directorate does not necessarily mean its agreement to the research methodology used in his studies or to the process of data analysis.

With sincere greetings and appreciation

**Director of Planning and Development**

**Saleh Ibrahim Tuwajri**



## **Appendix D: Interview invitation, participant information sheet and consent form**

### **Interview Invitation**

Dear Colleague

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 additional in-depth data, and as you kindly participated in the first phase of data collection by completing the questionnaire, I would like to invite you to take part in the second phase of data collection by attending an interview.

The topic of my research is job satisfaction and motivation among male secondary school teachers in Riyadh. As part of my investigations I am hoping to gather in-depth data from practicing teachers by talking to them about their work and their feelings towards it. To do this I have prepared a semi-structured interview schedule that explores different aspects of the job.

As an educational worker, I am aware of your busy schedule, but your co-operation in taking a part in the interview will be of great help in determining factors related to teachers' job satisfaction and motivation. 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 read the enclosed Participant Information Sheet, 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.

Khalid Al Tayyar  
The University of York  
Department of Educational Studies  
United Kingdom  
[Kad5t@hotmail.com](mailto:Kad5t@hotmail.com). Tel: 055541224

## **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET**

**Research title:** Job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia

**Researcher:** Khalid Altayyar

**Participant:** Volunteer.

Dear Colleague,

I would like to invite you to take part in the investigation that I am currently undertaking as a requirement to obtain a PhD degree in Education from the University of York in the United Kingdom. Before deciding to participate in this research, it is important for you to understand why the research is being carried out and what exactly it will involve. Please take your time to read and consider this information carefully. Do not hesitate to ask 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.

### **1. What is the purpose of this research?**

The research aims to explore the determinant factors of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and motivation amongst teachers at boys' secondary schools in Saudi Arabia.

### **2. Why have I been chosen?**

You have been chosen to be involved in this study as you are a male secondary school teacher. More specifically; the primary target sample of this study is 35 volunteer male teachers in 10 secondary schools in Riyadh city. These schools were selected from different educational centres in order to provide comprehensive information regarding the topic under investigation.

### **3. What data do you intend to collect?**

I am aiming to gather information from teachers on various aspects of the job relating to their job satisfaction and motivation.

### **4. How will you collect it?**

The data will be collected by asking each participant a number of questions in a face-to-face interview. It is estimated that each interview will last around 40 to 50 minutes.

**5. What will happen to the data afterwards?**

Any data obtained will be primarily used for the purpose of supporting the researcher's application for a PhD degree. Additionally, the data may be used in subsequent publications related to this research.

**6. Who will see the data and how it will be stored?**

All the information which has been obtained will be kept and treated in strictest confidence. No one except the researcher will have access to it, and it will not be used for any purpose other than this research. To ascertain the anonymity you will be assigned with a random ID code. Therefore your name and school would not be used throughout any stage of this research, or be represented in the findings of the study. The data will be stored on the researcher's personal computer, which is password protected. Once the research has been completed, all data will be immediately deleted.

**7. What will happen if I do not wish to take a part or if I change my mind?**

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and it is your decision to take part. If you are interested and decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to continue with the interview, you are still free to change your mind and withdraw at any time without providing a reason and without detriment to yourself.

**8. Are there any benefits in my taking part?**

There are no direct personal benefits from your participation in this research. However, your co-operation in taking part in this interview will be of great help in determining factors related to teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in Saudi Arabia. Hopefully, the results of this study may help decision-makers and contribute to the formulation of new policies to enhance teachers' levels of job satisfaction and motivation.

**9. Are there any risks involved?**

There are no risks involved in participating in the study.

**10. How I can get further information?**

If you would like any further information, or have any further questions concerning the research study, please contact the researcher:

Khalid Altayyar  
The University of York  
Department of Educational  
United Kingdom  
Email: [Kad5t@hotmail.com](mailto:Kad5t@hotmail.com)  
Tel: 055541224

## CONSENT FORM

**Research title:** Job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers  
in Saudi Arabia

**Name of researcher:** Khalid Altayyar

**Participant:** Volunteer.

**Dear Colleague,**

Please read this form. If you are happy to proceed, please sign below.

I confirm that the researcher has given me my own copy of the information sheet for the above study, which I have read and understood. This information sheet sufficiently explains the nature and purpose of this research and what I would be asked to do as a participant. I understand that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded. No information that may identify me will be included in the research report, and my responses will remain confidential. The researcher has discussed the contents of the information sheet with me and has provided me with several opportunities to ask any questions about it.

By signing this form,

I agree to participate in this study and fully understand that my participation is voluntary. I also understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without providing 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:** .....

## CONSENT FORM FOR RECORDING THE INTERVIEW

**Research title:** Job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers  
in Saudi Arabia

**Researcher:** Khalid Altayyar

**Participant:** Volunteer.

Dear Colleague,

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:** .....

## Appendix E: Tables of validity and reliability statistics not in main text

**Table 1: Coefficients of correlation between items (components) and total score for part two of questionnaire, related to satisfaction factors**

No	Components	Coefficients of correlation
1	Your salary	.550 <sup>**</sup>
2	The principal	.478 <sup>**</sup>
3	Evaluation by the principal	.401 <sup>**</sup>
4	Educational supervisor	.528 <sup>**</sup>
5	Promotion opportunities	.570 <sup>**</sup>
6	Job grade system	.417 <sup>**</sup>
7	Relationships with colleagues	.386 <sup>**</sup>
8	Social activities with colleagues	.526 <sup>**</sup>
9	Relationships with students	.463 <sup>**</sup>
10	Students' motivation to learn	.662 <sup>**</sup>
11	Student achievement	.574 <sup>**</sup>
12	Student behaviour	.713 <sup>**</sup>
13	Relationships with parents	.613 <sup>**</sup>
14	Pressure from students about examinations	.623 <sup>**</sup>
15	Workload	.547 <sup>**</sup>
16	Classroom teaching load	.653 <sup>**</sup>
17	School working environment	.639 <sup>**</sup>
18	Doing school work at home	.527 <sup>**</sup>
19	Length of the working day	.648 <sup>**</sup>
20	Length of school holidays	.558 <sup>**</sup>
21	The curriculum	.692 <sup>**</sup>
22	New ICT opportunities	.674 <sup>**</sup>
23	Training opportunities	.779 <sup>**</sup>
24	Professional development and self-growth	.815 <sup>**</sup>
25	Opportunity to pursue advanced degree	.788 <sup>**</sup>
26	Support to improve your teaching	.702 <sup>**</sup>
27	Classroom facilities and resources	.637 <sup>**</sup>
28	ICT facilities	.719 <sup>**</sup>
29	School management	.416 <sup>**</sup>
30	School staff meetings in general	.537 <sup>**</sup>
31	School bureaucracy	.583 <sup>**</sup>
32	School policy and administration	.512 <sup>**</sup>
33	Financial support to conduct educational development programmes	.787 <sup>**</sup>
34	Status of teachers in society	.643 <sup>**</sup>
35	Recognition and reward for good work from your principal	.594 <sup>**</sup>

36	Classroom teaching	.698 <sup>**</sup>
37	Administrative paperwork you have to do	.649 <sup>**</sup>
38	Marking pupils' work	.480 <sup>**</sup>
39	Classroom discipline	.728 <sup>**</sup>
40	Supervising extracurricular activities outside classroom	.783 <sup>**</sup>
41	Autonomy over teaching	.536 <sup>**</sup>
42	Responsibilities	.693 <sup>**</sup>
43	Job security	.481 <sup>**</sup>
44	Opportunity to contribute to school decision-making	.668 <sup>**</sup>
45	Job variety	.761 <sup>**</sup>
46	Regulations and educational systems	.780 <sup>**</sup>
47	Intellectual challenge	.753 <sup>**</sup>
48	Level of stress	.631 <sup>**</sup>

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 1 lists coefficients of correlation between each component of satisfaction in part two of the questionnaire and the total overall score of the items. The value of this correlation for all items ranges between 0.386 and 0.815, indicating that all items in this part are significantly correlated with the total overall score. Thus, these items have strong validity at the significance level of 0.01.

**Table 2: Coefficients of correlation between items and total score for part three of questionnaire, related to general satisfaction**

No	Statements	Coefficients of correlation
1.	In general, I am satisfied with my job.	.852 <sup>**</sup>
2.	If I had to start my career again, I would take my current job.	.909 <sup>**</sup>
3.	If a good friend of mine was interested in working in my job, I would encourage him to take it.	.929 <sup>**</sup>

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2 lists coefficients of correlation between each component of general satisfaction in part three of the questionnaire and the total overall score of the items. As the values are all between 0.852 and 0.929, it is clear that all items in this part were significantly correlated with the total overall score, strongly indicating the validity of these items at the significance level of 0.01.

**Table 3: Coefficients of Correlation between components and total score for part four of questionnaire, related to motivation factors**

No	Components	Coefficients of correlation
1.	Doing a worthwhile job	.856**
2.	Wanting to help students to succeed	.751**
3.	Contributing to a better society	.781**
4.	Working with students	.865**
5.	Using your professional knowledge and expertise	.855**
6.	Classroom teaching	.800**
7.	Working condition	.813**
8.	Your salary	.684**
9.	Recognition and status in society	.726**

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 lists coefficients of correlation between each component of motivation in part four in the questionnaire and the total overall score of the items. The values range between 0.726 and 0.865, which indicates that all items in this part were significantly correlated with the total overall score. This is strong evidence of the validity of these items at the significance level of 0.01.

**Table 4: Coefficients of correlation between items and total score for part five of questionnaire, related to general motivation**

No	Statements	Coefficients of correlation
1.	In general, I am motivated to do my job	.927**
2.	I work hard at my job.	.863**
3.	I would rather do teaching than change to another job.	.929**

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4 lists coefficients of correlation between each item of general motivation in part five of the questionnaire and the total overall score of the items. The values range from 0.863 to 0.929, indicating that all items in this part were significantly correlated with the total overall score, which is strong evidence of the validity of these items at the significance level of 0.01.



## Appendix F: Factor analysis tables not in the main text

**Table 5: Results of PCA with varimax rotation for job satisfaction**

N	Statements/ Components	Components/Factor loadings									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28	ICT facilities	.791	.076	.073	.143	.032	-.019	.099	.092	.121	-.014
26	Support to improve your teaching	.749	.103	.135	.147	.060	.184	-.066	.065	.086	.001
27	Classroom facilities and resources	.742	.115	.084	.179	.020	-.004	.013	.110	.215	.026
22	New ICT opportunities	.735	.051	.046	.074	.121	-.038	.111	.110	.118	-.123
24	Professional development and self-growth	.709	.119	.210	.091	.189	.141	.022	-.020	-.064	-.049
23	Training opportunities	.703	.105	.102	.135	.222	.162	.029	-.001	-.092	.021
25	Opportunity to pursue advanced degree	.680	.125	.178	.173	.095	.232	-.098	-.047	-.038	.042
33	Financial support to conduct educational development programmes	.574	.240	.165	.093	.032	.220	.037	.095	.092	.202
2	The principal	-.003	.785	.067	.011	.037	.103	.071	-.032	.061	-.258
32	School policy and administration	.143	.775	.123	.063	.138	.109	.017	.040	.098	.074
29	School management	.182	.700	.047	.120	.177	.006	.066	.059	.045	.029
35	Recognition and reward for good work from your principal	.093	.686	.291	.073	.004	.089	.094	.064	.006	-.100
3	Evaluation by the principal	.042	.634	.092	-.002	.113	.145	.013	.024	-.022	-.438
31	School bureaucracy	.102	.559	.245	.195	.238	.023	.240	-.032	.107	.253
30	School staff meetings in general	.251	.558	.115	.072	.125	-.013	.269	.088	.185	.131
44	Opportunity to contribute to school decision-making	.236	.528	.278	.123	.085	.092	.002	.249	-.030	.219
41	Autonomy over teaching	.058	.124	.677	.084	.132	.054	.106	.086	-.088	-.162
42	Responsibilities	.073	.120	.674	.106	.114	.119	.039	.076	.205	.049
39	Classroom discipline	.155	.049	.641	.233	.202	-.012	.167	-.100	.157	-.023
36	Classroom teaching	.134	.181	.596	.175	.212	.023	.251	-.033	.135	-.046
43	Job security	.160	.098	.537	-.022	.058	.120	-.097	.249	-.046	-.051
45	Job variety	.212	.351	.533	.008	.218	.112	.064	.153	.062	.121
40	Supervising extracurricular activities outside classroom	.243	.234	.506	.213	.024	.164	.020	.089	.232	.117
47	Intellectual challenge	.383	.185	.474	.062	.242	.148	.078	.246	-.129	.217
37	Administrative paperwork you have to do	.261	.288	.389	.020	.111	.100	.045	.165	.373	-.024
11	Student achievement	.220	.124	.123	.809	.056	.099	-.015	.061	-.077	.089
10	Students' motivation to learn	.289	.131	.148	.751	.039	.109	-.045	.042	-.009	.037
12	Student behaviour	.170	.045	.184	.670	.251	.007	.089	.013	.040	-.041
14	Pressure from students about examinations	.164	.055	.095	.504	.255	.100	.122	.117	.314	-.055
13	Relationships with parents	.133	.066	-.022	.493	.040	.044	.257	.220	.247	.034
15	Workload	.130	.212	.113	.183	.717	.163	-.043	.054	.126	.019
16	Classroom teaching load	.153	.075	.240	.217	.650	.115	.069	.034	.164	-.058
19	Length of the working day	.122	.130	.203	-.008	.615	.100	.090	.096	.026	-.051
17	School working environment	.146	.363	.259	.255	.462	.020	.166	.099	.022	.022
48	The level of stress	.254	.243	.372	.068	.407	.151	-.051	.062	.044	.313
6	Job grade system	.156	.085	.117	.109	.141	.825	.114	.004	.105	-.037
5	Promotion opportunities	.204	.086	.067	.097	.092	.821	.096	-.025	.063	-.073
1	Your salary	.154	.161	.178	.034	.137	.585	.007	.198	-.047	.044
7	Relationships with colleagues	-.074	.132	.158	-.017	.084	.084	.746	.021	-.071	-.024
8	Social activities with colleagues	.185	.185	.018	.100	-.015	.094	.711	.129	.133	.039
9	Relationships with students	-.073	.086	.313	.330	.090	.034	.492	-.171	-.088	-.144
20	Length of school holidays	.030	.062	.114	.099	.061	.076	.022	.709	.147	-.111
21	The curriculum	.233	.107	.146	.200	.307	-.070	.128	.452	-.146	-.005
46	Regulations and educational systems	.358	.173	.308	.089	.193	.269	.046	.450	.007	.222
38	Marking pupils' work	.132	.173	.419	.083	.131	.049	.121	-.078	.548	.038
18	Doing school work at home	.166	.162	.141	.126	.357	.091	-.165	.191	.526	-.010
4	Educational supervisor	.136	.365	.192	.010	.063	.148	.045	.250	.024	-.565
34	Status of teachers in society	.303	.161	.210	.210	-.048	.257	-.054	.254	.065	.329

.Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

.Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations

**Table 6: Result of PCA with varimax rotation for motivation**

Statements	Components/ Factor loadings	
	1	2
Contributing to a better society	.816	.299
Wanting to help students to succeed	.814	.209
Working with students	.809	.190
Using your professional knowledge and expertise	.785	.312
Classroom teaching	.607	.267
Doing a worthwhile job	.546	.180
Recognition and status in society	.300	.811
Working conditions	.250	.773
Salary	.290	.722

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

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