AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF BEIRUT

WHAT MATTERS TO TEACHERS? 
MOTIVATORS AND DEMOTIVATORS IN HIGH AND LOW COMMITTED SCHOOLS

by

SONA SEROP JOULAHJIAN

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SONA SEROP JOULAHJIAN

Approved by:

[Dr. Rima Karami Akkary, Associate Professor
Department of Education]
Advisor

[Dr. Vivian Khamis, Professor
Department of Education]
Member of Committee

[Dr. Anies Al-Hroub, Associate Professor
Department of Education]
Member of Committee

Date of thesis defense: [February 8, 2016]
AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF BEIRUT

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My Masters journey has finally come to an end, but it is just the beginning of the real journey!
AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Sona Serop Joulahjian for Master of Arts

Major: Education Administration and Policy Studies

Title: What Matters to Teachers? Motivators and Demotivators in High and Low Committed Schools.

The objective of this study was to identify the different commitment profiles of the teachers in Armenian private schools and to investigate the factors that act as motivators and demotivators in a Highly committed and a Less committed school. Many school organizations around the world are nowadays facing teacher shortage (UIS, 2012) particularly because of the increase in the flow of teachers leaving (Curtis, 2012). Many researchers established that there is a connection between turnover and organizational commitment and suggested that in order to enhance the latter the motivational factors that can enhance it need to be identified and understood (Gagne, Chemolli, Forest, & Koestner, 2008; Johnson, Chang, & Yang 2010). This case study follows an exploratory design. First, 6 Armenian private schools located in the Beirut area were selected based on their religious affiliations (Orthodox, Catholic and Evangelical). Full-time teachers in each school were invited to voluntarily participate in the study by completing the 18 item Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Results were calculated to identify the extreme cases; the school with highest commitment and the school with the lowest commitment. In the second phase of the study, teachers from these 2 selected schools were recruited for individual and group interviews. Through these interviews, the researcher was able to identify the motivators and the demotivators of teachers with different commitment levels. Data gathered from the Highly committed school revealed teachers’ motivators to be: (a) Teaching itself; (b) Making a contribution to their community; (c) Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress; (d) Receiving appreciation from students; (e) Receiving appreciation from the administration; (f) Having a supportive school leadership; (g) Having a welcoming school climate. The demotivators were: (a) Students’ low achievement; (b) Non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands; (c) Lack of support from the administration and leader; (d) Lack of appreciation; (e) Unfair shared appreciation; (f) Uncomfortable school climate; and (g) Stressful teachers’ workload. In the Less committed school, the motivators were (a) Feeling responsible towards children; (b) Receiving work appreciation from the administration; (c) Receiving work appreciation from the students; (d) having a supportive school leadership; (e) Having a welcoming school climate. The demotivators were: (a) Lack of appreciation from the administration, students and parents; (b) Lack of support from the administration; (c) Stressful teachers’ workload; (d) Uncomfortable school climate; and (e) Unavailability of technology. Such results can help administrators know more about the factors that need to be enhanced to motivate their teachers and the factors that need to be eliminated to keep the motivation level up. The nature of these motivators also gives us a better understanding of what really matters to teachers.
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To my beloved family…

To all administrators and educators,

I hope this thesis will contribute to the field of Educational Management…
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Why are qualified teachers leaving the teaching profession? How can administrators make them stay? To what extent are teachers feeling a sense of commitment to the organization they work in today? These were just few of the questions raised at the end of 5 years of teaching experience, especially after witnessing a flow of qualified teachers leaving all at once. These questions have led the researcher to focus her inquiry on these emerging concerns hoping to shed light on an issue that proves to be critical in the field of Educational Management and Education.

Administrators around the world showed worry about the future of their schools stating that the exit of qualified teachers have left them become uncertain about their future (Buchanan, 2012; Yoo, 2011). Some expressed their concern regarding the high turnover rate and expected the educational sector to face serious challenges (UIS, 2012). Others have found it to reduce the effectiveness of their organizations (Dawani, 2001). Today, the turnover of teachers has become a major challenge for schools and school administrators around the world. There is evidence on the continuing increase in the number of teachers quitting, as well as risks of teacher shortage (UIS, 2012).

Many researchers established that there is a connection between turnover and organizational commitment and suggested that, in order to enhance the latter, the motivational factors that can enhance it need to be identified and understood (Gagne, Chemolli, Forest, &Koestner, 2008; Griffeth, Hom&Gaertner, 2000; Johnson, Chang, & Yang 2010; Katz, 1964; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Becker &Vandenberghe, 2004; Meyer & Maltin, 2010;Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).
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This study will adopt a motivational approach when exploring organizational commitment. It will be grounded in the assumption that, by identifying the motivational factors that teachers perceive as resulting in their organizational commitment, we will be able to recommend strategies to foster this commitment; which in turn can lead to finding ways to reduce the rates of organizational turnover in schools.

Research Problem

On the international front, the problem of turnover was extensively studied. It is evident that turnover has become, nowadays, a widespread concern to policy makers not only in schools but in most organizations. In addition to putting financial burden on organizations (The Alliance of Excellent Education, 2008) and creating structural gaps (Hanna, 2012), turnover has also produced weak organizations. As a result, hiring policies were changed to lower standards in response to the high demand and low supply, appointing individuals to take teaching responsibilities which they are under-qualified to perform (Ingersoll, 2003). This was reported to have had a major impact on the education sector, as students were not receiving quality education due to absence of qualified teachers (UIS, 2012). Turnover has also become a major concern to education researchers who are constantly attempting to understand the reasons that lead teachers to leave (Pitsoe & Machaisa, 2012). Many postulate that through overcoming turnover, organizational administrators will be able to ensure the survival of their organizations (Tella, Ayeni, & Popoola, 2007; Warsi, Fatima & Sahibzada, 2009).

Today, Lebanon experiences excess of nonqualified teachers, yet still faces a retention problem especially when it comes to qualified teachers. Schools are short on retaining qualified teachers in both the public and private schools, due to the overwhelming number of under-qualified teachers (MEHE, 2010). Statistics done by the Ministry of Education and Higher Education on teachers’ qualification indicated that 54.5% of the employed public
teachers have no university degree, 41.3% hold a university degree, and only 4.2% hold a specialized degree (MEHE, 2010). The reported reason for recruiting under-qualified teachers is the existing shortage of finding qualified new graduates who can help in meeting the increasing school demand for teachers. In fact, recent statistics show that there is a very low percentage in the number of students majoring in Education. According to the Center of Educational Research and Development (CERD) 2009-2010 report, only 2% of university students were majoring in Education in the Lebanese University and another 2% in the other universities (as cited in CAS, 2012). In the Arab world, Dawani (2001) explained the shortage of qualified teachers as a result of the negative image that society holds for schools and of teachers. College bound students in the Arab world see the school and the teaching profession as traditional and routine-filled, which is why it does not attract them to work in such a field. Today, in Lebanese public schools, there is a need for improving the efficiency of the schools and the efficiency of managing these schools (MEHE, 2010). Retaining qualified teachers is critical for schools, and understanding the factors that might contribute to increasing those teachers’ organizational commitment becomes essential to be achieved.

As a Lebanese of Armenian descent, the researcher felt a need to inquire about the organizational commitment of teachers in the Lebanese Armenian schools due to a lack of data on this topic. Unfortunately, research on Armenian schools operating in Lebanon is scarce and no studies were found on teachers’ commitment and motivation.

In Lebanon, the Armenian community, which represents 4% of the population, is considered an important minority ethnic group (CIA, 2013). Armenians have played an integral role in the Lebanese society since the early stages of the Lebanese independence. They are known to have their own language and their own schools which are mostly affiliated to the Orthodox, Catholic and Evangelical churches and follow the Lebanese national curriculum. According to the Armenian Embassy in Lebanon, Lebanese Armenian schools
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are some of the most organized education institutions found among other Armenian Diaspora, having 26 operating schools and 8000 students in total (Embassy of Armenia to Lebanon, n.d.). Unfortunately little is said about those schools when compared to other existing ones in Lebanon. Apart from developing their academic curriculum for quality education, most Armenian schools target to promote the Armenian identity and heritage (Hamazkayin, February, 2008; UAECNE, 2001). Looking into those schools will not only give us insight on the commitment of teachers in the Armenian schools, but it will provide us with data on an existing community, which has long been an important part of the Lebanese society and also an important part of the Armenian Diaspora in the Middle East and in the world.

Rationale of the Study

The research topic came to be as a result of the gaps found in the literature:

*Gaps in the international literature.* While much research discussed the many important implications of organizational commitment, and while organizational commitment became amongst the central concepts studied in the turnover and work behavior literature, research focused mostly on studying the turnover correlates, and unfortunately only few attempts were made to have an in-depth understanding of its nature and its motivational predictors (Morrow, 2011).

Moreover, in the last 10 years, research developments on organizational commitment suggested integrating motivation when studying organizational commitment (Meyer et al, 2004) proposing that through identifying the nature of motivation one can understand the different forms of commitment. Unfortunately, only few recent studies attempted to integrate motivation when studying commitment in relation to work behaviors (Battistelli, Galletta, Portoghese, & Vandenberghue, 2013; Botterweck, 2007; Gagne et al. 2008; Johnson et al.,
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2010; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Meyer, Becker, Van Dick, 2006; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010).

On the other hand, unfortunately the literature on the 3 commitment forms (a) Affective Commitment (AC), the emotional connection of the employees with the organization and the desire to stay, (b) Normative Commitment (NC), the feeling of obligation to stay in the organization, and (c) Continuance Commitment (CC), staying due to the costs of leaving (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993), has grown independent from one another and given uneven attention (Meyer et al., 2012). This was due to the developments in research which gave more importance to one form of commitment over the other, which was the case with Affective commitment. As a result of the distinctions, there are insufficient studies available which discuss Continuance and Normative commitment, as Affective commitment has become the most dominant form discussed in the commitment literature (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2012).

As a response to this gap, this study will be looking into the different commitment ‘profiles’ proposed in the literature which combine the 3 forms of commitment when defining commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Wasti, 2005). For instance, a person who is characterized as having a Highly Committed profile will be a person who has high levels of Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment. The person referred to as having a Low-Committed profile will be a person who has low levels on all the three forms. The 3 forms are characterized as a link between the individual and the organization, thus considering them together will be essential for this study. This was explained by Meyer and Allen (1990) who believed that “a more comprehensive understanding of this link is achieved when all three are considered simultaneously” (p.14).
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Available studies on commitment ‘profiles’ have unfortunately directed their research on understanding their implications rather than on how they are developed (Somers, 2010; Wasti, 2005).

Furthermore, up to the 21st century, researchers have only tried to explain what keeps teachers motivated, but not enough was said about factors that affect motivation negatively (Dorneyi, 2001). There were also different conceptions regarding the nature of the motivation factors found in the workplace (Owens & Valesky, 2011).

_Literature Gap in Lebanon and Other developing countries._ Despite a strong need to overcome turnover in organizations or in schools, only little research was done on this topic in the Lebanese context and specifically in Armenian schools operating in Lebanon. This lack was much expressed by Kawwa (2006) who conducted a study on 227 random Lebanese workers, stating that there is “lack of research done in Lebanon to identify the causes of employee satisfaction, kinds of commitment, and turnover.” (p.51). Ghamrawi and Jammal (2013) were from the very few who studied turnover, as they studied the effect of certain factors such as leadership, career stress and personality characteristics on teacher turnover in the school context. In their study, they also expressed their wish to have more studies done in the Lebanese context compared to the extensive studies found in the international literature. They clearly asserted that “no single published study has been detected by the authors within the Lebanese context” (p.72). Moreover, the lack of empirical studies in the Arab world was expressed in a report done through the Arab Center for Research and Policy Studies in Qatar on teacher shortage (Demirjian, 2015).

In addition, not enough studies were conducted to understand organizational commitment in the Lebanese context. This was confirmed by Dirani (2007), who affirmed in his review of current research that “in Lebanon, the scarcity of literature on organizational commitment is obvious and empirical research in this area is rare” (Dirani, 2007, p.44). Only
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one study was found on the effect of a leadership style on organizational commitment in the Lebanese school context (Berjaoui, 2013). Berjaoui (2013) expressed regarding the literature gap found on organizational commitment in the Lebanese school context as she also provides information on the effect of distributed leadership on teachers’ organizational commitment.

The above noted shortage of research was not only the case in Lebanon, but also in other non-western countries, where research on organizational commitment was said to be limited (Meyer et al., 2002). This seems to also be the case in other work fields as Hanna (2012) mentions that “there is a scarcity of research concerning the effects of voluntary turnover on specialized banks in the Middle East, Arab context in particular” (p.20).

In conclusion, studies exploring turnover and organizational commitment were found to be scarce in the Lebanese context, and it was unfortunately non-existent in the Lebanese Armenian context.

The Purpose of the Study

The objective of this study is (a) to identify the different commitment profiles of teachers in a representative sample of Lebanese Armenian schools, based on their Affective, Normative and Continuance commitment level this will help to identify the schools which are categorized as the Highly committed and the Low committed in Lebanon, (b) to investigate teachers’ perspectives on the factors that act as motivators and demotivators in a Highly committed and the Low committed school respectively, and finally, (c) to compare the factors found in both highly and low committed schools. Therefore the research questions for this study are:

(a) What are the organizational commitment profiles of the teachers working in Lebanese Armenian schools?
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(b) What are the factors that act as motivators and demotivators for teachers in schools with high commitment, and for those in schools with low commitment?

(c) What are the similarities and differences between the two kinds of schools with regard to the factors that act as motivators and demotivators for teachers?

Significance

This study is of importance especially that it will have direct implications for practice. The study seeks to explore possible motivators and demotivators which can affect teachers’ commitment and their decision to stay. By revealing the motivators, we will be able to know the factors that can enhance commitment. By revealing the demotivators, we will be able to know the factors that hinder the commitment level of teachers who are still in the organization, however who intend to leave. The findings of this study will provide school administrators or even the Ministry of Education and Higher Education in Lebanon and the Lebanese Armenian community with descriptive data on teachers’ commitment in a sample of Lebanese Armenian schools, and they will also help identify the underlying motivation factors of those who are highly committed and those who are low committed. The findings will act as a guide for future improvement plans.

Moreover, this study will have implications on research as it aims to provide insight into the nature of the motivation factors of the teachers in the Highly committed schools and the teachers in the Low committed schools. This can contribute towards enriching the literature on similar topics in Education and it can also encourage other researchers to look into these concepts more in depth and in their turn contribute to practice. As previously stated, the few available studies in Lebanon mainly investigated the banking (Dirani, 2007; Dirani & Kuchinke, 2011; Hanna, 2012), nursing sectors (El-Jardali, Dimassi, Dumit, Jamal, & Mouro, 2009), and random Lebanese workers (Kawwa, 2006), and provided us with limited data on turnover and organizational commitment in educational organizations.
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Moreover, Lebanese researchers mostly measured the correlation between the variables such as turnover, turnover intention, organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Dirani & Kuchinke, 2011; El-Jardali et al., 2009; Hanna, 2012; Kawwa, 2006). Available studies either discussed turnover in relation to job satisfaction (El-Jardali et al., 2009; Hanna, 2012) or to both organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kawwa, 2006). The other available studies explored the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Dirani, 2007; Dirani & Kuchinke, 2011). In the educational sector, research on the Lebanese context was difficult to find as only one study looked into the effect of leadership, career stress and personality characteristics on turnover and another study examined the effect of distributed leadership on teachers’ commitment.

This study’s contribution is to examine organizational commitment in the context of the educational sector and to adopt a different approach to studying organizational commitment; whereas it attempts to explore the motivational basis of teachers’ different commitment levels in the Lebanese cultural context. This will be done through a qualitative research design; to explore and to reach in depth explanations of the nature of the organizational commitment (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010). Meanwhile the findings will add to the international literature done on turnover, commitment, and motivation.
CHAPTER II

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will provide a review of the literature found on the areas related to this study: Employee Turnover, Organizational Commitment and Motivation. Empirical studies and theoretical works will be reviewed under three different sections.

Teacher Turnover as an Organizational Threat

Employee turnover has long been a concept discussed in the literature. Employee turnover, being a negative withdrawal behavior, has posed challenges to many organizations around the world. There is ample evidence (Ingersoll, 2003; NCTAF, 2010; Pitsoe & Machaisa, 2012; UIS, 2012) that teacher turnover has become a global threat as empirical evidence reflect the constant challenges school administrators are facing at retaining their employees. Teachers are getting into the teaching profession with great motivation for helping children and making a difference; however this is changing over time, and teachers are leaving sooner than expected (Curtis, 2012). According to the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2012), the rate of primary school teachers leaving is alarming. Around 5.1 million teachers will have to be replaced because of turnover alone by 2015, along with the 1.7 million new posts. Sub-Saharan Africa, more than other places, is and will be experiencing great loss of qualified teaching workforce, followed by the Arab States. Data show that 993,000 teachers will be needed in sub-Saharan Africa, representing 56% of global demand, 248,000 in the Arab States representing 14%, followed by North America and Western Europe, and South and West Asia. Due to the high rate of teacher attrition, turnover has showed to have disrupting effect on organizations and on the education system (Ingersoll, 2003). Students are not receiving quality education because qualified teachers are leaving
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(UIS, 2012). In America, 534,861 teachers were hired in the year 1999-2000 and 539,778 quit by the end of it (NCTAF, 2002). Because of the shortage and the urgency to hire teachers, organizations are unfortunately not only resorting to under-qualified individuals to fill these teaching posts, but they are changing their policies of hiring to a lower standard (Ingersoll, 2003). Even more, turnover has added financial burden on organizations because of the costs needed every year for employing new teachers (The Alliance of Excellent Education, 2008). According to the analysis done by the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (NCTAF) (2010), the costs of turnover in America showed to be around $7.2 billion due to the costs put on hiring and on training new teachers.

Why do Teachers Leave?

According to studies on teachers’ turnover, teachers leave for varying reasons. A study done on high school mathematics teachers found that teachers’ reasons for leaving were their low salary, teachers’ blame, overwhelming demands of new educational laws, and lack of administrative support (Curtis, 2012). On the other hand, NCTAF (2002) reported findings collected from statistical data that the causes of teachers leaving were low salaries, poor working conditions, poor preparation and training of teachers through programs, and lack of mentoring support in the early years of teaching. According to statistics done on new teachers, 40 to 50% who left the teaching profession, left due to their dissatisfaction which resulted from organizational characteristics and conditions at school (Ingersoll, 2003). In another study, it was found that the rigid administrative structure and centralized decision made teachers have the intention to flee the profession (Al Saheb, 2012). According to another study done on 306 teachers, the characteristics of the job activities, working conditions, and the negative professional image of the teacher were reasons for making teachers leave (Muller, Alliata & Benninghoff, 2009). On the other hand, although statistics showed that American teachers value teaching and learning environment, the major reasons
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for them leaving were the inadequate system supports; the lack of “adequate time for planning and professional development, textbooks for their students, and reliable assistance from the district office” (Futernick, 2007, p.8), and ‘bureaucratic impediments’ which were explained to be “excessive paperwork, too many unnecessary classroom interruptions, or too many restrictions on teaching itself” (Futernick, 2007, p.8). These factors drove teachers out of the schools because they interfered in the teaching learning environment. In a study done in California, different factors were examined to find the reasons behind teachers’ leaving. Extrinsic factors such as salaries and working conditions did play a crucial role in keeping teachers in their schools. Also student demographic factors affected teachers’ commitment to the school, especially that there were a lot of cases where students were low-achieving, with poor socioeconomic background and from minority groups. Teachers usually stay in schools where students are high achievers and where the school is more advantaged economically and educationally (Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005).

The Antecedents of Turnover

From the early times, much research was done to understand the phenomena of turnover and to investigate it more closely. The reason was to overcome the negative outcomes resulting from such a behavior and to find ways to retain employees.

The theory of March and Simon (1958) on organizational equilibrium was one of the earliest theories investigating turnover; this landmark theory stressed on the importance of job satisfaction as being a core variable which reduced the turnover of employees (March & Simon, 1958). Later, the met-expectation model developed by Porter and Steers (1973) further explained turnover by stating that the dissatisfaction resulting from the unmet expectations set by an individual increased the likelihood of employee turnover. Another research has explained turnover to be also a result of organizational commitment. It found that organizational commitment is an important mediator between the two (Price & Mueller,
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1981). On the other hand, turnover was explained to be a withdrawal behavior which resulted from low levels of organizational commitment and job tension (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983). Later, research moved away from attributing turnover solely to job satisfaction to emphasizing the impact of more complex contextual factors and personal conditions on turnover (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). These concepts included organizational culture, group cohesion, organizational reward systems, gender composition, demography; these were believed to be variables influencing employee turnover (Holtom et al., 2008). As research on exploring the factors leading to turnover continued, organizational commitment and job satisfaction remained to be two of the most common and most important variables that were found to predict turnover (Holtom et al., 2008).

In later years, important developments in understanding organizational development had implications on explaining turnover patterns (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Among them was Meyer and Allen’s (1991) conceptualization of organizational commitment. The three faceted model where the Affective Commitment (AC), Normative Commitment (NC) and Continuance Commitment (CC), were introduced to predict withdrawal attitudes and behaviors such as turnover (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The findings of their study showed strong correlation between the three forms of commitment with turnover.

In response to this development, much research emphasized the role of organizational commitment in understanding turnover as it negatively correlated with turnover intentions (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola 1998; Mueller & Price, 1990) and with actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982), and it pointed to have a more significant impact than job satisfaction.
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What is Organizational Commitment?

Organizational commitment is considered to be an important aspect that contributes in understanding organizational behaviors and attitudes such as turnover intentions, turnover and performance (Cohen, 2007; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Stan, 2013). There has been abundant theoretical and empirical studies investigating the organizational commitment concept. Organizational commitment showed to have positive implications on both the organization and the employee (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees who were committed showed to have higher levels of work satisfaction, lower levels of work stress, lower levels of work-home life conflicts (Meyer & Allen, 1997), higher levels of attendance (Meyer et al., 2002) higher levels of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) as well as higher levels of performance, and lower levels of turnover intention (Morin, Morizot, Boudrias, & Madore, 2011). Moreover, they showed to build healthier cultures in schools to help achieve educational goals (Shagholi, Zabihi, Atefi, & Moayedi, 2011).

The Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment

Many scholars disagreed about the conceptualization of organizational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), thus varying definitions have existed (Morrow, 1993). It has been defined as a ‘psychological state’ or ‘mindset’ (Meyer & Allen, 1991), a ‘bond or linking’ (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), a ‘binding force’ (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Before the 1980s, commitment mainly developed in organizational research, as the main focus of researchers was commitment to organizations (Meyer, Jackson, & Maltin, 2008). In the 1970s, the turnover of employees in North American organizations contributed to the increase interest in investigating the commitment of employees and the reason behind their decisions to leave (Meyer, Jackson, & Maltin, 2008), thus making organizational commitment a much popular concept to be discussed.
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In the early years, organizational commitment was defined by many as an attitudinal or a behavioral construct. According to Sheldon (1971) organizational commitment was ‘an attitude or orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization’ (p.143). As for Buchanan (1974), he explains it as “a partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one’s role in relation to these goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth” (p.553). He asserts that organization-based experiences make an individual more committed or less committed. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) characterized organizational commitment as an (a) identification with the organization (b) involvement in the organization; and (c) loyalty to the organization. However, their conceptualization defined organizational commitment as solely an affective attitude as they defined organizational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p.226). On the other hand, others saw it as a behavioral construct. According to Becker (1960) organizational commitment was seen as a consistent behavior which resulted from side-bets, which are extrinsic benefits to the individual that induce the workers to remain in the organization. Hrebinia and Alluto (1972) expanded Becker’s side-bet theory and defined organizational commitment as cost-based where the individual stayed due to the benefits of side bets and investments done in the organization over time as they defined commitment “in terms of exchange or reward-cost notions” (p.143). Wiener (1982) also explained organizational commitment through a behavioral perspective as he stated that commitment was “the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational interests” (p.418).

The years 1980s and 1990s, which were called the expansionary period (Meyer, Jackson & Maltin, 2008), witnessed tremendous increase in the number of research directed towards understanding the development and the consequences of organizational commitment.
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Researchers went beyond studying organizational commitment, they directed their research to investigating commitment towards different targets or foci whether it was to occupations and profession (Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993), teams and leaders (Becker, 1992), unions (Barling, Fullager, & Kelloway, 1992) and so on. Moreover, the concept itself grew and was explained as a multi-dimensional rather than a uni-dimensional construct.

Angle and Perry (1981) viewed organizational commitment as a bi-dimensional construct. They distinguished between value commitment which focused on the willingness to exert effort, and continuance commitment which focused on the desire to remain with the organization. These were, according to Angle and Perry (1981), behavioral consequences. On the other hand, O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) introduced their multi-dimensional model which characterized organizational commitment as an attitude developed through different forms, and these were (a) compliance, (b) identification and (c) internalization, respectively these occurred due to (a) extrinsic rewards, (b) the acceptance and respect of duties and roles, and 3) shared values and developing a sense of belonging and passion towards the organization (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Although O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) model was among the first multi-dimensional models, it was later characterized as a weak model since identification and internalization were found to be almost indistinguishable, moreover unlike the two, compliance was found to positively correlate with turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In response, Meyer and Allen (1991) incorporated both a behavioral and an attitudinal approach into their three-component model which became the breakthrough in the organizational commitment literature as it became adopted in the many years to come.

Meyer and Allen’s Three-Component Model

Meyer and Allen’s (1991) adopted an attitudinal and behavioral approach. Their conceptual model entailed three forms of commitment which were (a) the Affective Commitment (AC), the emotional connection of the employees with the organization and the
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desire to stay, (b) the Normative Commitment (NC), the feeling of obligation to stay in the organization, and (c) the Continuance Commitment (CC), staying due to the costs of leaving (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). This model explains that “employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.3). Compared to the previous model proposed by O’Reilly and Chatman (1986), Meyer and Allen’s (1991) model gained much more support due to its implications on understanding work behaviors and attitudes. Due to this development, research on the organizational commitment concept expanded as many attempted to investigate organizational commitment adopting Allen and Meyer’s (1991) model. Thus, the three-component model received more attention than other models outside of North America (Meyer et al., 2002). In addition to that, commitment profiles emerged in recent studies using the three-component model which changed the approach to understanding organizational commitment from variable centered to person centered (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Somers, 2010; Wasti, 2005).

Although the three forms proposed were different in their mindsets, Meyer and Allen (1991) characterized organizational commitment as “a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization” (p. 252). They considered organizational commitment as related to individuals’ desires, needs, and feelings of obligation to remain in the organization. They also added that a person was able to develop these forms of commitment at various stages and with varying degrees (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Stallworth, 2003).

Although the three forms’ conceptualization attempted to provide a comprehensive understanding of organizational commitment, Affective commitment has become the more dominant form of commitment to be researched. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that
employees who had high affective commitment levels were more likely to stay in the organization than the employees with the other commitment forms. This is the case because affective commitment according to Meyer & Allen (1990) contains intrinsic motives, since the employee stays because they want to, and not because they ought, or need to. Moreover, Morrow (2011) emphasized affective organizational commitment in his study and looked at it independently, stating that managers seek employees who have high levels of affective commitment, as it is perceived to be a more important form of commitment, and due to its positive implications on the organization; thus he overlooked the other forms. Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) however tried to stress on the importance of normative commitment as well, which was found to correlate strongly with affective commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2002). Research found that Affective commitment, followed by Normative commitment, lead to a positive correlation with desired work outcomes such as job performance, attendance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). However, continuance commitment demonstrated a negative relationship and sometimes no relationship with those desired behaviors (Meyer et al., 2002). Others discussed continuance commitment as important when it was found to correlate with high levels of affective and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2004; Stanley, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Bentein, 2009; Wasti, 2005; Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006). Although continuance commitment had showed weak negative correlation with turnover cognition in the West, it was found that it had moderate negative correlation in Asia. Moreover, normative commitment had lower correlation in the West than in the Middle East (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).

To measure the affective, continuance and normative construct, most studies have resorted to the Organization Commitment Scale (OCS) which was developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). This scale became widely used due its consistency and construct validity
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(Meyer et al., 2002). What was different about this scale was that, unlike the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1979), it measured the different dimensions of organizational commitment rather than just one. The 24-item scale was designed to measure all the three forms equally. The Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) measured the emotional attachment, identification and involvement. The Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) measured the commitment which was associated with perceived costs of leaving. The Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) measured the feeling of obligation that an employee felt to remain with the organization (Nicholson, 2009). Due to its length, some have adopted the shorter version of the scale which was developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). The revised scale contained 18 items and was found to correlate with the original one, thus making it another reliable instrument that could be used when measuring the three forms of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 2000; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002).

The Emergence of Commitment Profiles

Due to the distinctions done between the different forms of commitment suggested by Meyer and Allen (1991), Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed a more general model to organizational commitment which combined the affective, continuance and normative forms together. This approach aimed to look at organizational commitment as a whole. Moreover, its aim was to understand the commitment of homogeneous groups and to find common antecedents and common consequences which were related to these groups, rather than studying commitment by only addressing the variable itself in relation to its antecedents and consequences. This proposition to studying organizational commitment allowed to have a more person-centered rather than variable-centered approach to commitment (Wang & Hanges, 2011). The emergence of the commitment profiles was also supported because the three forms suggested by Meyer and Allen (1991) were said to be present together in varying
levels. Thus, looking into each form alone would only provide us with limited information, there is a need to look at commitment by considering the affective, continuance and normative forms if one is seeking to have a more comprehensive understanding of the concept (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Among the eight profiles, the two extremes will be referred to in this study. The first one being the ‘Highly Committed’, where commitment is high on all the three forms, and where positive behavior is at its highest. The other profile will be the ‘Non-Committed’ (Wasti, 2005), which is known to have low on all commitment forms and where the likelihood of positive behavior is at its lowest. It was found that the Highly committed employees had lower level of work withdrawal and turnover intentions and higher level of altruism towards colleagues and of ‘loyal boosterism’ which was defined as “citizenship behaviors of voluntary promotion or defense of the organization” (Wasti, 2005, p.306). It was also followed by the Affective-dominant and the Affective-Normative dominant profiles which were also categorized as the most desired commitment profiles. However the ones which showed the least desired outcomes, apart from the Non-committed was the Continuance-dominant profile.

More recent studies also investigated the relationship of these profiles with other variables (Gellatly et al., 2006; Markovits, Davis, & Van Dick, 2007; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Somers, 2009; Stanley et al., 2009). They found the fully committed employees to have lower levels of actual turnover (Somers, 2010), higher levels of intrinsic satisfaction (Markovits et al., 2007), lower levels of turnover intentions (Gellatly et al., 2009). The opposite was true with non-committed employees. Moreover, those studies supported AC-NC dominant and AC-dominant employees as also being some of the important commitment profiles which exhibited desirable outcomes more than those with CC-dominant or CC-NC dominant
commitment (Gellatly et al., 2006; Markovits, Davis, & Van Dick, 2007; Somers, 2010; Wasti, 2005).

Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

Although commitment has long been studied, only few studies have discussed factors enhancing and hindering commitment, as most studies discuss its consequences (Kushman, 1992; Morrow, 2011). In the early years, Steers (1977) explained in his study that the antecedents of organizational commitment differ in their origin and nature, and based on his findings he suggested three broad categories which were personal characteristics, job characteristics and work experiences. The need for achievement and Education were dominant under personal characteristics, task identity under job characteristics, and group attitudes toward the organization, organizational dependability and perceived self-worth under work experiences. Meyer and Allen (1991) focused more importantly on each form of commitment (Affective, Continuance or Normative).

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), the antecedents of each vary from one form to another since each form has different mindsets. Affective commitment levels were more likely to be enhanced by providing the employees with intrinsic factors. However continuance commitment was more likely to be enhanced by external factors and alternatives. On the other hand, normative commitment was more likely to be enhanced through more socialization, which will allow an employee to have a sense of self-worth. Moreover, among personal characteristics, structural characteristics and work experiences, the latter was found to have the strongest and most consistent relationship with organizational commitment, most importantly with affective commitment, followed by normative and insignificantly with continuance. Thus Meyer and Allen (1991) believe that employees who are provided with positive working experiences would be more satisfied and therefore will enhance their
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affective and normative commitment levels. However to enhance continuance commitment, it is suggested to resort to external rewards as they would be more effective. These propositions were also supported by Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993) as they found similar antecedents for occupational commitment. As for Meyer et al. (2002), they have asserted that work experiences, such as providing supportive work environment, treating employees fairly, and providing strong leadership would increase commitment levels. Moreover transformational leadership showed to correlate positively with organizational commitment. More research was done which investigated independent variables. For instance, in one study perceived organizational support was found to have a strong positive relationship with affective commitment (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003). Factors such as trust were found to affect mostly affective commitment (Darrough, 2006). This was also supported in a study done in Lebanon that found factors such as trust and teacher leadership to have positive effect on teachers. These factors led members of the organization to feel more committed to their workplace and more ready and willing to go through the ups and downs for the sake of the organization (Ghamrawi, 2011). On the other hand, availability of and support for training have found to have a positive relationship with affective and normative commitment, however they had no relationship with continuance commitment (Ahmed & Baker, 2003). According to Hulpia, Devos, and van Keer (2011) having a supportive leadership team characterized by group cohesion, role clarity, and goal orientedness promoted teachers’ organizational commitment. The study done in Lebanon also supported this argument and pointed out the importance of environmental factors noting that they can have positive effect on teachers’ organizational commitment (Ghamrawi, 2011). Treating teachers as professionals was an important factor that was also discussed by Maslow who stressed that it allowed them to reach self-actualization. Furthermore, Sergiovanni and Staratt (2006) shed light on the fact that many organizations attempt to improve the teachers’ workplace by
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adopting new policies and practices. But these changes are often having opposite effect on
teachers, ending up with teachers who are dissatisfied, demotivated and alienated due to the
fact that they are given nothing but bureaucratic work (Al Saheb, 2012; NCTAF, 2002).

Teachers are being seen as objects of supervision rather than professionals. Consequently,
such an act towards teachers can have negative effect on them, mainly on their sense of
commitment (Sergiovanni & Starrat, 2006).

A recent study focused on motivation and job satisfaction to examine their
relationship with organizational commitment (Warsi et al, 2009). They found that by
increasing and maintaining the motivation and satisfaction of employees they would increase
the chances of having more committed employees. This was also supported by a study done
by Gagne and her colleagues (2008) who found intrinsic motivation correlating significantly
and positively with affective and normative commitment; however extrinsic motivations
correlated positively only with continuance commitment. It is evident that there are many
factors which can influence organizational commitment, whether they are personal
characteristics, job characteristics or work experiences.

In this study we believe, above all, motivation plays an integral role in developing
higher levels of organizational commitment. The next section will tackle this issue more in
depth.

The Integration of Organizational Commitment and Motivation

Commitment and motivation have long been concepts discussed when studying
organizational management and organizational behavior. Although they are very different
from each other (Vandenberg, 2011), they are both similar in the characteristic of being
invisible, internal, hypothetical constructs (Botterweck, 2007; Pinder, 1998).

Recent empirical studies have highlighted the importance of motivation and
commitment in organizations since their effect help in attracting teachers and in keeping their
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quality of work (Celep, 2000; Cohen, 2007; Dwivedula, Bredillet & Muller, 2011; Muller et al., 2009; Shagholi et al., 2011; Tella et al., 2007).

In schools, having motivated and committed teachers proved to be beneficial at the different levels. At the individual level, teachers who were committed and motivated had better perceptions of themselves as they saw their work as worthwhile and had better abilities to control tasks and demonstrate responsibility and accountability of their own outcomes (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 2006). At the organizational level, teachers who were committed and motivated exhibited positive behavior towards the organization which consequently contributed to the overall school performance and success (George & Sabapathy, 2011; Muller et al., 2009). At the educational level, motivated and committed teachers demonstrated warm and accepting attitude towards students’ responses, and gave more attention to student’ individual needs. This had positive effects on students’ behavior; they were more enthusiastic to learn, more interactive and also received higher scores in their test (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 2006).

Commitment and motivation are both complex constructs. Theorists and researchers attempted to understand the nature of both and to identify the similarities and differences and the links that exist between the two. Many have also attempted to study them as a combined force that influences behavior (Meyer et al., 2004). Commitment was explained to be a component of motivation (Meyer et al., 2004) and a much more unique construct (Wiener, 1982). It is defined as a long-term attitude rather than a short-term one, such as motivation or job satisfaction, which are usually interchangeable; this is what also makes commitment difficult to foster (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Although organizational commitment was mostly referred to as an attitude, other research also referred to it as a behavior (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This view has contributed in approaching organizational commitment in different ways. According to Katz
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(1964), for behavior to be induced, it is important to identify the motivational basis of this behavior, since he believed each behavior had different motivations. Moreover, Meyer et al. (2004) emphasized on the importance of motivation as it works as an energizing force and induces action in employees (Meyer et al., 2004). On the other hand, motivation was proved to be a great predictor of commitment (Vandenberg, 2011). Many attempted to study the existing relationship between the 2 concepts and found them to have strong positive correlation (Celep, 2000; George & Sabapathy, 2011; Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2004; Samad, 2007; Tella et al., 2007; Wang, 2010; Warsi et al., 2009; Vandenberg, 2011), implying that the highly motivated were highly committed and the highly committed were highly motivated. This is not surprising, since motivation is described as an energizing force which can induce action in employees, this means it can also have the ability to influence commitment by inducing action to having committed behavior (Meyer et al., 2004; Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006).

Others however saw a weak relationship between motivation and commitment, but a stronger relationship within a specific form of commitment which was affective commitment, the commitment form which binds the individual to the organization due to a strong emotional attachment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). As for Johnson and his colleagues (2010), intrinsic motivation showed to be a better predictor for this form of commitment. The positive correlation of intrinsic motivation and affective commitment was also well supported by others (Altindis, 2011; Choong et al., 2011; Dwivedula et al., 2011; Gagne et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2004). In their study, Johnson and his colleagues (2010) tried to use one concept to understand the other and addressed commitment through a motivation-based approach. They asserted that people who have different forms of commitment will have different underlying motivations. For instance, it was found that self-determination motivations engaged teachers in their work, which made them feel more
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committed. This approach was also supported by Gagne and her colleagues (2008) as they examined the relation between motivation and commitment in the work context, and they argued that motivation was the basis of commitment, and that the nature of the motivation will determine the form of commitment the employee will develop. Although Meyer et al. (2004) believed in the existing relation between motivation and commitment, Gagne et al. (2008) argued that motivation has significant direct influence on commitment over time, but the inverse was rare, and they added that “more internalized forms of commitment may develop through internalization of motivation” (Gagne et al., 2008, p.237).

Meyer et al. (2004) integrated the theory of commitment with theories of motivation to find links as means to improving behavior in the workplace. The Three-Component Model (TCM) (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985) which distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, were some of the theories used in the first integration attempts done in recent research (Battistelli et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2012). According to Meyer and Allen (2004) ‘autonomous regulation’ (Deci & Ryan, 1985), which was a component of the self-determination theory was found to be very similar to affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) since it was characterized as a motivation to regulating behavior that reflects the organization’s goals and values which are congruent with that of oneself. Moreover, ‘introjected regulation’ (Deci & Ryan, 1985) which was characterized as regulating one’s behavior through self-worth contingencies, to avoid guilt, was congruent with the normative commitment mindset (Meyer & Allen, 1991). And ‘external regulation’ (Deci & Ryan, 1985), described as doing an activity due to external rewards, or to avoid punishment, was found to be similar to the continuance commitment mindset developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). The integrated model was successful in capturing similar mindsets in both motivation and commitment. Gagne et al. (2008) partially supported the integrated model proposed by Meyer et al. (2004) and modified it according to
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their findings, proposing few additional connections with continuance commitment. What distinguished between the work of the two team of researchers was their approach to the integration. Meyer et al. (2004) proposed looking at commitment as an antecedent to motivation, for example describing affective commitment as a factor which developed autonomous motivation; However Gagne et al. (2008) proposed the reverse and described motivation as the basis for organizational commitment, explaining that autonomous motivation should be seen as a factor developing affective commitment. And at the same time, employees with high levels of commitment and affective commitment had underlying intrinsic motivations such as self-determination motivations or autonomous motivation.

Thus, apart from being positively correlated with organizational commitment, motivation is also viewed as an energizing force which can induce behavior. Committed behavior can be induced through identifying the motivation factors underlying employees’ commitment. Researchers propose that by integrating motivation and organizational commitment, we can explore the motivation factors which can induce action into the employees to have higher levels of commitment, and we can identify the underlying mechanisms of the commitment mindsets (Meyer et al., 2004; Meyer, Stanley & Parfyonova, 2012). This can highly contribute to human resource management as they provide administrators with insight on the motivations which could be used to increase organizational commitment in the workplace (Vandenbergh, 2011) and more importantly we can look into the de-motivational factors to be able to reduce negative influences on employees’ organizational commitment (Addisson & Brundrett, 2008).

A Closer Look at Motivation

For a century, human motivation studies have found strong links between motivation and human behavior. This is due to the fact that motivation deals with explanations of why people behave the way they do (Owens & Valesky, 2011; Weiner, 1985). According to
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Weiner (1985) “the goal of motivation psychology is to develop a language, an explanatory system, a conceptual representation, or what is more commonly termed a theory, that is applicable across many domains of behavior and explains why behavior is initiated, sustained, directed and so forth” (p.4).

Despite the disagreements that exist in the literature among scholars regarding the definition of motivation, generally most scholars have agreed that there are 3 motivational patterns that are evident (Owens & Valesky, 2011). The first pattern that works as an indicator of motivation is the direction of making choices; when a teacher is confronted with an array of possible alternatives and chooses to act in a certain way rather than the other. The second indicator is persistence, when a teacher devotes time to a certain chosen activity, for instance in preparation of lessons, more or less than others. The third pattern which can serve as an indicator is the intensity of the teachers’ involvement. Some teachers show involvement in school activities more than others, some refrain from participating. They also agree that teachers do behave differently and there is little evidence to why they might behave in certain ways and not others (Owens & Valesky, 2011).

**Motivation Theories: Intrinsic Versus Extrinsic**

Many theories have emerged from the early years which aimed to explain motivation (Pinder, 1998). Although there has been much arguing regarding the nature of motivation and their implications, these theories have without doubt contributed to our understanding of how employees can be motivated.

**Behaviorist View.** Behaviorist psychologists highlighted the importance of extrinsic motivation, external factors which control human behavior, such as rewards and punishment (Owens & Valesky, 2011). They explained extrinsic motivation through the old metaphor of the carrot and the stick. The individual will receive positive reinforcers, the carrot, or
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negative reinforcers, the stick, as factors for motivating them. These types of motivators focus on aspects at school such as formal supervision, annual performance reviews, merit pay plans etc.

Cognitive View. The cognitive perspective, a perspective that supports intrinsic motivation, explains motivation as an innate drive arising from within the individual. This drive helps one work towards reaching their goal through self-direction. It energizes the individual and through their logic makes them deal with their surroundings. This idea is exerted from Piaget’s theory of equilibrium which describes how one deals with the world through emphasizing on developing regularities, predictability and dependability (Owens & Valesky, 2011). According to Atkinson, achievement motivation was a drive to individuals which affected their behavior. He explained the desire to achieve success and the desire to avoid failure as drives which were innate and distinguished individual from one another. They helped understand how people deal with their work. For instance people who had high achievement motivation, or were success driven, were ones who saw competition as energizing, but those who were high avoidance, found themselves under stress when dealing with situations, however still had high motivation levels.

On the other hand, social cognitive theorists such as Albert Bandura believed a behavior is usually affected by external forces being the dynamic connection of the three factors which are personal factors, environmental factors and behavioral. These make an individual proactive organisms controlled by the environment and motivated by innate traits. His social cognitive theory focuses on the idea that cognitive processes affect the individual and gives them a sense of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was termed to explain what people believe they are capable of doing. For instance teachers who show to have self-efficacy will be more involved in tasks and will feel a sense of worth after having completed it. This is because self-efficacy gives a positive sense of self-conception. Self-efficacy is believed to be
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affected through four sources which are (a) enactive attainment, which come from authentic mastery experiences, (b) vicarious experience, observing someone who is on task, (c) verbal persuasion, giving constructive feedback, and (d) physiological state, feelings elicited from someone when completing a task such as stress or anxiety which can negatively affect the sense of self-efficacy (Owens & Valesky, 2011).

**Humanistic Perspective.** The humanistic view, like cognitive theorists’ view also believed in intrinsic motivation. They highlighted the importance of internal thoughts and feelings that act as a primary source of motivation (Owens & Valesky, 2011). Even Maslow’s hierarchy of needs explains the importance of internal energy which results from the fulfillment of certain needs (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 2006). These needs were believed to be important to allow one to reach self-actualization, a need found at the top of the ladder. According to Porter (as cited in Owens and Valesky, 2011) the hierarchy of needs was fit in the organizational environment when adding autonomy to it, which is the need to contribute in decision making, to take part in the school, and to have a voice.

On the other hand, Herzberg, another motivational psychologist explained motivation in the workplace as being mostly innate, focusing more on the emotional and cognitive as acting as good motivational sources (Owens & Valesky, 2011). His two-factor theory discusses that motivation is composed of two separate independent factors; the motivational factor and the maintenance factor. The first factor consists of internal motivators such as achievement of personal goals, responsibilities, recognition, opportunities for advancement. The second dimension consists of external factors, or hygiene factors such as salary, organizational policies, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and opportunities. These hygiene factors were as important as the motivational factors since, according to him, they were able to cause dissatisfaction among the employees when they were not present. Herzberg (1968) believes administrators need to stimulate people and motivate employees
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through being aware of their individual needs. This is viewed as important because employees are the core of the organizations and they are the only ones who can provide the energy and capacity to achieve the organization’s goals (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 2006).

Motivation and Demotivation

Research on motivation has been more abundant than on demotivation. Motivation was defined as “internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action” (Locke & Latham, 2004, p.380). According to Slavin (2006), motivation is one of the most important ‘ingredients’ of behavior, and described it as “an internal process that activates, guides and maintains behavior over time” (p.317). According to Greenberg and Baron (2003) motivation is a “set of processes that arouse, direct, and maintain human behavior toward attaining a goal” (p.75). Pinder (1998) explained it as a body of energizing forces. At work, motivation is the willingness to put effort towards reaching organizational goals (Sullivan, 1989). Although many studies have discussed motivation and its positive influence, not much was said about demotivation (Dörnyei, 2001). Dörnyei explained demotivation as the negative form of motivation where the employees feel dissatisfied in the organization, and have low morale. The demotivation factors, or demotivators, as he called them, made employees who were once motivated lose their interest and become demotivated, or ‘de-energized’ (Dörnyei, 2001). Just as motivation leads an individual to becoming ‘motivated’, demotivation leads an individual to becoming ‘demotivated’ (Dörnyei, 2001; Kiziltepe, 2008; Kupers, 2001). According to Kupers (2001) demotivation causes “reduced force for thinking, feeling, or acting” (p.3). As for Smith (2004), demotivation results from lack of fulfillment of needs.

‘Demotivator’ as a term is not found in the dictionary and has no specific meaning set to it, yet it is used in research in the context of motivation. Although motivation factors are important in organization, according to Addisson and Brundrett (2008) “demotivators
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potentially have a greater impact on a teacher’s motivational state, than any single individual source of motivation.” (p.91). Thus, it is not only enough to know what motivates employees, but by knowing the demotivators we can manage motivation more effectively. In their study, Sinclair et al. (2006) have termed their motivators as potential ‘boosters’ and their demotivators which dissuaded teachers as ‘guzzlers’. In our study, factors which motivate will be called motivators and those which demotivate will be referred to as demotivators.

Motivation and Demotivation of Teachers in Different Cultural Contexts

In Switzerland, researchers found that what motivated teachers to enter the teaching profession was having little job routines as a teacher, however what demotivated them was the increase of the work load and the constant meetings (Muller et al., 2009). On the other hand, teachers who believed they need autonomy in pedagogical choices and activities left because of the lack of autonomy and flexibility (Muller et al., 2009). A study done in the UK showed the variances in factors affecting teachers’ effectiveness and they found that at the beginning teachers felt motivated to work more effectively when receiving support from the organization and the school leaders. As for the more experienced teachers, of 15 years and above, they felt motivated and more committed when they felt career development and saw challenging results, however the workload definitely worked as a demotivator especially that they have reached a phase where they are trying to balance their life between home and work (Day et al., 2006). In another study done on teachers of primary schools in the UK, motivators were found to be the positive responses received from children, and demotivators were the poor responses from children as well as teachers’ workload (Addisson & Brundrett, 2008). According to a study done in Turkey (Kocabas, 2009) the motivators that had positive effect on teachers’ motivation were many. These included a sense of safety in school, students’ achievement, the importance of positive inspection reports, the sense of self-fulfillment, a positive climate in school, positive relationships amongst teachers, just to name
a few (Kocabas, 2009). However, sources that had negative effects on motivation were a competitive climate amongst teachers, the fear of being subject to disciplinary action, and school deficiencies in teaching and learning technologies (Kocabas, 2009). For teachers in India, social status, respect and appreciation, along with school infrastructure, availability of teaching aids, affection of the children, good training programs, and community support acted as motivators for local teachers. However strong demotivators were “the increasing amount of non-academic work (i.e., filling in forms, reporting progress), difficulties with officials, unfavorable student/teacher ratios, the necessity of multi-grade teaching, lack of support from the community, political interference, and over-qualification” (Mooij, 2008, p.513). In a study done on teachers in Zambia, statistics showed 86% of teachers complaining about their salaries and allowances as they perceived it as a great demotivator, followed by 70% complaining about lack of promotion and 62% complaining about lack of recognition of teachers’ hard work. These three were the main demotivators; however the reverse worked as motivators (Mwanza, 2010). On the other hand, for teachers in Jamaica and the Bahamas, there were significant differences in the motivational factors. Teachers in Jamaica were highly motivated from interpersonal relations with students, however in Bahamas this was not the case, the Bahamian teachers were motivated more by the interpersonal relations with administrators; They believed that principal-teacher relations were very important to have a positive outcome at the school. They also cared about their status, as well as their salaries, more than Jamaican teachers (Griffin, 2010). In Lebanon, a protest done by teachers across the country reflected the grievances of teachers regarding their salaries, which was perceived as a great demotivator (The Daily Star, March 9, 2013). Another study in Lebanon done on public school teachers also found poor pay as a main demotivator along with lack of promotion, as well as the disrespect from students which was due to the negative image of
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teachers in the Arab society (Mattar, 2010). On the other hand, a study done by Ghamrawi (2011) found that trust was a major motivator in the context of Lebanese schools.

The above stated motivators and demotivators give us insight into what matters to teachers in schools around the world. We can surely see the differences in the needs and the differences in the values of the teachers in the different countries. This shows that, as some humanist motivation theorists mentioned, teachers have important needs that they would like to fulfill depending on their surrounding conditions. Moreover, this highlights the fact that culture plays a major role when working with organizations. Every country and every organization has its own set of values and unique contextual characteristics.

Motivators and Demotivators and Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory

According to Herzberg extrinsic motivation is short-lived. He believes that motivators which have a lasting impact on an individual are intrinsic in nature. However, he proposes that motivation is linked to a set of factors he calls hygiene factors which are extrinsic in nature but still integral in avoiding dissatisfaction at the workplace (Owens & Valesky, 2011). Herzberg’s theory of motivation was a landmark in the literature on motivation. Herzberg (1959) believed that motivators and hygiene factors were equally important and that both should be present in the workplace, as one was based on factors related to the work itself and was innate, and the other was based on the work context which was external. He noted that when motivators were present they caused job satisfaction however when they were absent they did not cause job dissatisfaction, however they only caused no job satisfaction. On the other hand, when hygiene factors were present they caused job dissatisfaction, and when they were absent they did not cause job satisfaction (Owens & Valesky, 2011). This implies that it is not possible to satisfy employees by merely removing the dissatisfiers or demotivators, but it can only be done by providing motivators which include achievement, advancement, growth, responsibility, and by ensuring that hygiene factors or demotivators are
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addressed and in place. To date, there has been no consensus regarding the extent of the predictive validity of Herzberg’s theory however a voluminous number of studies accepted and tested it in various contexts (Malik & Naeem, 2013). For instance, Sergiovanni (1967) replicated Herzberg’s two-factor theory to explore the factors that act as motivators and as hygiene factors of teachers in schools. He found teachers’ motivators to be achievement, recognition and responsibility, and the factors which caused dissatisfaction to teachers were the poor interpersonal relations with students, parents and colleagues, inadequate styles of supervision, rigid school policies, and administrative practices.

Figure 1

Traditional concept of job-satisfaction-dissatisfaction contrasted with Herzberg’s concept (Owens & Valesky, 2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRADITIONAL</th>
<th>HERZBERG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>No Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maintenance Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Dissatisfaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings of the study supported Herzberg’s theory however advancement did not seem to be included in the findings of Sergiovanni as it did in Herzberg’s. This was because the nature of teachers’ work does not provide them with much mobility in their profession. Recent studies, which adopted Herzberg’s theory for identifying the motivators and demotivators of teachers, found varying results. According to a study done on secondary school teachers, motivators were training and respect in society and the demotivators were the working conditions, absence of growth, poor communication, absence of feedback, and poor quality of students. These teachers were also found to prefer having the hygiene factors...
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provided instead of the motivators (Kushal, 2013). In another study done on university teachers (Ghazi, Shahzada & Khan, 2013), the researchers found that what motivated teachers were the hygiene factors such as the university policy and administration, the relationship with supervisors, peers, and salary. These were according to them, as they expressed, the real activating force. According to another study, motivators were also found to be the hygiene factors as it included working conditions, relation with coworkers and their supervisors. On the other hand, achievement and the work itself did act as motivators, and the demotivator which caused dissatisfaction was their pay (Islam & Ali, 2013).

It is evident that Herzberg’s theory might not always be supported by the empirical findings. However, it is important to note that the theory suggests an important approach when dealing with motivation and demotivation. Herzberg does not suggest to remove the hygiene factors, but to ensure that they do not cause dissatisfaction (Owens & Valesky, 2010). Thus, by identifying the demotivators in this study, we can identify the dissatisfiers and suggest ways to address them to reach the other end of the continuum which is ‘no dissatisfaction’. On the other hand, by knowing the motivators, one can promote them and increase the motivation to reach the job satisfaction of employees.

Conclusion

This study attempts to understand the problems of turnover and to investigate its determinants. Research done on turnover mostly explored two important work attitudes, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which were found to be some of the best predictors of turnover intentions and turnover. In addition, the Three-Component Model (TCM) developed by Meyer & Allen (1991) demonstrated predictive relationship between the different commitment forms and turnover. Based on these findings, this study will explore the importance of developing higher levels of organizational commitment in an organization to reduce the likelihood of leaving. It will adopt the definition of organizational commitment
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as “a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.252), and will be based on the assumption that there is a connection between turnover and organizational commitment.

With the advancement of research on organizational commitment, researchers have come to an agreement regarding its multi-dimensional nature in terms of forms and foci (Meyer, Jackson, & Maltin, 2008). In light of this, this study will adopt a multi-dimensional model, namely that of Meyer and Allen (1991) who characterized organizational commitment into three forms which were the affective, continuance and normative. Since these forms were said to be present simultaneously, it is important for this study to refer to the three of them together. Thus, we will refer to the commitment profiles suggested by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001). The Highly committed will be referred to when discussing about teachers who exert the most desired behaviors and low turnover intentions in an organization. The Uncommitted (Meyer & Allen, 1991) or the Non-Committed (Wasti, 2005) will be the profile which is the worst among the others where the employee exhibits the least desired behavior, with high turnover intentions. This study will refer to these as the Low committed due to the low levels in affective, continuance and normative commitment.

This study aims to investigate the nature of the motivational factors for those who have higher intentions to leave and those who have lower intentions to leave. By exploring the motivations of the two extreme cases, we can understand what could make them stay. In order to identify the Highly committed and the Low committed groups, this study will adopt the revised version of the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) which is an 18-item scale developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) to measure the three forms of commitment. The study will adopt the Three-Component Model that includes a mixed attitudinal-behavioral approach thus allowing different ways to address organizational commitment. And by
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exploring the conditions under which these employees behave in certain ways, it could help us find ways to foster organizational commitment. In line with this model, this study presumes that organizational commitment is a behavior that can be induced and which could be maintained to reach to a point of becoming an attitude; and can be later maintained through behavior.

The study is also based on the view that motivation is a set of energizing forces (Pinder, 1998), and that these energizing forces will be able to induce committed behavior. Moreover, seeing motivation as a basis for commitment (Gagne et al., 2008) lead to a motivational approach, which will be adopted in this study, will assist in understanding the underlying motivational mechanisms of organizational commitment (Meyer et al. 2004). Identifying these factors will bring more awareness to how the management can foster teachers’ organizational commitment, which can also contribute to reducing the rates of turnover in organizations.

In addition, this study adopts Herzberg’s theory of motivation when identifying the motivation factors. Motivators will be used to indicate the factors which cause motivation and job satisfaction, but demotivators will be used to indicate the hygiene factors and the dissatisfiers. We believe motivators are as mentioned by Slavin (2006), one of the most important ‘ingredients’ of behavior, as it is “an internal process that activates, guides and maintains behavior over time” (p.317). Moreover, we believe demotivators are what makes employees, who were once motivated, lose their interest and become ‘de-energized’ (Dörnyei, 2001).
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study aimed to identify first the commitment profiles of teachers to be able to select the school which has high commitment and the school which has low commitment. More importantly, it aimed to investigate motivators and de-motivators of teachers in the 2 extreme case schools, the highly committed and the low committed, and compare the factors to each other. In this chapter, the methodology used to conduct this research study will be described and explained.

The Purpose of the Study

The objectives of this study were (a) to identify the different commitment profiles of teachers in a representative sample of Armenian schools in Lebanon, based on their affective, normative and continuance commitment levels. This helped identify the schools which were categorized as the Highly committed and the Low committed. The study also aimed (b) to investigate teachers’ perspectives on the factors that act as motivators and demotivators in a Highly committed and in the Low committed school respectively, and finally (c) to compare the factors found in both the high and the low committed schools. Therefore the research questions for this study were:

1. What are the organizational commitment profiles of the teachers working in Armenian schools in Lebanon?

2. What are the factors that act as motivators and demotivators for teachers in schools with high commitment, and for those in schools with low commitment?
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3. What are the similarities and differences between the highly and the low committed schools with regard to the factors that act as motivators and demotivators for teachers?

Research Design

The study adopted a qualitative case-study approach since it aimed to study a particular phenomenon in a specific setting.

One of the objectives of qualitative case-study research designs is to improve future practice through discovery, insight and interpretation of people’s perspective of their lived experiences in a specific unit (Merriam, 2009). Since motivators and de-motivators have no fixed meaning in terms of content, participant teachers gave their own individual construction of the meaning to these particular phenomena depending on their experiences and their needs. Thus, new meaning and new understanding will be acquired from the respondents, making the type of design both exploratory and explanatory in nature.

Study Participants

Participants in this study were selected in two phases: In the first phase, the researcher worked with the primary sample which was made up of all the teachers from six Armenian schools. These teachers participated in answering the Organizational Commitment Scale which was the quantitative tool used to identify the teachers’ commitment profiles. In the second phase, only selected teachers from the two extreme schools took part in the qualitative case study.

Phase 1 Participants

After having researched Armenian schools that exist in Lebanon, the researcher found that most of the Armenian schools in Lebanon are affiliated to religious bodies. A total of 22 private and private free schools (Localiban, 2009) belong to (a) the Armenian [Orthodox]
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Prelacy, (b) Armenian Catholic Church and (c) the Union of the Armenian Evangelical Churches. In addition to the religiously affiliated schools, four other schools belong to cultural associations such as ‘AGBU’ and ‘Hamazkayin’. Six private Armenian schools representing the main religious affiliations in the Beirut area were selected.

Table 1

*Selected Armenian Schools with Religious Affiliation in Beirut.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Armenian Orthodox Church (<a href="http://armenianprelacylb.org/">http://armenianprelacylb.org/</a>)</th>
<th>Armenian Catholic Church (<a href="http://www.armeniancatholic.org/">http://www.armeniancatholic.org/</a>)</th>
<th>Armenian Evangelical Church (<a href="http://www.uaecne.org/">http://www.uaecne.org/</a>)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. School AA (Dbayeh)</td>
<td>1. School BA (Bourj Hammoud)</td>
<td>1. School CA (Ashrafieh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. School AB (Bourj Hammoud)</td>
<td>2. School BB (Zalka)</td>
<td>2. School CB (Bourj Hammoud)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Choosing participant schools in this phase followed a stratified purposeful sampling, where schools were purposefully divided into religious clusters. Moreover, the schools considered were mostly schools which teach from Kindergarten to the Secondary level (k-12) except for one school which teaches only secondary (7-12), due to the limited number of Armenian schools found in the Beirut Area, the choices were limited. Moreover, the choice of the area was due to ease of access and due to the availability of most of the Armenian schools. Stratified sampling is “a procedure for ensuring that individuals in the population who have certain characteristics are represented in the sample” (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010, p.130). This type of sampling is most desirable when seeking to have a fair representation of the population (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010). After having selected two schools affiliated to the Armenian (Orthodox) Prelacy, two to the Armenian Catholic Church and two to the Union of
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the Armenian Evangelical Church, all teachers from each school were asked to complete the questionnaires. The respondents from these schools were called the primary group.

Phase 2 Participants

After conducting the first phase of data collection and based on the results obtained, the study followed a purposeful or purposive sampling to select the school for the second phase. Two schools were selected to represent the two extreme cases; with the first having received the highest score on the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and highest on the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), and the second school which received the lowest scores on OCS and on ACS. Purposeful sampling is usually used when there is a need to focus on certain sample groups (low and high commitment) and not others (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010).

Table 2

*The Extreme Cases Used for the Qualitative Case Study.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case 1 Highly Committed School</th>
<th>Case 2 Low Committed School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Highest total score on OCS.</td>
<td>• Lowest total score on OCS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Highest score on ACS (aka AC-dominant).</td>
<td>• Lowest score on ACS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Then, six randomly selected teachers from each of the two schools were invited for individual interviews. The individual interviews helped in collecting data on motivational factors.

After the data from the individual interviews with teachers in each school were completed and analyzed, four teachers that were randomly selected [based on availability] from the two schools were invited to participate in a focus group interview in their own school. The focus group was used mainly for the purpose of triangulation and validation. The participants who were different from those interviewed at the beginning of the investigation
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helped improve the reliability of the interview results and the representativeness of the views of the respondents to the larger population within the school.

During data analysis, many aspects of the sample were considered such as the school profile, working conditions, and teachers’ profile to help make meaningful interpretations.

Figure 2

Sample of the Study

Methods of Data Collection

To undergo this study, data were collected *sequentially*, first data were gathered through the use of a quantitative tool and then through the use of a qualitative method (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010). Data collected from the quantitative tool were used to identify the participants for the second phase of the study.

Phase 1 Data Collection

In the first phase of the study, data were collected using The Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993) which teachers completed at the chosen schools along with a self-administered questionnaire ‘Demographics of Participant
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Teachers’ which was distributed to them to gather statistical data on descriptive background information of the sample teachers participating in the study (See Appendices A and B for the Organizational Commitment Scale and the Demographics of Participant Teachers).

The Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993) was distributed to all teachers in the six different schools. This commitment questionnaire, which was originally developed by Meyer and Allen (1991), was revised by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), and are very similar (Meyer & Allen, 2004). They both aim to measure the commitment level of teachers based on the Three-Component Model (TCM) which includes the affective, normative, continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). To have access to the revised OCS, the researcher requested and received a copy of the OCS and its manual from its authors. This questionnaire is a reliable, shortened version and was found to correlate with the original one, thus making it another reliable instrument that could be used when measuring the three forms of commitment (Meyer, Allen, Smith, 1993; Allen & Meyer, 2000; Meyer et al., 2002). Its internal consistency reliability, or Cronbach’s alpha, for affective commitment is 0.82, for continuance commitment 0.74, and for normative commitment 0.83 (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). As for its generalizability, the scale has been most of the time supported and applicable in other cultural contexts (Meyer et al., 2002). In Lebanon, Kawwa (2006) validated its applicability as her results mostly supported results in the west. For instance, affective commitment was found to be more important in relation to turnover intentions and turnover due to their strong correlation. The results of the study (Kawwa, 2006) helped validate the results received by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Tett and Meyer (1993). On the other hand, Kawwa’s reliability measures (Cronbach alpha) for affective commitment scale were 0.91, for the continuance commitment scale 0.77 and for the normative commitment 0.83, which show that the scales developed by Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993) are reliable.
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The OCS consists of 18 items and is a 7 point Likert-type scale which has 1 as ‘strongly agree’ and 7 as ‘strongly disagree’. The OCS is a threefold scale which consists of three parts. The first part consists of 6 items, measures Affective Commitment (AC) and is called the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS). The second part, which consists of 6 items measures Continuance Commitment, is called the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS). The third part consists of another 6 items which measure Normative Commitment (NC), and is called the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). It is recommended to mix the three scales when administering it (Meyer & Allen, 2004). For the purpose of the study, the term ‘organization’ was changed to ‘school’ since the organizations under study were schools. The data collected from this questionnaire served to answer the first research question which was ‘What are the organizational commitment profiles of the teachers working in Lebanese Armenian schools?’

Moreover, the descriptive data collected from the OCS helped select the sub-group samples which constituted the study sites for the case study: the school where teachers showed to score the highest on commitment, and the other being the school where teachers showed to score lowest on commitment.

The questionnaire on the demographic variables was only used for data enrichment purposes and for enhancing interpretations at later stages. The variables were age, gender, years of experience, job status, years in the school, contract length, monthly income, and education level.

Phase 2 Data Collection

After having identified the two schools for the case study, data were collected mainly from teachers. The main data were generated from two types of interviews; one being from the individual interviews and the other from the focus group interviews done in the two schools selected. However through a researcher’s journal additional data will be recorded for
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the purpose of enhancing the validity of the findings (Merriam, 2009), (See Appendix C and D).

*Individual interviews* were conducted with semi-structured questions and they inquired about the factors that teachers saw as motivating and the factors that they saw as demotivating. This helped us inquire more about the nature of the commitment level of teachers. Having semi-structured questions allowed the researcher to have freedom to probe for further information as needed throughout the interview. This allowed for other new concepts to emerge (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). This method of data collection was useful to the study because individual interviewing is also one way of getting the insider’s perspective.

At a later stage, the *focus group interviews*, which were also conducted using semi-structured questions, gathered data that helped inquire about motivators and demotivators of the teachers. This method helped us gain more insight into our research topic since there was more room for generating emerging themes from the ongoing group discussion. The group of teachers participating helped validate the answers gathered in individual interviews, adding more value to the findings. This was done by giving out handouts with the list of factors which had an effect on the motivation of the participant teachers. These factors were ones drawn out of the 6 individual interviews done with teachers at the same school. Teachers were asked if they agreed or not with the factors on the list and were asked to share their opinion (See appendices C and D for the individual interviews and the focus group interview questions).

Along with the individual and focus group interviews, *journal* writing was used to help gather information during the whole process of research. The researcher’s journal served as a method for documenting data during individual and group interviews. The written entries provided insight into the phenomena studied (Merriam, 2009). Moreover, the fact that it allowed in keeping free flowing text also contributed during data analysis in finding patterns.
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This was mainly done by memoing and coding, which helped in the process of constant comparison analysis.

**Data-Analysis Procedures**

This section will explain the procedures used during data analysis.

**Phase 1 Data Analysis**

At the beginning of this study, descriptive statistical analysis was done in order to: (a) get data on the demographics of the participants, and (b) to identify the commitment profiles of the teachers in the various schools.

The total score of the teachers in each of the six schools was added up and their average was calculated. The school which scored highest on the ACS, and at the same time scored the highest total and more specifically on all forms of the OCS was referred to as the Highly Committed school where most teachers had high commitment (Allen & Meyer, 2004). On the other hand, the school which scored the lowest on ACS, and the lowest on all the 18 items together, was referred to as the Low Committed school, where most teachers had low commitment. However because the results show that there were no low scoring schools, the school with the lowest score was referred to as the ‘Less Committed’ instead of ‘Low Committed’ or ‘Non-Committed’.

To determine the commitment of each school, the average of the total score of teachers was calculated as suggested by Meyer and Allen (2004) in their Academic Users’ Guide. According to Meyer and Allen (2004), the scale midpoint helps determine the high and low scores. The researcher also referred to the most desirable and the least desirable commitment profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) which were the high on all three forms of commitment and the low on all forms, respectively. Moreover, compared to the schools studied, the school where the profile was AC-dominant was categorized as the highly
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committed and the one scoring lowest on Affective Commitment was categorized as having the least desirable commitment profile. (See Table 2 for the extreme cases used for the qualitative case study)

During data analysis, only questionnaires which were fully completed were used and calculated. During the computation of all the items, the reversed (R) items were re-coded as 1 being 7, 2 being 6, 3 being 5, 4 being 4, 5 being 3, 6 being 2, and 7 being 1. The purpose of the reversed items was to encourage the respondents to think about each statement carefully (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

The statistical analysis was carried out on SPSS which is a popular user-friendly software used for descriptive data analysis (Greasley, 2008). The average of the scores was calculated for each school to identify the samples according to their level of commitment.

Phase 2 Data Analysis

The qualitative part of this research was exploratory and explanatory in nature since the main purpose of this study was to explore the nature of the motivators and demotivators of teachers in the different schools with different commitment profiles and explain them in relation to the other primary or secondary sources. According to Merriam (2009), such studies are also known as being interpretive, since the data collected are interpreted for the purpose of making a new meaning and even for generating theoretical understanding that is grounded in the respondents’ perspective and experiences (Strauss & Corbin, 2008; Birks & Mills, 2010).

The data analysis were done on the data gathered through the different methods which were the individual interviews, focus group interviews, and the researcher’s journal. In order to answer the research questions, the researcher attempted to understand the phenomenon studied through an emic and etic perspective, to see things from the point of view of the participants and at the same time holding an outside perspective to interpret the
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data objectively (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010). In the case of this study, motivators and
demotivators were explored from teachers’ perspectives during the individual interviews and
the focus group discussions, but at the same time the literature or other resources such as
information from the schools, recorded data in the researcher’s journal were used to interpret
the answers more objectively (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010). The researcher mainly analyzed data
through the following:

**Constant comparison analysis.** Through the use of the primary data gathered from
the individual interviews, the researcher generated primary codes, categories and themes
which helped develop an emerging theory. When data were triangulated by the focus group
interviews and the researchers’ journal, different categories and interpretations emerged and
results were compared to previous emerging categories. This method was also accompanied
by 2 other strategies which were used simultaneously.

First, memoing, or taking notes, which was an important strategy used since its
objective was to “trace the thinking of the researcher and help guide a final conceptualization
that answers research questions (or related ones) and offers a theory as an explanation for the
answers” (Suter, 2012, p.346). According to Strauss and Corbin (2008) they are very
important since they “contain the products of analysis or directions for the analyst” (p.217)

Second, coding, which was another strategy (Strauss & Corbin, 2008) that helped
categorize ideas into different themes. It was advised to start with initial coding and
categorizing data as beginning steps to data analysis.

Thus, initial coding and categorizing was done when data were collected from the
individual interviews. However, with further and constant memoing and coding, the
researcher was able to reach to emerging categories and was able to make better connections
of the themes. During the focus group interviews, the researcher focused on finding emergent
themes and compared them with previous data. This strategy continued with further analysis
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of journal records. This process of data analysis was enhanced with the use of the different types of sources included in this study which are complementary. On the other hand, many strategies and methods were used to make the findings of this research more credible. These are to be explained next.

**Measures to Minimize Bias and Enhance Quality**

This study made sure to enhance the trustworthiness and credibility of the findings using different techniques.

**Triangulation.** As mentioned earlier, this helped in validating findings. Triangulation was done through the use of multiple methods and through cross-checking and member-checking.

First, Cross-checking, is a procedure which checks on the convergence of findings (Suter, 2012). This procedure was done when examining data collected in the individual interviews, the focus group discussion and data recorded in the researchers’ journal. All data gathered was checked closely to check for similarities or existing differences. This allowed for pattern checking as well and helped in enhancing the confirmability of the findings (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010; Suter, 2012).

Second, member checking was done during both the individual interviews and focus group interviews to confirm the accuracy of the data collected. This was done by rephrasing and summarizing the information discussed in the interview to the participants. Respondents could validate the data by stating that the information does reflect their ideas and feelings or they could correct them to the researcher by rephrasing or adding to what was already discussed. Moreover, through the focus group interview, respondents were asked for their input regarding the categories and codes which emerged during the individual interviews. The member checking technique helped minimize errors in the data and maximized its credibility (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010).
Third, investigator triangulation, is a method which was referred to for data analysis consistency. The researcher involved a colleague researcher who helped in examining samples of the data from the different sources to evaluate it from their own perspective (Guion, Diehl, & McDonald). According to Guion, Diehl and McDonald (2011), “if the findings from the different evaluators arrive at the same conclusion, then our confidence in the findings would be heightened.” (p.2). Thus this method helped make sure the generated explanations and conclusions we reached to were consistent.
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**CHAPTER IV**

**RESULTS**

The results reported in this chapter aim to answer the questions of this study which are (a) What are the organizational commitment profiles of the teachers working in Lebanese Armenian schools? (b) What are the factors that act as motivators and demotivators for teachers in schools with high commitment, and for those in schools with low commitment, and (c) What are the similarities and differences between the two kinds of schools with regard to the factors that act as motivators and demotivators for teachers?

Data collection was done in two separate phases. Phase 1 helped gather quantitative data with the use of quantitative tools. The results received helped select the sample population needed for phase 2. Phase 1 also helped answer question 1 of this study which was a key factor in determining the participants for phase 2. In addition, the demographics of the participating teachers were also collected to give insight into the participating sample and to help the researcher during analysis at a later stage. Phase 2, being qualitative in nature, enhanced and expanded our understanding of the views on motivation through a total of 14 interviews done with teachers from the two selected schools. Through 12 individual interviews and 2 focus group interviews with 4 teachers each, Phase 2 helped the researcher reveal what mattered to teachers as they discussed the most important factors and the least important factors.

This chapter will thus report results of Phase 1 and Phase 2 in two major parts: (a) *Levels of Teachers’ Organizational Commitment*, which will include the presentation of the results of the OCS in the six participating schools, and (b) *The Cases of the Two Extreme Scoring Schools*, which will include a presentation of the contextual and demographic
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background of the two schools with extreme cases; however its purpose is to report on the perspective of teachers on factors affecting motivation as a result of the interviews conducted in the two selected schools, and the results of the comparison of the nature of the motivation factor.

Levels of Organizational Commitment

In order to determine the commitment profiles, a questionnaire was administered to teachers in six selected Lebanese Armenian schools which consisted of a total of 233 from whom only 122 teachers voluntarily agreed to participate. The primary sample of participating teachers came from different religiously affiliated Armenian schools in Beirut area which belonged to (a) the Armenian [Orthodox] Prelacy, (b) Armenian Catholic Church and (c) the Union of the Armenian Evangelical Churches. A Demographics Background Questionnaire was administered to collect information on the 122 participant teachers from the six schools under study (See Appendix E on the Background of Respondents in Phase 1). This section presents the results of the OCS as summarized next:

Commitment Profile of Phase 1 Participating Schools

This section focuses on reporting results on teachers’ commitment of the six participating schools in Phase 1. The commitment questionnaire was administered to measure the commitment level of teachers toward the school based on the Three-Component Model (TCM) which included the affective, normative, continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) contains 6 items on affective commitment which tell us about the emotional connection of the employees with the organization and the desire to stay, followed by 6 items on normative commitment, which reflect the feeling of obligation to stay in the organization and lastly 6 items on continuance commitment, which reveal staying due to the costs of leaving.
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Through the use of this questionnaire, it was possible to identify the commitment profiles of teachers in the participating Lebanese Armenian schools. Since each of the 18 items are scored on a 7 point Likert scale, the highest score which one could receive on the OCS was 126 and 42 on each of the different forms.

Table 3 gives us information on the scores of teachers working in the different schools. In this study, all participating schools scored higher than the midpoint, above 63, making them rank within the high commitment range. However, school 1 scored the highest among them with 99.80 over 126, and school 4 scored the lowest among them with 76.54, making it score the lowest on the OCS compared to the rest of the schools under study.

In line with the purpose of this study, it was important to look into the scores received on the different commitment forms to identify the commitment profiles of the schools and also most importantly to select the extreme cases. Most schools scored high on OCS and, more specifically, high on affective and normative commitment, categorizing them under the ‘AC-NC dominant’ profile which makes them among the profiles which are highly desired in any organization. Although School 4 was the only school which scored much lower than the others, it is still evident to note that the scores on affective and normative commitment scales were higher than the continuance commitment, the least desired commitment form. Results of the commitment questionnaire are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

Organizational Commitment Scale Scores per School with the Number and Percentage of Participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Numbers of participants</th>
<th>Percentage of participants</th>
<th>ACS (over 42)</th>
<th>CCS (over 42)</th>
<th>NCS (over 42)</th>
<th>OCS Total (over 126)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20 out of 54</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>36.70</td>
<td>27.35</td>
<td>35.75</td>
<td>99.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>28 out of 49</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>34.28</td>
<td>26.86</td>
<td>32.68</td>
<td>93.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Looking closer at the affective commitment level of the schools it is found that School 1 also received the highest with 36.70 over 42, making it high on affective commitment, and on the other hand School 4 scored 26.82 on this form of commitment, making it rank the lowest on affective commitment in comparison with the other schools. As a result of the analysis done using SPSS, it was possible to identify the closest to the two extreme schools which were needed for this study; one was School 1 which scored the highest on the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and highest on the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), and the second which was School 4, which scored the lowest on OCS and on ACS (See Table 4 for the scores on OCS and ACS with emphasis to the cases selected).

Table 4

Scores on Organizational Commitment Scale and Affective Commitment Scales with emphasis to the cases selected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>OCS (Total)</th>
<th>Affective Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>99.80 (H)</td>
<td>36.70 (H)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>93.82</td>
<td>34.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>96.77</td>
<td>35.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>76.54 (A)</td>
<td>26.82 (A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>97.69</td>
<td>35.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>93.46</td>
<td>33.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the above results, it is clear that no ‘Low-committed’ or ‘Non-committed’ school profiles were found among the Armenian schools studied. For this reason, School 4, in the
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rest of this study, will be referred to as the ‘Less-committed’ school and will be coded as ‘school B’. Moreover, School 1, which scored the highest, will be referred to ‘school A’, the ‘Highly Committed’.

The Case of the Two Extreme Scoring Schools: Nature of Organizational Commitment

Two schools were selected to be the research site of the study in phase 2 based on the scores received on the OCS. In what follows, an overview of the context of the two schools along with the demographic background of the respondents from these schools will be presented. Afterward, the participants’ responses will be reported under two main sections: the commitment profile of the two extreme case schools and teachers’ perspectives on the factors impacting motivation.

Contextual Background

Both schools are located in Beirut area and come from the same religious affiliation belonging to the Armenian [Orthodox] Prelacy. They both follow the Armenian prelacy and the educational plan of the Armenian National Schools and the Lebanese National Program set by the Lebanese government. School A was founded in 1963 and consists of 54 teachers. The school size is large and the campus is very spacious with different buildings which were renovated for the students, administration and the teachers. School B on the other hand was founded in 1964 and consists of 30 teaching staff. It is much smaller in size with only one old building comprising of all classes, teachers’ room and the administration. School B is located in a very busy neighborhood compared to school A which is found away from the main city buzz and closer to nature. School A is known as a good standing school within the Armenian community which has the majority of its students from average to very good socioeconomic background however, school B students did come from low to average socioeconomic background. School A classes were equipped with smart boards until Grade 7 and teachers were trained for its use as it was suggested by the Armenian prelacy and applied by the
school principal, however school B still used regular boards due to its financial status, which was not as stable as school A. As for training and workshops, teachers were sent to attend professional development sessions once every year or every two years in both schools by the school administration. The administration in both schools did not seem to have adopted any reward system or major penalties which addressed teachers’ behavior. Only in extreme cases teachers in school A were asked to sign a form which ensured that they will not repeat any misbehavior which could harm the school, but this was seldom ever done. In school B, the administration gave negative remarks or comments on teachers’ behavior, but no penalties were put on them. What distinguished school A was that at the beginning of the year teachers were asked for schedule preferences before getting their final schedule to ensure that teachers were available at the assigned times. This was not the case with school B. In both schools, the hierarchy was traditional, top down, with the principal at the head of the administration, then the administrative staff and the teachers. As for the school administration and teacher-administration communication, there was open communication yet mostly one way top down communication.

Demographic Background of the Respondents from School A and School B

The demographics data of the respondents in school A and B were analyzed and it was found that in school A most of the respondents to the organizational questionnaire were females with 95%, as for school B it had male respondents more dominant with 54.5%. Moreover, it was reported that the age range of the majority of the respondents in school A was between 36 and 45 years with 60%, and in school B the majority of teachers [45.5%] were also within the same range.

Furthermore, in school A, 70% of the respondents were Language teachers and 15% were Math teachers. In school B, the majority were Science teachers with 54.6% and 27.3% were Math teachers. In school A, 30% of the respondents were Kindergarten teachers, 25%
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were Primary teachers, and another 30% were Intermediate teachers. In school B, it was evident to find teachers working at the upper classes since the school was a secondary school that taught grades 7 to 12 only, thus the majority of the respondents being 54.5%, secondary teachers and 35.4% taught grades 7 and 8. As for the years in teaching, in school A 85% of the teachers had more than 11 years of experience in teaching with 45% of the participating teachers with 21 to 30 years of experience. In school B, 45.5% of the respondents had more than 11 years of experience and 27.3% had 2 to 5 years of experience and 27.3% from 6 to 10 years.

As for the length of contract of the respondents in school A and B, 20% of the respondents were on tenure, and 5% had a 1 year contract, however 75% of the teachers in school A did not respond to this item of the questionnaire. In school B, 54.5% of the teachers reported to be on tenure and 45.5% reported to be on a 1 year contract. The majority of the respondents in school A had a monthly income between 1000 and 1500 reporting 75%. As for school B respondents, only 45.5% reported to have a monthly income within the same range, but 27.3% of the respondents were being paid between 500 and 1000, another 27.3% were paid more than 1500, reaching 2500$ and more, as reported. In school A, the education which half of the respondents had received was a technical and vocation certificate, and 40% had received their Bachelor’s degree. As for school B, 81.8% of respondents held a Bachelor’s degree and only 9.1% held a Master’s degree and 9.1% had not completed university. (See Appendix F for more details on the background of respondents in the two extreme schools).

Levels of Organizational Commitment at the Two Extreme Case Schools

Table 5 and 6 which follow give a clear breakdown of the types of commitment teachers developed in the two different schools.
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School A which reported to have teachers who felt highly committed scored high on the affective commitment scale, making them teachers with strong emotional ties to the organization they worked in and with a strong desire to stay. Teachers in the same school also scored high on normative commitment which meant the teachers felt a strong obligation to stay because it was the right thing to do, thus this feeling tied them more to the school. Moreover, the teachers in school A scored the lowest on the continuance commitment form compared to the other forms which indicates that they developed a more moderate need to stay to avoid the costs of leaving. As for school B, teachers scored higher than the midpoint, but ranked as having the lowest commitment level among the other schools, as well as on the three forms of commitment, indicating that teachers working there had less emotional ties to the school, less fear of job loss and less feelings of obligation to stay than the rest of the schools and more specifically than that of school A.

Compared to the six schools under study and compared to the OCS measurement scale, the results categorize teachers in School A as highly committed due to the overall score received on the OCS, being 99.80 over 126, and also high on AC with 36.70 over 42 and ‘AC-NC dominant’. School B on the other hand is categorized as having being moderately committed with 76.54 over 126 and slightly higher on AC than on CC and NC, making it ‘AC-NC dominant’, however within a much lower range than School A. Following is the breakdown of the results on the OCS for school A and B.

Table 5

Organizational Commitment Scale Scores for School A Teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment Scale</td>
<td>36.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment Scale</td>
<td>27.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What Matters to Teachers?

Table 6

Organizational Commitment Scale Scores for School B Teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment Scale</td>
<td>26.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment Scale</td>
<td>24.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Commitment Scale</td>
<td>25.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Commitment Scale (Total)</td>
<td>76.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What follows is a presentation of teachers’ perspectives on factors impacting motivation in each school.

Teachers’ Perspectives on Factors Impacting Motivation

After having selected the two schools, individual interviews were done with six random teachers in addition to two focus group interviews in each school. After interviews were analyzed, data on commitment were reported in relation to the results obtained from the questionnaire.

As the first part of the results aimed at revealing the commitment profiles of teachers, this second part reports on teachers’ perspective on the factors that act as motivators and demotivators in school with different commitment levels. According to the teachers, the motivators helped a great deal in making the teacher build a better relationship with the
school as well as the profession, and made them stay. However teachers reported factors that acted as demotivators and made them think of leaving.

As many factors and categories emerged from the individual interviews done in each school, the frequent and recurring factors were listed and shared with other teachers from the same school during the focus group interviews. These teachers were asked about their opinion and validated the data collected according to their own experiences and according to the extent to which it represented what motivated and demotivated them. As a result of these discussions and data analysis, the researcher identified the factors that are the most representative of what the participating teachers in each schools perceived as motivators and as demotivators. These are reported in the next section.

**Teachers’ perspectives on the factors that act as motivators in school A.** When teachers were asked about their individual motivation level, they responded positively and referred to their high commitment level being an evidence of their motivation. Teachers said ‘it is the same’ as their commitment level. This meant that they considered that having high commitment was also translated into having teachers with high motivation and vice versa. In school A, teachers considered themselves as highly motivated, and even after many years spent in teaching, some teachers felt the same drive to teach and give. For instance, Teacher A1, in school A, stated that her motivation level was the same since she started 35 years ago.

In the interviews, teachers were asked about the factors that enhanced and hindered their motivation for teaching and for teaching at the school and were asked to share incidents which caused motivation or demotivation. Based on the results, it was evident that teachers in school A perceived many factors as being motivating to them. Table 7 which follows presents the results on the motivating factors which emerged in school A. Explanation will follow.
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Table 7

*Teachers’ Perspective on Motivating Factors in School A.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivating Factor</th>
<th>Teachers in the Individual Interviews (out of 6)</th>
<th>Teachers in the Focus Group (out of 4)</th>
<th>Total (out of 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching itself as a source of motivation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making a contribution to their community</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving appreciation from students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving appreciation from the administration</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having supportive leadership</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a welcoming school climate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teaching itself as a source of motivation.** Teachers agreed with Teacher A1’s statement that “Teaching in itself is motivating. It is a learning experience. So I never lose that motivation.” Teacher A5, being new, explained that her motivation level changed depending on her experiences at school and at different places, still she agreed that motivation is inherent in teaching she stated:

I am very motivated especially when I’m inside the classroom teaching children. Sometimes when I am confused about things that are new to me, like certain lessons, certain behavior problem which I want to deal with…I feel demotivated…but then yet again I feel motivated very fast. It is just that sometimes you have ups and downs at work which affect your mood and work.

As for Teacher A6, she talked about intrinsic motivation and this was due to her love for teaching and for giving. According to teacher A4, motivation was different at different times of the year, she reported:
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Most teachers start the year motivated and then throughout they feel demotivated because things happen, whether it is with the administration, with students or with parents. Sometimes at the beginning of the year you feel demotivated when you see students’ weaknesses and their weak performance that does not meet your expectations...even during examination period at the end of the year...they disappoint you at times...but at other times when you see good results it makes you happy and motivated again because you know that the effort that you have put has not gone for nothing.

During the focus group interview, all the teachers [4 out of 4] perceived teaching in itself as a source of motivation. They added that their role was an important one at school. They expressed their dedication and love of their profession despite its downsides.

Making a contribution to their community. Making a contribution to the community was one of the factors identified as a motivator for teachers in School A. This factor was mentioned by the majority of the teachers during the individual interview [4 out of 6] and was also validated [4 out of 4] by the focus group teachers who were interviewed at a later stage. During the interviews done in School A, teachers stated the importance of working in an Armenian school as a motivator and described how this gave them the chance to contribute to the Armenian community and feel a sense of obligation toward the school. Teacher A4 for instance expressed his willingness to never leave the school because this factor was a driving force which made him work harder to serve the community through his work at the school. He explained:

One of the main reasons that is making me stay here is the fact that I am working in an Armenian school. I feel that I am contributing... If I leave, my conscious would haunt me and I wouldn’t feel that I have done something right... because I am here to serve my community...as an Armenian myself, it is my duty to stay.

Teacher A5 also expressed that the fact that the school was Armenian made her feel more motivated every day, knowing that her students are Armenian made her look forward to teaching them, as they are part of her own community. However she added that she would
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still be motivated if working in a non-Armenian school but teaching Armenian students made her more so as she felt closer to the students:

When they are Armenian…from the same culture…you feel like you are the only one who understands these children well and what is motivating is the fact that you can plan activities which promote the Armenian identity and the Armenian culture.

Teacher A3 expressed her tie to the school as a result of her identity and because she graduated from there. She expressed her preference by stating:

I don’t plan to work in another school…I like the fact that this school is Armenian and I am familiar with the rules and the system. Just like I graduated from this school, I would prefer to contribute to it because I am proud of it… Being an Armenian school I feel that I need to stay here.

Moreover, Teacher A2 expressed that the factor which makes her feel motivated was the feeling she had when she worked at the school. “It feels like home and I feel tied to the school because it is an Armenian school and my job as an Armenian teacher is to give all I can to benefit the students.”

During the focus group interviews teacher FA 1, who has been working at the school for 28 years, agreed with this factor and highlighted the importance of having a good understanding of the Armenian school mission. She added that by having a clear shared mission and an understanding of why they are there as teachers, it would be even more motivating for them. Thus the motivation for her did not come from the school itself, but from understanding and fulfilling the Armenian school mission. She firmly explained this by saying:

It is not the mere fact of teaching Armenian students or that the school is Armenian. What is more important is the Armenian message and the Armenian mission that we need to fulfill…teachers will surely feel involved when they take part in fulfilling this mission…if they do not know the mission of the school they should not be teaching!

Other teachers interviewed in the focus group agreed that the fact that the school was Armenian made them feel very motivated. When teachers were asked to classify it among
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other factors, [2 out of 4] teachers ranked this factor as number 1 among other factors presented making it still one of the top motivators for the teachers interviewed.

Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress. In School A, the second factor identified as a motivator was witnessing the students motivated and engaged in their learning and school work. Teacher A1 who was from the first teachers interviewed stated that her motivation came from her students and their abilities. She explained it by stating:

What makes you feel encouraged is students’ work…when you see students who are working hard and showing progress…when you see them developing their abilities and achieving better results…all this works as a major motivator for me and I am sure it is the same for all teachers.

For Teacher A4, students’ participation in class was a major motivator and seeing them graduate caused him to be even more motivated. He added “teaching is the only profession that teaches other professions”. Thus teaching toward a goal with the student makes a teacher more energized to reach this goal with them. He also added that entering the classroom and seeing the students always made him forget everything else. He sees them as a learning source and this causes motivation for him especially that he regards the work quality of students as good compared to other schools he had worked in. He explained this by stating:

Students at this school are hardworking and they perform better than other students in other schools…I have worked at other Armenian schools where the quality of the students’ work was not the same…that is what can make me say that…when you see students perform better every time you become motivated but when they don’t perform better, this is what makes you really demotivated.

According to teacher A2 and A3, students’ involvement and their achievement is what mattered and what led them to feel happy and motivated. By seeing the students’ school achievements they felt it gave them a sense of reward. During the group interview, it was clear that teachers [4 out of 4] agreed that students and their work did work towards motivating them; two out of the four teachers ranked students’ work as a top motivator and
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the two other teachers believed other factors were more motivating such as the contribution to the community and work appreciation, however they clearly articulated their thought and called it as an important ‘driving force for teachers’.

Receiving appreciation from students. Receiving appreciation is a fourth factor identified as a motivator for teachers in School A who explained this factor to be very rewarding for teachers. According to Teacher A1 what also mattered was students’ appreciation. What students say to her and their positive reactions play an important role in increasing her motivation. She added “when students share love and happiness, it makes a teacher feel happier and more motivated… the teacher also becomes more caring.” According to Teacher A4, an incident which he always remembers and which he was proud to share was a time when he felt sheer happiness and this was when a student and the students’ parents expressed their gratitude and called him their ‘son’s idol’. Teachers [2 out of 6] interviewed individually expressed the positive effect students’ appreciation could have on them however all of the teachers [6 out of 6] discussed the importance of receiving appreciation from the administration. However, during the focus group interviews all four participants pointed that receiving appreciation the students rarely occurs. Teacher FA 3 further explained that students’ appreciation is seldom present at their school, therefore teachers do not have high expectations from students as she added “Kids today are busy with other things in life and they barely think of thanking their teachers. If they do appreciate we would be happy…however it is not much expected….it is better not to wait for it…when it happens it will surely motivate us.”

Receiving appreciation from the administration. During the individual interviews, [6 out of 6] teachers confirmed that when the administration shows work appreciation teachers become increasingly motivated and satisfied. Teacher A1 explains appreciation as essential to keep teachers going. She stated that “receiving appreciation tells you that the
administration is valuing your work”. Even after 35 years of work at the same school, she still expects a word from the administration, “A simple thank you…a bravo…” she added “these always make you feel good”. She explained them as “a push to continue”. Teachers A2 and A4 explained that receiving appreciation from the administration is a very important reward whether it was verbal or monetary. Teacher A4 added that receiving bonus or financial rewards is surely rewarding, mostly for teachers with a family to take care of but according to him verbal appreciation is much more motivating.

During the focus group interview, this factor was validated by the rest of the teachers and was labeled as a major motivator but also it was discussed that it also worked as a major demotivator when absent. For Teacher FA 1, being appreciated for hard work is important but she added that it was not an essential goal. She explained by saying “Even when we don’t get appreciated it won’t make us work less. It is not a goal. If we do get appreciated that’s good, if not it doesn’t affect us much…it shouldn’t…” On the other hand teacher FA 2 responded by stating that it was “necessary” due the positive effect it has on teachers. Three [out of 4] teachers in the focus group regarded this factor and called it as an essential factor which can cause high levels of motivation.

**Having a supportive school leadership.** A fourth factor which was constantly demanded from teachers in School A was working under supportive leadership which included the administration and the school principal. Teachers found this factor an important motivator responding to a key need, the need for security and achievement at the school they were working in. This was expressed by 5 teachers [out of 6] during the individual interviews done in School A. They also insisted on the need to have support in a fair and consistent way. Teacher A4 shared an incident which explained his opinion about this:

At this school, parents give negative feedback whenever their kids don’t do well on their tests and most of the time they blame the teachers. What I like about the school and mostly about the principal is that he supports the teacher in such cases. This gives
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us confidence in ourselves and we feel motivated. But unfortunately at times the administration decides to support the parents…this can become very discouraging to the teacher and it can very demotivating. I personally experienced this and I usually get upset when this happens…It gets to me…it can be very discouraging and disappointing.

He further explained that when the administration stayed consistent in supporting the teacher, the teacher maintained the drive to continue. Others also saw this as essential at a time when students and parents were much involved in the school. According to Teacher A3, the novice teacher, the support given by the administration, specifically from the coordinator was always a critical for motivation, especially for novice teachers who needed guidance. She explained during the interview “When you are new, you expect a lot of guidance and support and this helps you stay motivated.” Having a supportive school leader had played a major role in making teachers feel lasting motivation. This was also expressed by Teacher A4 who explained the importance of having a school principal who shows open communication and has kind interactions and this was the case at his current school. He added: “The principal always follows up and gives advice which is very motivating since as a teacher we can always learn from our mistakes and fix it.” This was also expressed by Teacher A3 who felt the school leader understanding and always ready to give time and advice.

According to the interviewed teachers in the focus group [2 out of 4] agreed that this factor is a factor that is a source of motivation. Teacher FA1 and FA4 agreed that support was essential in motivating a teacher however Teacher FA2 and FA3 considered other factors such as showing appreciation, students achievement and contribution to the community as more motivating. At the end of the focus group interview, a consensus was reached regarding the fact that fair and supportive treatment from the side of the administration or leader can cause someone to become very motivated for a longer time, but it can also make someone lose his or her motivation when not present.
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*Having a welcoming school climate.* Having a healthy school climate is the sixth factor which was identified to being a factor which leads to considerable increase in teachers’ motivation at the workplace. According to 6 out of 6 teachers in School A, having a comfortable school climate is what made them continue and stay at the school they work in. They reported that having friendly colleagues with whom they could work with as a team gave them a sense belonging. According to Teacher A3, having a positive school climate played an important role when she arrived to school. She felt very welcomed among her colleagues and she explained “They became my second family, they embraced me when I joined and they always share and support when I need help.” Even for a novice teacher [Teacher A5], she found her colleagues very welcoming when she arrived at the beginning of the year. For others [Teacher A2 and Teacher A6] who have been working there for long years regarded the school as their home and the school staff as their friends. Teacher A2 reported that this made her wake up every morning and look forward to going to school.

During the focus group interviews, Teacher FA3 validated the importance of a welcoming climate and positive school atmosphere however she added:

> As much as the climate outside of class and with the colleagues is important, I believe the climate in the classroom is also of great importance for us when dealing with students and their learning. When teachers feel comfortable teaching the students this allows them to build strong connections with them… however when the school itself does not provide the necessary material, whether it is related to school facilities or other matters, teachers will be less creative and less motivated.

She concluded “School climate can be outside of the classroom with colleagues and the administration and also inside the classroom with things related to teaching and learning.”

Teacher FA2 agreed but gave more importance to the relationship one had with colleagues stating “When one refers to the work climate, we usually mean the atmosphere which includes the people you work with…being with a good team makes one feel happy and comfortable” Although a short debate was held on what the climate might include, four [out of 4] teachers agreed that it might entail class climate and work climate together however
they agree to explain it through a feeling of being welcomed and of social belonging. Teacher FA 2 added “when one feels comfortable in a place, they feel they belong and this surely causes motivation.”

**Teachers’ perspectives on the factors that act as demotivators in school A.**

This section will present the results of the findings gathered from the 10 interviews done in school A where commitment was shown to be high. Individual interviews were first done with six random teachers and four other teachers were interviewed in a focus group to validate the data. Table 8 presents the factors which have been identified as demotivators, those which cause teachers to lose their motivation and feel dissatisfied and less likely to commit to staying at their school. Explanation will follow.

Table 8

*Factors Leading to Demotivation as Perceived by Teachers in School A.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Teachers in the Individual Interviews (out of 6)</th>
<th>Teachers in the Focus Group (out of 4)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ low achievement</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of support from the administration and school leadership</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of appreciation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair shared appreciation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncomfortable school climate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stressful teachers’ workload</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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*Students’ low achievement.* When asked about what could demotivate teachers, students’ low achievement was among the first factors identified as a demotivator. Just as students’ engagement in learning was perceived as an important motivator, students’ low achievement had a reverse effect on the [6 out of 6] teachers in School A. All the teachers felt demotivated when students’ performance was below their expectations. For Teacher A4, motivation always dropped when students took their national exams and they scored low. He further explained:

> Usually national exams period is stressful to students and even more to teachers. Some students disappoint you with their performance…It kills your self-esteem at some point….and the students don’t meet your high expectations…It really makes you lose all the motivation that you had at the beginning.

Teacher A1 expressed that demotivation came when students did not put the needed effort stating:

> Sometimes students don’t put effort, they get low grades and you feel sad about this. If students give more they can get better results. But seeing their work and comparing them to their capabilities, you will feel demotivated and even sometimes deceived.

Teacher A2 highlighted:

> Even if the teacher is always motivated…When they see bad results they lose all their motivation…because at the end of the day why are we teachers? Our aim is to get these kids to learn and do better…and when this is not happening then you ask yourself, what am I doing wrong? So you blame yourself for it….this can be very demotivating.

Teacher A3 explained why student low performance played a role in demotivating her:

> Parents don’t have time for their kids…teachers are the ones who spend more time with the students and they put much more effort to make sure they learn…so when after the hard work you notice that students are getting bad results you get demotivated and helpless.

Similar points were made by Teacher A5 and A6 who saw the low results of students completely unacceptable and demotivating.
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These responses were discussed with other teachers during the focus group interviews. All teachers [4 out of 4] validated that students’ work affected their motivation. Their answers were aligned with the interviewed teachers. Teacher FA3 agreed and stressed that demotivation results from seeing students who are high achievers become low achievers, “Seeing this change in performance makes us feel less motivated especially when we know that the student has the abilities.” Teacher FA4 agreed and added “When they can and they don’t achieve well you get demotivated, even when they can’t and they don’t, you get demotivated.”

Non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands. Though not mentioned during the individual interviews, this factor emerged during the focus group interview and this was brought up by one of the teachers [Teacher FA1] who emphasized that it is demotivating to see the school accommodating the students’ demands at the expense of the teachers pedagogically based best judgment. Teachers described it as unwanted students’ interference in decisions at school. This was clearly articulated by Teacher FA 1 who has been working at the school for 28 years now as she noted: “Although I agree that the student must be the center of attention but I do not think they should be controlling the school system”. Teachers [2 out of 4] agreed with this aspect, as one of them [Teacher FA3] further explained “It is true that in our modern days students are given too much attention where this is leading them to becoming the ones deciding about what should be done and what should not be done...unfortunately sometimes the school listens to them.” This factor became the center of the discussion and a major problem for teachers in School A as they were dissatisfied from seeing students, with the help of their parents, controlling the school rules, grades and having parental unnecessary interference in pedagogical decisions.

Lack of support from the administration and school leadership. As expressed previously by teachers, the absence of a supportive environment and school leader could
cause teachers to feel demotivated. This factor has been identified as a third demotivator for the teachers working in School A. Four [out of 6] teachers highlighted this factor during the individual interviews as being very demotivating. Teacher A4 explained how this factor could become demotivating in the different situations that he had experienced:

Being new to school, I feel that I need to cope with a lot of new challenges…not having the support of the administration at this stage has made me become very sensitive towards this….I always wait for it to happen…sometimes it happens…sometimes it doesn’t…this is the problem.

For Teacher A6, lack of the necessary support from school leader or the school administration can lead a teacher to get emotionally tired, and can negatively affect their ability to remain passionate about their teaching. She added, “Teachers don’t do it with love anymore”.

According to the interviewed teachers in the focus group, their answers about this factor was in line with the previously interviewed teachers as they agreed that lack of support from the administration or leader worked as a major demotivator. Three [out of 4] teachers validated the answers that emerged from the individual interviews. Teacher FA4 explained: “It is certainly important that the principal or the administration gives us support. If support is lacking not only do you get motivated, it can also affect your relationship with the administration or leader…it becomes weaker…”

Lack of appreciation. Five [out of 6] teachers in School A reported that the scarcity and absence of appreciation was a fourth potential demotivator for teachers. Both teachers A4 and A6 shed light on the importance of fairness while reporting about this factor. Teacher A4 explained unfairness as an underlying issue. “He added, lack of fairness and inconsistency in giving appreciation is another problem which can cause even more demotivation”. Teacher A6 confirmed that when some teachers get more attention than others the ones who have not received sufficient appreciation will feel demotivated. She explained “some teachers receive praise and others don’t”. Teacher A4 shared an incident which discouraged him. “After
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preparing school activities some get recognition, but others who have equally worked do not receive any appreciation or recognition…” he added, “this causes tension between the teachers and the administration…I didn’t want to do anything anymore!” On the other hand, according to Teacher A3 what demotivated her was students’ lack of appreciation of her hard work. This was also asserted by Teacher A6 who faced the same problem with the students and even their parents who never appreciated her hard work. “Not only do they not appreciate, but parents show negative attitude towards your work”. For Teacher A4 having a mother use offensive words and blaming the teacher was discouraging and this lack of appreciation has caused major demotivation. He expressed his opinion reflecting on his experiences “it is unfortunate that this is how parents are nowadays…there is no respect to the teacher…they blame you for their kid’s bad grades…they never say thank you.” During the focus group interview [4 out of 4] teachers agreed that the lack of appreciation, whether it was lacking from the side of the administration, students or parents, it played a negative role in decreasing their motivation level. Four [out of 4] teachers reached an agreed definition of ‘appreciation’ which Teacher FA3 explained it: “Anything we get in return of the hard work we are doing, whether it is a word of praise, a simple thank you, even salary…anything that tell us that our hard work is being noticed and appreciated” On the other hand two [out of 4 teachers] validated the aspect of unfair treatment from the part of the administration when it came to appreciating hard work. Teacher FA2 asserted “It can be sensitive among teachers if you see that someone who worked as much as you is getting noticed but you are not. We are humans, we have feelings.”

Uncomfortable school climate. Having an uncomfortable school climate was considered as a factor which caused negative feelings and demotivation as [6 out of 6] teachers in School A felt they might leave the school they worked in if a negative climate ever persisted. While a positive school climate was perceived as a source of motivation, this
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factor, when absent, was perceived to cause demotivation and high turnover. For [6 out of 6] teachers in school A, not feeling comfortable at the school decreased teachers’ motivation level, and not having friendly colleagues made them feel alienated. This was explained by Teacher A4 who expressed his opinion about the collegial relationships that female teachers mostly shared together. He referred to the climate he experienced and explained how it had affected his own motivation. He felt like an outsider to this strongly knit female group of colleagues. For him the school climate was more female-dominant and he was not satisfied. He stated that the female teachers in the teachers’ room did tend to observe him, criticize his performance and his work habits during exam preparation or corrections. “They are curious…they always observe my work… I feel very uncomfortable and I seriously try to avoid the teachers’ room sometimes…”

Teachers in the focus group [4 out of 4] validated this factor and agreed that having a comfortable and positive school climate was very important and not having such an climate would lead teachers to quit their jobs, as one teacher explained [Teacher FA2] ‘you can’t avoid your colleagues, your students or the school itself…when you feel uncomfortable you won’t be able to get yourself out of bed…you won’t be motivated to go to work in the morning, it kills you…”. Teacher FA 1 also added “you cannot pretend for a whole year that everything is ok…when you feel uncomfortable it will show…your colleagues will feel it, your students will feel it…and you won’t be able to work well…” At the end of the interview, the group reached a consensus regarding this factor and agreed to consider it a main demotivator which could eventually affect teachers’ motivation and commitment.

**Stressful teachers’ workload.** It was evident that in School A the teachers’ stressful workload was perceived as another demotivator as [3 of 6 teachers] explained that it resulted in stressful working conditions, and class preparations took time from their own personal life. This has led the 3 out of 6 teachers to feel physically exhausted. Teacher A2 for instance,
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who has been teaching for 24 years now, still felt the work load getting in the way of her family due to the time spent on work at home. For Teacher A3, she felt teachers were always under stress at work. She explained that parents do not have time for their kids and the load is on the teacher more than the parents since teachers try their best to help the children. For Teacher A4 the work load was not allowing him to rest since he worked full time at the current school and part time at another school. He also gave private lessons. The same teacher stated that when he was at home, he felt tired and saw his schoolwork very demanding since it did not allow him to have enough time with his family. He explained “I go home and I have private lessons to give and preparations for the next day. I barely have time with my own family. I am not happy about this. But what can I do about it?”

Through the discussions, the focus group did agree that the stressful work load that teachers have is a demotivator, however teacher FA1 who was a more experienced teacher believed that managing work effectively could help and not cause loaded work. Only 3 out of 4 teachers validated the answers received in the individual interview. Teacher FA3 summed up the group’s opinion:

The work load could be physically tiring for teachers as well as demotivating. We live under stress and one cannot ignore that it has become our daily habit. No day is different than the other…at least it is not better, it either gets worse with examination period or report cards or with the usual preparation which can take up our whole evening. This is the situation of most teachers in Lebanon. It is demotivating and it makes us tired.

In sum, with the data gathered from school A, the researcher was able to identify the factors which teachers perceived as motivators and those perceived as demotivators. In school A, teachers perceived the following actors as motivators: (a) Teaching itself as a source of motivation, (b) Making a contribution to their community, (c) Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress, (d) Receiving appreciation from students, (e) Receiving appreciation from the administration, (f) Having supportive leadership, (g) Having
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a welcoming school climate. On the other hand teachers perceived the following factors as the demotivators: (a) Students’ low achievement, (b) Non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands, (c) lack of support from the administration and leader, (d) Lack of appreciation, (e) Unfair shared appreciation, (f) uncomfortable school climate, and (g) Stressful teachers’ workload. The table that follows is a summary of the results on the motivators and demotivators with the total number of participants who perceived them as factors affecting their motivation in school A:

Table 9

*Teachers’ Perception of Motivators and Demotivators in the Highly Committed School and the Number of Teacher Respondents Identifying these Factors.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th>Motivator</th>
<th>Total Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
<th>Demotivator</th>
<th>Total Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching in itself as a source of motivation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Students’ low achievement</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making a contribution to their community</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demand</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Lack of appreciation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving appreciation from students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Unfair shared appreciation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving appreciation from the administration</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Lack of support from the administration/leader</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having supportive leadership</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Uncomfortable school climate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a welcoming school climate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Stressful teachers’ workload</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers’ perspectives on the factors that act as motivators in school B. This section focuses on reporting the results in school B. When teachers were asked about what
acted as motivators in school B, many factors emerged from the data as potential motivators for this group of teachers where the commitment level was found to be the lowest among other schools. Teachers in school B did express their high motivation level and their high level of commitment regardless of the average scores received on the OCS. Teacher B6 explained that it was ‘in her blood’ to teach with motivation. For Teacher B5 teaching was a message where one needed to give his or her maximum energy, he explained, “Teaching is a message, you have to give your maximum energy, you have to love your job to stay otherwise you will leave. You need to give all that you have.” Thus teaching with motivation was much expected from their profession. When teachers were asked to give their opinion and views on what mattered to them and what led them to feel more motivated everyday, many factors emerged. Table 10 presents the results on the motivating factors which emerged in school B. Explanation will follow.

Table 10

*Teachers’ Perspective on Motivating Factors in School B.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feeling responsible towards children</th>
<th>Teachers in the Individual Interviews (out of 6)</th>
<th>Teachers in the Focus Group (out of 4)</th>
<th>Total (out of 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feeling responsible towards children</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving work appreciation from the administration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving work appreciation from students</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having supportive leadership</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a welcoming school climate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Feeling responsible towards children.* In school B, one of the first motivating factors which emerged from the interviews conducted with teachers was the sense of responsibility
teachers felt towards children. This factor was mentioned by [5 out of 6] teachers and it was also validated by four [out of 4] teachers in the focus group. For Teacher B2 being a teacher was more than a job. She expressed her dedication by saying: “I take my worries home with me. Being a teacher makes me feel more responsible towards my students and their needs.” Teachers B1 explained that as teachers they have duties not only towards their students, but they also have goals and a curriculum which they need to achieve and complete. Such duties toward teaching gave them big responsibilities and motivated them to accomplish them.

During the focus group interview in school B, the interviewed teachers [4 out of 4] agreed that having responsibilities towards children did cause them to becoming very motivated because they worked towards a goal. Teacher FB2 explained the situation of the school and how it has affected their attitude towards children:

> The majority of the students come mostly from low socioeconomic background…no time is being invested on the students’ learning from the side of the parents unfortunately…this is why the students’ academic level is low…the lack of responsibility and lack of follow up from the parents has made us feel more responsible and more willing to work harder. This is our push.

Another teacher [Teacher FB1] agreed and added “Students are helpless at home…not all parents are educated…and that is why as a teacher I feel more responsible…and this is what makes me come to work every day.”

**Receiving appreciation from the administration.** According to four [out of 6] teachers in School B, receiving work appreciation, specifically from the part of the administration, was considered an essential motivator. Teacher B5 explained that “A simple word is enough”. He had once felt the effect of verbal appreciation on his attitude towards school. He shared his memorable incident and expressed the strong appreciation he had for his principal:

> Once during a summer vacation the principal called me personally to thank me for my efforts in preparing students well for the national exams. This was such a surprise call and so motivating…But I appreciated what he did…I have strong respect for him now and it made me go to work happy the following year.
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It was clearly evident that there was agreement in school B that receiving appreciation was considered as motivating factor. This was validated by [4 out of 4] teachers in the focus group who thought along the same line. In the focus group interviews, one of the teachers (Teacher FB1) asserted that getting appreciation from the school principal was important. The teacher added, “even if teachers get their salaries at the end of the month getting verbal appreciation makes us not doubt ourselves or our work. It gives us a boost.”

**Receiving appreciation from students.** Appreciation from the side of the students was also viewed by teachers [3 out of 6] as rewarding and an aspect included under this factor. However despite the effect it had on teachers, what mattered to them was mostly appreciation from the administration.

During the individual interviews the incidents shared by teachers clearly summed up the importance of this factor as perceived by teachers in school B. Teacher B6 shared her positive incident which made her feel proud. “I experienced something beautiful…after 8 years, one of my students thanked and praised me publicly in front of an audience when he achieved a lifetime goal…” She described this act of appreciation as rewarding and motivating.

In the focus group interviews however, it was asserted by one of the teachers (Teacher FB4) that “students’ appreciation is motivating but what matters more is the appreciation we get from the principal or the administration”. This was validated partially as only 2 out of 4 teachers agreed to identify it as an important motivator.

**Having supportive leadership.** As another motivating factor in School B, supportive leadership was also identified as crucial to teachers. Three [out of 6] teachers considered it a source of motivation as well as a reason to stay. Teacher B5 explained the integral role a school leader can play in making a teacher stay at school as this has happened to him personally. He explained, “If the school principal was not friendly or easy going, I would not
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have stayed…” For Teacher B2, having an easy going principal meant having an easy going administration and this allowed teachers to feel comfortable working at the school. She explained, “When the school leader is good, then you the administration will be good too…The teachers feel at ease in such cases. It all depends on the principal and how he is…” Teacher B4 also saw that having a supportive leader as a key factor that leads to motivation. She described the leader who keeps her motivated in her current school as “friendly, approachable and understanding”

During the focus group interview the school leader was regarded as an important motivator as it was validated by four [out of 4] teachers. These teachers found their own leader one of the reasons why they were staying and one of the reasons why they felt motivated. Teacher FB3 explained “We feel close to the principal. He always talks to us randomly and we talk to him… you don’t feel that he has power over you…”

Having a welcoming school climate. The majority of the teachers [6 out of 6] interviewed in school B described their school climate as positive and comfortable; they explained that in such an environment they feel motivated. The teachers mentioned many aspects that they described as welcoming and comfortable and consequently motivating. These shed light mainly on the administration-teacher relationship and mainly teacher-teacher relationships which were all easy going and helpful according to the teachers interviewed. Teacher B2 explained “the administration is easy going, teachers are good together and there is a good atmosphere, the school atmosphere is positive altogether.” Teacher B4 stated “I am happy here…I got used to the school…the school environment is welcoming.” She also added, “The teachers are all helpful”. Teacher B5 also expressed how comfortable he felt by saying “I feel comfortable working here…this is what matters.”

During the focus group interview, four [out of 4] teachers regarded this factor as a factor which led to not only motivation but it also led teachers to feel committed to the school, as
one teacher (Teacher FB1) explained, “what makes our school special is the working environment…it is nice to see how teachers are with each other…we feel that if someone needs help other teachers are ready to help…” Other teachers also agreed as one teacher (Teacher FB3) also added “the school altogether is small, we are a few teachers but we feel close to each other”. On the other hand they agreed that the teachers feel motivated when the administration and the school principal showed closeness and open communication. Teacher FB4 elaborated by stating “Our relationship with the administration and specifically the principal is good. We feel close, there is a lot of communication happening between teachers and the administration and it is all very casual…” It was clearly evident that this factor played a major role in motivating but also in maintaining the good relationship teachers had with the school.

**Teachers’ perspectives on the factors that act as demotivators in school B.** This section will present the results of the findings on demotivators gathered from the 10 interviews done with teachers in school B, where commitment levels were shown to be lower. The results summarized in Table 11 reflect teachers’ perception of the factors that act as demotivators:
Table 11

Factors Leading to Demotivation as Perceived by Teachers in School B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Teachers in the Individual Interviews (out of 6)</th>
<th>Teachers in the Focus Group (out of 4)</th>
<th>Total (out of 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of work appreciation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of support from the administration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stressful teachers’ workload</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncomfortable school climate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unavailability of Technology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lack of appreciation.** Just as work appreciation caused motivation to teachers in School B, teachers expressed that it also demotivated them. Teachers in school B explained the importance of receiving appreciation from the side of the administration, students, and parents. This was considered as a first demotivator. According to them, the majority of the students were not responsible enough to value the teacher’s effort and work. Three [out of 6] identified the lack of appreciation from students as demotivating. One of those teachers (Teacher B6) asserted, “The teacher is forgotten…it seems that students are not taught to say ‘thank you’ anymore.” She also shared her feelings of disappointment in the parents who did not appreciate the teacher’s year-round effort. “It is extremely demotivating when parents show careless reaction to comments sent home regarding their child’s progress, instead of appreciating the work of the teacher.” Another teacher (Teacher B2) highlighted that they are demotivated when parents do not know the extent to which teachers work and thus they do not feel the need to say anything in return. In sum, only two [out of 6] teachers shed light on the importance of parents’ appreciation. On the other hand, five [out of 6] teachers expressed
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that the absence of appreciation from the administration is very demotivating. Teacher B6 stated we are demotivated when “it is not there”, and Teacher B3 expressed her anger saying: “Appreciation from the administration is very important. We are not slaves and we are not machines!” Teacher B6 agreed and explained:

Sometimes teachers are pressured to work harder and yet they do not get anything in return…it’s our problem and our duty to work hard… and the administration thinks there is no need to say thank you because this is our job.

When teachers in the focus group interviews were asked to share their opinion regarding work appreciation, they considered it as a major demotivator. In fact, all of the participants [4 out of 4] in the focus group agreed that this factor, which was the lack of receiving appreciation, made them feel unrecognized. They all agreed also that what matters most is receiving the appreciation and that the source did not matter as long as they received it, whether it was from the administration, the students or parents. Thus they equally viewed their importance as Teacher FB2 further explained and highlighted the purpose of appreciation “What matters is not who is appreciating but instead the overall positive feeling of receiving appreciation…It gives you joy and it gives you energy…not having that chance will not make us motivated to continue…”

Lack of support from the administration. During the individual interviews, lack of support from the administration was identified as a second demotivator for [4 out of 6] teachers in School B. Teacher B2 expressed the need to receive support from the administration and explained common incidents which happened at the school as evidence of lack of administrative support and elaborations as how lacking support can act as a demotivator:

Sometimes there are misunderstandings happening at school. For instance when issues happen with the student or with the parents… like parents blaming the teacher for not informing them about an important date…whereas it was not the case, but the administration directly blames the teacher. The administration makes wrong judgments without being aware of both sides of a story and this is not right and it is
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completely demotivating because the administration is expected to trust and support the teacher.

She also added:

In general the school does not have an effective support system...a system which helps teachers and guides them...we work independently...we don’t work as a team...we get support sometimes from other teachers who are our friends...but we don’t usually get support from the administration in terms of teaching support.

During the focus group interview, two [out of 4] teachers agreed that the lack of support affected their motivation negatively; however, the rest did not give it primary importance in validating its demotivating factor. However teacher FB4 explained “This factor is very important to teachers. Its absence could cause major demotivation. The situation is not good in general...a lot needs to be done in terms of support, whether it is teaching support or even monetary support”.

Stressful teachers’ workload. Workload was identified by the teachers in School B as a third major demotivator. During the individual interviews, three [out of 6] teachers confirmed feeling demotivated and drained from the demand of their job. Teacher A3 explained “When the number of teaching hours surpass the normal range it is normal for anyone to lose motivation.” She added, “You need breaks to breathe!” However on the other side another teacher stated that she was used to her busy schedule, but she felt work pressure when working with the students who needed to be challenged academically. Two teachers explained the work stress as always there whether in their time schedule, inside of the classroom or during class preparations.

This demotivator was validated by four [out of 4] teachers during the focus group interviews. They confirmed that it is tiring and demanding. Teacher FB3 further explained the views of teachers:
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The time we spend on work is endless...for teachers who are mothers, it doesn’t get easy because they have to take back work with them...Even for male teachers, they cannot spend some quality time with their family...not everyone can take up workload for a long time...at the end it will affect our health and it will also affect our morale.

In sum it was clear that workload was a constraint for teachers who found it coming in the way of their family and their health. Thus this demotivator was much considered as affecting one’s motivation level.

**Uncomfortable school climate.** Just as having a comfortable school climate was identified as a major motivator, its absence was considered to be a fourth major demotivator. When asked during the individual interviews, six [out of 6] mentioned the school climate as a factor which kept them in school because this was what caused them to continue. Thus, not having a comfortable climate did lead teachers to think of leaving. Teacher B3 explained:

> When a teacher is pushed, they feel uncomfortable and this is how I feel the whole year...I feel that there is always pressure on me as a teacher...we are expected to excel and work hard. It creates a stressful environment especially when teachers are expected to do their best and head to perfection. This cannot happen when they are loaded with a busy schedule.

She added, “It’s tiring”. Teacher B6 on the other hand discussed how a negative climate could affect teachers “When the climate is negative, you can’t be effective...the stress gets to you and you give up quickly.” The rest of the teachers interviewed confirmed that an uncomfortable climate leads to more stress for the teacher. Teacher B5 explained, “If the school is uncomfortable I directly plan to find another school, as simple as that!”

It was evident that teachers wanted to avoid such a climate due to the effect it had on them. Teachers in the focus group agreed that this factor was very crucial and it caused them to become very demotivated. Four [out of 4] teachers reached a consensus regarding the aspect which made a school uncomfortable and this was mainly a result of the work stress which pressured teachers. Teacher FB2 stated, “When we feel pressured by the administration and pushed, or when we are forced...we would feel uncomfortable and this would make us lose interest.”
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**Unavailability of Technology.** In school B, the majority of the teachers [4 out of 6] talked about the unavailability of technology in the classroom as a fifth demotivating factor. Among the six teachers interviewed, Teacher B3 explained the need for technology in the classrooms:

Technology can affect children’s reaction in a positive way...so it can be very beneficial if it was integrated into our classes. But unfortunately, we don’t have such facilities in our school...our teaching and learning resources are limited...you feel crippled.

For the chemistry teacher, this was the case too as he felt the need for technology. He explained “Having such facilities and a laboratory with equipment for better practice can change the reaction of the students and improve their performance.” The teachers complained about its absence and asserted that given that it was currently unavailable, its absence was acting as a demotivator. Teachers explained that the lack of such facilities at the school, as a result of the lack of budget, was a demotivator for teachers who were seeking innovative teaching methods and more importantly for teachers teaching scientific subjects.

During the focus group interview this factor was also regarded as least important, as one of the teachers, who has been working at the school for a long time, expressed that there was no time to include technology in the classrooms since he was more worried about completing the curriculum and getting students ready for their national exams. He also added “The school program and curriculum does not allow us to include technology...there is not time for it...”

Another teacher (Teacher FB2) expressed the importance of technology for only specific subjects and stated “Technology is more interesting for some subjects like science but not for teaching language.” In sum only two [out of 4] teachers did express that the unavailability of technology affected their motivation level. The group did not reach a consensus regarding this factor, however. Two [out of 4] teachers insisted on not considering it a demotivator as they did not find it an important factor within their context.
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In sum, the researcher was able to identify factors which teachers perceived as motivators and demotivators in School B where commitment levels were lower than other schools which took part in this study. The result show that the factors perceived as motivators were (a) Feeling responsible towards children, (b) Receiving work appreciation from the administration, (c) Receiving work appreciation from the students, (d) Having supportive leadership, (e) Having a welcoming school climate. On the other hand the demotivators were (a) Lack of appreciation from the administration, students and parents, (b) Lack of support from the administration, (c) Stressful teachers’ workload, (d) Uncomfortable school climate, and (e) Unavailability of technology. Table 12 is a summary of the results on the motivators and demotivators with the total number of participants who perceived the factors affecting their motivation in school B:

Table 12
School B Teachers’ Perception of Motivators and Demotivators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivators</th>
<th>Total Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
<th>Demotivators</th>
<th>Total Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feeling responsible towards children</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Lack of work appreciation:</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving work appreciation from the administration</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Lack of support from the administration</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving work appreciation from students</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Stressful teachers’ workload</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having supportive leadership</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Uncomfortable school climate</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a welcoming school climate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Unavailability of technology</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cross-Case Comparison: Nature of Motivators and Demotivators in School A and B

This section will present a cross-case comparison of the nature of motivators and demotivators in the selected schools with different commitment levels. The cross-case comparison entails two parts: (a) a comparison of the nature of the motivators in school A and school B and (b) a comparison of the nature of the demotivators in school A and B. The cross-case comparison attempts to answer the last research question which inquires about the similarities and differences of the factors that act as motivators and demotivators. The factors provided emerged from the interviews conducted with 20 teachers from the two schools.

Although participating teachers from both schools expressed equally their intentions to stay in the schools they were working in, many factors still led them to become more satisfied in their work, or dissatisfied.

Comparison of the Nature of Motivators Perceived by Teachers in School A and School B

This section reports the similarities and differences of the factors which act as motivators to teachers working in schools with high and low commitment levels. Table 13 reports on the results and summarizes the findings of the two schools.
Table 13

Comparison of the Perceived of Motivators by Teachers per Number of Respondents in Schools A and B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivators</th>
<th>School A Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
<th>School B Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching itself as a source of motivation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making a contribution to their community</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling responsible towards children</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving appreciation from students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving appreciation from the administration</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a supportive school leadership</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a welcoming school climate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results on motivators reported in this study show that School A and School B share few similarities and few differences.

**Similarities.** In School A and School B, the majority of the teachers view receiving work appreciation as integral and rewarding. Seventeen [out of 20] interviewed teachers find the administration, including the principal, important sources of motivation as their appreciation allows teachers to feel satisfied and have high morale. Teachers in school A regard work appreciation from the administration and students as crucial. Although they both perceive this factor as fulfilling, the appreciation received from the administration is found to be more motivating. Likewise, teachers in school B seek motivation and recognition from
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students and the administration, more specifically from the school principal. The results also show that in school A, the administration and the principal play a vital role in motivating teachers by giving them the needed support. Thus, having a supportive school leadership was also a factor which was significant in school B. For school B teachers, when the leader is friendly and promotes open communication, teachers feel happier as this closeness allows them to build stronger ties with the school. But in school A, when the administration stands by their side this causes them high levels of motivation. Further, all respondents in school A and B share the same importance of having a welcoming school climate. They perceived it as creating better working conditions and the teachers look forward to go to school every day. In school A, having a welcoming school climate revolves around collegial relationships more than between the teacher and administration. It is an environment where everyone shows friendly attitudes and open communication. But in school B, the climate is described as the teacher-teacher relations and administration-teacher relations which helps create a positive working environment.

**Differences.** Just as results show similarities, differences are also found among the two schools in what constituted motivational factors. In school A, results show that teachers regard teaching itself as a source of motivation. This factor was not significantly present in school B. Moreover, making a contribution to their community is only a major motivator for teachers in school A. This factor however does not show to be a source of motivation for teachers in school B. Teachers in school B explain it to be their duty and not a source of motivation for them. Further, in school A, what teachers perceive as a motivator is witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress. This factor is not present in school B, however in School B what works as a motivator is feeling responsible towards children. Their sense of responsibility pushes them to work harder and take up challenges with students who come from low socioeconomic background.
Comparison of the Nature of Demotivators Perceived by Teachers in School A and B

In this section, a comparison of the factors which are perceived as demotivators in school A and school B will be provided. Table 14 reports on the results and summarizes the findings of the two schools:

Table 14

Comparison of the Perceived Demotivators by Teachers per Number of Respondents in Schools A and B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demotivators</th>
<th>School A Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
<th>School B Number of Respondents (N=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students' low achievement</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of support from the administration and leadership.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of appreciation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair shared appreciation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncomfortable school climate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stressful teachers' workload</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unavailability of technology</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results on factors leading to demotivation show that in school A and school B there are many similarities in the answers of the teachers interviewed in the two different schools, however few differences are also found.

**Similarities.** First, both school A and school B teachers view stressful teachers’ workload as very demotivating. In school A and School B, it is felt when the stressful
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teachers’ workload interferes with family life, and when teachers are not able to spend time with their families. In both schools teachers feel exhausted from the amount of work they have and their busy time schedule. Also, in both school A and B, the workload is a result of their class hours, class preparations and students’ demands. A second common factor which is viewed as a demotivator to both schools is having an uncomfortable school climate. Teachers in both schools feel that this factor also causes low morale and demotivation. In school A, teachers described an unfriendly environment as a negative climate. Likewise, school B described it as an unfriendly environment; however they also described it as the resulting from the heavy demands of the administration. According to teachers in school B the presence of this factor made teachers lose interest. As a result, the conditions under which they work affect their attitude towards school. It is evident that teachers in both schools would leave the school if this factor persisted at their school for a long time. A third factor which is considered a common demotivator for teachers in school A and B is the lack of support from the administration. Teachers in both schools view support from the administration or school leader a factor which could help promote the teachers’ sense of self-worth at times of need. In school A and school B, high morale and a sense of self-worth is received when the administration stands on the side of the teacher during incidents which occur at school. However it is worth noting that in school B, support is viewed also as receiving instructional support like guidance or workshops which help them professionally. The absence of this support was perceived by members of school B as a key demotivator. On the other hand, this factor is not an aspect discussed in school A, neither identified as a strong determinant of demotivation. Thus it is important to note that although similar factors emerged however teachers explained them according to their own understanding and based on their context. A fourth factor which is viewed as a demotivator for teachers in both schools is the lack of appreciation that teachers receive at the school. For teachers in both
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schools, not receiving any form of appreciation is perceived as very demotivating, whether it is from the side of the administration, students or parents. Few parents in school B regarded parents’ appreciation as a strong demotivator. The majority [9 out of 10] felt more demotivated when they did not receive appreciation from the administration, more specifically from their principal.

**Differences.** On the other hand, in school A, teacher responses pointed at a factor that was not mentioned by respondents from school B. Namely, teachers spoke of the lack of work appreciation in terms of the absence of fairness when it comes to how this appreciation is given to various members of the staff. They described the lack of fairness in sharing appreciation pointing at situations when some teachers received appreciation and others did not. In School A, teachers perceived this as an issue leading to demotivations especially when it is caused by behavior attributed to the school administration. In addition, all teachers [10 out of 10] interviewed in school A view students’ low achievement as a demotivating factor, but this has not been not mentioned in school B. Thus only teachers in school A view this as a potential demotivating factor which affects their self-esteem. According to them, students’ weak performance resulted in teachers blaming themselves for. Moreover, a factor which is not mentioned by respondents from school A teachers is the unavailability of technology. The majority of the teachers in school B view the absence of technology in the classrooms as very demotivating because it affects the interaction of students and the teaching methods. However in school A, this factor is not discussed much due to the availability of such facilities in the school. In school A, a factor which emerges from the interviews is the non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands. Although this factor is not directly mentioned during the individual interviews as a major demotivator, four [out of 4] teachers in the focus group stress on the negative effect it has on their motivation level. In contrast, teachers in school B do not identify such a factor because most parents at their school do not
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follow up enough on their child’s academic work, coming from mostly low socioeconomic background.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reported first results from the two questionnaires used in this study; the Demographic Background Questionnaire and the Organizational Commitment Scale. Second, it reported results from the individual and focus group interviews.

The findings were used in the following ways to serve the purpose of this study: In the first part of this chapter, the researcher provided the results of the OCS. Commitment profiles were identified for the six schools under study. Then, based on the commitment profiles identified, school cases were selected for the second phase of this study; one ranking as highly committed and another ranking as less committed. The second part of the chapter focused on reporting the school cases under study. The data gathered from the school which scored high on commitment; being the one which scored the highest on the OCS and highest on Affective commitment, helped identify the factors which teachers perceived as motivators and those perceived as demotivators. In school A, teachers perceived the following factors as motivators: (a) Teaching itself as a source of motivation, (b) Making a contribution to their community, (c) Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress, (d) Receiving appreciation from students, (e) Receiving appreciation from the administration. (f) Having a supportive leadership, (g) Having a welcoming school climate. On the other hand teachers perceived the following factors as the demotivators: (a) Students’ low achievement, (b) Non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands, (c) Lack of support from the administration and leader, (d) Lack of appreciation, (e) Unfair shared appreciation, (f) uncomfortable school climate, and (g) Stressful teachers’ workload. On the other hand, in the school which scored the lowest on commitment, being the one which scored lowest on the
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OCS and on Affective commitment, the factors which teachers perceived as motivators were (a) Feeling responsible towards children, (b) Receiving work appreciation from the administration, (c) Receiving work appreciation from the students, (d) Having supportive school leadership, (e) Having a welcoming school climate. Further, the demotivators identified in the same school were (a) Lack of appreciation from the administration, students and parents, (b) Lack of support from the administration, (c) Stressful teachers’ workload, (d) Uncomfortable school climate, and (e) Unavailability of technology.

Similarities and differences found among the factors were presented in this last part for comparison purposes. Both schools shared similar motivators which were (a) receiving appreciation from the students, (b) receiving appreciation from the administration, (c) having a supportive school leadership and (d) having a welcoming school climate. They also shared some similar demotivators which were (a) lack of support from the administration and leadership, (b) lack of appreciation, (c) uncomfortable school climate, and 4) stressful teachers’ workload. Differences in motivators found in both schools were also presented from school A, and these were (a) teaching itself, (b) making a contribution to their community, (c) witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress, which were factors only found in school A and not in school B. On the other hand, feeling responsible towards children was a factor only found in school B. As for the differences in the demotivators in school A, these were (a) students’ low achievement, (b) non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands, (c) unfair shared appreciation. These factors were not discussed in school B. However, the factor unavailability of technology was only a perceived demotivator in school B.

The next chapter aims to discuss the findings presented in this chapter.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study is (a) to identify the different commitment profiles of Lebanese Armenian schools, based on their Affective, Normative and Continuance commitment level, (b) to investigate teachers’ perspectives on the factors that act as motivators and demotivators in a Highly committed and the Less committed school respectively, and finally, (c) to compare the factors found in both highly and low committed schools. This chapter will be divided into 3 parts (a) discussion of the results, (b) conclusion, (c) recommendations for practice and for further research, and (d) limitations of the study.

Discussion

This section discusses the results of this study. It includes a discussion of the results obtained; the factors impacting motivation and teachers’ commitment profiles in the different schools. The discussions will be based in the reviewed literature but will be in relation to Herzberg’s theory.

Factors Impacting Motivation for Teachers in School A and B

Based on the results provided in the previous chapter, it was evident that teachers in both schools received motivation from various sources found at the workplace. It is evident that motivation in both schools had intrinsic and extrinsic elements in them, as the motivators and the demotivators in the findings indicate that the factors revealed were external to work and internal as well. Based on Herzberg’s theory, the motivators, termed as ‘motivational factors’ are also considered satisfiers, due to the positive effect it has on teachers’ satisfaction. Demotivators, termed as ‘hygiene or maintenance factors’, are considered dissatisfiers due to the negative effect it has on the satisfaction levels. See Figure 3 which schematically shows Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory.
Motivators. According to Herzberg, motivational factors are factors that are innate, such as achievement, advancement, work itself, growth, responsibility and recognition (Owens & Valesky, 2011). These cause satisfaction and lead to increased effort and effectiveness in the workplace. Based on the results, motivators are found to have both extrinsic and intrinsic nature in both schools A and B. Table 15 shows a comparison of the motivators in school A and B with regard to their nature and in relation to Herzberg’s model.
As mentioned, compared to Herzberg’s theory of motivation, results show that in School A, the satisfiers are not entirely intrinsic in nature. Instead, the factors which have emerged from school A also show more presence of extrinsic factors. For instance in school A, four out of the seven motivating factors were identified as being extrinsic in nature and those were (a) having a welcoming school climate, (b) receiving work appreciation from the students, (c)
receiving work appreciation from the administration, and (d) having a supportive school leadership. These factors were related to the work environment. However, it is important to note some of the satisfiers which emerged from these schools were also intrinsic factors, thus they were in line with Herzberg’s satisfiers which are defined to being intrinsic in nature. In school A, the satisfiers evolved around the work itself, responsibility and achievement, and in the school those intrinsic motivators were (a) teaching itself as a source of motivation, (b) making a contribution to their community, (c) witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress.

Like in school A, the satisfiers in school B which emerged from the interviews are found to be both intrinsic and extrinsic in nature. However it is found that what might have led to high levels of motivation in school B, are mostly extrinsic in nature except for one factor, *feeling responsible towards children*, which was found to be the only intrinsic factor. The rest of the factors are contextual factors, related to the work environment which are (a) having a welcoming school climate, (b) receiving appreciation from students, (c) receiving appreciation from the administration, and (d) having a supportive school leadership.

Examining the results further through Herzberg’s model reveals that the factors that the respondents viewed as motivators mostly correspond to Herzberg’s satisfiers. Namely what teachers related to motivate them can be categorized under Herzberg satisfiers: achievement, work itself, responsibility, and recognition, growth and advancement.

There was agreement in both schools on the last two factors, according to the interviewed teachers, although they are extrinsic in nature. According to Evans (1998) the way subordinates are treated can highly influence a person’s productivity and morale. High morale can motivate employees to work towards goal-focused activities, and this in turn can cause more job satisfaction and it can also keep one’s morale up.
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On the other hand, while teachers in both schools mentioned factors under Herzberg’s “work itself” and “responsibility” satisfiers, they differ in their manifestations. In the high commitment school, teachers found motivation in their work because of their love for the teaching profession itself, while teachers in school B found motivation in having a welcoming climate. Similarly, the highly committed school teachers viewed responsibility as making a contribution to their community, while teachers from the less commitment school talked about being motivated by a sense of responsibility towards students. According to the teachers in school A, working in an Armenian school caused them to be happy and satisfied as they felt they were making a contribution to the Armenian community. The Armenian community, being a recognized community existing in Lebanon, has always struggled to preserve its language and culture outside of its lands, and because of this, most of the teachers feel the need to continue work since they feel a strong sense of responsibility towards their people and a sense of value and worth. Moreover, although for teachers in school B, achieving educational goals was more challenging than for teachers in school A due to the weak quality of students, it is evident that teachers in school B felt a bigger sense of responsibility towards children. Most of the teachers in school B have complained about the quality of students’ work and their strong need to overcome such academic problems, this constituted a goal that will yield a sense of motivational achievement. When teachers see their work as worthwhile, they have a better perception of themselves as they show to have better abilities to control tasks and demonstrate responsibility and accountability of their own outcomes (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 2006).

It is worth noting that only teachers from school A mentioned factors related to achievement as motivators. Witnessing students’ engagement in learning and their progress was only mentioned by teachers in the high commitment participating school.
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In light of the above, it is evident that the factors acting as motivators revealed in this study are not directly and entirely in line with Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory. Based on Herzberg’s theory, the motivational factors which act as satisfiers and that directly lead to motivation are expected to be intrinsic in nature. However, in school A and B, it is found that the factors which cause teachers to be highly motivated and highly satisfied are not only derived from intrinsic elements as Herzberg had explained in his theory, instead, in this study, the satisfiers of teachers working in schools which have scored high and low on commitment were a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Four [out of 8] motivators were categorized as extrinsic motivators, and the remaining four as intrinsic motivators. Although the two sets of factors are different in nature, in the context of our study, they fall under one umbrella, ‘satisfiers’. This new set of satisfiers, determined as a result of the data gathered and analysis done, give us a new understanding of what matters the most to teachers who work in Armenian schools with high and low levels of commitment.

It is true that for Herzberg, external factors can in no way be motivators in themselves, in this study however, those external factors were perceived to be important motivators which had a strong impact on the motivation level of teachers. For instance working in a welcoming school climate, is, according to Herzberg, a hygiene factor related to the organizational climate, making it a working condition crucial to teachers. He believes developing an organization with an amiable climate or atmosphere removes dissatisfaction, but it does not in itself cause motivation, it only works as a prerequisite (Owens & Valensky, 2011). Rather, the result of this study seem to be more aligned with another study where organizational climate was found to play an important role in reinforcing an employee’s positive behavior, motivation and commitment level, and loyalty (Castro & Martins, 2010).

The findings of this study clearly do not entirely agree with Herzberg’s theory if compared to the motivational factors he suggested. However, the part of the results which
agree with the theory are the intrinsic motivators identified in this study. In fact, these factors act as potential motivators at the workplace. Moreover, when employees feel a sense of responsibility toward their work, they feel autonomous thus they “have the greatest capacity to motivate from within” (Sergionvanni & Staratt, 2006, p.324). Further, Herzberg explains achievement motivation as being intrinsic in nature and leads to Maslow’s self-actualization needs. Along the same line, according to McClelland, teachers who have high achievement motivation also have a strong desire to receive performance feedback, they assume a strong desire for personal responsibility and they also set difficult goals (Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

**Demotivators.** According to Herzberg, hygiene or maintenance factors are believed to be extrinsic in nature as they are related to the job context. Hygiene factors, also known as dissatisfiers, are related to the work environment, type of supervision, salary and fringe benefits, job security, attitudes and policies of administration, and status. These factors, when negatively present, limit the effort and effectiveness of teachers causing teachers to feel dissatisfied at the workplace (Owens & Valensky, 2011). The factors perceived as demotivators and presented by teachers in School A and B were found to be entirely extrinsic in nature, which very much agrees with Herzberg’s definition of dissatisfiers. The findings in Table 16 shows a comparison of the demotivators in School A and B with regard to their nature and in relation to Herzberg.
However, four of Herzberg’s hygiene factors did not emerge as part of the factors identified by the participants as demotivators: type of supervision, salary and benefits, job security, and status. These are mostly extrinsic factors. The absence of these demotivators
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might be the result of the fact that both schools have moderately to high level of commitment. The scores obtained from the less committed schools were just slightly lower than those of the highly committed school. This might imply that many of the hygiene factors as per Herzberg, or the lower order needs as per Maslow are already met for teachers in these schools. So when asked about demotivators they mostly addressed the factors that are prevalent not the ones that are satisfied. Another explanation for the absence of these factors might be the result of the unique conditions within the Armenian community. Most of the teachers in the participating schools are themselves members of that community, which makes the sense of belonging, as well as safety high, given the scarcity of teachers with their background and qualifications.

It is also important to note that some of the factors which emerge as demotivators in school A and B are found to be the reverse of the motivators identified by the participants at both schools. For instance, the factor ‘appreciation’ is found to be a major motivator in its presence, but a demotivator when not there. Further, other factors such as having a supportive school leadership, and having a comfortable school climate were also perceived as motivators when present, but complete demotivators when absent or weak. This conceptualization of motivation is more aligned with the traditional views of motivation, which differs from Herzberg’s theory (See Figure 1 on the traditional concept on job-satisfaction-dissatisfaction). According to the traditional conception, the demotivators are seen as the opposite of what motivates and vice versa. Herzberg on the other hand believes motivational factors and hygiene factors are different from each other, as one is intrinsic in nature and the other is extrinsic. Thus, the factors that motivate are expected to be different from the factors that demotivate.

In sum, a total of eight extrinsic demotivators were identified by teachers in both schools. Of these four were shared, and four were identified by teachers in only one of the
two participating schools, these are: Lack of or unfair appreciation, lack of support from the administration, uncomfortable school climate, stressful workload.

The lack of support from the administration and leadership in work-related issues, such as disputes between teachers and parents, was viewed as demotivating as teachers explained that they were losing their feeling of self-growth and advancement and their feeling of self-worth in the organization. This factor seems to be present more in school A, where parents show much involvement. In such cases, teachers perceive the administration as sources of demotivation due to the absence of support in times of need. As for school B teachers, support was perceived as guidance and learning. This might be the result of the fact that in school B 36.4% of the respondents have been working at the school for 1 to 5 years. However in school A, 20% of the teachers were there for only a few years. Moreover, in school A, 85% of the respondents had more than 11 years of teaching experience, unlike school B which had only 45.5% of the respondents with teaching experience of more than 11 years. This might explain why teachers in school B expected more guidance and teaching support since the majority of the teachers were less experienced than school A teachers. In addition, teachers perceive a positive school climate essential to stay in the school they work in. According to Reid (1982) just as a comfortable school climate is necessary for students, teachers need a comfortable school climate to teach and work in. He pointed out that not feeling at ease, in the organization they work in, will decrease their sense of self-worth as their relationships between them and colleagues or with the administration weakens. This factor in the long run can cause emotional stress. Moreover, just as it is perceived as a potential demotivator in school A, school B teachers also asserted that such work environment could lead them to dissatisfaction and to leaving the school. According to Herzberg, having an amiable atmosphere at work reduces dissatisfaction and creates
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conditions which could cause motivation, however as previously mentioned, the factor itself does not cause direct motivation when there (Owens & Valesky, 2011).

Moreover, the work load, which was also an extrinsic demotivator, did seem to cause teachers to feel stressed and dissatisfied, it in fact destroyed their motivation, and as a result they felt worn out. Having such a situation in the school would eventually lead to teacher burnout, which includes emotional and physical exhaustion, and it would impact teachers’ autonomy at school due to the existing stress at the workplace. According to Maslach and Jackson (1986) burnout is the end stage to chronic occupational stress. In school B, workload meant more specifically to the conditions (schedules, preparations etc.) and organizational climate (stress, pressure etc). Teachers feel pressured and loaded with work and this does not cause them to feel any sense of achievement but rather it makes them feel stressed and depressed.

On the other hand, teachers from the two participating schools disagreed on the demotivating impact of three of the identified demotivators. In the highly committed school [school A], teachers agreed that the Non-pedagogically based accommodation of students demands can result in demotivation, while none of the participating teachers from school B identified this factor. Students’ and Parents’ interference or involvement in school matters seem to have an effect on the teachers’ feeling of autonomy at school. Teachers in School A found the interference of students and mostly parents in school matters as a form of disruption to their role and to the school organization. According to Zohora et al. (2013) some teachers perceive parental involvement as an underestimation of their role as teachers, and this makes them lose their sense of autonomy. The fact that school A is a school that caters to families with high socioeconomic background, parents show more involvement in school matters. This explains why teachers in school A are more concerned or demotivated
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by seeing the administration accommodating student demands. This seems to be getting in the way of school A teachers more than school B teachers.

Another demotivator that has not been identified in both schools is the unavailability of technology. Teachers in school B felt unable to advance and achieve better teaching methods due to this lack, for this reason they felt a strong need. However, the fact that school A is more privileged than school B, this has impacted the views of teachers regarding technology. Teachers in school A did not give this factor much importance as school B teachers did. Moreover, it is worthy to note that the 81.9% of the respondents in school B were Science and Math teachers, thus the unavailability of technology would surely have a big impact on teachers teaching the scientific and math subjects, which can very much increase their motivation level at this specific school.

Motivation and Commitment

Previous studies have shed light on the relationship of motivation and commitment. Gagne et al. (2008) argued that motivation has significant direct influence on commitment over time. Moreover, according to Katz (1964), for behavior to be induced, it is important to identify the motivational basis of this behavior, since he believed each behavior had different motivations. Further analysis of the results on the variations of levels of organizational commitment on affective, continuance and normative dimensions, in light of the factors identified as motivators and demotivators shed light on the conditions that seem to be more likely to yield to high organizational commitment.

As previously mentioned, the highly committed employees are expected to have lower level of work withdrawal and turnover intentions, higher level of altruism towards colleagues, ‘loyal boosterism’ (Wasti, 2005), and higher levels of intrinsic satisfaction (Markovits et al., 2007). Further, results show that school A teachers scored high on affective and normative commitment, the researcher expected to find teachers emotionally attached to the school.
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Results show that teachers expressed their strong sense of belonging and their willingness to stay because they had to fulfill their desire to contribute to the community and its children. They also felt a sense which made them develop high levels of normative commitment.

School B which scored the lowest on the commitment questionnaire showed that it had lower levels of affective, continuance and normative commitment. This meant the teachers were less likely to show desired behavior in the workplace; they were more likely to think of leaving, more likely to experience work withdrawal, less likely to have loyal boosterism and lower levels of altruism towards their colleagues (Wasti, 2005).

It is evident that teachers in school A seek motivation from the work itself, recognition, responsibility and achievement at the workplace. Moreover, teachers’ reported lack of growth was the result of lack of support from the administration, and the lack of recognition, the result of lack of appreciation. It is noteworthy that the highly committed teachers are the ones who talked more about high-order needs which were related to loving teaching, as well as having an attachment to the community. Those same people seem to be quite attached to professionalism; they are demotivated if there are non-pedagogical decisions taken and when they fail to achieve their main professional goal, which is student achievement. Also these teachers seem to not care much about technical issues like the presence or absence of technology. This very much connects with intrinsic motivation that is driven by a value system of loyalty to the community and also love for the profession.

School B teachers’ sense of achievement, autonomy, growth and advancement might have been negatively impacted by factors such as lack of support and appreciation, heavy workload, uncomfortable climate and lack of technology. However it is evident that the school where commitment was less, teachers talked less about intrinsic motivators. Their only intrinsic motivator, and what mattered to them mostly was their sense of responsibility towards children who seemed to struggle, knowing that the students come from low
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socioeconomic background. As for the demotivators, teachers valued mostly recognition and growth, thus factors which interfered in these matters, made them lose their motivation level.

Conclusion

This study adopted a motivational approach when exploring organizational commitment. It planned to look into (a) the commitment profile of teachers (b) the motivation factors which made teachers feel more motivated and more committed and the demotivation factors which led to lower levels of motivation and lower levels of commitment, and (d) to compare the results. The results of this study helped us recommend strategies to foster commitment and reduce turnover in schools.

All the schools under study showed to have highly desirable commitment profiles which were Affective-Normative dominant and mostly with high levels of Affective Commitment. Thus, no school showed to have low levels of commitment. School B, being the other extreme, was classified as the lowest among the other schools due the lower scores it received on all of the commitment forms. Being schools within a specific community in Lebanon, the results help us conclude that the expected emotional ties and feelings of obligation was due to the teachers’ strong sense of belonging towards the Armenian community. This was clearly articulated in school A where commitment was the highest and where one significant motivator was contributing to the community.

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), the antecedents of each form of commitment vary from one form to another since each form has different mindsets. Moreover, they found that affective commitment levels were more likely to be enhanced by providing the employees with intrinsic factors. This was evident in both schools as teachers showed stronger commitment to intrinsic motivation which were related to students and teaching itself, as these also caused them to be more motivated. Meyer and Allen (1991) also found that continuance commitment was more likely to be enhanced by external factors; this was
also evident as teachers did show low levels of continuance commitment as they expressed in the interviews that they did not intend to leave for better opportunities, they were holding onto their job because of other significant factors. On the other hand, Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that normative commitment was more likely to be enhanced through more socialization which will allow an employee to have a sense of self-worth. This factor was more evident with school A teachers who felt they ought to stay to contribute to their community. However for school B teachers, socialization was done with the students as they felt closer to them and they did not want to leave because they had to help them.

As the findings on motivation factors were compared to Herzberg’s Two-Factor motivation theory to identify the nature of the motivation, it was found that despite the discrepancy found between the identified motivational factors and Herzberg’s classified satisfiers and dissatisfiers, results helped us conclude that high motivation was not only drawn from intrinsic factors, but extrinsic factors did also play a major role in causing high levels of satisfaction for the teachers working in schools with high or low commitment levels. However, although the factors found were mostly extrinsic in nature, teachers seemed to care about factors which provided them with opportunities for achievement, responsibility, advancement, recognition, autonomy and self-worth. Moreover, teachers at both schools showed to care a great deal about the relationships they built at the school with the administration and with their colleagues. As such, it is clear that teachers mostly sought motivation from factors which helped them have higher self-esteem and self-worth.

On the other hand, this study helps us conclude that the demotivators were found to be extrinsic in nature, and were perceived to be mainly clustered around the work environment, and considered their absence to be a factor which played a significant role in making them feel demotivated. However through the analysis of the results, it was also clear that the underlying motivation was in fact intrinsic. For instance in school A, the lack of
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support at school from the side of the administration, which is an external factor, caused a negative climate at the school; however for those teachers this acted as a demotivator because it did not provide them with opportunities of growth at the workplace. Moreover, in school B, having an uncomfortable school climate did not help teachers feel a sense of self-worth. Further, in school A, making non-pedagogically based accommodation of student demands, a factor related to the job context, was a major demotivator to teachers who showed negative attitudes due to their feelings of lack of autonomy. In school B, teachers felt lack of autonomy as well due to their workload. This did affect their self-esteem as a result.

It is true to say that teachers’ source of demotivation came as a result of extrinsic factors, which Herzberg also clearly explained in his theory. According to Herzberg, these external factors might prevent teachers from fulfilling their higher-order needs. He, however, also explained that before reaching the higher-order needs, it is important to meet those lower-order needs first which include the physiological, security and social needs. (Owens & Valesky, 2011). According to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, self-esteem needs are fulfilled when one has confidence of his or her own self and feels respect by others, moreover, self-actualization is reached when one achieves his or her full potential. Through the answers of the teachers in both schools, teachers did express a need for security and social belonging when they discussed the importance of receiving appreciation from the administration to feel a sense of reassurance from the side of the administration, it also helped them feel a sense of security and recognition which helped them have higher self-esteem. On the other hand, teachers also discussed the importance of having a comfortable climate at school within their colleagues, this helped them feel a sense of belonging and self-worth, which lead to fulfilling their higher level needs such as self-esteem.

It is also worth noting that despite the prevalence of dissatisfiers or demotivators, teachers were capable of keeping their focus on the satisfaction factors. Even while being
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surrounded with low hygiene factors at their schools, they showed to seek higher levels of motivation and higher-order needs, which meant that teachers had complaints but they still managed to find excitement in their work through seeking intrinsic satisfaction. It is natural for teachers to seek sources of motivation however they have learned to become self-motivated as they try to survive in their current organization which faces many problems in itself and this was more evident in school B. Teachers today accept conditions and adapt to what is there, especially in a country like Lebanon where working conditions are not always expected to be satisfying. What matters to these teachers is achieving educational goals and seeing students succeed and these were the intrinsic motivations which led them to become more motivated. These factors led to feelings of achievement, recognition, responsibility in their work.

The findings of this study point to the fact that teachers are seeking good school climate and supportive leaders, this tells us that teachers do not really seek financial bonuses, or having schools which are in advanced physical conditions. Teachers instead seek positive working relationships with positive social conditions; a comfortable climate that is collaborative and supportive.

In sum, for better employee behavior and attitudes, it is important that administrators work towards achieving high hygiene and high motivation. They need to eliminate the demotivators to ensure that teachers have an ideal situation at the workplace especially that demotivators could work as obstacles to the success and improvement of the school. According to Addisson and Brundrett (2008) “demotivators potentially have a greater impact on a teacher’s motivational state, than any single individual source of motivation.” (p.91).

Whether they are intrinsic or extrinsic, in this study it was clear that both types of factors played an integral role in enhancing a teacher’s motivation level, hence their commitment level towards the organization.
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Knowing that in any organization, employees are considered valuable assets on whom administrators depend on for their success. What administrators need to understand is that they have the ability to control various factors in the workplace and consequently create an environment that promotes motivation and commitment. In the case of the schools studied, it is easier to control the factors at the organization and meet employees’ needs because they are context related. According to Herzberg, by finding the factors that motivate teachers, it is possible to have a better workplace and better performance (Owens & Valesky, 2011).

**Recommendations**

This study informs both theory and practice. Not only does it add to the literature reviewed in the previous chapters, but the findings can also help us improve practice and find organizational solutions. The study helped examine the applicability of Herzberg theory; as well as identify unique factors in the context of Lebanon and Armenian Lebanese schools. Its results can inform administrators about the ways in which they can motivate their employees and ways in which they can avoid demotivators to induce higher levels of commitment in the organization.

**Recommendations for Practice**

The findings suggests administrators to take action and work towards meetings the needs of the teachers in their schools and enhance the factors which work as key motivators, with the goals of decreasing the chances of turnover as administrators work as agents of change in the workplace.

Thus, one of the first things administrators need to do is look into what really matters to teachers:
(a) Create positive experiences or job enrichment in school that help promote feelings of self-worth. Sergiovanni (1967) suggests administrators to enhance chances of successful personal and professional experiences for teachers, this will consequently have an effect on the morale of the teachers and they will promote the teachers’ feelings of self-worth. As previously mentioned, according to Meyer and Allen (1991) employees who are provided with positive working experiences would be more satisfied and therefore will enhance their affective and normative commitment levels. Moreover, according to Hackman and Oldham, who were pioneers in developing a model for job enrichment for teachers, job enrichment can be promoted by developing the psychological states which are (a) experienced meaningfulness, (b) experienced responsibility and (c) knowledge of results (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 2006). When such psychological states are present, teachers will feel better at their jobs, they will perform well and also seek better performance to continue having the positive feelings. Such psychological states are recommended to be developed through allowing teachers to use more of their talents and skills, to understand their role in tasks and their overall contribution (task identity), to feel the impact it has on their students (task significance), to take part in managing work and taking decision regarding classes and teaching methods (autonomy), to get clear information on their performance (feedback). These can be done through combining tasks, forming natural work units, establishing client relationships, vertical loading which provides teachers with multiple responsibilities through extra tasks, and finally through opening feedback channels (Hackman, Oldham, Janson, & Purdy, 1975).

(b) Improve human relations by providing more collaborative work. This will help improve the organizational climate through working on job enrichment.
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According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), a collaborative culture can provide a more effective setting. It can help in enhancing teachers’ learning and motivation. Moreover, According to Pounder (1999) teachers who work in teams demonstrated a high variety of skills in their work, more knowledge about their students’ educational and personal background, internal motivation and more professional commitment. Thus, forming natural work units can help teachers feel a better sense of meaningfulness.

(c) Work on having effective school. Research has found that teachers usually stayed in schools where students are high achievers and where the school is more advantaged economically and educationally (Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005), thus working on the quality of the school and its overall climate is of high importance. Moreover it gives teachers a sense of purpose and sense of self-efficacy as they understand their role at the workplace (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 2006).

(d) Develop an effective reward system which are non-monetary and monetary and which focus on recognition and praise is crucial. According to Herzberg salary causes short-lived satisfaction therefore rewards that focus more on recognition and praise will have a better effect on the teachers

(e) As a school leader, show care and advise teachers to help them feel supported; have an approachable character. This can be done through having open communication with the teachers and having transparency. Develop a forum for discussion of problems confronting teachers. Only by revealing what problems teachers are facing that administration can know what issues teachers are facing. Confrontations between teachers and administrators would enhance work, open dialogue, or openness, sharing, would be able to communicate the tensions (Jenks,
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Lee, & Kanpol, 2001). Moreover, provide valuable feedback including appreciation to teachers.

(f) Give teachers fair treatment and avoid discrimination. Inequity when persistent harms teachers’ motivation and makes teachers stop putting the required effort in the workplace. Thus administrators are asked to address the issue of equity and fairness since they play a significant role in keeping teachers’ morale and satisfaction high. This can be done through open and active communication to understand expectations from both sides and also through communicating concerns openly and address them. Equity theory suggested that people usually work harder when they are given fair treatment. This will result only when given the deserved rewards and in a fairly manner, also by being treated with respect and courtesy (Hoy & Miskel, 2008)

(g) Work towards developing less stressful schedules for teachers to avoid workload and distress.

(h) Engage teachers in decision making to empower them and make them feel more involved, especially in using technology and advanced techniques in teaching.

Recommendations for Further Research

For further research, it is suggested to (a) repeat the same study using a more representative and larger sample of participants, (b) conduct another study on 2 other schools which scored similar on their commitment levels in aims of comparing the findings with the ones in this study, and (c) examine the results obtained in terms of motivators and demotivators against demographic variations. The challenges faced during the data collection invite improvements on the data collection procedures. Namely, researchers can improve that quality of their data if they: (a) arrange teachers’ interviews outside of school premises to give them space and more time to discuss their thoughts on and feelings about the
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organization, (b) make more school visits and class visits to observe the context in which teachers are working in, this can help in understanding the results received on their commitment questionnaire and the answers given during the individual and group interviews.

**Limitations of the Study**

It is important to also note the limitations of this study which were beyond the control of the researcher and had an impact on the results:

(a) Only 122 teachers out of 233 voluntarily agreed to participate in the study, which represented 53%. Moreover, schools which scored high and low on commitment had low participation.

(b) Although the principals of the schools welcomed and encouraged to have such a study at their schools, teachers found it difficult to trust the purpose of the study even though the researcher explained the reason behind the study and clearly stated that the results were in no way used for evaluation purposes. Teachers still felt intimidated by the commitment questionnaire because they were not used to having such research studies done on their school and on them. Few however did show a positive attitude.

(c) More personal information could have been revealed if teachers were interviewed for a longer time, knowing that teachers have a busy work schedule and a lot of preparations, teachers did not have enough time to share their experiences or relevant incidents. It was not easy to take the required time from the teachers and this was expressed by the director of school A, prior to starting with the interviews, as he stated that “teachers have a full schedule, they need their breaks and they have families to go to at the end of the day.” Being restrained with limited choices, the researcher was fortunately able to take advantage of the short breaks and free hours of the few teachers who accepted to participate.
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(d) Another limitation resulted from the fact that the teachers were being interviewed inside of the school. Some of the teachers might have felt reserved on expressing the factors that negatively affected their motivation from fear that this will leak to their administration, hence overplaying the positive factors instead. As an example, a teacher was reluctant to share her personal negative experiences and issues she had with the school. She hesitated and did not disclose information which could have been very valuable to this case study. The teacher spoke in a low voice and refrained from explaining the challenges she had once faced.

(e) Moreover, the teachers selected for the individual and focus group interviews were not representative of teachers in all levels. The choice was done based on availability and voluntary participation. Thus, the researcher was left with no choice but to gather information from teachers who did accept to sit for interviewing.

(f) Although teachers were informed about remaining anonymous in the study, they did not accept to have their voices recorded. Thus the inability to audiotape the interviews did not allow the researcher to note down verbatim of what has been discussed. The researcher therefore took notes throughout the interview. These were shared with the interviewees at the end of the interviews, who in their turn confirmed the validity of the statement.

Another limitation which was not controllable to the researcher was her availability in the country since she lived abroad and had limited access to her research sites. More reliable and extensive data could have been collected and more visits could have been made.
APPENDIX A

Demographics of Participant Teacher

Please read the following items and put a check mark (✔️) next to those that correspond to you, and answer when required:

1. AGE:
   - ☐ <25  ☐ 26-35  ☐ 36-45  ☐ 46-55  ☐ 56+

2. GENDER:
   - ☐ Male  ☐ Female

3. JOB STATUS: (answer a, c and d on the lines provided)
   a. Job Title & Subject(s) taught: ________________________________
   b. Grade level(s) taught:
      - ☐ KG  ☐ Primary (1-3)  ☐ Intermediate (4-8)  ☐ Secondary (9-12)
   c. Years in the teaching profession: ______
   d. Years in your current school: ______
   e. Contract length (in years):  ☐ 0-1  ☐ 2-5  ☐ 6-10  ☐ Tenure

4. MONTHLY INCOME:
   - ☐ <500$  ☐ 500-1000  ☐ 1000-1500  ☐ 1500-2000  ☐ 2000-2500  ☐ 2500+

5. EDUCATION (highest level attained)
   - ☐ Less than high school/secondary school
   - ☐ Secondary school diploma/certification
   - ☐ Technical/vocational school certificate
   - ☐ 4-year university degree (Bachelors)
   - ☐ Some university years, incomplete
   - ☐ Master’s degree
   - ☐ Some graduate work, incomplete
   - ☐ Doctoral Degree
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APPENDIX B

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Note: (R) are reversed statements.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = slightly disagree
4 = undecided
5 = slightly agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this school.
2. I really feel as if this school's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my school. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this school. (R)
5. This school has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my school. (R)
7. It would be very hard for me to leave my school right now, even if I wanted to.
8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my school now.
9. Right now, staying with my school is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
10. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this school.
11. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this school would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
12. If I had not already put so much of myself into this school, I might consider working elsewhere.
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my school now.
15. I would feel guilty if I left my school now.
16. This school deserves my loyalty.
17. I would not leave my school right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
18. I owe a great deal to my school.

Code: ________
APPENDIX C

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Do you intend to work in this school until retirement? Why, or why not?

2. How would you describe your commitment level to the school? Describe what makes you committed or not.

3. How do you describe your level of motivation for your work as a teacher?

4. What are the factors that enhance your motivation for teaching and for teaching at the school? Explain and elaborate by giving examples of specific incidents.

5. What are the factors that affect negatively your level of motivation for teaching and for teaching at the school? Explain and elaborate by giving examples of specific incidents.
I- Focus Group Protocol

Hello, my name is Sona Joulahjian. I am a graduate student majoring in Educational Administration and Policy Studies at the American University of Beirut. I appreciate your cooperation and your attendance. I would like to take 60-90 minutes from your time. Your participation in my study will significantly contribute to my research topic. That is why I am hoping to receive as much information as I can. Please note that the information shared in this group discussion will be very confidential. The school name and the teachers’ names will not be disclosed. I am also hoping that none of the participants discloses what was discussed in the group discussions. The information is strictly for research purposes and for improving practice in schools. I hope this will also encourage you to be more honest with your answers.

The aim of my study is to gain insight into what motivates and what demotivates teachers who work in a highly committed and a low committed school. My objective is to suggest strategies which can increase the commitment of teachers and avoid low levels of commitment, as an attempt to reduce the likelihood of teachers leaving. I look forward to listening to the various experiences you have had while working in this school, in relation to the topics.

To start with, I would like you to introduce yourselves and then I will start by asking the general questions for my research topic. Specific questions might also arise as we go along. Kindly note that I will be audio taping our discussion for the purpose of having more accurate information for my research. Please do inform me if you mind.

II- Questions:

- Do you agree with the demotivators and motivators identified in the first phase of the study? (See list provided)

- What is your comment about these factors? What would you add to it? (Rank them in order of importance).
## APPENDIX E

### BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS IN PHASE 1

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### What Matters to Teachers?

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<td>Secondary school diploma/ certification</td>
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<td>Technical/vocational school certificate</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-year university degree (Bachelors)</td>
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<td>Master's degree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Some graduate work, incomplete</td>
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## APPENDIX F

### BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS IN THE TWO EXTREME SCHOOLS

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<td>Male</td>
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<td>95%</td>
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<td>9.1%</td>
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<td>What Matters to Teachers?</td>
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<tr>
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