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An Examination Of Aspects Related To Teacher Quality In Saudi Schools

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AN EXAMINATION OF ASPECTS RELATED TO TEACHER QUALITY IN SAUDI SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine how factors of long-distance commuting relate to teacher quality and affect teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and performance at high schools in the Saudi Arabian Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah. Main objectives of the study were to investigate the relationship between the factors of long-distance commuting and teacher quality through job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance, to examine the extent of the weekly and daily impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality, to make recommendations on how to reduce the negative impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality, and to provide recommendations for researchers and practitioners.

This study was conducted with quantitative research. All teachers at the public high school level in Al-Quwayiyah, Saudi Arabia, constituted the population of the study—approximately 58 high schools, both boys and girls, which employed 768 teachers. For the boys' schools, 26 high schools employed 265 teachers in the Educational Department of Al-Quwayiyah. For the girls' schools, 32 high schools employed 503 teachers. A total of 360 (46.88%) of the 768 teachers participated in the survey; of the 360 who took the survey, a total of 274 completed responses were received for a response rate of 76.11% and were analyzed for the descriptive sub-questions. A total of six (2.19%) of the completed responses were eliminated before inferential testing, as they were identified as significant outliers. The main variables in this study were job satisfaction, attendance, and performance as the dependent variables; the independent variables were distance, gender, and commuting frequency.

Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis for the research was conducted using descriptive statistics, simple linear regression, and a multivariate analysis of variance to answer the research questions. Six null hypotheses were tested. The results of this study identified that long-distance commuting did predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. Additionally, this study indicated that there were statistically significant differences between gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance, and there were statistically significant differences across frequencies of commuting (nightly and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. Finally, the results of this study indicated that there was not a significant interaction effect between gender and commuting frequency.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between the factor of long-distance commuting and teacher quality among high school teachers in Saudi Arabia. The crucial role of schools in supporting development is enabling individuals to perform different tasks, whether structural, social, cultural, or educational (Cheng & Tsui, 1996). Cowie (1989) mentioned that schools were developed primarily for the purposes of learning and teaching. Thus, schools are established to provide knowledge to children and develop their skills toward life. The goal of education is not limited to a particular aspect but includes the development of intellect and transmission of the cultures (Farooq, 1994). Education is the reason for the success of nations and shapes prosperous futures (U. Panda, 1988). One of the most important functions of education is to help students improve their abilities and skills and cultivate principles and values among students (Khalid, 1983). "Good teachers are essential for the effective functioning of education system and for improving the quality of learning process" (Akram, 2010, p. 1).

The teacher plays an essential role and is highly influential in the teaching and learning operation (Akram, 2010). The teaching profession is considered one of the most important professions around the world (B. Panda & Mohanty, 2003). Job satisfaction, attendance, and performance are aspects related to teacher quality and can be affected by several variables, and the extent of impact of the variables can vary from nation to nation based upon culture.

According to Judge, Thoreson, Bono, and Patton (2001), the level of productivity, the extent of commitment to the organization, and the creative work environments are correlated with the level of job satisfaction. Akram (2010) argued, "Job satisfaction enables teachers to put their best to do the assigned work. The maintenance of high satisfaction and morale has long been an important objective for educators" (p. 1). The increase in the level of job satisfaction among workers leads to the reduction of absenteeism and stress as well (Martin, 2006; Yousef, 2002). According to Aissan et al. (2011), teachers' attendance and their outstanding performance are key factors that improve learning outcomes related to the requirements of a market economy, renewable needs, and development.

One could pose a hypothesis that job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance might be affected by long-distance commuting. These factors are, thus, potentially related to the effectiveness of strategies that influence teachers' work in a specific school. Each country has its own system or rules in hiring teachers to serve schools. The government of Saudi Arabia has supported education by providing schools across the country in both rural and urban areas. The hiring process for teachers in Saudi Arabia includes steps that teachers must pass through in several stages.

Briefly, in assigning teachers to specific schools, the Ministry of Education determines the need for teachers prior to the next school year based upon the statistics it generates. The Ministry of Civil Service then hires teachers as governmental employees based upon their grade-point averages (GPA's) and their passing of pre-service tests. Although individual teachers are given some choice as to what cities they might serve, the Departments of Education across the country ultimately distribute teachers based upon individual school needs (Public Administration of Teachers' Affairs & Administration of Application and Transport, 2014). Such assignments

have placed many teachers to work in different geographic locations around the country, which has required both female and male teachers to commute significant distances to work. Therefore, each year, the Saudi Ministry of Education conducts an operation of transmission to transfer the largest possible number of teachers, for the purpose of achieving the desires of teachers.

Statement of the Problem

Teachers play a significant role in nation building. Thus, teaching is a challenging profession because teachers have a great influence on the nation through the students who subsequently will receive education from these teachers (Sharafuddin & Howard, 1969). According to Gold and Roth (1993), teaching is the most stressful occupation. This indicates an importance for researchers in that all factors that can affect teacher quality might merit investigation. Although different cultures and countries have included research and studied several factors that can influence teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance, limited research has discussed the influence of long-distance commuting upon such factors, which could potentially influence the lives of teachers and their professional performance in Saudi schools. Al-Ahmadi, Ratrout, AL-Ofi, AL-Sughaiyer, and Malkawi (2005) noted the rate of women teachers in traffic accidents in Saudi Arabia, which is 6.2 traffic accidents for each 100 commuting women teachers to their schools, larger than the national rate of all traffic accidents in the country.

As for the impact of the long-distance commuting on teachers' performance and psychological stability, a study conducted by Al-Ahmadi et al. (2005) mentioned per school leaders' perception that 46% of teachers who commute long distance to their schools provide lower performance than resident teachers, and further, that 76% of commuting teachers have low psychological stability when compared with resident teachers. It is thus shown that a teacher's

commute, and one might contend teacher quality, has an influence on student achievement. Students are divided into three categories for teachers: students with a weak teacher, students with a good teacher, and students with a great teacher. For the first group, students gain 50% or less of the curriculum for that grade, the second group achieves an average gain of one year, and the third group of students advances 1.5 grade levels or more (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010; Rockoff, 2004). In order to determine if long-distance commuting bears any relationships to the teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance in Al-Quwayiyah district, this study investigated influences of long-distance commuting on teachers in high schools in Saudi Arabia.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to examine how the factor of long-distance commuting relates to teacher quality and affects teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and performance, at high schools in the Saudi Arabian Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah. In order to achieve this goal, the following objectives were included: (a) to investigate the relationship between the factor long-distance commuting and teacher quality through job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance; (b) to examine the extent of weekly and daily impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality; (c) to make recommendations on how to reduce the negative impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality; and (d) to provide recommendations for researchers and practitioners.

Research Questions

This research was directed by one main research question: What role does long-distance commuting play in teacher quality in Saudi schools?

Descriptive Sub-Questions

1. What are the levels of education in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
2. What are the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
3. What are the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
4. What is the rate of daily and weekly commuting for teachers?

Inferential Sub-Questions

1. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction of teachers?
2. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance of teachers?
3. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance of teachers?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
5. Are there statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (daily and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
6. Is there a significant interaction between gender and frequency of commuting on teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

Significance of the Study

A number of factors justified this research. First, benefits deriving from this study may touch the lives of many teachers who commute long-distance to and from work. Many teachers suffer from the risks they face traveling to work. Although an annual external transmission is conducted by the Ministry of Education in order to meet teachers' desires, last year the operation of the transmission included 142,013 of teachers, both men and women, out of approximately 459,319 teachers. This means that conducting a transmission each year is not the only solution. Thus, this study will provide recommendations that may contribute in reducing the risks of the road and develop educational process.

Second, in terms of the national report of the development of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Education, 2004), the report cited that the future imposes itself on one as never before compared with the last generation. We are facing an era that is accelerating the rhythm of the variables in an unprecedented manner governed by the power of knowledge economy, the strength of renewed science, control information systems that are flowing preternaturally, and growing international competitiveness. Thus, the report stated that one must prepare future generations to be able to seize the opportunity and accept the challenge with future variables (Ministry of Education, 2004). Therefore, this study may contribute solutions to the problem of long-distance commuting that considers one of the tragedy issues accompanying many Saudi teachers.

Third, through the Vision 2030 of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (2016) is poised to enter a new phase which seeks to bring more scientific progress. To achieve this vision, this investigation and examination conducted analyses on the factors that might affect educational processes through teacher quality. From this perspective, this study

examined the relationship between Saudi teachers' quality and long-distance commuting and thus may help to further Vision 2030, benefiting Saudi school and the country as a whole.

Fourth, as student performance is related to teacher quality (Mid-Atlantic Equity Center, 2009), teacher quality in Saudi Arabia is the main pillar in educational reform (Aydarova, 2012). Thus, teacher quality occupies a high degree of attention in Saudi Arabia. Teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance are aspects of teacher quality. This research may contribute by providing helpful data to the policymakers in Saudi Arabia.

Fifth, I worked as a teacher in Al-Quwayiyah City for several years. Through my work, I realized that many teachers come from outside Al-Quwayiyah to serve in its schools. Moreover, some teachers had died due to traffic accidents during their travels to serve in schools in Al-Quwayiyah. Therefore, I felt that long-distance commuting could be one of the factors that may impact teacher quality through level of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. This research may contribute by providing policy makers with helpful data to use in Saudi education to curb violations in the lives of teachers, which will in turn enhance and improve the roles of teachers in developing the educational process in Saudi Arabia.

Lastly, this study is the first to examine the relationship between teacher quality and long-distance commuting in Al-Quwayiyah district, Saudi Arabia. It focused on high school teachers in order to glean information pertaining to their job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. It is my perspective that one variable that affects teacher quality in the workplace is long-distance commuting, as this variable is described in limited studies that affect teachers' levels of job satisfaction (Almeili, 2006), attendance, and the performance in the workplace in Saudi Arabia (Al-Ahmadi et al., 2005). Therefore, this study sought to determine the extent of the impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of a research study are what may occur in the design and implementation of the study of influences that may negatively affect the result of the study. One limitation of this study may relate to the awareness of the importance of participating in this study. Participants may hesitate to answer questions that may display themselves as unable to perform in the teaching profession or unable to accept the challenges of teaching that is associated with their profession. Confidentiality to all participants was ensured to help control for this limitation. In such, responses did not include personal identifiers or names of schools.

A second limitation of this study was related to the participation of new teachers. Normally new teachers are ready to work anywhere across the country because the difficulty of hiring the new teachers in the desired place. Their responses may potentially include inaccurate findings because they were in the first year of teaching. To control for this limitation, the survey instrument was released at the beginning of spring 2017, which meant that new teachers had experience of teaching fall 2016.

A third limitation of this study may include the inability of all teachers to participate in this study. High schools in Al-Quwayiyah district are distributed around the district, some of which are located in urban areas and others in rural areas. Therefore, this limitation may have prevented some high school teachers from participation in the questionnaire because many towns did not have Internet access. In this case, the Department of Education in Al- Quwayiyah represented at Administration of Teachers' Affairs contacted school leaders to notify teachers about the questionnaire.

A fourth limitation of this study was related to connecting with girls' high schools. In Saudi schools, genders are separated and each gender attends different schools. Each gender is

forbidden from entering a school of the opposite gender. As a man who conducted this research, this limitation may have included some difficulty in contacting girls' schools which may result in fewer female teachers than male teachers in the participation. To control for this limitation, the Department of Education in Al- Quwayiyah represented at Administration of Teachers' Affairs contacted women school leaders to notify teachers about the questionnaire.

Delimitations of the Study

Delimitations in a research study are the restrictions that are determined on the research study through standards related to sample selection, including the possibility of a limit on the number of potential participants, perceptions of those included in the sample, and potential effect of the generalizability of results. The following were noted as delimitations in this study:

1. The study included high schools in Al-Quwayiyah region, Saudi Arabia. Elementary schools and middle schools were not included. The decision to include high school teachers only may have resulted in fewer participants and may potentially affect the generalizability of results because this study used results of performance of students in high schools only.
2. The study included high schools in Al-Quwayiyah region, Saudi Arabia, and teachers of those who served in other cities were not recruited in this study. The decision to include teachers who worked in Al-Quwayiyah region may potentially affect the generalizability of results because each city in Saudi Arabia is different from the others in terms of development and the existence of public services that are provided by all service sectors.
3. The study looked only at public high schools in Al-Quwayiyah region, Saudi Arabia. Private schools were not included. The decision to include only the perceptions of

teachers who served in public schools may potentially affect the generalizability of results because most teachers of private schools belong to the city where they work.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined:

Absenteeism is defined as the failure of the individual to attend the workplace when scheduled to attend for any reason (Cascio, 2003).

Achievement refers to the progress of students through meeting short- or long-term goals in education (Hawkins, 2000).

High school is a secondary level school that serves students three years (Grades 10 to 12) after completion at the intermediate level. The secondary level is subdivided into two parts after the first year—scientific and literary (Rumi & Suwadani, 2013).

Job satisfaction, defined by Dewidar (1995), is the sum of sentimental feelings felt by the individual about the work occupied, and these feelings may be positive or negative. These feelings reflect the extent of saturation, which the individual imagines that he derived from his work.

Long-distance commuting for the purpose of the study means a distance of over 50 miles that teachers could commute, whether daily or weekly, to and from work.

Saudi Ministry of Education is a duly authorized and empowered body of the Saudi Government, responsible for providing for all schools needs at all levels for both men and women. The Ministry is also in charge of policies, planning, and budgeting for schools (Al Sallum, 1995).

Teacher, defined by Zidan (1981), is a working professional educator considered the cornerstone of the educational process because he or she is affecting the students through words,

appearance, and behavior. Efficient teachers can take advantage of the possibilities that are under their disposal and innovate students to succeed in their missions (Zidan, 1981).

Teacher quality, for the purpose of this study, refers to the performance of teachers, meaning the work of teachers who actually perform in their daily practice whether outside the classroom or within the classroom, and the effectiveness of teachers which fosters student learning (Kennedy, 2008).

Teaching performance refers to the behavior of instruction, whether outside the classroom or within the classroom, which asks questions, provides explanations, gives advice, and engages in many instructional acts that are conducted by a structure (Rao, 2001).

Summary

Research has indicated that teaching is a challenging profession, and teachers have a great influence on the nation through the students who subsequently receive an education from these teachers (Sharafuddin & Howard, 1969). Therefore, factors can influence teacher quality that, in turn, impact student achievement. Long-distance commuting is the factor that was investigated in this study to determine its relationship with teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. Chapter 1 explained the problem statement, determined the purpose of the study, formulated research questions, determined limitations and delimitations of the research study, and included definitions of terms. Chapter 2 provides a background to Saudi Arabia, development of Saudi education, and presents a literature review as it relates to job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance, including overviews, definitions, and theories. Chapter 2 also reviews the impact of factors on teacher quality and specifically reviews the impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality as it relates to teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology which was used

in this research study along with an explanation of recruitment, instruments, procedures, and steps and methods taken that were used for the collection and analysis of data. In Chapter 4, the findings of the study are presented. Finally, in Chapter 5, the findings, conclusion, implications, and future research recommendations are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The primary purpose of this research study was to analyze the relationship between long-distance commuting and Saudi teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. This chapter covers the research and literature related to the hypotheses of this study. This review of literature covered definitions of job satisfaction and factors that may affect levels of job satisfaction, concepts of attendance; factors that affect teachers' attendance, and concepts of performance; and factors that affect teachers' performance. This literature review includes various sources such as scholarly books and monographs, professional journals, government documents and reports, dissertations, and electronic resources.

Background of Saudi Arabia

In 1932, the modern kingdom of Saudi Arabia was established by the King Abdulaziz Ibn Abdulrahman Al Saud (Alamri, 2011). According to the Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia in Washington, DC (2016), the largest country in the Arabian Peninsula is the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia with a population of approximately 27 million, including 8.4 million foreign residents as noted in the 2010 census. Riyadh City is the capital city. According to Hamdan (2005), Saudi Arabia is located in Southeast Asia and covers approximately 900,000 square miles. Its official language is Arabic, and the official religion is Islam. Thirteen provinces makeup the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Figure 1), and the geographical location is diverse with mountain areas,

grasslands, forests, and deserts. Its climate varies from province to province with high temperatures reaching over 110 degrees Fahrenheit in the desert part during the summer, yet winter temperatures can be freezing in the central and northern parts of the country (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia in Washington, DC, 2016).

Distance From The Thirteen Provinces To Al-Quwayiyah City

Riyadh	172 km
Al Qasim (Buraydah)	333 km
Eastern Province (Dammam)	570 km
Hail	582 km
Makkah	699 km
Al Madinah	727 km
Al Baha	749 km
Asir (Abha)	920 km
Al Jouf (Sakaka)	942 km
Najran	987 km
Jizan	1108 km
Northern Borders (Arar)	1119 km
Tabuk	1251 km

Figure 1. Map of the Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Education, 2004).

Development of Saudi Education

The Saudi education system has been developed through several stages. This section provides the stages of development of Saudi education, including establishment of the Directorate of Education, the Ministry of Education, General Presidency for Girls Education, the Ministry of Higher Education, Technical and Vocational Training Institution, as well as examines future vision and teacher preparation in Saudi Arabia.

Establishing the Directorate of Education

According to Rumi and Suwadani (2013), one of the first concerns of King Abdulaziz

was the movement of thought, education, and care for students of science. He ordered the establishment of the first General Directorate of Education in 1925 to place the foundation for the first modern educational institution in the Kingdom and the first seed of the modern education system. The opening of schools began in the regions of the Kingdom with processing and supplying them with teachers from inside and outside the country (Rumi & Suwadani, 2013). The Directorate of Education began taking its first steps with a few students and limited potential with 12 schools educating 700 students (Alamri, 2011). In 1927, the Education Council was established (Ministry of Education, 2001) to oversee the implementation of educational policy, to develop an education system, and to strive to make primary education compulsory and free. The Education Council was considered the highest educational authority in Saudi Arabia because it owned the powers of decision-making, and the Directorate of Education represented the executive branch of the policy of education (Alzahrani, 2006). The Directorate of Education issued the school system, which was the first system of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, in 1928 (Ministry of Education, 1999). After discovering oil in 1938 (Alamri, 2011) until 1952, the Directorate of Education was able to open 306 elementary schools with 1,472 teachers educating 39,920 students (Alsalman, 1999).

The Directorate of Education opened one industrial school, three night schools to teach English, and two colleges of Sharia as well as opened 10 secondary schools and one institute with a population of 1,650 students and 175 teachers (Alsalman, 1999). The first institutes were founded in Mecca—the Institute of Saudi Scientific in 1926, the school of Prepares Missions in 1936, and Dar Al Tawhid in Taif in 1949. In addition to these institutes, other scientific institutes exist in major cities in the country, and schools were established in different areas (Rumi & Suwadani, 2013). By 1950, 365 schools were opened to teach 42,000 students

(Simmons & Simmons, 1994). In 1943, the educational levels were changed to include kindergarten, which includes children ages three to six; the primary level, which includes children ages six to 12; an intermediate level, which includes children ages 13 to 15; and a secondary level, which serves students three years after their completion of the intermediate level. The secondary level is subdivided into two parts after the first year—scientific and literary (Rumi & Suwadani, 2013).

Establishing the Ministry of Education

In 1954, the Ministry of Education was created as an extension and development of the Directorate of Education and was assigned the planning and supervision of public education for boys in three stages—primary, intermediate, and secondary (Rumi & Suwadani, 2013). According to the Documents and Manuscripts Center (2002), the Ministry of Education made great and rapid strides toward all levels of education. A comprehensive educational renaissance resulted from the manifestations of growth and progress in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Some of the achievements of the Ministry of Education were (a) setting the first organizational structure for the Ministry, (b) establishing new departments and sections (such as independent management for primary education, independent management for secondary education, a section for cultural relations and cultural cooperation, and the Department of Statistics of education), and (c) the opening of the kindergarten level (Documents & Manuscripts Center, 2002).

In addition, the Ministry of Education released the first specializing educational magazine called *Knowledge* (Documents & Manuscripts Center, 2002). When the Ministry of Education began receiving increased funding from the government, the allocated amounts jumped from 20 million Saudi Arabian Riyals (SAR) in 1952 (Alshabanat, 2001) to billions of SAR as depicted in the Table 1.

Table 1

Education Funding from the Ministry of Education – 2004

Financial year	The public budget of the country	Education budget for male students	Education budget for female students	The budget proportion of the Ministry of Education to the State
2000	185.000 million	20.249 million	23.909 million	23.87%
2001	215.000 million	21.172 million	21.695 million	19.94%
2002	202.000 million	21.724 million	25.129 million	23.19%
2003	209.000 million	22.471 million	25.775 million	21.08%

Note. Ministry of Education (2004)

According to Alshabanat (2001), the General Administrations of Education were placed in every region according to the administrative organization of Saudi Arabia. This was followed by a number of administrations of education in the cities to supervise the implementation of plans and programs of the educational policy (Alshabanat, 2001). Since the concern of the ministry was preparation of elementary school teachers, 18 Colleges of Teachers were spread over various regions of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, as well as the Faculty of Physical Education in Riyadh (Al-Aqeel, 2005).

General Presidency for Girls' Education

The establishment of the General Presidency of Girls' Education in 1959 was a turning point for girls' education. This helped open the way to rapid development and growth to successively teach girls (Al-Huqail, 2003). Al-Zaid (1982) mentioned,

> The purpose of educating girls is to bring them up in a proper Islamic way so as to perform their duty in life, be an ideal and successful housewife and a good mother with

> readiness to do things which suit their nature like teaching, nursing, and medical treatment. (p. 56)

The government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia focused on encouraging women's education. Controls and conditions that contributed to teaching them everything they needed in life were put in place (Ministry of Education, 1999). An interest to the society according to a document of education policy issued in 1970 was also put in place. The document consisted of a group of foundations and principles relating to the education of girls, which prevented the mixing of boys and girls at all levels of education with the exception of kindergarten (Ministry of Education, 1999).

In 1960, the General Presidency of Girls' Education opened its doors. It was responsible for drawing up plans with a curriculum that would be in girls' schools in Saudi Arabia with a budget of $2 million SAR (Ministry of Education, 1999). The General Presidency for Girls' Education made great efforts in women's education during its time with the opening of schools and colleges in all regions and cities. They also oversaw public education (kindergarten, primary, intermediate, and secondary), institutes and colleges of teachers, education, arts, and sciences—which numbered 102 colleges—before joining the Ministry of Higher Education. In 2002, Girls' Education was added to the Ministry of Education (Al-Aqeel, 2005).

Establishing the Ministry of Higher Education

According to the Ministry of Education (1999), King Saud University was established in Riyadh in 1957, the Islamic University in Medina in 1962, King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah in 1967, and the Islamic University of Imam Muhammad bin Saud in Riyadh in 1974. When the educational and cultural development factors increased, so did the numbers of Saudi youths who pursued higher educational study in various disciplines. This necessitated the presence of an

independent body overseeing higher educational institutions; the Ministry of Higher Education was established in 1995 (Ministry of Education, 1999). The Ministry of Education is in charge of overseeing and supervising the agenda of higher education. This ministry took over the supervision and construction of a number of universities (Ministry of Education, 1999).

Today the educational system in Saudi Arabia includes 25 public and 27 private universities (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia in Washington, DC, 2016). Moreover, Saudi students of both genders are paid monthly stipends in all higher education levels (Alamri, 2011). In 2004, the oversight of teachers colleges for both genders moved to the Ministry of Higher Education (Al-Aqeel, 2005). The last update in the Saudi education system was in 2015 by King Salman Ibn Abdulaziz Al-Saud when he merged the Ministry of Higher Education with the Ministry of Education into one ministry that supervises all levels of education from preschool to higher education for both male and female students (Ministry of Education, 2015). The last budget allocation for education was $51.11 billion, which represented 22.8% of the 2016 financial year's total appropriations (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia in Washington, DC, 2016).

Technical and Vocational Training Institutions

In 1980, technical and vocational training institutions were established (Ministry of Education, 1999). Technical and vocational training institutions have worked to achieve the objectives of qualifying students and trainees technically and professionally. This was done by providing trained national cadres required by the development plans (Ministry of Education, 1999).

Technical and vocational training institutions include different education and training levels. Vocational training centers are attended after graduating from elementary school and take place in the morning (Ministry of Education, 1999). Secondary institutes include industrial,

agricultural, and commercial curricula. Institutes of professional observers, technical colleges, and the college of communication and information were established in Riyadh, and the College of Communications and Electronics was established in Jeddah (Ministry of Education, 1999).

Future Vision

According to Rumi and Suwadani (2013), the future vision of the national education system based on the student aims to prepare citizens to have high values and morals, to enjoy studying, to be scientifically achieved and knowledgeable on products, to be lifelong learners, to be positive when dealing with the community and the world, and to become integrated persons. The schools are socially responsible to make the students the focus of attention, to ensure a high-quality education, to attract and enhance students' learning, to stimulate creativity, and to have effective leadership and qualified teachers. Educational facilities seek to provide high-quality educational services, taking into account the geographical extension of the Kingdom and the high rate of population growth (Rumi & Suwadani, 2013). The Saudi vision 2030 (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 2016) included a part called learning for working and indicated the following:

> We will continue investing in education and training so that our young men and women are equipped for the jobs of the future. We want Saudi children, wherever they live, to enjoy higher quality, multi-faceted education. We will invest particularly in developing early childhood education, refining our national curriculum and training our teachers and educational leaders. We will also redouble efforts to ensure that the outcomes of our education system are in line with market needs. We have launched the National Labor Gateway (TAQAT), and we plan to establish sector councils that will precisely determine the skills and knowledge required by each socio-economic sector. We will also expand vocational training in order to drive forward economic development. Our scholarship

> opportunities will be steered towards prestigious international universities and be awarded in the fields that serve our national priorities. We will also focus on innovation in advanced technologies and entrepreneurship. (p. 36)

Teacher Preparation in Saudi Arabia

In order to prepare teachers, colleges of education adopted several directions, and a complete agreement was made on the need for the inclusion of the program for teacher preparation on academic, vocational, and cultural aspects. Teacher preparation in the Arab world is generally organized in two directions. The first is the sequential system, which prepares students in the specialist side (Madkor, 2005). Colleges that follow this system are not designed to prepare students to teach, but after graduation, students who want to join the teaching profession can attend the Faculty of Education for one year to prepare for the teaching profession (Madkor, 2005). Therefore, teacher preparation takes five years, four years for specialist preparation and the fifth year for vocational and educational preparation. The advantages of this system, cited by Madkor (2005), provide students with a wide background of knowledge and skills in the field.

In contrast, the integrative system included a four-year enrollment in the former Colleges of Teachers—which is no longer in existence—to get a professional degree in teaching. Usually this system did not link and integrate between specialist preparation and professional preparation (Al-Kandari, 2002). This system was applied in the Colleges of Teachers when they were under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and in prior periods in many colleges of education in Saudi universities. One of the benefits of the system was the ability to meet the labor market needs and the needs of the Ministry of Education (Madkor, 2005).

Teacher Quality

According to Sharafuddin and Howard (1969), teaching is a challenging profession. Heavy responsibilities for nation building require adequate preparation of teachers. Furthermore, in the changing style of living, the mission of teachers is becoming ever more challenging. Teachers have an enormous impact on the nation through what they teach to students (Sharafuddin & Howard, 1969). Teachers are the key element in the educational process and play an essential and unique role in the teaching and learning process by shaping students' personalities toward moral and social development (Khan, 2015). "Education is human growth, doing and undergoing socialization, a social enterprise and a social activity" (Khan, 2015, p. 213). It is recognized that teachers play a crucial role in identifying the quality of education that is received by pupils (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2006). Knowledge, experience, and the capability of the classroom teacher are the most important factors in a high-quality education because teachers' impact on the performance and achievement of students is larger than impact from other education interventions (Mid-Atlantic Equity Center, 2009).

Because of the importance of high-quality teachers, students whose teachers are weak may receive 50% or less of the curriculum for that grade, but good teachers enable students to achieve an average gain of one year, and great teachers advance students level of learning 1.5 grade levels or more (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010; Rockoff, 2004). Research over the past decade has built evidence that the quality of teachers is the critical factor in driving learning (Bruns & Luque, 2014).

The product of high-quality teachers affects the growth of economy and industry to greater extent (Khan, 2015). Differences of cognitive abilities are strongly linked with long-term

rates of economic growth. Recent research has confirmed that teaching quality is not measured by the number of years spent in school but by what students actually learn. Therefore, investing in education will produce economic benefits (Bruns & Luque, 2014). Teacher quality varies from school to school and from district to district (Betts & Danenberg, 2002); however, teachers' abilities to confirm students' learning is an indispensable condition to achieve education, economic, and social benefits (Bruns & Luque, 2014). The ability of teachers to stay in the teaching profession, teachers' motivation to perform well as teachers, and the attraction of individuals to the teaching profession are the factors that teacher quality depends upon (Harnani-Limarino, 2005).

Teacher quality in Saudi Arabia is the main pillar in educational reform (Aydarova, 2012). There is sufficient evidence that instructor certification is not necessarily linked to the quality of teacher (Buddin & Zamarro, 2008). This is an important indicator especially when teacher preparation and certification in Arabian Gulf countries are developing and changing rapidly. In Saudi Arabia, teachers' ages, gender, and national citizenship are unique characteristics that may impact teacher quality (Wiseman & Al-Bakr, 2013).

Kennedy (2008) sorted the teacher qualities into three broad groupings—personal resources, performance, and effectiveness. Personal resources refer to the qualities that teachers have even before their work as teachers, such as beliefs, attitudes, values, personality traits, knowledge, skill, expertise, and credentials (Kennedy, 2008). Performance refers to the real practices of instructors in their daily work, such as practices that occur inside or outside of the classroom and learning activities provided for students. Effectiveness refers to many things, i.e. fostering student learning, motivating students, and developing personal responsibility and social interest (Kennedy, 2008).

Goe's (2007) study of teacher quality examined recent studies and revised older studies after 2000 to develop a new framework for explaining teacher quality. This framework consists of four distinct categories of teacher quality—teacher qualifications, teacher characteristics, teacher practices, and teacher effectiveness. The related four distinctive ways of looking at teacher quality are gathered into three parts—inputs, process, and outcomes. Figure 2 illustrates the new framework for explaining teacher quality.

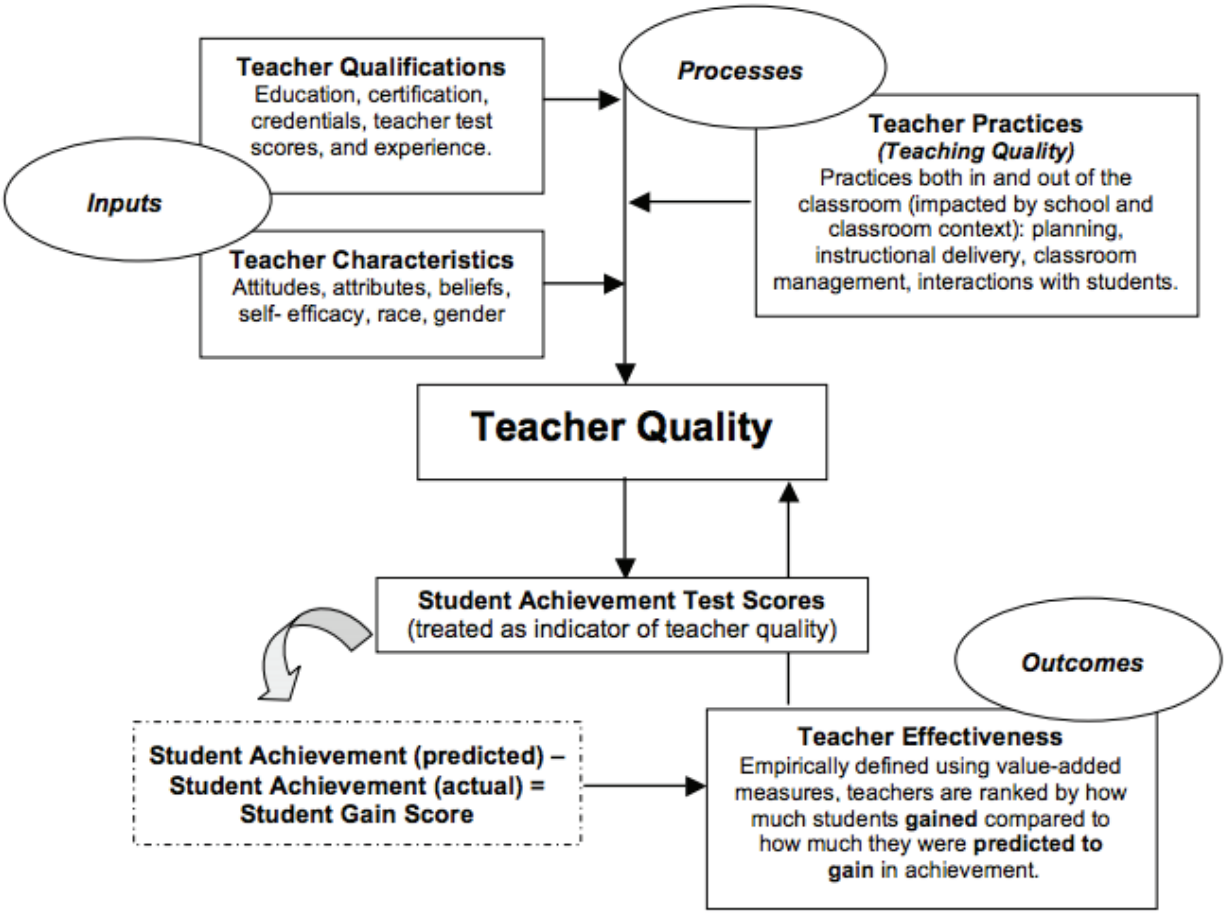

Figure 2. Representing the framework for teacher quality (Goe, 2007).

As illustrated, teacher quality is gathered into three parts—inputs, process, and outcomes. The inputs category consists of two distinct categories—teacher qualifications and teacher characteristics. The process category consists of teacher practices. Outcomes consist of teacher effectiveness. As noted in the above model,

> Teacher qualifications, characteristics, and practices are all used to define teacher quality and exist *independently* of student achievement, whereas teacher effectiveness is wholly dependent on student achievement. In other words, teacher effectiveness cannot be determined without outcomes such as standardized test scores. The other three ways of

> looking at teacher quality can be theoretically connected to student learning and measured with standardized test scores, but they exist whether or not they are measured. For example, teacher certification exists as a proxy for teacher quality, even if it is never connected to student outcomes. But teacher effectiveness exists only as a function of the link between teachers and their students' standardized test scores. (Goe, 2007, p. 9)

The definition used in this research is based on the above definitions. Teacher characteristics refer to qualities that teachers present with them when they are in the classroom, such as attitudes, attributes, and may include the level of job satisfaction. Teacher effectiveness refers to the added value that teachers contribute to increase student achievement scores, which is showing the importance of teacher attendance. Teachers' professional performance relies on what teachers practice in classroom (i.e., interaction with learners) and strategies that are utilized to implement specific teaching tasks.

In the next section of this literature review, some aspects are discussed that relate to teacher quality in Saudi schools. The discussion includes the factors that could affect teacher quality, particularly job satisfaction, attendance, and performance, which provide the foundation for the research that examined the potential impact of the variable in this study, the factor of long-distance commuting.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an important aspect related to work with many researchers and writers continuously studying job satisfaction (Hareem, 2004). Both developed and developing nations focus on education due to the awareness that the human element is the real investment for development in all fields and will provide a large economic return which will last for a long time (Filimban, 2008). In order to deeply understand job satisfaction, this section includes an

overview, a brief history about job satisfaction, the concept of job satisfaction, theories of job satisfaction, and factors influencing job satisfaction.

Overview

The human element is the main pillar in the success of organizations to achieve their goals. Organizations need to pay attention to their people, please them, and achieve their objectives (Abdulbaqi, 2003). It was thought in special cases that individuals could be forced to work, regardless of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction toward their occupied job, which resulted in neglect of the human element. Thus, it is necessary to search for a solution to this problem by improving the level of job satisfaction (Abdulbaqi, 2003).

The educational process should focus on teachers in order to develop those who represent one of the basic pillars in the development of the education process (Abo Hassouneh, 2014). Some studies confirmed that teachers whose students achieved high academic standards were satisfied with their work, and their morale was high (Al Naji, 1993). Individuals who are satisfied with their jobs are more creative and successful than those who are dissatisfied (Al-Dulaimi & Ali, 2009). Many studies and research have shown that the feelings of shortages, confusion, lack of complacency, and possibly withdrawing from society to escape the suffering of the tension are the signs of low job satisfaction. When workers feel this way, they practice aggression toward self or others (Al-Dulaimi & Ali, 2009). Therefore, in any organization, job satisfaction is one of the main elements of the work environment (Filimban, 2008).

A Brief History of Job Satisfaction

At the beginning of the 20th century, the first concern and attempt on the subject of job satisfaction and its influence on the behavior of individuals was initiated by Taylor, who authored the scientific management theory (as cited in Al-Omyan, 2005). The theory of

scientific management focuses on the physical incentives as the only way of motivation for increasing productivity but neglects the human aspect in terms of considering workers as a tool of production (MacNeil, 1992).

In 1935, Hoppock published the first study on job satisfaction to measure the satisfaction of employees toward their work. Kosherod stated that this study was considered the first study centered on job satisfaction (Al-Haider & Bintaleb, 2005).

Job satisfaction is one of the most interesting topics for research by general psychologists and managerial psychologists (Salman, 2011). The subject of job satisfaction appeared first in the industrial field, but it has gained special importance in the educational field considering that humans are the most important input. Thus, job satisfaction of teachers is considered, in particular, the engine of the educational process (Filimban, 2008).

Job satisfaction is seen as a multidimensional entity. It has threaded tasks and mutual relations, such as roles, relationships, and revenue (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992), and no general consensus exists on the number of aspects that contribute in the composition of teachers (Ho & Au, 2006). In general, however, an agreement exists among researchers on the reasons for job satisfaction (Crooke, 2008).

The Concept of Job Satisfaction

Researchers have cited several definitions of the concept of job satisfaction. Both Landy and Trumbo (1980) stated that the phrase job satisfaction is used to denote the feelings of workers toward their occupation. Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasure or positive emotional state resulting from the approval of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1300). However, Hoppock (1935) referred to job satisfaction as "any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person to truthfully say 'I am happy

with my job'" (p. 47). Others argued that job satisfaction is the degree to satisfy the needs of the individual as a result of the work, a gratification usually achieved by pay, working conditions, the nature of supervision, and the nature of the work itself (Abdulbaqi, 2001).

Others consider job satisfaction as the feelings of employees toward their jobs. These feelings are generated when the workers realize what the jobs are offering and what they are receiving (Shaweesh, 1996). Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975) defined job satisfaction as "the difference between the amount of some valued outcome that a person receives and the amount of the outcome he feels he should receive" (pp. 53-54). Dewidar (1995) mentioned that job satisfaction is the sum of sentimental feelings felt by the individual about the work occupied, and these feelings may be positive or negative. These feelings reflect the extent of saturation, which the individual imagines that he derived from his work. Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) noted that job satisfaction is a state of positive emotions caused by the good impression that we get from our work or our professional experiences, so the causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction vary from one individual to another. According to Sultan (2003), Stone defined job satisfaction as a case where the individuals' completion of their jobs comes from interacting with their jobs through career ambition, a desire for growth and progress, and the achievement of social objectives.

Due to the differences of perspectives about job satisfaction, caused by the differences of environment, circumstances, and beliefs, I defined job satisfaction for the purpose of this study as a situation of pleasure and satisfaction that the individual reaches when his or her psychological, social, material, and professional needs are saturated or met. This could also be the positive feelings and attitudes of employees toward the environment where they work and work place conditions.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Theories of job satisfaction can be categorized into two types, theories of needs and theories of motivations. Theories of needs describe the needs of humanity as hierarchy. Theories of motivations describe the relationship between work attitudes and productivity.

Needs theory. The theory of needs proposes that humans have basic and necessary needs, and conflict is likely to occur when these needs are not met (Danesh, 2011). Maslow's theory, Alderfer's theory, and McClelland's theory are considered the most important theories of needs. These theories attempt to explain, in general, human behavior and job satisfaction in particular (Alshraidah, 2010).

Hierarchical needs of Abraham Maslow 1954. Maslow provided a theory that classified five hierarchical needs, which are illustrated in Figure 3 (Gordon, 1965). Important needs at any time are those unsatisfied needs because individuals cannot move to the second level of need until the first level need has been satisfied, nor can they move to the third level need until the second level has been satisfied, and so on (Al-Mashaan, 1993).

According to Jerome (2013), Maslow divided human needs into five different levels. Physiological needs are considered the strongest because they represent biological needs such as oxygen, food, and water. These needs are the first and basic requirement for seeking satisfaction. Safety needs, the second level, become desired for a peaceful, stable society when biological needs are satisfied and there is no control by thoughts and behaviors anymore. Needs for love, affection, and belonging are the third level. These become important to the individual when safety and physiological needs are met (Jerome, 2013). The need for esteem, the fourth level, becomes important and desired when previous needs are satisfied. Esteem needs represent a desire of respect and appreciation by others. When esteem needs are met, the feeling of the

person will be convenient, confident, and valuable, but when esteem needs are not met, the person will feel weak and powerless. The last level is need for self-actualization, which becomes important when all of the previous needs are satisfied. This represents the individuals' desires or goals in life (Jerome, 2013).

According to Maslow (1970), in any organization the best workers are the self-actualized employees, which is individuals' achievement of desires or goals in life. This concept generates two implications. First, it is difficult for organizations and institutions to identify or determine the needs of all their employees and then make decisions to meet those needs. Second, organizations can focus on employees who need to meet the lower-level needs and motivate them to meet higher-level needs (Howel & Dipboye, 1986). Hoy and Miskel (1991) argued about Maslow's theory: "The need hierarchy theory is somewhat useful in understanding human motivation, although the debate concerning the number of need levels, their order of gratification, and individual differences is not yet finished" (p. 173).

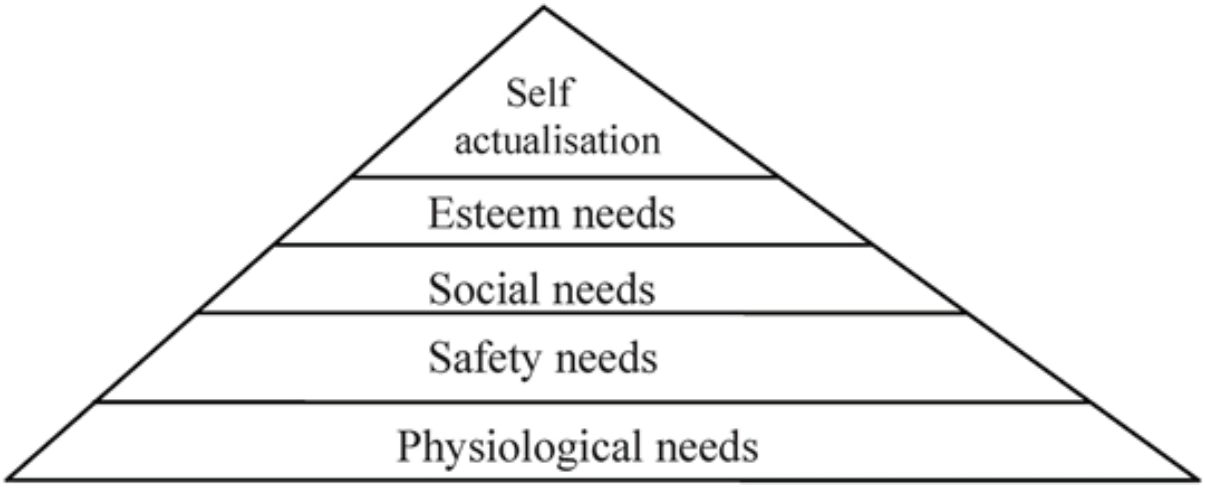

Figure 3. Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1970).

As evidenced by Figure 1, Maslow's theory can be implemented to teachers because it shows that human nature has needs. For example, teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are looking for jobs anywhere in the country in order to achieve or meet the basic needs that Maslow explained as physiological needs, which is getting jobs to meet the needs of food and drink. After being hired in those areas or cities they chose by themselves, they begin asking the Ministry of Education for a transfer to their home or to the city where they belong. This need for transferring has been explained by Maslow as safety needs. So, in the beginning many teachers are ready to work anywhere, but after getting jobs in a remote or far location, they begin to ask for a transfer. When these two needs are satisfied, they directly seek to satisfy the third need (social need) that is getting married.

Existence, relatedness, and growth theory of Alderfer. Between 1961 and 1978, the existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory emerged (Alderfer, 1989). According to Caulton (2012), ERG theory has been used as a motivational construct to understand what internal perspectives or factors contribute to individual human behavior. Also mentioned by Caulton (2012), "The theory is traced from its outgrowth of Maslow's hierarchy of needs through efforts to further understand and expand its implications" (p. 2).

ERG theory agrees with Maslow's hierarchy of needs in that "existence needs can be satisfied by objects, in the work setting, by pay, fringe benefits, and pleasant environment" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 143). "Relatedness needs are satisfied by the mutual sharing of thoughts and feeling with significant others, such as family members, superiors, co-workers, subordinates, friends and enemies; the satisfaction of relatedness need is a cooperative process" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 144). According to Hareem (1997), existence needs represent and match the physiological needs and safety needs in Maslow's theory. Relatedness needs are similar to

belonging needs in Maslow's theory. Growth needs are similar to esteem needs and self-actualization needs of Maslow's theory (Hareem, 1997). The difference between ERG theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs is individuals in the ERG theory can satisfy more than one need at the same time by moving on the scale from bottom to top, unlike the Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Sultan, 2003). For instance, individuals can move to related needs before their existence needs are met and so on.

This theory is similar to Maslow's theory that human being seeks to achieve different needs, and it can apply to teachers. However, this theory sees that humans can achieve relatedness needs before existence needs. For example, teachers, especially women in Saudi Arabia, can marry before getting the job of teaching, but after getting a job in a place far away from their home, they may commute long distances daily or weekly to and from work. This daily or weekly commuting exposes them to road accidents, as mentioned by Al-Ahmadi et al. (2005). In this case, teachers satisfied love or belonging needs and then sought to fulfill the existence needs which correspond to physiological needs and safety needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

McClelland's three needs theory. The theory of needs, developed by McClelland (1985), confirms that achievement, affiliation, and power are the basic drivers to motivate the individual. Achievement, affiliation, and power include many important human objectives and concerns along with motivating individuals (Winter, 1992). McClelland's (1985) achievement needs describe a person's desire to excel in terms of an established group of standards. People's achievement needs are met when individuals can achieve their personal purposes (Yamaguchi, 2003). Individuals high in this dimension dislike success by chance and like to prove their success or failure (Robbins, 2003; Weiner, 1979). Further, individuals who have high levels in

achievement needs see themselves as different from others by their advanced desire to outperform their peers (McClelland, 1985).

The affiliation need expresses the desires of individuals to have good relationships with others (McClelland, 1985). An individual who has a high level in affiliation needs tends to spend a great amount of time interacting with others. Thus, affiliation of high levels motivates people to be compassionate and friendly with others (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). Need for affiliation has acquired less scientific interest than the need for achievement and the need for power (Robbins, 2003). Power needs indicate an individual' desires to influence others; in other words, individuals who have high levels of power need to look for positions of power so they can enforce the actions of others (McClelland, 1985). The relationship between needs of McClelland is indicated in the graph depicted in Figure 4.

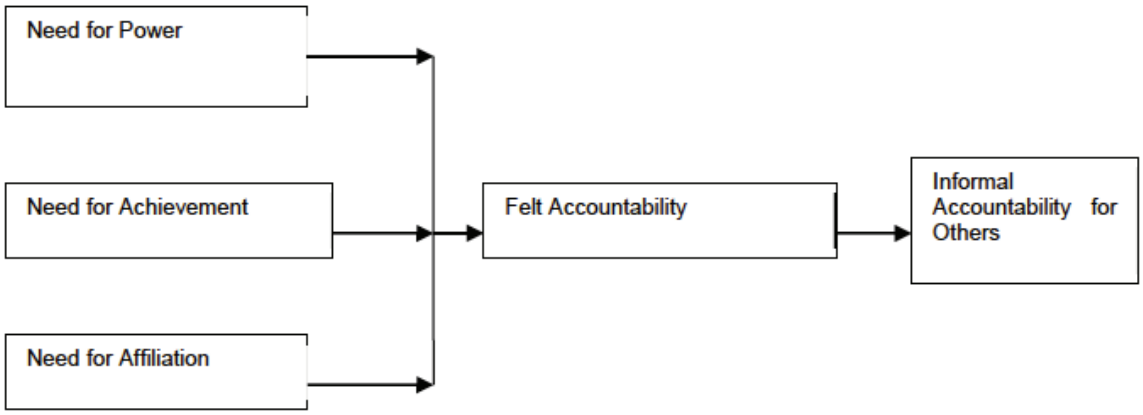

Figure 4. The mediating effects of felt accountability on the relationship between learned needs and informal accountability for others (Royle & Hall, 2012).

Herzberg two-factor theory. In 1959, the Herzberg theory of work motivation was published as the result of five years of research on job attitudes (Stello, 2011). According to Herzberg (1987), much controversy existed around the time the theory was published. Because of the prevalence of job dissatisfaction indicators among people towards their jobs, the need

became urgent for more and better insights (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) performed inclusive reviews of literature of over 2,000 writings published from 1900 to 1955 and discovered inconsistent outcomes. The relationship between work attitudes and productivity has defined the traits of dissatisfied individuals and defined the factors related to job attitudes.

Factors that can influence job satisfaction are categorized into two groups, hygiene factors and motivation factors. Hygiene factors surround the execution of one's job (Herzberg et al., 1959). Costello and Welch (2014) defined hygiene factors as "the factors that cause dissatisfaction with work and are usually associated with supervision practices, policies and administration, and interpersonal relationships" (p. 17). Motivation factors satisfy the need for self-actualization and present the type of productivity improvement sought by companies, which include accomplishment, recognition, advancement, responsibility, and work itself (Herzberg et al., 1959). According to Herzberg (1987), "The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but, rather, no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction" (p. 113). Herzberg's theory and Maslow's theory are similar because both believe that people have needs and these needs have to be met. Maslow's needs of physiological, safety, and belonging are similar to Herzberg's dissatisfier factors. On the other hand, Herzberg's motivator factors are similar to self-esteem and self-actualization of Maslow's needs (Bess & Dee, 2008).

Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction

Many factors can affect teachers' levels of job satisfaction or determine the level of satisfaction. Smith, Wolf, and Morrison (1995) indicated that work assignments, wages, promotions, supervision, and co-workers are components of job satisfaction. One study,

conducted by Abo Hassouneh (2014) on teachers in the Kingdom of Jordan, indicated that years of experience and specialization are the variables that have the ability to predict levels of job satisfaction, although the variables of sex, age, and educational qualification do not have the ability to predict the levels of job satisfaction. Bogler (2001) noted that job satisfaction of teachers is affected by their upper- and lower-level needs; upper-level needs are formed in the internal forms of action, students' achievement, attention to the teacher and appreciation, the work itself, responsibility, and promotion opportunities, and lower-level needs are represented in working conditions, supervision, policy work, salary, and interrelationships.

According to Lucas, Babakus and Ingram (1990), other factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction represent internal and external factors. Internal factors include the love of work, a sense of pride and pride in the teaching profession, and opportunities for personal growth, and external factors include the financial returns, satisfaction with how to receive returns, and the extent of benefit from retirement or warranty. As Shann (1998) noted, job satisfaction for teachers depends on several factors, which are participation in decision-making, involvement in planning, dealing with teachers as a key to achieve programs at school, the relationships between teachers and parents, and student achievement.

In addition, Parvin and Kabir (2011) mentioned that several existing factors could impact a person's level of job satisfaction, which include the pay and benefits, fairness of the promotion system, working conditions, and leadership relationships. Working conditions include work place, work instruments, the work itself, and organization policy and rules. Thus, a study was conducted by Almeili (2006) in the eastern region of Saudi Arabia and included 88 high school teachers from 30 high schools who were randomly selected from among the 50 high schools in Dammam City and surrounding areas. The study pointed out that 81.5% of the sample were

dissatisfied by the school being distant from their residence.

Despite the shortage of research on the relationship between the long-distance commuting and the level of Saudi teachers' satisfaction, commuting could be one of the important factors that might affect Saudi teachers' levels of satisfaction toward their jobs. According to a study cited by Al-Ahmadi et al. (2005), about 35% of women teachers commuted more than 49.71 miles to their work. That, in turn, made the rate of women teachers in traffic accidents a little over six for each 100 of commuting women teachers to their schools, which was larger than the national rate of all traffic accidents at that time.

Attendance

Excessive employee absences in organizations such as business community and industrial organization are problematic because of a reduction in productivity. Absences in the education field, however, are particularly troublesome (Clay, 2007). To discuss the importance of teacher attendance, this section will include an overview, the concept of absenteeism, absenteeism theories, achievement and absenteeism, and causes influencing teacher attendance.

Overview

To maintain the effectiveness of teacher performance, management, and organization, educational systems must have an interest in the improvement of legislation and procedures controlling teacher attendance, departure, and absence (Al-Ibrahim, 2002). According to Aissan et al. (2011), teacher attendance and outstanding performance by those teachers are one of the key factors that improve learning outcomes related to the requirements of a market economy, renewable needs, and development. Al-Rashdan (2001) mentioned that the presence of teachers and their commitments are standards to measure the productive efficiency of education, and the high rate of the teachers' absenteeism is one of the negative indicators that works on threat,

destabilization, and low productivity of the educational work.

Daily attendance of the teacher is an indicator of a school performance quality (Bradley, Green, & Leevesd, 2007). The repetition of the absence of the teacher has a lot of negative effects on the educational process as a whole. This is represented by the low academic achievement levels of learners and low educational quality of performance in school (Bradley et al., 2007) and may cause a lack of public confidence in schools (Clay, 2007). Thus, absence is considered one of the most concerning problems that needs to be addressed. Absence constitutes one of the patterns of human losses in work. Therefore, human strength is considered one of the most important elements of development in societies. Thus, the loss will adversely affect the efficiency and performance of productivity.

The Concept of Absenteeism

Absence as defined by the Department of Labor is the individual not being present to work within the specified working days due to illness or injury that hinders the individual from the work, as well as absenteeism for unauthorized reasons, voluntarily or involuntarily (Alducks, 2005). However, it was defined by Cascio (2003) as failure to attend to the work place when scheduled to attend for any reason. Absenteeism is the individual's withdrawal from work, even if it is temporary and voluntary (Bridges, 1980). According to Price and Mueller (1986), absence is interruption of the individual from the work place when they should be attending according to the specified schedule. Bowers (2001) defined the concept of absence between absence without excuse or satisfied excuse.

There have also been attempts to distinguish between the terms absence and absenteeism. For instance, Ballagh, Maxwell, and Perea (1987) defined absenteeism as "potentially controllable absences caused by attitudinal problems or by illness, injuries, or personal absences

which could be prevented" (p. 1). In this research, no distinction exists between the terms absence and absenteeism because in practice there is not a clear distinction.

Absenteeism Theory

Many models can be examined to better understand employee absences (Drago & Wooden, 1992). Next, I offer the most actively traded and influential models suited to the subject of research.

Psychological theory. Steers and Rhodes' (1978) model of employee attendance offered a major contribution to research in absenteeism (Brooke, 1986). The Steers and Rhodes model is presented in Figure 5.

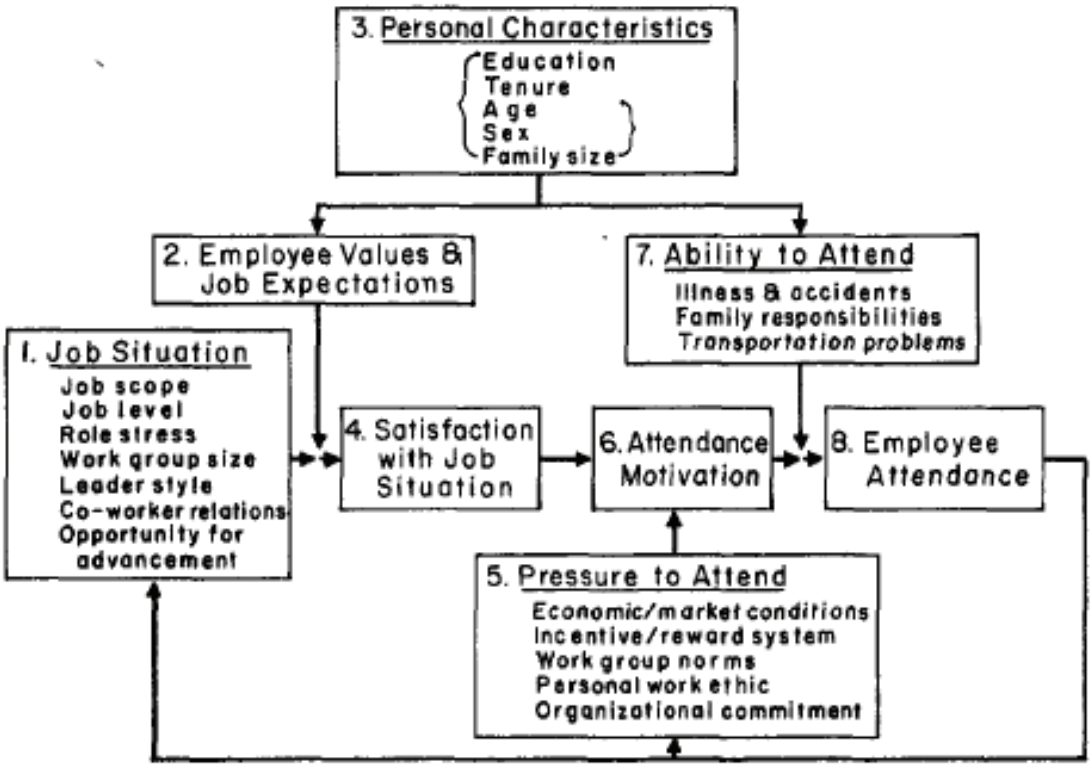

Figure 5. Model of employee attendance (Steers & Rhodes, 1978).

The nature of the job and its surrounding environment reacts with individual values and job expectations to identify satisfaction of an individual. According to the framework of the Steers and Rhodes' (1978) attendance model, Steel, Rentsch, and Van Scotter (2007) noted that

> the Job Situation (Box 1), Personal Characteristics (Box 3), and Pressures to Attend (Box 5) define a set of exogenous conditions predisposing individuals toward attendance or its converse (i.e., absenteeism). Job Satisfaction (Box 4) and its immediate antecedents (i.e., Employee Values and Job Expectations, Box 2) operate as intervening mechanisms linking triggering conditions (i.e., Job Situation and Personal Characteristics) to motivational agencies. Employee Attendance (Box 8) ultimately becomes the product of two endogenous predictors, Attendance Motivation (Box 6) and the Ability to Attend (Box 7). (p. 181)

Steers and Rhodes' model is presented as a process of reaction that can subsequently affect work conditions and attendance motivation (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). According to Brooke (1986),

> There are two major points in the Steers and Rhodes model. The first emphasizes the importance of a multivariate approach which incorporates concepts from a variety of academic traditions, and extends beyond the traditional preoccupation with job satisfaction. The second seeks to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary absenteeism, while including both forms in a single model. (p. 346)

Brooke (1986) explained the difference between voluntary and involuntary absenteeism: "The determinants of attendance motivation appear to relate to voluntary absenteeism, whereas the ability to attend variables seem to refer to involuntary absenteeism" (p. 346). According to Rhodes and Steers' (1990) process model, attendance motivation is influenced by several factors,

such as culture, values, objectives, and worker attitudes.

According to Brooke (1986), the sources of difficulty of operationalization in the Steers and Rhodes model are determined by five aspects. The first aspect of difficulty includes possibility of problems with the construct of essential elements of their model. The second area of difficulty is extracting from lack of precision in the determination of several variables in the model. The third source of difficulty refers to the combination of theoretical concepts and variables that are associated with absenteeism in the model. The fourth source of difficulty is the neglect of substantive discussion of potentially important variables. The last source of difficulty is about the assumption of involuntary absenteeism, such as illness.

Sociological theory. Social exchange theory suggests a control center that is influenced by cultural variables and focuses on social interaction among individuals within an organization (Clay, 2007). Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, and Brown (1982) stated,

> While it is true that there may be wide individual differences in frequency and type of absence, but these differences tend to occur inside the limits set by a particular culture. By this use of the word "culture" we mean the beliefs and practices influencing the totality of absences-their frequency and duration-as they currently occur within an employee group or organization. (p. 7)

Absence could be distributed between employees based upon beliefs and practices that need an immediate solution. “We do not wish to deny the reality of individual motivations, but to question the usefulness of abstracting them from their social context, because recognizing the individual reality must not be done at the expense of the social reality” (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982, p. 13).

Chadwick-Jones et al. (1982) explained that absenteeism is an individual social behavior.

According to Johns and Nicholson (1982), absence should be viewed as a culture contrast between worker and employee that is made up of four components: a social component, salience, an organizational component, and social information processing. Johns and Nicholson (1982) defined absence culture as "the set of shared understandings about absence legitimacy in a given organization and the established custom and practice of employee absence behavior and its control" (p. 136).

Rhodes and Steers (1990) divided the absence culture into four categories. First, cultures have low salience and high trust, which are formed in organizations that inhibit relationships between workers while workers perform highly discretionary job functions. In this culture, workers' decision to be absent is based on the degree of guilt the worker feels toward the organization. The second category is cultures have high salience and high trust, which are formed when organizations promote or enhance relationships between workers to enjoy a high degree of camaraderie while workers perform highly discretionary job functions. Employees in this type recognize the relationship between workers and the organization to determine their choice in taking the absence (Rhodes & Steers, 1990). Then, cultures have low salience and low trust, which are formed by organizations that do not promote relationships between workers with specialized skills. In this type of organization, individuals participate in calculative absenteeism. The final type is cultures have high salience and low trust, which are formed when organizations foster relationships between workers but workers perform unskilled tasks. Individuals view absenteeism as a way of expressing freedom from the organization (Rhodes & Steers, 1990).

Achievement and Absenteeism

Shapira-Lishchinsky and Roseblatt (2008) conducted a study about teacher absences because of potential effects of teacher absences on the school setting. According to Hawkins

(2000), maximizing the consistent attendance of the permanent teacher lies before enforcing professional development classes for discovering new teaching styles. Teacher absenteeism can negatively influence a school system, such as reducing student achievement and attendance to destroying a school's reputation (Steiner-Khamsi & Harris van Keuren, 2009). According to Shapira-Lishchinsky and Rosenblatt, teacher absences contribute to reducing student motivation and desire to attend school and potentially leads to an increase in student absenteeism. Hawkins argued that student achievement is the most important aspect of education. If administrators believe that school districts should implement incentives to reinforce teacher attendance, that, in turn, will increase student achievement.

Bruno (2002) determined through research outcomes that teacher absenteeism negatively impacts student achievement. Chubb and Moe (1990) found the consistent presence of a teacher is one of the most important qualities of a good classroom teacher. The U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights added teacher absenteeism as a new element on its biennial Civil Rights Data Collection survey in 2009 because that office recognized that teacher absenteeism impacts the educational process and student achievement (Miller, 2012). International sources likewise asserted that a correlation exists between teacher attendance and student attendance so that high teacher absence is linked to high student absence (Black, Seder, & Kekahio, 2014). School environment and culture influences the sense of the teacher and his commitment toward the requirements of the work and the profession that, in turn, affects the learning of students. The importance of creating a school environment that fosters loyalty to the profession promotes professional development for teachers and enhances and develops their roles (Aissan & Jumah, 2005; Scribner, 1999).

Savery, Travaglione, and Firns (1998) found that the absenteeism rate has a negative

correlation with the level of loyalty to the work. In addition to the impact on student attendance and achievement, administrative time is wasted between replacing classroom teachers and attendance management (Obeng-Denteh, Yeboah, Sam, & Monkah, 2011). The negative influence of teacher absence on students, schools, and communities requires the urgent need to understand and determine the factors that cause absence behavior and find solutions to mitigate absence (Lee, Goodman, Dandapani, & Kekahio, 2015).

Causes Influencing Teacher Attendance

Many reasons lead to the absence of teachers from school, but they differ from one environment to another. Several studies were conducted to determine the causes of teacher absence. In Jordan, Al Masood's (1994) study indicated that a correlation existed among absence and gender, teaching experience, academic level, marital status, and commuting distance. Female teachers have higher absence rates than male teachers. Absence rates of new teachers are higher than experienced teachers, although the absence of teachers qualified with a bachelor's degree is fewer than those who hold master's degree. The absence of married couples is higher than the unmarried, and the absence of teachers residing in distant places from work is higher than those who reside close to the work.

Abo Elwafa's (1994) study in Egypt showed that the causes which lead to the absence of teachers include failure to achieve teacher desire to move from one school to another that they want to teach in, lack of a sense of responsibility of some teachers, not accepting teacher resignations, commissioning teachers to teach subjects not in their specialization, psychological exhaustion during the school year, not rewarding good teachers on their commitment, and physical stress. The results also showed no sign of differences between teachers in the villages and cities or between managers and mentors. There was also no significant difference attributed

to marital status.

Bowers' (2001) study concluded that the rate of teacher absence was higher than the rate of worker absence in the different sectors of the government, and school administration and its size affects the rate of teacher absence—increasing the number of teachers per school increases the absenteeism rates. In Saudi Arabia, Al Jabri (2005) conducted a study to identify the causes that lead to the frequent absence of teachers, which are teachers' dissatisfaction with the age of child they teach, variation of principals' dealing between teachers on the issue of authorization to leave under exigent circumstances, pressure of school schedule, lack of credibility in the job performance rating, assigning present teachers to cover the absent teacher quotas, and the neglect of some managers in applying the system on absentees and latecomers. In Malawi, there is a relationship between teacher absenteeism and salary because teaching salary alone is not sufficient to live on (Kadzamira, 2006).

According to Usman and Suryadarma (2007), in Indonesia, absentee rates of contract teachers were significantly higher rates than noncontract teachers. Absentee rates of school leaders were higher than teachers because of a lack of oversight by the district office. Teachers at schools with inadequate conditions were absent more often than teachers at schools with adequate conditions. Also, teachers who were contracted by the government were absent at significantly higher than teachers with direct working relationships. Teachers who were contracted directly and teachers who lived in the same district or community had lower absence rates than those who lived farther out in a sub district (United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 2012).

In Lago State in Nigeria, teacher absence in private schools was higher than teacher absence in public schools (Tooley, Dixon, & Olaniyan, 2005). In India schools, oversight by the

state government had lower absence rates than locally run schools. Teachers in schools located closer to paved roads were absent less than teachers in poorer states (Kremer, Chaudhury, Rogers, Muralidharan, & Hammer, 2005).

In Honduras, community accountability contributes to decreasing teacher absenteeism, especially when community members are involved in setting salaries (World Bank, 2008). In Cyprus, job stressors and teachers' personal traits lead to burnout that might impact teacher attendance, according to Kokkinos (2007). In Bangladesh, India, and Indonesia, resident teachers have fewer absent rates than those who commute from outside the city (Chaudhury, Hammer, Kremer, Muralidharan, & Rogers, 2006). According to Lee et al. (2015, p. 3), causes of teacher absenteeism can be divided into five categories, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Causes of Teacher Absenteeism

Category	Factors
Pay structure	• Salary and compensation • Contractual status • Working relationship with the school • Seniority and professional standing
Management	• School type (private or public) • School governance (locally or centrally controlled) • Enforcement of sanctions • Community accountability
Working conditions	• School culture • Exhaustion, stress, and burnout • School facilities and infrastructure • Classroom structure (multigrade or single grade) • Professional development or other duties
Community conditions	• School location (urban or rural, proximity to paved roads, remoteness) • Proximity to school • Environmental and health conditions • Socioeconomic conditions

Category	Factors
Social and cultural responsibilities	• Illness, funeral attendance, and care of family members • Social and cultural norms, including expectations for female teachers

Note. (Lee, Goodman, Dandapani & Kekahio, 2015, p. 3)

As illustrated, pay structure, management, working conditions, community conditions, and social and cultural responsibilities are the five categories that comprise the causes of teacher absenteeism. This research focuses on the community conditions category, which school location (urban or rural, proximity to paved roads, remoteness) and proximity to school are factors of teacher absenteeism. Thus, traffic accidents could be one of the tragedy reasons that contribute in teacher absenteeism in Saudi Arabia due to the long distance between home and school. According to Ahmed and Al-Adshan (2014), a study conducted by Kauthar, Al-Shuaibi, Al-Khatib at King Abdul Aziz University in Jeddah showed that about 57% of deaths due to traffic accidents in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia were people from the education field. Teachers made up 35% of the proportion of deaths in traffic accidents, and students constituted 22%. The study also showed that this large number is due to the nature of the work of teachers whose work requires traveling to remote areas across unsafe roads. According to Al-Hazza (2014), the Ministry of Education announced that Tatweer Company for Educational Transportation will begin to provide means of transport for women teachers, which consists of security elements and safety to ensure the reduction of traffic accidents.

Job Performance

Job performance is an important aspect in this research study. In order to gain a deeper understanding of job performance, this section includes several aspects, including an overview

about performance development in this century, concepts of job performance, elements of performance, determinants of job performance, performance dimensions, methods to improve job performance, job performance models, and factors affecting job performance.

Overview

The 20th century saw many and varied developments in various fields of work, including the era of using computers. This modern technology work development created new requirements in performance and changed job classification within the same organization. This radical change could make the employees need special training (Shaweesh, 2005).

The world today pays greater attention to performance, which in turn focuses on the human element to achieve goals through the effective use of resources and exploits the opportunities and energies available in order to provide high speed services and quality in response to the needs and expectations of citizens (Al-Balawi, 2008). The institutional performance depends mainly on the individual's performance level because the success of the organization depends on doing the work with a high degree of quality (Al-Awamleh, 1996). The amount and quality of production are the important indicators that show the level of performance in organizations where the role of these institutions is to provide services to satisfy the needs of a community or to produce certain goods to achieve the public interest, so the size of the production and quality are reflecting the success of institutions (Al-Awamleh, 1996). Hence, organizations are endeavored in various countries on the development of job performance through a set of policies, laws, and rules that aim to attract highly qualified employees. This creates an appropriate work environment, encourages innovation and urges the employee to perform as intended, leading to the achievement of goals and basic objectives of services and products with high level of effectiveness (Hassan, 2008). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is

endeavored to develop and modernize its regulations to improve the performance of employees to meet the needs and development plan (Alshammari, 2011).

Concept of Job Performance

Badawi and Mustafa (1984) defined performance as a product of effort by an individual or group of individuals to accomplish a specific job. Haynes (1990) defined performance as a result achieved by the employee when carrying out any of the acts, although Hilal (1999) found a link between performance and internal and external factors affecting the individual. Performance was then defined as a meaningful functional behavior showing the result of the interaction and compatibility between the internal powers and external powers surrounding it (Hilal, 1999). Bagabr (1995) saw that job performance is the interaction of employees' behavior that is determined by the interaction of effort and ability. Al Alsheikh (2001) saw that performance is a result of the outcome of the interaction between the three main determinants that are the individual motivation, the climate and work environment, and the ability to get the job done. Al-Sakeer (2002) defined performance in terms of the effort in the organization in order to achieve a particular goal. Al-Abadleh (2003) defined administrative performance as activity, which is owned by an individual to accomplish tasks and goals successfully.

According to Wagner, John, and Hollenbeck (1992), job performance is the result of interaction of capacity and motivation. An individual may possess the ability to perform a specific job, but he or she will not be able to accomplish the job efficiently and effectively if he does not have enough motivation for performance, and vice versa; an individual may have adequate motivation for performance but does not work properly due to the lack of capacity to do so (Wagner et al., 1992). Albanese (1999) believed that a variety of factors may contribute to job performance, such as money, working conditions, availability of needed equipment and

materials, and individuals' relationships with their immediate supervisors. Jamal (1985) stated that job performance is activity that enables an individual to get the job done or successfully achieve the target and depends on the normal restrictions of the use of reasonably available resources. For the purpose of this study, job performance is defined as the result of employee' performance; if the employee was active, energetic, and enthusiastic in his work, the results will be satisfactory, but if he is not so, the results will not be satisfactory.

Elements of Performance

According to Al-Sairafi (2003), the elements of job performance are knowledge of work requirements, quality of work, quantity of the work, and perseverance and trust. Knowledge of work requirements includes professional skills, technical knowledge, interests, and general background. Quality of work includes perfection, ingenuity, technical mastery, the ability to organize and execute work, and freedom from errors. Quantity of work represents the quantity of work done under normal conditions and speed of achievement. Perseverance and trust includes dedication and hard work, ability to take responsibility and achieve the goals on time, and the extent needed for supervision and guidance (Al-Sairafi, 2003).

Based upon the definition of performance of Haynes (1990), elements of work performance are employee, function, and situation. An employee possesses skills, interests, values, attitudes, and motivations. Function, the second element, is the job characteristics of requirements, challenges, and opportunities that satisfy employees' needs and desires (Haynes, 1990). Situation, the third element, is the organizational environment's characteristics, such as climate of work, supervision, availability of resources, administrative systems, and organizational structure (Haynes, 1990).

Determinants of Job Performance

The subject of determinants of job performance attracted many researchers to attempt to figure out the importance of factors that determine the level of individuals' performance. Therefore, determining the level of individual performance requires knowledge of the factors that determine the level of performance and the interaction between them (Sultan, 2003). Vroom (1964) found that factors determining an individual's performance at work interact with each other to determine the level of performance. The determinants of performance are motivation, abilities, and realization (Vroom, 1964). The effort reflects the degree of enthusiasm of the individual to perform the work; exerted effort represents the real degree of individuals' motivation in performance. The second element represents individuals' abilities and previous experience that determine the degree of effectiveness of the effort. Realization represents the career role of the individual (Sultan, 2003). Determinants of performance can be formulated in the following equation:

Determinants of performance = motivation (Effort)* abilities* realization

Job performance is the outcome of the interaction between effort, abilities, and the realization of the role or task. Each factor does not affect the performance independently but by interacting with other factors (Sultan, 2003).

Performance Dimensions

According to Mukhaimer (2000), several dimensions of performance exist, including level of analysis, performance measurement, and areas of interest in performance.

Level of analysis. According to Mukhaimer (2000), performance can be divided into three levels:

- Individual performance means the actions exercised by the individual to carry out his responsibilities in the organizational unit in order to achieve the desired objectives, which in turn contributes to achieve objectives of the organizational unit. Individual performance is evaluated by his immediate supervisor to ensure the systems work and means of implementation achieve the greatest possible level of production, in minimal cost, in less time, and at an appropriate level of quality.
- Performance of organizational units means the actions that are practiced by organizational units to achieve goals set in the light of strategic objectives of the institution. Both senior management and internal control devices evaluate this kind of performance to ensure economic and administrative effectiveness.
- Institutional performance means an integrated system to the institutional product in the light of its interaction with internal and external elements. In other words, it is the outcome of individual performance, performance of organizational units, and influences of the social, economic and cultural environment. The institutional performance evaluated by central control devices, legislature, and popular devices provide censorship to ensure environmental effectiveness and political effectiveness. (Mukhaimer, 2000)

Performance measurement. Performance measurement refers to elements that are measurable in any area of performance, such as efficiency and effectiveness. Due to the different nature of the institutions, there are varied views in the definition of effectiveness (Al-Balawi, 2008). According to Al-Awamleh (1996), effectiveness means the ability to achieve desired organizational objectives, which in turn determines the effectiveness of the human element and the availability of financial resources, materials, and technology that are needed to

accomplish the goals. Some research indicated poor training and competence in the human element is one of the main reasons for the decline in the overall performance level in public institutions (Al-Awamleh, 1996). Others perceived effectiveness as the quality of service or product that is provided to the external world through the two indices: achievement of the goals and the quality of service or product (Al-Balawi, 2008).

Efficiency is the optimal use of available resources to achieve a certain level of output at the lowest cost. In other words, efficiency refers to working in a certain way, which is the use of available resources, as much as possible, and taking into account the costs, time, and satisfaction of the employees (Daft, 2004). The difference between efficiency and effectiveness, according to Siess (2003), is explained:

> Many of the problems in modern business are caused by the confusion between efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency is working so as to minimize wasted labor, money, or time. Effectiveness, on the other hand, means examining a range of tasks, selecting the most important to be completed, and then completing it. In short, efficiency means doing things right, while effectiveness mean doing the right things. Efficiency-doing things right-is good, but effectiveness-doing the right things-is better. Doing the wrong things is the epitome of wasted time. (p. 10)

Areas of interest in performance. This is the area of interest in which one can develop and improve performance. According to Alsulami (1985), advanced and active performance is characterized with several traits: (a) continuous success in private institutes and achieving goals in public institutes, (b) innovation in services, products, and customers' satisfaction, (c) using teamwork to control their selves subjectively, (d) establishing a clear relationship between training and development and between training and organizational goals, and (e) supporting

individual learning and organizational learning.

Methods to Improve Job Performance

Upon the changes in technology and progression in sciences, performance in any organization needs improvement. There are many ways to improve job performance; some of them are mentioned by Haynes (1990).

Improving employee performance. According to Haynes (1990), employees are considered one of the most difficult factors to change. So, employee performance can be improved through a number of things.

1. Focusing on strengths: The individual has strengths and weaknesses. Working on strengths to overcome weaknesses and also working to take advantage of the individual's talent will improve performance.
2. Focusing on desires: Creating harmony between individuals and their work by allowing these individuals do what they like is important, but this does not mean that individuals can leave or neglect their work just because they do not like it; however, this provides harmony to the extent possible.
3. Linking goals with personality: Performance efforts must be linked with the employee's goals and personal interests because this relationship will increase the motivation of the employee in order to achieve the desired improvement (Haynes, 1990).

Improving function. The contents of function contribute to increased and decreased levels of performance (Haynes, 1990). For example, if the level of performance exceeds the employee's skills, it will contribute to a low level of performance. According to Haynes (1990), some methods to improve function are

1. Necessary tasks: Study each task and its relevance and necessity, then work to reduce them to the essential elements only.
2. Appropriate tasks: Work to identify the appropriate and proper person or section to perform this function. This will prevent an employee from working on tasks not related to his skills and power. However, determining tasks and distribution responsibilities will be according to skills and employee levels so that each employee can fulfill his mission to the fullest.
3. Function design: The function is designed by two main concepts, which are expansion of function and enrichment of function. Expansion is compiling tasks that require the same level of skills and goal to increase the link between an employee and what is required of him to do, while enrichment of function is working to increase the levels of freedom given to the employee.
4. Exchanging functions: Make staff exchange their jobs for a period of time to remove boredom, increase motivation, renew enthusiasm, and strengthen employees constantly.
5. Commissioning special tasks: Employees should be given an opportunity from time to time to participate in the committees, in the study teams, and in the solution of problems because these tasks will renew motivation and stimulate employees to work actively. (Haynes, 1990)

Job Performance Models

Theories of motivations employ motivation in performance to increase the quality of work. This section will address two motivation theories that consider motivation as a step to performance.

Expectancy theory of motivation. According to Lunenburg (2011a), what motivates workers in the workplace is not the primary focus of Vroom's expectancy theory. The theory focuses on the individual differences in work motivation that are reflected from cognitive variables. Vroom's theory is based on the idea that desired rewards are the way to motivate people to provide stronger effort that will lead to good performance (Lunenburg, 2011a). This is unlike the theories that attempt to provide what motivates employees in organizations, such as the theories of Alderfer (1972), Herzberg (1968), Maslow (1970), and McClelland (1976).

There are four assumptions of the expectancy theory of motivation. The first assumption is related to the influence of needs, motivations, and experiences of individuals when joining organizations. Another assumption is related to the result of people's behavior. The next assumption is related to individuals' needs from the organization, such as good salary and job security. The last assumption is related to individuals' choice to achieve personal targets (Vroom, 1964). Expectancy, instrumentality, and valence are the essential elements for the expectancy theory and are explained by Lunenburg (2011a): "A person is motivated to the degree that he or she believes that (a) effort will lead to acceptable performance (expectancy), (b) performance will be rewarded (instrumentality), and (c) the value of the rewards is highly positive (valence)" (p. 2). Miskel (1982) mentioned the key elements of the expectancy theory:

> Valence refers to the perceived positive or negative worth or attractiveness of potential outcomes, rewards or incentives for working in an organization. Expectancy refers to the subjective probability that a given effort will yield a specified performance level. Instrumentality refers to the perceived probability that an incentive with a valence will be forthcoming after a given level of performance or achievement. (p. 73)

This theory is reflected in Figure 6.

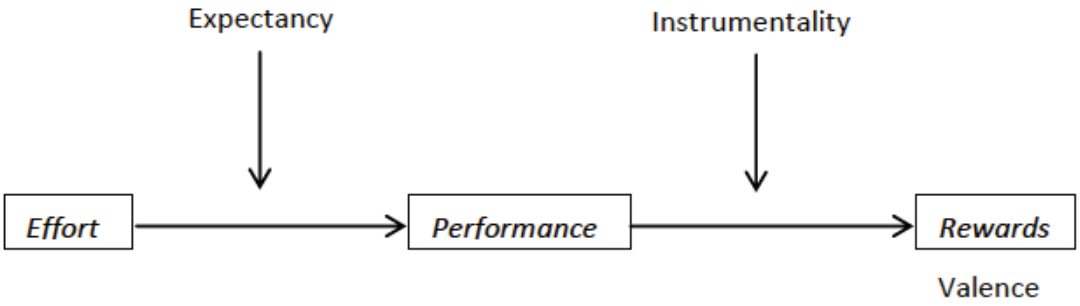

Figure 6. Basic expectancy model (Lunenburg, 2011a).

This theory is not only important but also linked with the educational reality in Saudi Arabia. What is expected of the teacher is to teach the new generation to keep up with modern times and achieve what the society will need in the future. The Ministry of Education is seeking to hire the best graduates after conducting several tests. Therefore, teachers are expected to teach students to achieve a high level of knowledge and science.

Goal-setting theory of motivation. Locke and Latham provided a sophisticated goal-setting theory of motivation that emphasizes the important relationship between goals and performance (Lunenburg, 2011b). Goals have an impact on worker behavior and performance in the workplace (Locke & Latham, 2002). According to many studies, the main outcome of goal setting is that individuals who are provided with specific goals, which may be difficult but are still attainable, perform better than those given easy and nonspecific goals. However, the individuals must have sufficient ability, accept the goals, and receive feedback related to performance (Latham, 2003).

According to the goal-setting theory of motivation, cognitive determinants of behavior are values and goals. Values generate a desire and emotion to do things consistently. Goals affect employees' behavior or job performance; therefore, attention and action are directed by goals. Further, challenging goals and objectives mobilize energy, lead to higher effort, and

increase persistent effort. People are motivated and encouraged by goals to improve and develop strategies and plans that, in turn, will enable them to perform and achieve the required goal levels. Last, satisfaction is achieved and motivation increases when the desired goal is accomplished, but the opposite of frustration and lower motivation may happen if the target goal is not accomplished (Locke & Latham, 1990). This idea is demonstrated in Figure 7.

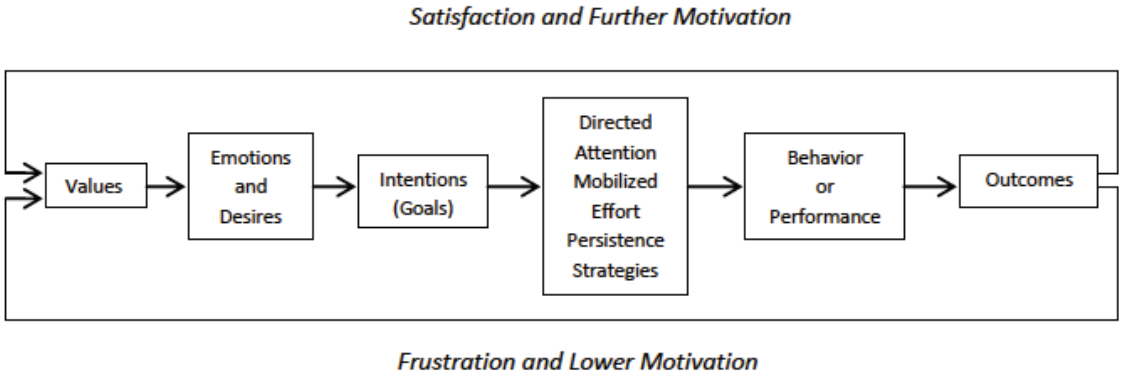

Figure 7. General model of goal-setting theory (Lunenburg, 2011b).

The goal-setting theory of motivation is important in this literature review because it mentioned that the individuals must have sufficient ability. Sufficient ability of teachers is playing a more important role in students' achievement. When teachers get tired of commuting, their performance ability may decrease the desire to do things consistently.

Factors Affecting Job Performance

Many variables affect the performance of employees at the work place. These variables positively impact the performance of the employees, including manager's attitude, organizational culture, job content, and financial rewards, while personal problems hinder the performance of the employees (Saeed et al., 2013). According to Jankingthong and Rurkkhum (2012), transformational leadership, organizational justice, work engagement, and public service motivation have direct effects on task and contextual performance. Through organizational

justice, work engagement, and public service motivation, transformational leadership has an indirect effect on task and contextual performance.

Farhan (1993) conducted a study about the school environment, which concluded that the school environment, including teachers, students' behavior and characteristics, financial security for teachers, and teacher relationships with parents, are responsible for the low level of teacher performance by impeding teachers to perform their educational duties efficiently. Based on the shortage of research on the relationship between the long-distance commuting and Saudi teachers' performance, the long-distance commuting could be one of the major factors that affect Saudi teachers' performance. Al-Ahmadi et al. (2005) conducted a study in Saudi Arabia about traffic accidents of women teachers commuting outside cities which found that 46% of teachers who commute long distance to their schools provide lower performance than resident teachers, and 76% of commuting teachers have low psychological stability when compared with resident teachers.

The National Center for Assessment in Higher Education (NCAHE, 2015) reported on the average performance in the General Aptitude Test (GAT) for female high schools in educational district of Al-Quwayiyah in the last three years (1435/2013, 1436/2014, 1437/2015). NCAHE found 41.7% of schools attained an average performance of scores 65 and below, and 58.3% of schools attained an average performance of scores between 65 and 75. For male high schools, 88% of schools attained an average performance of scores 65 and below, and 12% of schools attained an average performance of score between 65 and 75. It is important to note that both male and female schools with less than 10 students in any of those three years were excluded from these results (NCAHE, 2015). On the other hand, increasing the number of

students in the classroom negatively affects the performance of teachers that in turn leads to the following issues (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

Teachers' inability to consider individual differences among students. The Ministry of Education (1997) indicated that large classrooms have a role in the obstruction of teachers to know their students closely and identify their needs of education through their inability to identify individual differences among students. At the lower levels in particular, teachers have to identify students who need more skills in certain aspects such as reading and writing. The Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is seeking to provide schools, whether in cities or villages, teachers specializing in learning disabilities. Students themselves are the ones who will be affected if teachers are unable to identify those students who need more attention (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

Inability of teachers to develop skills and talents in children. This point indicates that talents and skills that exist in children must be developed in the academic progress. These talents and skills cannot be detected if classrooms include a great number of students. The role of the teacher in the classroom is to not only give a lesson, but they must discover the talents and abilities of students so as to develop and provide the possibilities within the school. The Ministry of Education has always sought to open classrooms in schools for gifted students in order to support and provide them what they need during their educational attainment (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

Teachers' inability to answer student questions. Usually teachers distribute their time in the classroom to include explaining the new lesson and answering students' questions. With a large number of students in the classroom, teachers cannot eliminate all the time to answer all students' questions. For example, if a classroom with 30 students in which 50% of them asked

questions were allotted 90 seconds each, an additional 22.5 minutes of class time would be needed. This means half of the allotted time went to answering 50% of students only. Therefore, it would be wise of teachers to give a lesson first before answering some students' questions but not all of them (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

Inability of teachers to follow up and address problems. The Ministry of Education indicated that teachers cannot figure out all students' problems if the number of students in the classroom is large. From this point, the Ministry of Education argued that problems for students must be addressed. So, teachers should monitor students through their participant in the classroom and through homework. Therefore, teachers can discover and address students' problems (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

Overstrain of teachers and not benefiting from talents. Teachers always try to employ their abilities, talents, and skills in the educational process, but issues arise that prevent them from it. Based on the Ministry of Education (1997), a large number of students in the classroom is one of the reasons that strain teachers and prevent them from engaging students with their mastered skills. Also, large classrooms overstrain teachers through spending a lot of time, whether inside or outside the classroom, in follow-through and grading homework.

Weak interaction between teacher and students. Naturally, an increased number of students in the classroom contributes to the inability of teachers to interact with all students, especially since teachers have only 45 minutes to perform the lesson. In this case, it is difficult for teachers to give a chance for each student to ask and inquire. Teachers in this case resort to giving explanations most of the time for the benefit of all students. If the number of students in a classroom is appropriate, it undoubtedly increases the interaction between teachers and their disciples (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

Incapacity of teachers to manage and control classroom. The Saudi Ministry of Education is trying to achieve what is beneficial for the students. The Ministry oversees that the number of students in the classroom is appropriate. This means that managing and controlling classroom has a big role in the educational process through helping teachers to give a lesson in a useful and clear way (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

Summary and Synthesis of Literature Review

This chapter was devoted to teacher quality. The first point summarized the development of Saudi education since the establishment of modern Saudi Arabia in 1932. Teacher quality is an important factor, especially in Arabian Gulf countries, because of the rapid change in teacher preparation and certification where teacher certification is not necessarily linked to teacher quality. In Saudi Arabia, teachers' ages, gender, and national citizenship are unique contextual characteristics that may impact teacher quality. Job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance as the most important parts of teacher quality were discussed in this literature review. When studying job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance, one cannot assume there is a fixed set of factors that could affect teacher quality because each country has its own culture, reasons, and circumstances.

Many studies were conducted on job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance in multiple countries and cultures which included a wide range of factors and influences that might impact teacher quality, but each had mostly different findings. This study focused on the long-distance commuting factor and examined its impact on teacher quality in Saudi Arabia. The goal for this study was to further the research on teacher quality and prove or disprove long-distance commuting as a factor affecting teacher quality specifically in Saudi Arabia.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The primary focus of the quantitative study was to investigate the relationship between long-distance commuting and teacher quality in Saudi Arabia schools. Data were collected from teachers to examine the variable of long-distance commuting that could impact teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance that in turn affect the performance of learners. Each participant's scores in job satisfaction, attendance, and performance composed the study's dependent variable; independent variables within this study were distance, gender, and commuting frequency. Data on dependent variables and independent variables were collected through the utilization of the survey found in the Appendix A to determine the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables. Chapter 3 provides a description of the research, including the statistical method and procedure that were used to examine the hypotheses. Chapter 3 includes an explanation of the research method and design, research questions, null hypotheses, population and sample, recruitment, instrumentation, data collection methods, variables, and method of data analysis.

Method and Design

A quantitative research approach was utilized for the development of this research. According to Creswell (2003), "A quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses post positivist claims for developing knowledge . . . employs strategies of inquiry

such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data" (p. 18). The goal of the quantitative method, according to Borg and Gall (1996), is to "develop knowledge by collecting numerical data on observable behaviors of samples then subjecting these data to numerical analysis" (p. 28). In this research, the survey methodology was used to collect data. Data collected through a questionnaire enables the researcher to reach a conclusion about the population (Creswell, 2014).

Linear regression analyses were utilized to evaluate the long-distance commuting on each dependent variable, which are teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. Gravetter and Wallnau (2013) explained regression:

> Because a straight line can be extremely useful for describing a relationship between two variables, a statistical technique has been developed that provides a standardized method for determining the best-fitting straight line for any set of data. The statistical procedure is *regression,* and the resulting straight line is called the *regression line*. (p. 561)

A multivariate analysis of variance analysis (MANOVA) was conducted in this study to see if significant differences existed between participants in each dependent variable of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance according to the independent variables, gender and frequency of commute. Warne (2014) mentioned about MANOVA,

> MANOVA tests the differences between underlying unobserved latent variables (derived from the variables in the dataset), while ANOVA only tests differences among groups on an observed variable. MANOVA is therefore often more useful to social scientists than ANOVA because most topics they research are latent constructs that are not directly observable, such as beliefs and attitudes. With ANOVA it is assumed that these constructs are measured without error and with a single observed variable—an unrealistic

assumption for many constructs in the behavioral sciences. Therefore, MANOVA is a statistical procedure that is more in accordance than ANOVA with behavioral scientists' beliefs about the topics they study. (p. 4)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to examine how the factor of long-distance commuting relates to teacher quality, which affects teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and performance, at high schools in the Saudi Arabian Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah. In order to achieve this goal, the following objectives were included: (a) to investigate the relationship between the factors of long-distance commuting and teacher quality through job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance; (b) to examine the extent of weekly and daily impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality; (c) to make recommendations on how to reduce the negative impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality; and (d) to provide recommendations for researchers and practitioners.

Research Questions

This research was directed by one main research question: What role does long-distance commuting play in teacher quality in Saudi schools?

Descriptive Sub-Questions

1. What are the levels of education in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
2. What are the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
3. What are the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?

4. What is the rate of daily and weekly commuting for teachers?

Inferential Sub-Questions

1. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction of teachers?
2. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance of teachers?
3. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance of teachers?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
5. Are there statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (daily and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
6. Is there a significant interaction between gender and frequency of commuting on teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

Null Hypotheses

$H_0$1: Inferential Sub-Question 1. Long-distance commuting does not predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction.

$H_0$2: Inferential Sub-Question 2. Long-distance commuting does not predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance.

$H_0$3: Inferential Sub-Question 3. Long-distance commuting does not predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance.

$H_0$4: Inferential Sub-Question 4. There are not statistically significant differences in

terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance based on long-distance commuting.

$H_0$5: Inferential Sub-Question 5. There are not statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (daily and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

$H_0$6: Inferential Sub-Question 6. There is not a significant interaction effect between gender and frequency of commuting (nightly and weekly) on the teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

Population and Sample

The target population of this research was high school teachers in Al-Quwayiyah, Saudi Arabia. The population included approximately 768 teachers of public education who taught in the school setting, both male and female teachers serving Grades 10 to 12. The Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah is considered the fourth largest department of education in Riyadh Region in terms of the total number of schools. The survey instrument encompassed approximately 58 high schools, both boys and girls, which employed 768 teachers. For the boys' schools, 26 high schools employed 265 teachers in the Educational Department of Al-Quwayiyah. For the girls' schools, 32 high schools employed 503 teachers in the Educational Department of Al-Quwayiyah.

Recruitment

All 768 teachers of public education who served in a school setting (Grades 10 to 12) in Al-Quwayiyah, Saudi Arabia, were recruited to participate in this research. I obtained permission from the Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah, Saudi Arabia, before distributing the survey and collecting the data. Then, the Department of Education

in Al-Quwayiyah represented at Administration of Teachers' Affairs sent my emails to each individual who worked at those 58 schools. Three emails were sent to each participant. Each email included the following information:

- The first email included a formal, informed consent document approved or exempted from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Indiana State University and a cover letter to provide an explanation of the research topic and the purpose of the study. In addition, the e-mail included the importance of the subject to participate, a description regarding potential risk, my information and my faculty sponsor's information such as name and email addresses, expected duration to complete the online questionnaire that was accessed through Qualtrics, a description of the benefits to the subject, information of whom to contact for answering questions related to the study, statement of confidentiality, an explanation to inform participants that participation was strictly voluntary, and an explanation that participants could stop at any time with no penalty for withdrawal.
- After week two of the period of data collection, I sent a reminder email, which was sent to all the study participants through Teachers' Affairs in the Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah, including the original information along with thanks to those who already participated and a reminder to those who still had not participated in the questionnaire.
- After week three of the period of data collection, a third email was sent again to all participants, including the original information along with thanks to those who already participated and a reminder to those who still had not

participated. The period of the data collection was four weeks with three emails of invitations to participate in the questionnaire.

- If the minimum questionnaire number of 768 was not satisfied, the period of data collection was to be extended for an additional week, and the fourth reminder email was to be sent to potential participating high school teachers. Finally, I sent a thank you to the individuals who participated in the survey.

Instrumentation

The most popular instrument used to collect data in social science studies is the questionnaire. The questionnaire is a set of questions used to collect information (Oppenheim, 1992). The construction of a survey instrument was necessary for the study to gather the data required to answer the overall research question, sub-sequence, and to test the hypothesis of this research. The survey format (Appendix B) included citations of those contributing expertise to the dependent variables, which are job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. Respondents viewed a survey format (Appendix A) without citations. The survey was developed with consideration and research to the content, wording, and format, so as to increase the chances of obtaining reliable information for statistical analysis. The questionnaire of this study took into account the accuracy in the preparation of each question based the literature review and the goals of the research. Upon completion, the survey instrument was sent to my advisor, Dr. Ryan Donlan, for review. In addition, the instrument was submitted to the dissertation membership committee. Furthermore, the instrument was reviewed by members of the Fall 2016 Ph.D. residency cohort at Indiana State University on January 18, 2017, to solidify face and content validity.

The questionnaire was constructed to examine the relationship between long-distance commuting and teacher quality through teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. The survey instrument employed a Likert scale rating system. A score of 5 represents the highest magnitude of response and a score of 1 signifies the lowest magnitude. The evaluations for the survey were 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3= *neither disagree nor agree*, 4 = *agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*.

Four sections composed the survey instrument. The first section of the questionnaire contained six questions to collect demographic data for descriptive purposes. The job satisfaction section consisted of seven questions. Following job satisfaction, the attendance section posed seven questions. The final section had seven questions on job performance. Overall, 27 questions were included on the survey instrument, which yielded statistical information with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. Upon completion of the survey instrument and approval, questions were loaded into Qualtrics.

Data Collection Methods

Information was collected from all high school teachers who agreed to participate in the research. The first step in the data collection method was gaining permission from the Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah, Saudi Arabia. This permission allowed me to collect all participants' email addresses. The Qualtrics web-based survey solutions was utilized for data collection process.

The Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah represented at the Administration of Teachers' Affairs was utilized to forward my individual emails that contained a link to the questionnaire in Arabic and English language to all 768 participants; the email also contained an invitation to participate in the study, an approval from IRB, and a cover

letter indicating the purpose of the research. The first page of the questionnaire included the informed consent document for participants.

When the link to the questionnaire was received, subjects opened and read the cover letter. After that, participants were given a link to access the online survey through Qualtrics web, which included the informed consent document. Completion of the survey required approximately five minutes.

In the Qualtrics online survey, 27 questions sought responses from participants. Six questions collected information relevant to demographic data. Seven questions collected information relating to job satisfaction. Seven questions collected information relating to attendance. Seven questions collected data relating to job performance. Participants could opt to stop participation in the survey without submitting their responses. Responses were not utilized unless sent through the prompt at the end of the survey.

If the minimum questionnaire number of 768 was not satisfied, the period of data collection was extended for one additional week, and the fourth reminder email was sent to potential participating high school teachers. Finally, I sent a thank you to the individuals who already participated in the survey.

Variables

The present study examined the relationship between long-distance commuting and teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. The present study also investigated the differences between gender and commuting frequency with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. Therefore, there are five main factors that could be independent variables and dependent variables in the study.

Table 3 clarifies the independent variable and dependent variables in each analysis.

Table 3

Clarification of Independent and Dependent Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables
• Commuting distance	• Job satisfaction • Attendance • Performance
• Gender • Commuting frequency	• Job satisfaction • Attendance • Job performance

Data Analysis

Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis for the research was conducted using descriptive statistics, linear single regression, and a MANOVA. Descriptive statistics analysis, such as mean and standard deviations, was used to determine the levels of education attained most often by long-distance commuters, the ages encompassed most often by long-distance commuters, the years of experience attained most often by long-distance commuters, and rate of daily and weekly commuting. A linear single regression analysis was conducted to examine the predictive impact of each independent variable upon the variance in each of the dependent variables. After these were run, a third analysis of the study, which is MANOVA, was employed to see if significant differences existed between teachers in each dependent variable based on the independent variables of gender and frequency of commuting.

Descriptive statistics were conducted to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the levels of education in teachers most often influence by long-distance commuting?

2. What are the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
3. What are the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
4. What is the rate of daily and weekly commuting for teachers?

A linear regression analysis was utilized to answer the following inferential questions:

1. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction of teachers?
2. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance of teachers?
3. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance of teachers?

A MANOVA analysis was utilized to answer the following inferential questions:

4. Are there statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance based on long-distance commuting?
5. Are there statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (daily and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
6. Is there a significant interaction between gender and frequency of commuting on teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

The methods and steps I used for data analyses were as follows:

1. For all research questions, a descriptive analysis was calculated and reported in a table stating the percentages describing the number of participants and the number of non-participants from the sample population.
2. For all descriptive questions, a descriptive statistic of data was conducted through the utilization of SPSS. The means scores and standard deviations were examined.
3. Linear regression analyses evaluated the distance variable with respect to each dependent variable (job satisfaction, attendance, performance).
4. A MANOVA analysis provided data to see if there were significant differences between teachers in each dependent variable based on the independent variables, gender, and frequency of commuting.

Upon completion of these methods and steps, outcomes were reported based upon the evaluation of data through the utilization of descriptive statistics, linear single regression, and MANOVA methodologies. Once data were collected and calculated, the findings were utilized to analyze the descriptive and inferential data relating to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance.

Summary

A quantitative research study was conducted to examine the relationship between long-distance commuting and teacher quality in Saudi Arabia schools. High school teachers were recruited for the study survey. The dependent variables in this study were job satisfaction, attendance, and performance, and the independent variables within this study were distance, gender, and commuting frequency. Chapter 3 provided information related to rationale for

research method and design, research questions, null hypotheses, population and sample, recruitment, instrumentation, data collection methods, variables to be studied, and data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between the factor of long-distance commuting and teacher quality through job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. The study also examined the extent of weekly and nightly impact of long-distance commuting on teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. This chapter presents the description and analysis of the data collected for the teacher quality in Saudi Arabia from the quantitative questionnaire administered to teachers in selected schools in the study. Statistical analyses of the data included descriptive statistics, simple linear regression, and a MANOVA. The chapter begins with descriptive sub-questions that describe the sample, which are: What are the levels of education in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? What are the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? What are the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? What is the rate of nightly and weekly commuting for teachers? Inferential testing, then, will be discussed in reference to the null hypotheses in search of significant findings in regard to the following inferential sub-questions.

1. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction of teachers?

2. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance of teachers?
3. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance of teachers?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
5. Are there statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (nightly and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
6. Is there a significant interaction between gender and frequency of commuting on teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

Respondent Demographics

This study was conducted by surveying individuals who were currently serving as public high school teachers in Al-Quwayiyah City, Saudi Arabia. The survey was available for 30 days in spring 2017. The population of this study included approximately 768 teachers of public education who taught in the school setting, both male and female teachers serving Grades 10 to 12. A total of 360 teachers (46.9% of the 768) participated in the survey; of the 360 who took the survey, a total of 274 (76.1%) completed responses and were analyzed for the descriptive sub-questions. A total of six (2.2%) of the completed responses were eliminated before inferential testing and were identified as significant outliers. In total, 268 responses were functional for the inferential sub-questions.

The first portion of the survey was designed to gather demographic information about

participants. The demographic information detailed characteristics of the respondents. Demographic information collected included gender, age, level of education, years of experience, commuting distance, and frequency of commuting.

Gender

The first demographic question asked participants to identify gender. Out of the 274 total participants, 154 were male teachers, and 120 were female teachers. Men made up 56.2% of the pool, and women made up 43.8% of the pool. Figure 8 presents a graph reflecting the gender of participants.

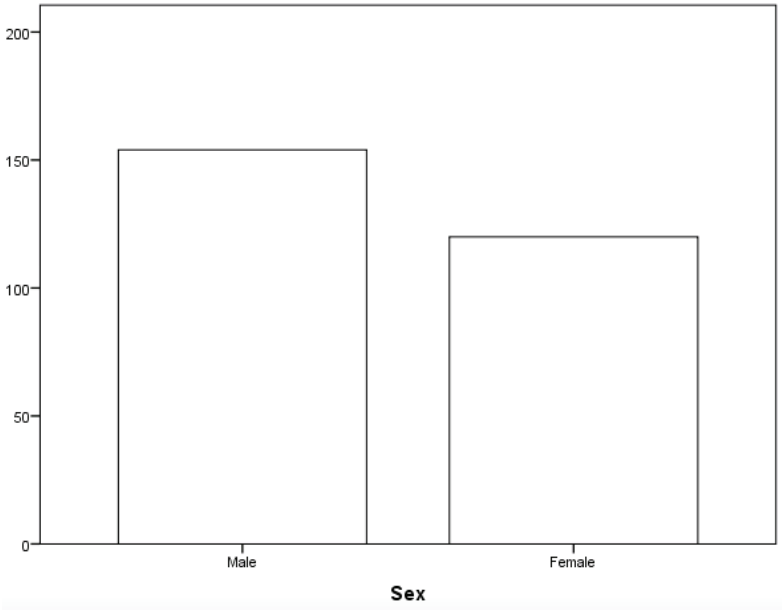

Figure 8. Gender of participants.

Age

The second demographic question asked participants to provide their ages. Of the 274 teachers who responded, seven teachers (2.6%) were age 25 years or younger, 179 teachers (65.3%) were ages 26 to 35, 82 teachers (29.9%) were ages 36 to 45, and four teachers (1.5%) were ages 46 to 55. Only two teachers (0.7%) were age 56 or older. Figure 9 presents a graph reflecting the ages of participants.

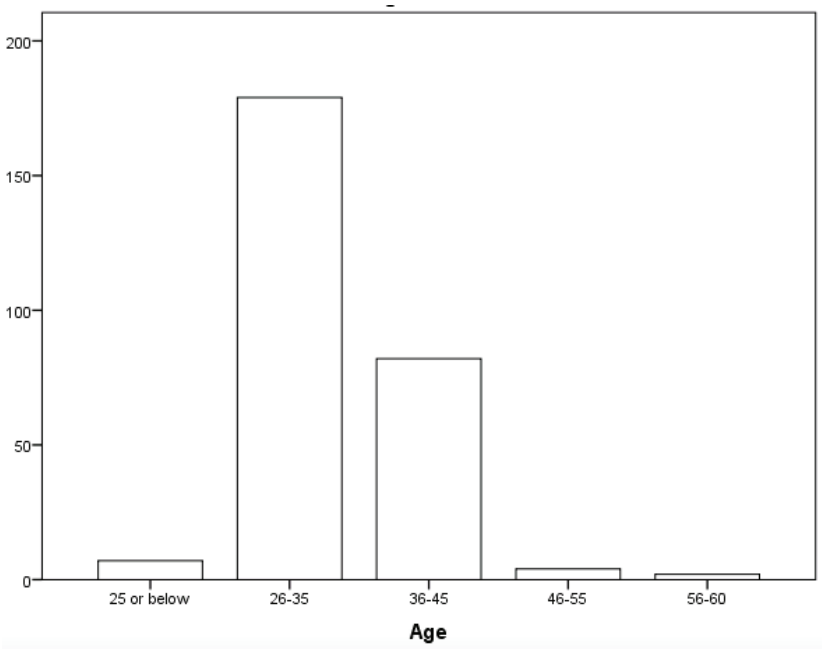

Figure 9. Age of participants.

Level of Education

The third demographic question asked participants their highest level of education attained. Of the 274 teachers who responded to the survey, 244 teachers (89.1%) had earned bachelor's degrees, and 30 teachers (11.0%) had earned master's degrees. No participants held doctoral or Ph.D. degrees in this study. Figure 10 presents a graph reflecting the level of education of participants.

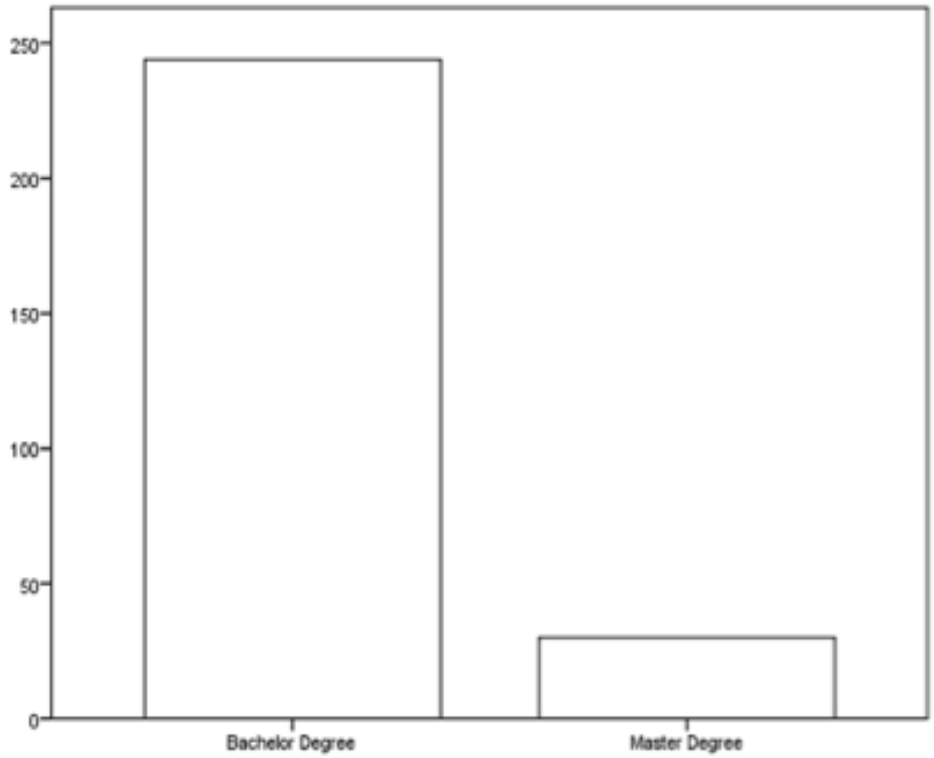

Figure 10. Level of education of participants.

Years of Experience

The fourth demographic question asked participants to provide years of experience in the teaching profession. Of the 274 teachers who responded to the survey, 44 teachers (16.1%) had two years of experience or less, 78 teachers (28.5%) had more than two years and up to five years of experience, 86 teachers (31.4%) had more than five years and up to 10 years of experience, 39 teachers (14.2%) had more than 10 years and up to 15 years of experience, and 16 teachers (5.8%) had more than 15 years and up to 20 years of experience. The remaining 11 teachers (4.0 %) had more than 20 years of experience. Figure 11 presents a graph reflecting the years of teaching experience of participants.

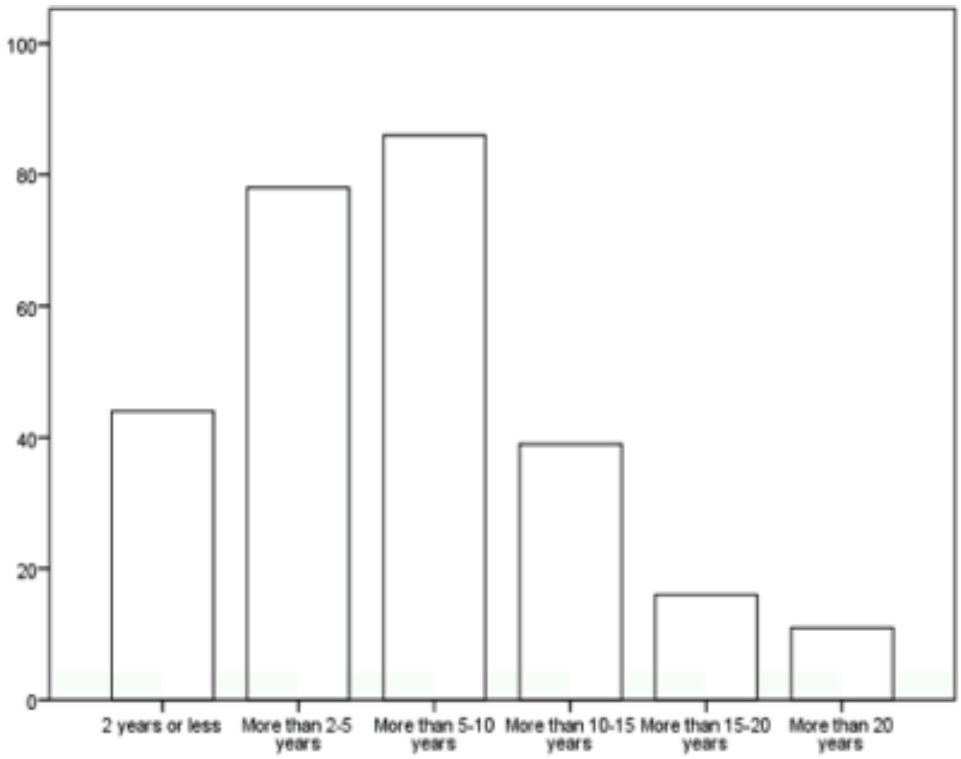

Figure 11. Years of experience of participants.

Distance of Commute

The fifth demographic question asked participants to provide information regarding the number of kilometers they commuted to and from work (one way). Out the 274 total participants, 107 teachers (39.1%) commuted 49 kilometers or less, and 167 teachers (60.9%) commuted 50 kilometers or more. Figure 12 presents a graph reflecting the distance of commute for participants.

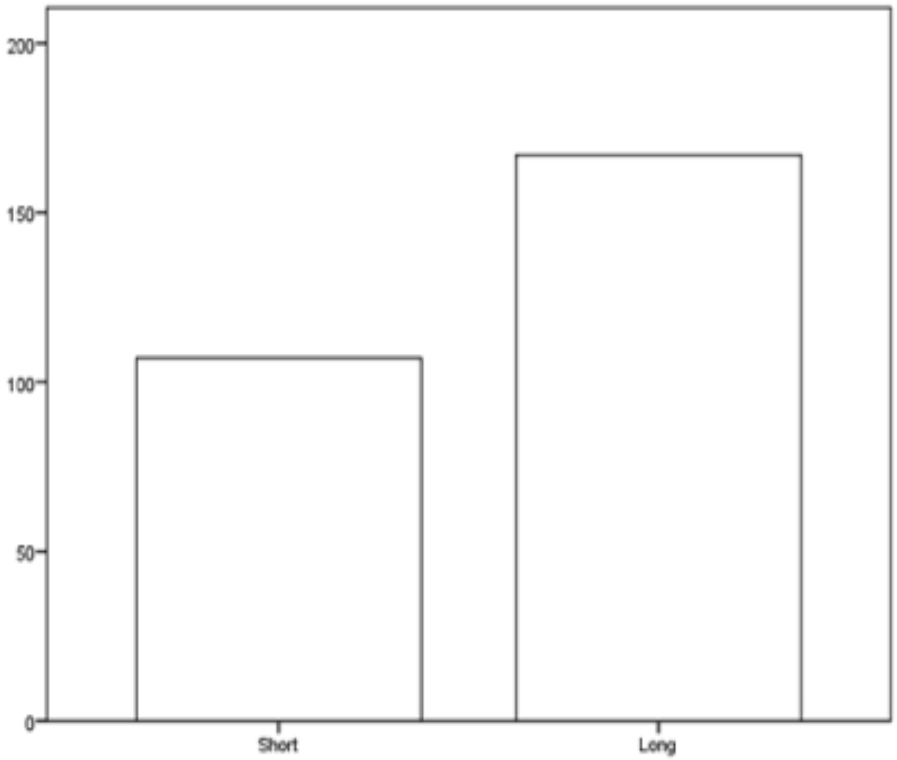

Figure 12. Distance of commute for participants.

Frequency of Commute

The sixth demographic question asked participants to provide information regarding the frequency of commuting to and from work (one way). Out the 274 total participants, 195 teachers commuted nightly, and 79 teachers commuted weekly. Nightly commuting teachers made up 71.2% of the pool, and weekly commuting teachers made up 28.8% of the pool. Figure 13 presents a graph reflecting the frequency of commute of participants.

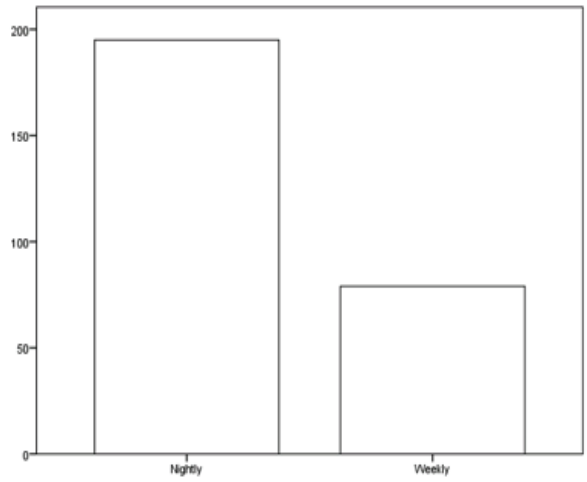

Figure 13. Frequency of commute of participants.

Descriptive Statistics

Long-distance commuting defined in this research is commuting 50 kilometers or more (one way) to and from work whether nightly or weekly. Short distance commuting is defined as commuting 49 kilometers or less to work. This study included four descriptive sub-questions: What are the levels of education in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? What are the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? What are the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? What is the rate of nightly and weekly commuting for teachers? Moreover, descriptive statistics for the whole sample were measured.

Levels of Education Often Influenced by Long-Distance Commuting

To measure this descriptive question, participants were asked two questions. The first question pertained to their levels of education and asked them to select one of the three options: bachelor's degree, master's degree, or doctorate degree. Another question asked participants to provide the number of kilometers they commuted to and from work (one way). According to the responses, teachers who held bachelor's degrees made up the majority of the participants of this

study. Of the 274 teachers who responded to the survey, 244 teachers (89.1%) had earned bachelor's degrees. Nevertheless, most of them (n = 152) commuted to their work with an average distance of 300.8 kilometers.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Level of Education According to Commuting Distance

Level of Education	Short Distance Commute (<50 kilometers) *n* (%)	Long Distance Commute (>50 kilometers) *n* (%)
Bachelor's degree	92 (86.0%)	152 (91.0%)
Master's degree	15 (14.0%)	15 (9.0%)
Doctoral degree	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
M	15.74	303.20
SD	1.26	30.08

As noted in Table 4, 167 teachers (60.9%) of whole sample commuted 50 kilometers or more (one way) to and from work (M = 303.20, SD = 30.08). Of the 167 teachers, 152 teachers (91.0%) earned bachelor's degrees, 15 teachers (9.0%) held master's degrees, and no one held a doctoral degree.

For short-distance commuters, 107 teachers (39.1%) of whole sample commuted 49 kilometers or fewer to and from work (M = 15.74, SD = 1.26). Of the 107 teachers, 92 teachers (86.0%) attained bachelor's degrees, and 15 teachers (14.0%) held master's degrees. In this research no one held a doctoral degree.

Ages Often Influenced by Long-Distance Commute

To measure this descriptive question, participants were asked two questions. The first question was related to age, and participants were asked to choose one of the five options: 25 or

younger, 26 to 35, 36 to 45, 46 to 55, or 56 or older. The second question asked participants to provide the number of kilometers they commuted whether nightly or weekly to and from work (one way). According to the data, the majority of teachers who commuted 50 kilometers or more were from the age group 26 to 35 years old (n = 116), and commuted an average of 336.9 kilometers. Table 5 reflects these statistics.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Age of Participants According to Commute Distance

Age of Participants	Short Distance Commute (<50 kilometers) *n* (%)	Long Distance Commute (>50 kilometers) *n* (%)
25 or younger	00 (0.0%)	7 (4.2%)
26 to 35	63 (58.9%)	116 (69.5%)
36 to 45	39 (36.4%)	43 (25.7%)
46 to 55	4 (3.7%)	0 (0.0%)
56 or older	1 (0.9%)	1 (0.6%)
M	15.74	303.20
SD	1.26	30.08

As noted in Table 5, 167 teachers (60.9%) of whole sample commuted 50 kilometers or more (M = 303.20, SD = 30.08). Of the 167 participants, 116 teachers (69.5%) were in the 26 to 35 year old group, 43 teachers (25.7%) were in the 36 to 45 year old group, seven teachers (4.2) were in the 25 or younger group, and only one teacher (0.6%) was in the 56 or older group. In this study no teachers within the 46 to 55 year old group commuted long distance.

On the other hand, 107 teachers (39.1%) of the whole sample commuted 49 kilometers or less (one way) to and from work (M = 15.74 kilometers, SD = 1.26). Of the 107, 63 teachers (58.9%) were in 26 to 35 year old group, 39 teachers (36.4%) were in 36 to 45 year old group, four teachers (3.7%) were in 46 to 55 year old group, and only one teacher (0.9%) was in the 56 or older group. No teacher within the 25 or younger group commuted short distance.

Years of Experience Often Influenced by Long-Distance Commuting

To measure this descriptive question, participants were asked two questions. One of the questions related to years of experience and asked participants to choose one of the six options: 2 years or less, more than 2 to 5 years, more than 5 to 10 years, more than 10 to 15 years, more than 15 to 20 years, or more than 20 years. The other question asked participants to provide the number of kilometers commuted whether nightly or weekly to and from work (one way). According to the responses, the majority of teachers who commuted 50 kilometers or more were from the 2 to 5 years experience group (n = 60), and commuted an average of 257.7 kilometers. Table 6 reflects the more specific descriptive statistics for participants' years of experience.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Years of Experience

Years of Experience	Short Distance Commute (<50 kilometers) *n* (%)	Long Distance Commute (>50 kilometers) *n* (%)
2 years or less	5 (4.7%)	39 (23.4%)
2 to 5 years	18 (16.8%)	60 (35.9%)
5 to 10 years	46 (43.0%)	40 (24.0%)
10 to 15 years	21 (19.6%)	18 (10.0%)
15 to 20 years	9 (8.4%)	7 (4.2%)
More than 20 years	8 (7.5%)	3 (1.8%)
M	15.74	303.20
SD	1.26	30.08

As noted in Table 6 above, 167 teachers (60.9%) of whole sample commuted 50 kilometers or more (one way) to and from work (M = 303.20 kilometers, SD = 30.08). Of the 167, 60 (35.9%) teachers were in the 3 to 5 years experience group, 40 teachers (24.0%) were in the 6 to 10 years experience group, 39 teachers (23.4%) were in the two years or less experience group, 18 teachers (10%) were in 11 to 15 years experience group, and seven teachers (4.2%) were in the 16 to 20 years experience group. Only three teachers (1.8%) had more than 20 years experience.

On the other hand, 107 (39.1%) teachers of whole sample commuted 49 kilometers or less (one way) to and from work (M = 15.74 kilometers, SD = 1.26). Of the 107, 46 (43.0%) teachers were in the 6 to 10 years experience group, 21 (19.6%) teachers were in the 11 to 15 years experience group, 18 (16.8%) teachers were in the 3 to 5 years experience group, nine

(8.4%) teachers were in the 16 to 20 years experience group, and eight (7.5%) teachers had more than 20 years of experience. Only five teachers (4.7%) had fewer than two years of experience.

Rate of Nightly and Weekly Commute for Teachers

To measure this descriptive question, participants were asked two questions. One of the questions related to their frequency of commute and asked teachers to choose one of the two options: nightly or weekly. The other question asked participant to provide the number of kilometers they commuted, whether nightly or weekly to and from work (one way). According to the responses, 195 teachers commuted an average of 90.79 kilometers nightly to their schools; 79 teachers commuted an average of 438.155 kilometers per week to their work. Table 7 presents additional statistics for frequency of commute for participants.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Frequency of Commute

Distance	Nightly *n* (%)	Weekly *n* (%)
Short distance (<50 kilometers)	100 (51.28%)	7 (8.86%)
Longer distance (>50 kilometers)	95 (48.72%)	72 (91.14%)
M	90.79	438.15
SD	120.459	517.652
Total	195 (71.17%)	79 (28.83%)

As noted in Table 7, teachers who commuted nightly scored an average of 90.8 kilometers, *SD* = 120.5, and teachers who commuted weekly scored an average of 438.2 kilometers, *SD* = 517.7. According to the responses about the number of kilometers, 195

(71.2%) teachers of whole sample commuted nightly, 100 (51.3%) teachers commuted short distance, and 95 (48.7%) teachers commuted long distances.

On the other hand, 79 (28.8%) teachers of whole sample commuted weekly. A total of 72 teachers commuted long distance, and seven teachers commuted short distance. Long distance commuters made up 91.2% of the weekly commute, and short distance commuters made up 8.9% of the weekly commute.

Descriptive Statistics for Part Two of the Survey

Descriptive statistics were measured in the sections of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance on a 5-point Likert scale. A score of 5 represented the highest magnitude of response, and a score of 1 signified the lowest magnitude. The evaluations for the survey were 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3= *neither disagree nor agree*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. A comparison of survey response means illustrates the scoring by survey on the whole sample, gender, age, level of education, years of experience, and frequency of commute through satisfaction, attendance, and performance.

Gender Through Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

A comparison of survey response means shown in Table 8 illustrates the scoring on the whole sample of both male and female teachers. Male teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than female teachers. However, female teachers scored higher than male teachers on attendance and performance.

Table 8

Average Scores by Gender

	Whole Sample						
Area	*N*	*M*	*SD*	Gender	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Job satisfaction	274	3.62	.76	Male	154	3.64	.74
				Female	120	3.58	.79
Attendance	274	3.98	.59	Male	154	3.94	.60
				Female	120	4.04	.58
Performance	274	3.83	.63	Male	154	3.76	.67
				Female	120	3.91	.55

As can be gleaned from Table 8, the female teachers' attendance had the largest mean (M = 4.04). The female teachers' job satisfaction had the lowest mean and highest standard deviation (M = 3.58, S = .79). Male teachers (M = 3.76) and female teachers (M = 3.91) were comparable in their performance means.

Age Through Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

Mean scores are compared in Table 9 based on age. Teachers in the 46 to 55 years age group were more satisfied with their jobs and had better attendance and better performance than other groups. However, teachers in the 56 to 60 years age group scored lower on level of satisfaction and job performance, and teachers in the 25 to 35 years old group had lower attendance.

Table 9

Average Scores for Age by Variables

Area	Whole Sample *N*	*M*	*SD*	Age	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Job satisfaction	274	3.62	.76	25 years or younger	7	3.10	.92
				26 to 35 years	179	3.84	.76
				36 to 45 years	82	3.92	.62
				46 to 55 years	4	4.46	.61
				56 to 60 years	2	3.07	.51
Attendance	274	3.98	.59	25 years or younger	7	3.98	.68
				26 to 35 years	179	3.93	.59
				36 to 45 years	82	4.05	.59
				46 to 55 years	4	4.71	.48
				56 to 60 years	2	4.00	.20
Performance	274	3.83	.63	25 years or below	7	4.00	.65
				25-35 years	179	3.76	.62
				35-45 years	82	3.94	.60
				46-55 years	4	4.46	.79
				56-60 years	2	3.07	.10

On job satisfaction, teachers who were in the 25 year old or younger group ($M = 3.10$) and teachers in the 56 to 60 year old group ($M = 3.07$) were less satisfied than the whole sample average score ($M = 3.62$). On the other hand, teachers who were in the 45 to 55 year old group ($M = 4.46$), teachers in the 36 to 45 year old group ($M = 3.92$), and teachers in the 26 to 35 year old group ($M = 3.84$) scored higher than the whole sample average score. As shown in Table 9, job satisfaction for teachers was less for the younger group who were 25 years old or younger, and then job satisfaction began to increase after they passed 26 years old. After they reached the age of 56, their job satisfaction began to decrease again as their age increased.

On attendance, teachers who were in the 25 years old or younger group ($M = 3.98$) had the same average score for the whole sample ($M = 3.98$). Teachers within the 26 to 35 year old

group ($M = 3.93$) scored less than the whole sample average score. Moreover, teachers in the 46 to 55 year old group ($M = 4.71$), teachers in the 36 to 45 year old group ($M = 4.05$) and teachers in the 56 to 60 year old group ($M = 4.00$) scored higher than the whole sample average score. As shown in Table 9, attendance for teachers was moderate for the younger group who were 25 years old or younger and then started to decrease after they passed 26 years old. After they reached 36, their attendance began to increase again as their age increased.

On performance, teachers who were in the 46 to 55 year old group ($M = 4.46$), teachers who were in the 25 year old or younger group ($M = 4.00$), and teachers who were in the 36 to 45 year old group ($M = 3.94$) scored higher than the average score for the whole sample ($M = 3.83$). Teachers in the 26 to 35 year old group ($M = 3.76$) and teachers in the 56 to 60 year old group ($M = 3.07$) scored lower than the whole sample average score. A conclusion would be that performance for teachers was high for the younger group who were 25 years old or younger and then started to decrease after they passed 26 years old. After they reached 36 years of age, their performance began to increase again as their age increased, but after they reached 56 years old, their performance begin to decrease.

Level of Education Through Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

Mean scores were compared based on the level of education. Teachers who held bachelor's degrees were more satisfied with their jobs, attendance, and performance than teachers who held master's degrees. In Table 10, the average scores for level of education are presented.

Table 10

Average Scores for Level of Education for Job Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

	Whole Sample						
Area	*N*	*M*	*SD*	Level of Education	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Job satisfaction	274	3.62	.76	Bachelor's degrees	244	3.64	.76
				Master's degrees	30	3.40	.73
				Doctoral degrees	0	0.00	.00
Attendance	274	3.98	.59	Bachelor's degrees	244	4.01	.60
				Master's degrees	30	3.74	.47
				Doctoral degrees	0	0	.00
Performance	274	3.83	.63	Bachelor's degrees	244	3.84	.63
				Master's degrees	30	3.73	.56
				Doctoral degrees	0	0	.00

On job satisfaction, teachers who held bachelor's degrees ($M = 3.64$) scored slightly higher than the whole sample average score ($M = 3.62$). Teachers who held master's degrees ($M = 3.40$) scored lower than the whole sample average score. On attendance, the whole sample average score was 3.98. Teachers who held bachelor's degrees ($M = 4.01$) scored higher than the whole sample average score. Teachers who held master's degrees ($M = 3.74$) scored lower than the whole sample average score. On performance, teachers who held master's degrees ($M = 3.73$) scored lower than the whole sample average score ($M = 3.83$). Teachers who held bachelor's degrees ($M = 3.84$) scored slightly higher than the whole sample average score.

Years of Experience Through Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

Mean scores were compared in Table 11 based on the years of experience. Teachers in the 11 to 15 years' experience group were more satisfied with their jobs than other groups; the group denoting two years experience or less were less satisfied with their jobs. Teachers in the more than 20 years' experience group had higher attendance rates than other groups of teachers

in the 11 to 15 years' experience group, and teachers in the more than 20 years' experience group were higher performing than other groups. Teachers in the 3 to 5 years' experience group had lower attendance and lower performance rates.

Table 11

Average Scores for Years of Experience for Job Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

	Whole Sample						
Area	*N*	*M*	*SD*	Years of Experience	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Job Satisfaction	274	3.62	.77	2 years or less	44	3.12	.75
				3 to 5 years	78	3.44	.78
				6 to 10 years	86	3.67	.61
				11 to 15 years	39	4.16	.62
				16 to 20 years	16	3.96	.63
				More than 20 years	11	4.01	.72
Attendance	274	3.98	.59	2 years or less	44	3.93	.70
				3-5 years	78	3.92	.55
				6-10 years	86	3.98	.55
				11-15 years	39	4.10	.62
				16-20 years	16	4.00	.61
				More than 20 years	11	4.23	.55
Performance	274	3.83	.63	2 years or less	44	3.63	.64
				3-5 years	78	3.85	.63
				6-10 years	86	3.83	.55
				11-15 years	39	3.95	.71
				16-20 years	16	3.90	.71
				More than 20 years	11	3.95	.65

On job satisfaction, teachers in the 3 to 5 years' experience group ($M = 3.44$) and teachers in the two years' experience or less group ($M = 3.12$) scored lower than the average score for the whole sample ($M = 3.62$). However, teachers in the 11 to 15 years' experience group ($M = 4.16$), teachers in the more than 20 years' experience group ($M = 4.01$), and teachers in the 16 to 20 years' experience group ($M = 3.96$) scored higher than the average score for the whole sample.

On attendance, teachers in the 6 to 10 years' experience group ($M = 3.98$) had the same average score of the whole sample ($M = 3.98$). Teachers in the two years' experience or less group ($M = 3.93$) and teachers in the 3 to 5 years' experience group ($M = 3.92$) scored lower than the average score for the whole sample. However, teachers in the more than 20 years' experience group ($M = 4.23$), teachers in the 11 to 15 years' experience group ($M = 4.10$), and teachers in the 16 to 20 years' experience group ($M = 4.00$) scored higher than the average score for the whole sample.

On performance, teachers in the 6 to 10 years' experience group ($M = 3.83$) had the same average score of the whole sample ($M = 3.83$). Teachers in the two years' experience or less group ($M = 3.63$) scored lower than the average score for the whole sample. Teachers in the 11 to 15 years' experience group ($M = 3.95$), teachers in the more than 20 years' experience group ($M = 3.95$), teachers in the 16 to 20 years' experience group ($M = 3.90$), and teachers in the 3 to 5 years' experience group ($M = 3.85$) scored higher than the average score for the whole sample.

Distance of Commute by Job Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

Mean scores were compared based on the frequency and distance of commuting. Teachers who commuted nightly had higher job satisfaction, attendance, and performance than teachers who commuted weekly. In Table 12, the average scores for frequency and distance of commuting by job satisfaction, attendance, and performance are presented.

Table 12

Average Scores for Distance of Commute by Job Satisfaction, Attendance, and Performance

Area	Whole Sample *N*	*M*	*SD*	Frequency of Commute	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Job satisfaction	274	3.62	.76	Nightly	195	3.77	.73
				Weekly	79	3.24	.69
Attendance	274	3.98	.59	Nightly	195	4.02	.58
				Weekly	79	3.90	.61
Performance	274	3.83	.63	Nightly	195	3.88	.61
				Weekly	79	3.68	.64

On job satisfaction, teachers who commuted nightly ($M = 3.77$) scored higher than the whole sample average score ($M = 3.62$). Teachers who commuted weekly ($M = 3.24$) scored lower than the whole sample average score. On attendance, the whole sample average score was 3.98. Teachers who commuted nightly ($M = 4.02$) scored higher than the whole sample average score. Teachers who commuted weekly ($M = 3.90$) scored lower than the whole sample average score. On performance, teachers who commuted nightly ($M = 3.88$) scored higher than the whole sample average score ($M = 3.83$). Teachers who commuted weekly ($M = 3.68$) scored lower than the whole sample average score.

Inferential Findings and Analyses

A series of three separate simple linear regression tests and one MANOVA inferential test were used in this study. The results are discussed in depth as they related to each null hypothesis and the designated research question. The results are explained in their entirety accompanied by corresponding tables and a final decision to retain or reject the null for each. Below are the null hypotheses that are designated to this research:

$H_0$1: Inferential Sub-Question 1. Long-distance commuting does not predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction.

$H_0$2: Inferential Sub-Question 2. Long-distance commuting does not predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance.

$H_0$3: Inferential Sub-Question 3. Long-distance commuting does not predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance.

$H_0$4: Inferential Sub-Question 4. There are not statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance based on long-distance commuting.

$H_0$5: Inferential Sub-Question 5. There are not statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (nightly and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

$H_0$6: Inferential Sub-Question 6. There is not a significant interaction effect between gender and frequency of commuting (nightly and weekly) on the teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

Null Hypothesis 1

The first null hypothesis of this study assessed whether the variable of long-distance commute could predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction. This null was examined using a simple linear regression analysis.

Assumptions. Assumptions for this study (linearity of residuals, independence of residuals, normal distribution of residuals, and equal variance of residuals) about the variable involved in the sample linear regression were tested to make sure the inferential findings were valid. The scatterplot matrices indicated a negative linear relationship between the dependent

variable and independent variable, thus the assumption of linearity was met. The assumption of independence of residuals was met. After looking at the plot of regression, the residual errors were random and no systematic patterns existed. Also, normality of residuals assumption was satisfied. In both the histogram of residuals and the normal probability plot at histogram, the data points fell along the diagonal line. Moreover, residuals across all values of independent variable had a constant scatter and did not fan out in a triangular fashion. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance of residuals was met.

Results. The statistical test in regression compares the fits of different linear model. It indicates whether a linear regression model provides a better fit to the data than a model that contains no independent variables. If the value of the marginal significance for the statistical test of overall significance test is less than the significance level, the null hypothesis is rejected and it would be concluded that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. For this study, the marginal significance value for statistical test of overall significance test was less than the significance level so the independent variable in this model improved the fit.

Results of the simple linear regression analysis indicated that the linear regression of long-distance commuting did predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction, $R^2 = .082$, $F(1, 266) = 23.74$, $p < .001$. Specifically, this model accounted for 8.2% of the variance in job satisfaction. The relatively small standard error of the estimate (.73) also indicated that the commuting distance score is able to predict level of job satisfaction. Table 13 demonstrates the critical statistics from simple linear regression testing according to Hypothesis 1.

Table 13

Regression Coefficients for Job Satisfaction

Variable	*b*	s_β	*Beta*	*t*	sig.
Constant	3.79	.057		66.047	.00
Commute distance	-.001	.00	-.286	-4.872	.00

Note. $R^2 = .082$, $p < .05$.

Commuting distance was a significant predictor of job satisfaction, $t(266) = -4.87$, $p < .05$. The regression coefficient for the commute distance score ($b = -.001$) indicated that a one-unit increase in this variable is predicted to decrease job satisfaction by -.001. For inferential Sub-question 1, the null hypothesis was rejected. Results indicated that the linear regression of long-distance commuting did predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 2

The second null hypothesis of this study assessed whether the variable of long-distance commuting could predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance. This null was examined using a simple linear regression analysis.

Assumptions. Assumptions for this study (linearity of residuals, independence of residuals, normal distribution of residuals, and equal variance of residuals) for the variable involved in the sample linear regression were tested to make sure the inferential findings were valid.

The scatterplot matrices indicated a negative linear relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable, thus, the assumption of linearity was met. The assumption of independence of residuals was met. After looking at the plot of regression, the residual errors

were random and no systematic patterns existed. Also, normality of residuals assumption was satisfied. In both the histogram of residuals and the normal probability plot at histogram, the data points fell along the diagonal line. Moreover, residuals across all values of independent variable had a constant scatter and did not fan out in a triangular fashion. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance of residuals was met.

Results. The statistical test in regression compares the fits of different linear model. It indicates whether a linear regression model provides a better fit to the data than a model that contains no independent variables. If the value of the marginal significance for the statistical test of overall significance test is less than the significance level, the null hypothesis is rejected and it would be concluded that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. For this study, the marginal significance value for statistical test of overall significance test was less than the significance level so the independent variable in this model improved the fit.

Result of the simple linear regression analysis indicated that the linear regression of long-distance commuting did predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance, $R^2 = .029$, $F(1, 266) = 7.91$, $p = .005$. Specifically, this model accounted for 2.9% of the variance in attendance. The relatively small standard error of the estimate (.58) also indicated that the commuting distance score is able to predict attendance. Table 14 shows the critical statistics from simple linear regression testing according to Hypothesis 2.

Table 14

Regression Coefficients for Attendance

Variable	*b*	s_β	*Beta*	*t*	sig.
Constant	4.06	.046		88.632	.00
Commute distance	-.001	.00	-.17	-2.813	.005

Note. $R^2 = .029$, $p < .05$.

Commuting distance was a significant predictor of attendance, $t(266) = -2.81$, $p < .05$. The regression coefficient for long-distance commuting score ($b = -.001$) indicated that a one-unit increase in this variable is predicted to decrease attendance by -.001. For Inferential Sub-question 2, the null hypothesis was rejected. Results indicated that the linear regression of long-distance commuting did predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance.

Null Hypothesis 3

The third null hypothesis of this study assessed whether the variable of long-distance commuting can predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance. This null was examined using a simple linear regression analysis.

Assumptions. Assumptions for this study (linearity of residuals, independence of residuals, normal distribution of residuals, and equal variance of residuals) for the variable involved in the sample linear regression were tested to make sure the inferential findings were valid.

The scatterplot matrices indicated a negative linear relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable, thus the assumption of linearity was met. The assumption of independence of residuals was met. After looking at the plot of regression, the residual errors were random and no systematic patterns existed. Also, normality of residuals assumption was

satisfied. In both the histogram of residuals and the normal probability plot at histogram, the data points fell along the diagonal line. Moreover, residuals across all values of independent variable had a constant scatter and did not fan out in a triangular fashion. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance of residuals was met.

Results. The statistical test in regression compares the fits of different linear model. It indicates whether a linear regression model provides a better fit to the data than a model that contains no independent variables. If the value of the marginal significance for the statistical test of overall significance test is less than the significance level, the null hypothesis is rejected and it would be concluded that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. For this study, the marginal significance value for statistical test of overall significance test was less than the significance level so the independent variable in this model improved the fit.

Result of the simple linear regression analysis indicated that the linear regression of long-distance commuting did predict a significant proportion of the variance in performance, $R^2 = .046$, $F(1, 266) = 7.91$, $p < .001$. Specifically, this model accounted for 4.6% of the variance in performance. The relatively small standard error of the estimate (.61) also indicated that the commuting distance score is able to predict job performance. Table 15 demonstrates the critical statistics from simple linear regression testing according to Hypothesis 3.

Table 15

Regression Coefficients for Performance

Variable	*b*	s_β	*Beta*	*t*	sig.
Constant	3.934	.048		81.543	.00
Commute distance	-.001	.00	-.216	-3.601	.005

Note. $R^2 = .046$, $p < .05$.

Commuting distance is a significant predictor of performance, $t(266) = -3.60$, $p < .05$. The regression coefficient for long-distance commuting score ($b = -.001$) indicated that a one-unit increase in this variable is predicted to decrease performance by -.001. For Inferential Sub-question 3, the null hypothesis was rejected. Results indicated that the linear regression of long-distance commuting did predict a significant proportion of the variance in performance.

Null Hypothesis 4

Null Hypothesis 4 looked to see if there were statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance based on long-distance commuting. MANOVA is a type of multivariate analysis used to analyze data that involves more than one dependent variable at a time and allows testing hypotheses regarding the effect of one or more independent variables on two or more dependent variables. One-way MANOVA was used in this null to compare three continuous response variables (job satisfaction, attendance, and performance) by a single factor variable (gender).

Assumptions. The assumptions within a MANOVA were tested to make sure the inferential findings were valid. The multivariate outliers were not present as evident by not having a Mahalanobis distance that exceeded the chi-square critical value of 16.27. All Mahalanobis distances within this null hypothesis were below this critical value. The scatterplot

matrices indicated a linear relationship for each group of the dependent variables; thus, the assumption of linearity was met. The histograms and quantile-quantile plots indicated normality for each group of the dependent variables; thus, the assumption of normality was met. The dependent variables within this null hypothesis demonstrated appropriate levels of correlation but were not too heavily correlated to indicate an issue with multicollinearity. This meant that the error variance of the dependent variable was equal across groups. The assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated according to the Box test of equality of covariance matrices, $F = 1.62$, $p = .046$. This meant that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups.

Results. The means of the independent variables scores were examined to determine whether there was a statistically significant mean difference between job satisfaction, attendance, and performance based on gender. The MANOVA determined there was a significant difference present in the model through the use of the Wilks' Lambda trace test, $F(3, 262) = 3.154$, $p = .025$. The MANOVA test identified a significant difference was somewhere in the model but did not identify exactly where it was. In order to determine where the significant difference was occurring, separate univariate tests were completed.

With a significant MANOVA result, a one-way ANOVA test for each of the three areas of the independent variables was conducted to determine whether any of the groups were significantly different from one another based on gender. The results of these one-way ANOVA tests are shown in Table 16.

Table 16

Dependent Variables Based on Gender

Area	Gender	*M*	*SD*	*F*
Job satisfaction	Male	3.64	.73	
	Female	3.58	.78	
	Total	3.62	.76	.491
Attendance	Male	3.94	.59	
	Female	4.04	.58	
	Total	3.98	.59	2.083
Performance	Male	3.75	.67	
	Female	3.92	.54	
	Total	3.82	.62	4.550*

*$p < .05$.

As shown above, the area of dependent variables that demonstrated significant difference based on gender was performance. The two other areas of dependent variables did not demonstrate any significant differences based on gender. The overall null regarding significant differences on any of the three dependent variables based on gender has been rejected.

Null Hypothesis 5

Null Hypothesis 5 looked to see if there were statistically significant differences in terms of frequency of commuting with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance based on long-distance commuting. MANOVA is a type of multivariate analysis used to analyze data that involves more than one dependent variable at a time and allows testing hypotheses regarding the effect of one or more independent variables on two or more dependent variables. One-way MANOVA was used in this null to compare three continuous response variables (job satisfaction, attendance, and performance) by a single factor variable (frequency of commuting).

Assumptions. The assumptions within a MANOVA were tested to make sure the inferential findings were valid. The multivariate outliers were not present as evident by not having a Mahalanobis distance that exceeds the chi-square critical value of 16.27. All Mahalanobis distances within this null hypothesis were below this critical value. The scatterplot matrices indicated a linear relationship for each group of the dependent variables; thus, the assumption of linearity was met. The histograms and quantile-quantile plots indicated normality for each group of the dependent variables; thus, the assumption of normality was met. The dependent variables within this null hypothesis demonstrated appropriate levels of correlation but were not too heavily correlated to indicate an issue with multicollinearity. This meant that the error variance of the dependent variable was equal across groups. The assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated according to Box's test of equality of covariance matrices, $F = 1.62$, $p = .046$. This meant that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups.

Results. The means of the independent variables scores were examined to determine whether there was a statistically significant mean difference between job satisfaction, attendance, and performance based on frequency of commuting. The MANOVA determined there was a significant difference present in the model through the use of the Wilks' Lambda trace test, $F(3, 262) = 10.076$, $p < .001$. The MANOVA test identified a significant difference was somewhere in the model but did not identify exactly where it is. In order to determine where the significant difference was occurring, separate univariate tests were completed.

With a significant MANOVA result, a one-way ANOVA test for each of the three areas of the independent variables was conducted to determine whether any of the groups were significantly different from one another based on frequency of commuting. The results of these

one-way ANOVA tests are shown in Table 17.

Table 17

Dependent Variables Based on Frequency of Commuting

Area	Frequency of Commute	*M*	*SD*	*F*
Job satisfaction	Nightly	3.67	.73	
	Weekly	3.22	.69	
	Total	3.61	.75	29.82*
Attendance	Nightly	4.01	.57	
	Weekly	3.90	.61	
	Total	3.98	.59	1.91
Performance	Nightly	3.88	.61	
	Weekly	3.68	.64	
	Total	3.82	.62	5.70*

*$p < .05$.

As shown above, the areas of dependent variables that demonstrated significant differences based on frequency of commuting were job satisfaction and performance. The other area of dependent variable, attendance, did not demonstrate any significant difference based on frequency of commuting. The overall null hypothesis regarding significant differences on any of the three dependent variables based on frequency of commuting was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 6

Null Hypothesis 6 looked to see if there was a significant interaction effect between gender and frequency of commuting on the levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. MANOVA is a type of multivariate analysis used to analyze data that involves more than one dependent variable at a time and allows testing hypotheses regarding the effect of one or more independent variables on two or more dependent variables. Two-way MANOVA

was used in this null to compare three continuous response variables (job satisfaction, attendance, and performance) by two factor variables (gender and frequency of commuting).

Assumptions. The assumptions within a MANOVA were tested to make sure the inferential findings were valid. The multivariate outliers were not present as evident by not having a Mahalanobis distance that exceeded the chi-square critical value of 16.27. All Mahalanobis distances within this null hypothesis were below this critical value. The scatterplot matrices indicated a linear relationship for each group of the dependent variables; thus, the assumption of linearity was met. The histograms and quantile-quantile plots indicated normality for each group of the dependent variables; thus, the assumption of normality was met. The dependent variables within this null hypothesis demonstrated appropriate levels of correlation but were not too heavily correlated to indicate an issue with multicollinearity. This meant that the error variance of the dependent variable was equal across groups. The assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated according to the Box test of equality of covariance matrices, $F = 1.62$, $p = .046$. This meant that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups.

Results. The means of the independent variables scores were examined to determine whether there was a significant interaction effect between gender and frequency of commuting on the levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and perform. The two-way MANOVA determined there was not a significant interaction effect through the use of the Wilks' Lambda test, $F(3, 262) = .432$, $p = .730$. Tests of simple main effects were not conducted because the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. It was concluded that there was not a significant interaction effect between gender and frequency of commuting.

Summary

The chapter contained four descriptive and six inferential sub-questions concerning the levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance of teachers, in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia, regarding the extent of effect of distance commuting to and from work. There were six null hypotheses that were tested. Data were collected using a survey instrument.

Descriptive statistics were generated and utilized to respond to questions relating to the levels of education in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting, the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting, the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting, and the rate of nightly and weekly commuting for teachers. Respondents indicated that 167 teachers (60.9%) of the whole sample commuted 50 miles or more (one way) to and from their schools. Of the 167 teachers, 152 teachers (91.0%) earned bachelor's degrees, 116 teachers (69%) who commuted 50 miles or more were in the 26 to 35 years old group, 60 teachers (35.9%) who commuted long distance were in the 3 to 5 years experience group, 95 teachers (56.9%) of whole sample who commuted long distance were commuting nightly to and from work, and 72 teachers (43.1%) commuted weekly.

This study analyzed six inferential sub-questions. Simple linear regression analyses were utilized to respond to the following research questions: (a) Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction of teachers? (b) Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance of teachers? and (c) Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance of teachers? These three inferential sub-questions rejected the null hypotheses as results indicated that the distance

of commute did predict a significant proportion of variance in job satisfaction, the distance of commute did predict a significant proportion of variance in attendance, and the distance of commute did predict a significant proportion of variance in performance.

One-way MANOVA was utilized to respond to the following research questions: Are there statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance? And, are there statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (nightly and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance? Two-way MANOVA was utilized to respond to the question, is there a significant interaction between gender and frequency of commuting on teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

Inferential Sub-questions 4 and 5 rejected the null hypotheses as results indicated that there are statistically significant differences between gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance, and there are statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (nightly and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. Inferential Sub-question 6 failed to reject the null hypothesis as result indicated that there was not a significant interaction effect through the use of the Wilks' Lambda test, $F(3, 262) = .432$, $p = .730$. Thus, tests of simple main effects were not conducted because the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. Chapter 5 of this study addresses discussion of findings, conclusion, implications, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The final chapter of this study provides a discussion of findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research. The first section addresses the purpose of the study, regarding the demographic factors that influence the level of satisfaction, attendance, and performance among high school teachers in Saudi Arabia. The second section provides discussion of findings regarding descriptive and inferential sub-questions included in this study. The third section provides a detailed analysis of the implications of the findings. The fourth section presents suggestions for others to expand future research in the area of this study. The final section provides the main points covered in the chapter.

The purpose of this research was to examine how the factor of long-distance commuting related to teacher quality and affects teachers' job satisfaction, attendance, and performance at high schools in Saudi Arabia. Analyses were conducted to investigate the relationship between the factor of long-distance commuting and teacher quality through job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance. An analysis was also conducted to examine the extent of weekly and nightly impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality.

The population of this study included approximately 768 teachers of public education who worked in the school settings, both male and female teachers, serving Grades 10 to 12 in Al-Quwayiyah City, Saudi Arabia. Participant responses were

collected via survey methodology with two parts. The first part collected demographic variables of the respondents, and the second part was designed to collect information relating to teachers' level of satisfaction, attendance, and performance. Statistical analyses of the data included descriptive statistics, simple linear regression, and a MANOVA. Descriptive sub-questions were:

- What are the levels of education in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
- What are the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
- What are the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting?
- What is the rate of nightly and weekly commuting for teachers?

Simple linear regressions and a MANOVA were conducted to analyze the following inferential sub-questions:

1. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction of teachers?
2. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance of teachers?
3. Does the long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job performance of teachers?
4. Are there statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?
5. Are there statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (nightly

and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

6. Is there a significant interaction between gender and frequency of commuting on teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance?

A total of 360 (46.9%) of the 768 teachers participated in the survey; of the 360 who took the survey, 274 (76.1%) complete responses were received and were analyzed for the descriptive sub-questions. A total of six (2.2%) of the complete responses were eliminated before inferential testing because they were identified as significant outliers. In total, 268 responses were functional for the inferential sub-questions.

Discussion of Findings

This current study included four descriptive sub-questions and six inferential sub-questions. The results of the study were presented in Chapter 4. Statistical testing of hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 was statistically significant. The following discussion examines the factor that may influence teacher quality in Saudi Schools.

Descriptive Sub-question 1

What are the levels of education in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? Of the 360 who took the survey, a total of 274 (76.1%) completed responses were analyzed for the descriptive sub-questions. Results indicated that teachers who held bachelor's degrees made up most participants of this study. Of the 244 (89.1%) teachers who had earned bachelor's degrees, 152 (62.3%) teachers commuted to their school an average of 300.8 kilometers one way, and 92 teachers (37.7%) commuted to their work with an average of 15.6 kilometers one way. On the other hand, of the 30 (11%) teachers who had earned master's degrees, 15 (50%) teachers commuted to their school an average of 327.5 kilometers one way,

and 15 (50%) teachers commuted to their school an average of 16.5 kilometers. In this research no one held a doctoral degree.

Descriptive Sub-question 2

What are the ages of teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? Results indicated that majority of teachers who commuted 50 kilometers or more one way were in the 26 to 35 years old group (n = 116). Of the 274 responses, 179 (65.3%) teachers were in the 26 to 35 years old group, 116 teachers commuted to their school an average of 336.9 kilometers, and 63 teachers commuted an average of 18.3 kilometers. A total of seven (2.6%) teachers were in the 25 or younger group and commuted to their school an average of 179.3 kilometers. Of the 82 (29.9%) teachers who were in the 36 to 45 years old group, 43 teachers commuted to their school an average of 238.5 kilometers, and 39 teachers commuted to their school an average of 11.4 kilometers. Only four teachers (1.5%) were in the 46 to 55 years old group and commuted an average of 14 kilometers. The age group of 56 to 60 years old included two teachers: one teacher commuted to work an average of 50 kilometers, and other one commuted an average of 30 kilometers.

Descriptive Sub-question 3

What are the years of experience in teachers most often influenced by long-distance commuting? Results indicated that majority of teachers who commuted 50 kilometers or more were from the 3 to 5 years' experience group (n = 60). Of the 274 responses, 78 (28.5%) teachers were in the 3 to 5 years' experience group, 60 teachers commuted to their schools an average of 257.7 kilometers, and 18 teachers commuted an average of 25.9 kilometers. A total of 44 (16.1%) teachers were in the two years' or less experience group, 39 teachers commuted to their schools an average of 416.7 kilometers, and five teachers commuted an average of 12.6

kilometers. Of the 86 (31.9%) teachers who were in the 6 to 10 years' experience group, 40 teachers commuted to their schools an average of 349.2 kilometers, and 46 teachers commuted to their schools an average of 15.3 kilometers. The group of 11 to 15 years' experience group included 39 (14.2%) teachers, 18 teachers commuted to school an average of 212.1 kilometers, and 21 teachers commuted an average of 11 kilometers. A total of 16 (5.8%) teachers were in the 16 to 20 years' experience group, seven teachers commuted to their schools an average of 127.6 kilometers, and nine teachers commuted to their schools with an average of 13.4 kilometers. Only 11 (4%) teachers were in the more than 20 years' experience group, three teachers commuted to their schools with an average of 80 kilometers, and eight teachers commuted to their schools an average of 12.5 kilometers.

Descriptive Sub-question 4

What is the rate of nightly and weekly commuting for teachers? Results indicated that majority of teachers included in this research commuted nightly to their schools (n = 195). Of the 195 (71.2%) teachers, 95 teachers commuted to their schools an average of 171 kilometers, and 100 teachers commuted to their schools an average of 14.6 kilometers. On the other hand, 79 (28.8%) teachers commuted weekly, 72 teachers commuted to their schools an average of 477.6 kilometers, and seven teachers commuted to their schools an average of 32.3 kilometers.

Inferential Sub-question 1

Does long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction of teachers? A linear regression analysis was conducted, and all assumptions were met. Of the 274 complete responses, 268 responses were functional for the inferential sub-questions. Results concluded that there was a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction between teachers concerning long-distance

commuting. Specifically, this model accounted for 8.2% of the variance in job satisfaction. According to the literature, Almeili (2006) stated that 81.5% of his sample study were dissatisfied because the school was distant from their residence.

Inferential Sub-question 2

Does long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in attendance of teachers? A linear regression analysis was conducted, and all assumptions were met. Results concluded that there was a significant proportion of the variance in attendance between teachers based on long-distance commuting. Specifically, this model accounted for 2.9% of the variance in attendance. According to the literature, in Bangladesh, India, and Indonesia, resident teachers had a lower absenteeism rate than those who commuted from outside the city (Chaudhury et al., 2006).

Inferential Sub-question 3

Does long-distance commuting predict a significant proportion of the variance in the job performance of teachers? A linear regression analysis was conducted, and all assumptions were met. Results concluded that there was a significant proportion of the variance in performance between teachers based on long-distance commuting. Specifically, this model accounted for 4.6% of the variance in performance.

Inferential Sub-question 4

Are there statistically significant differences in terms of gender with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance? A one-way MANOVA test was conducted, and all assumptions were met. Results indicated that there was a significant difference between male and female teachers in performance. The female teachers scored significantly higher than the male teachers in performance. The other two areas of dependent

variables, job satisfaction and attendance, did not demonstrate any significant differences.

Inferential Sub-question 5

Are there statistically significant differences across frequency of commuting (nightly and weekly) with respect to teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance? A one-way MANOVA test was conducted, and all assumptions were met. Results indicated there was a significant difference between teachers based on their frequency of commuting in terms of job satisfaction and performance. The nightly commuters scored significantly higher than weekly commuters in job satisfaction and performance. The other area of dependent variable, attendance, did not demonstrate any significant differences.

Inferential Sub-question 6

Is there a significant interaction between gender and frequency of commuting on teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance? A two-way MANOVA test was conducted, and all assumptions were met. Results indicated that there was not a significant interaction between teachers based on gender and frequency of commuting in job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. Tests of simple main effects were not conducted because the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. It was concluded that there was not a significant interaction effect between gender and frequency of commuting.

Conclusions

The product of high-quality teachers affects the growth of economy and industry to a greater extent (Khan, 2015). Therefore, investing in education will produce economic benefits (Bruns & Luque, 2014). The ability of teachers to stay in the teaching profession, teachers' motivation to perform well as teachers, and the attraction of individuals to the teaching profession are some of the factors that teacher quality depends upon (Harnani-Limarino, 2005).

The conclusions of this study include a need for increased consciousness of the effects of long-distance commuting on teachers that, in turn, affect teaching quality. This study also brought to light the importance of teachers' satisfaction, attendance, and performance that contribute to developing educational process. This study obtained statistical support through its findings on the consequences of teachers' long-distance commuting and the impact it has on teachers' levels of satisfaction, attendance, and performance. In particular, this research investigated whether long-distance commuting can predict a significant proportion of the variance in teachers' satisfaction, attendance, and performance. The study also investigated whether there are statistically significant differences between teachers based on gender and frequency of commuting in job satisfaction, attendance, and commuting.

The results of this study did predict a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction, attendance, and commuting based on long-distance commuting. The explanation of these findings may reveal that teachers with long-distance commuting are dissatisfied, have higher rates of absenteeism, and exhibit weaker performance. If these perceptions are true, the reduction of teachers' commuting should be a necessary requirement. Thus, the Ministry of Education must recognize that long-distance commuting by teachers, both male and female, results in lower levels of satisfaction, attendance, and commuting—and it may lead to diminished quality in education and student achievement, which is not in line with the vision of the kingdom of Saudi Arabia 2030.

The results also found statistically significant differences between teachers based on gender and frequency of commuting in the levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. In response to gender, female teachers scored significantly higher than male teachers in performance. The other two dependent variables, job satisfaction and attendance, did

not demonstrate any significant difference. In response to frequency of commuting, the dependent variables that demonstrated significant differences were job satisfaction and performance. In both areas, the nightly commuters scored significantly higher than weekly commuters. The explanation of these findings may reveal that male teachers have lower rates of performance, and weekly commuters have lower levels of satisfaction and performance, which results in weaker performance that in turn may affect student learning and progress. After allowing Saudi women to drive, the reality of education will be different. This historic decision indicates the capacity of women to participate in the building of a civilized nation. This decision also contributes to enhancing teachers' early attendance, satisfaction, and performance.

Implications

As research indicates, students whose teachers are weaker may receive 50% or less of the curriculum for that grade, but good teachers enable students to achieve an average gain of one year, and great teachers advance students' level of learning 1.5 grade levels or more (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010; Rockoff, 2004). Research over the past decade has built evidence that the quality of teachers is the critical factor for learning (Bruns & Luque, 2014). Consequently, it is imperative to investigate the implications of this study in order to gain a deeper understanding regarding steps that may be taken to reduce the negative impact of long-distance commuting for teachers. This study has findings that may help researchers in the Ministry of Education on determining teacher' issues to improve educational process.

Ministry of Education

Educational facilities seek to provide high quality educational services, taking into account the geographical extension of the Kingdom and the high rate of population growth (Rumi & Suwadani, 2013). According to Sharafuddin and Howard (1969), teaching is a

challenging profession. Some studies confirmed that teachers whose students achieved high academic standards were satisfied with their work, and their morale was high (Al Naji, 1993). Teacher quality in Saudi Arabia is the main pillar in educational reform (Aydarova, 2012). Thus, it is necessary to research and improve the level of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance.

This study indicates a significant proportion of the variance between teachers in levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance is based on long-distance commuting. Given that teachers are suffering as a result of long distance commuting to their schools that in turn may negatively impact the educational process, it is imperative to recognize the negative impact of long-distance commuting on teachers and to increase the awareness of the importance of education outputs. The product of high-quality teachers affects the growth of economy and industry to a greater extent (Khan, 2015).

The Ministry of Education should set up incentive points for teachers who suffer from long distance commuting to and from their schools through an increase in salary, double years of service, or a great opportunity to obtain a scientific degree or training course outside the KSA. The Ministry of Education should also consider the number of years that the teacher should work away from his or her residence because it will contribute to the realization of the importance of education, achievement, and impact on students before enrollment in this profession. It is recommended that the Ministry of Education take care of teachers who travel long distances by providing safe and convenient means of transportation, as well as providing suitable accommodation, especially in distant governorates and remote villages. Many teachers value social and psychological stability because it helps them take advantage of time and creativity at work. That in turn will contribute to increasing levels of job satisfaction and performance and decreasing rates of absenteeism.

School Leaders

Job satisfaction of teachers is considered, in particular, the engine of the educational process (Filimban, 2008). Parvin and Kabir (2011) mentioned that working conditions, such as the work place, could impact a person's level of job satisfaction. Almeili (2006) stated that teachers are dissatisfied because their school is distant from their residence. Results from this study support Almeili's argument by reporting a significant proportion of the variance between teachers in job satisfaction. According to Aissan et al. (2011), teacher attendance and outstanding performance are key factors that improve learning outcomes related to the requirements of a market economy, renewable needs, and development. Daily attendance of teachers is an indicator of schools' performance quality (Bradley et al., 2007). Al-Ahmadi et al. (2005) mentioned that teachers who commute long distance to their schools might provide lower performance than resident teachers, and the results of this study support this research.

Data gained from participants revealed a significant difference between teachers in performance based on gender. Male teachers had lower performance rates than woman teachers. Data also indicated a significant difference between teachers in job satisfaction and performance as a result of frequency of commuting. Nightly commuters had higher satisfaction and performance than weekly commuters. This revealed that both male school leaders and female school leaders are responsible for the suitable atmosphere for teachers to be creative. Some teachers are exhausted and tired when they come to school because of the difficulty of life or family circumstances, but the role of the school leader begins to create a suitable environment that makes the spirit of cooperation and creativity its approach and the achievement of a distinctive performance its goal. This is achieved by taking into account the psychological and social side of teachers and not assigning tasks more than their ability, especially to teachers who

come from a distant place. When a teacher is shown gratitude, praise, and good treatment, he or she will provide the best for school and students as well. It is recommended school leaders treat teachers well without distinguishing between them in order to excel in the educational process. This, in turn, will enhance teachers' level of satisfaction, attendance, and performance even if they commute long distances.

Future Research

There are several areas where further research is still needed. Based on the results of this research, the following are the recommendations for further research.

1. This study focused only on the high school teachers in Al-Quwayiyah City, Saudi Arabia. In order to recognize the negative impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality, an additional study should be under taken on teachers who serve in elementary and middle schools in Al-Quwayiyah.
2. This study might be replicated on elementary, middle, and high school teachers in other cities within the KSA. In doing so, the findings would help to know if differences exist between teachers in different cities. This will help future research to exclusively focus on cities where teachers are suffering from the same issue.
3. This study might be replicated with the use of qualitative methods to get in-depth information on the impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality. It would be avaluable study because it would allow the researcher to use interviews with all teachers in order to gather more in-depth information.

Summary

This study sought to identify whether long-distance commuting of teachers impacted teacher quality in Saudi Arabia. In summary, there were four descriptive sub-questions and six

inferential sub-questions addressed in this study. These questions were related to teachers' level of satisfaction, attendance, performance, and selected demographic aspects, such as gender, level of education, years of experience, commuting distance, and frequency of commuting. With respect to findings, this study did demonstrate inferential statistical significance in five of six inferential sub-questions. Based on the findings, linear regression analyses indicated that long-distance commuting predicted a significant proportion of variance between teachers in the levels of satisfaction, attendance, and performance. One-way MANOVA tests indicated that there was a significant difference between male and female teachers in performance, but job satisfaction and attendance did not demonstrate any significant differences. One-way MANOVA tests also indicated that there was a significant difference between teachers based on frequency of commuting in job satisfaction and performance, but attendance did not demonstrate any significant differences. However, two-way MANOVA tests indicated that there was not a significant interaction between teachers based on gender and frequency of commuting in job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. This study will assist the Ministry of Education in KSA to consider the impact of long-distance commuting on teacher quality; they can utilize these findings to improve Saudi education in general. This study will also help officials who set the rules and regulations to reduce the number of teachers who suffer through long distance commutes to and from schools.

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APPENDIX A: ENGLISH VERSION OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT RESPONDENTS' VERSION

Demographic Data

1. Sex:
   a) Male
   b) Female

2. Age:
   a) 25 or below
   b) 26-35
   c) 36-45
   d) 46-55
   e) 56 or over

3. Level of Education:
   a) Bachelor degree
   b) Master degree
   c) Doctorate degree

4. Years of Experience:
   a) 2 years or less
   b) More than 2-5 years
   c) More than 5-10 years
   d) More than 10-15 years
   e) More than 15-20 years
   f) More than 20 years

5. How many kilometers do you commute from your permanent home to your current school (One way)?
   _____Kilometers

6. How often do you return to your permanent home?
   a) Nightly
   b) Weekly

Job Satisfaction

7. I am satisfied in the current work in this school.

1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

8. I am satisfied with the teaching profession in general.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

9. I have a good relationship with most colleagues in the current school.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

10. I have a good relationship with the current school leader.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

11. My school always motivates me to perform duties to the fullest.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

12. I usually enjoy my work in this school.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

13. I regularly participate in activities organized by the school.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

Attendance

14. My attendance is dependent on the availability of safe and appropriate transportation.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

15. I regularly attend school before the beginning of business hours.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

16. I regularly attend all class sessions on time.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

17. I believe that a student's achievement is linked to a teacher's attendance.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

18. I regularly stay at school until the end of business hours.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

19. I regularly attend the first day of the work weekdays.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

20. I regularly attend the last day of the work weekdays.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

Job performance

21. I consider teaching as an opportunity to serve students.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

22. I regularly ensure the delivery of the quality information for students.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

23. I regularly provide guidance in my spare time to the students in their academic and non-academic affairs.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

24. I regularly use different techniques in teaching.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2****. DISAGREE* ***3****. NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4****. AGREE* ***5****. STRONGLY AGREE*

25. My achievements and performance in this school are compatible with my ambitions.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2****. DISAGREE* ***3****. NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4****. AGREE* ***5****. STRONGLY AGREE*

26. I regularly implement extra-curricular activities with students to promote vigor and vitality.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2****. DISAGREE* ***3****. NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4****. AGREE* ***5****. STRONGLY AGREE*

27. I always cover all topics of curriculum by the end of the semester.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2****. DISAGREE* ***3****. NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4****. AGREE* ***5****. STRONGLY AGREE*

APPENDIX B: ENGLISH VERSION OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT WITH CITATIONS

Demographic Data

1. Sex:
   a) Male
   b) Female

2. Age:
   a) 25 or below
   b) 26-35
   c) 36-45
   d) 46-55
   e) 56 or over

3. Level of Education:
   a) Bachelor degree
   b) Master degree
   c) Doctorate degree

4. Years of Experience:
   a) 2 years or less
   b) More than 2-5 years
   c) More than 5-10 years
   d) More than 10-15 years
   e) More than 15-20 years
   f) More than 20 years

5. How many kilometers do you commute from your permanent home to your current school (One way)?
   _____Kilometers

6. How often do you return to your permanent home?
   a) Nightly
   b) Weekly

Job Satisfaction

7. I am satisfied in the current work in this school.

1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*

(Abdulbaqi, 2003); (Al-Dulaimi, 2009); (Hoppock,1935).

8. I am satisfied with the teaching profession in general.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Abdulbaqi, 2003); (Filimban, 2008); (Lucas, Babakus & Ingram,1990); (Al-Dulaimi, 2009).

9. I have a good relationship with most colleagues in the current school.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Costello & Welch, 2014); (Smith, Wolf & Morrison,1995); (McClelland, 1985).

10. I have a good relationship with the current school leader.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Costello & Welch, 2014); (Abdulbaqi, 2001).

11. My school always motivates me to perform duties to the fullest.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Shann,1998); (Hackman,1975); (McClelland, 1985).

12. I usually enjoy my work in this school.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Abdulbaqi, 2001); (Dewidar, 1995); (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974).

13. I regularly participate in activities organized by the school.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Shann,1998); (Smith, Wolf & Morrison,1995).

Attendance

14. My attendance is dependent on the availability of safe and appropriate transportation.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Al-Hazza, 2014, December, 27).

15. I regularly attend school before the beginning of business hours.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Al-Ibrahim, 2002).

16. I regularly attend all class sessions on time.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Al-Ibrahim, 2002), (Obeng-Denteh, Yeboah, Sam, & Monkah, 2011).

17. I believe that a student's achievement is linked to a teacher's attendance.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Aissan, Kazim, Alani, Al-Nabhani, Al-Hinai, and Al-Skiti, 2011).

18. I regularly stay at school until the end of business hours.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Al-Ibrahim, 2002), (Bradlelya, Green, & Leevesd, 2007).

19. I regularly attend the first day of the work weekdays.
***1.** STRONGLY DISAGREE **2.** DISAGREE **3.** NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE **4.** AGREE **5.** STRONGLY AGREE*
(Al-Ibrahim, 2002), (Bradlelya, Green, & Leevesd, 2007), (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, & Brown, 1982).

20. I regularly attend the last day of the work weekdays.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(Al-Ibrahim, 2002), (Bradlelya, Green, & Leevesd, 2007), (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, & Brown, 1982).

Job performance

21. I consider teaching as an opportunity to service students.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(Al-Balawi, 2008); (Haynes,1990), (Al-Ahmadi, Al-Ratrout, Al-Oufi, Al-Sagheer, and Malkawi, 2005).

22. I regularly ensure the delivery of the quality information for students.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(Shaweesh, 2005); (The National Center for Assessment in Higher Education, 2015); (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997); (Al-Ahmadi, et al., 2005).

23. I regularly provide guidance in my spare time to the students in their academic and non-academic affairs.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(Haynes, 1990); (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997); (Al-Ahmadi, et al., 2005).

24. I regularly use different techniques in teaching.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(Shaweesh, 2005); (The National Center for Assessment in Higher Education, 2015); (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997).

25. My achievements and performance in this school are compatible with my ambitions.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(Haynes, 1990); (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997); (Al-Ahmadi, et al., 2005).

26. I regularly implement extra-curricular activities with students to promote vigor and vitality.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(Haynes, 1990); (Ministry of Knowledge, 1997); (Al-Ahmadi, et al., 2005).

27. I always cover all topics of curriculum by the end of the semester.
1. *STRONGLY DISAGREE* ***2.*** *DISAGREE* ***3.*** *NEITHER DISAGREE NOR AGREE* ***4.*** *AGREE* ***5.*** *STRONGLY AGREE*
(The National Center for Assessment in Higher Education, 2015); (Al-Ahmadi, et al., 2005).

APPENDIX C: ARABIC VERSION OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المعلومات الشخصيه

١. **الجنس:**
١) ذكر.
٢) أنثى.

٢. **العمر:**
١) ٢٥ سنه أو أقل.
٢) ٢٦ سنه إلى ٣٥ سنه.
٣) ٣٦ سنه إلى ٤٥ سنه.
٤) ٤٦ سنه إلى ٥٥ سنه.
٥) ٥٦ سنه أو أكثر.

٣. **الدرجه العلميه:**
١) درجة البكالوريوس.
٢) درجة الماجستير.
٣) درجة الدكتوراه.

٤. **عدد سنوات الخبره:**
١) سنتين أو أقل.
٢) أكثر من سنتين إلى ٥ سنوات.
٣) أكثر من ٥ سنوات إلى ١٠ سنوات.
٤) أكثر من ١٠ سنوات إلى ١٥ سنه.
٥) أكثر من ١٥ سنه إلى ٢٠ سنه.
٦) أكثر من ٢٠ سنه.

٥. **كم كيلو متر تقطع من سكنك الدائم الى مدرستك الحاليه (اتجاه واحد)؟**
_____ كيلومتر.

٦. **غالبا متى تعود الى مقر سكنك الدائم؟**
١) يوميا.
٢) أسبوعيا.

الرضا الوظيفي

٧. **انا راضٍ في العمل الحالي في هذه المدرسه.**
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٨. **انا راضٍ بمهنة التدريس بشكل عام.**

١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٩. امتلك علاقات جيده مع معظم الزملاء في المدرسه الحاليه.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٠. امتلك علاقه جيده مع قائد المدرسه الحاليه.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١١. مدرستي دائما تحفزني على اداء واجباتي على اكمل وجه.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٢. استمتع دائما بالعمل في هذه المدرسه.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٣. اشارك بانتظام في الانشطه التي تنظمها المدرسه.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

الحضور

١٤. حضوري الى المدرسه يعتمد على توفر وسيلة نقل امنه ومناسبه.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٥. دائما احضر الى المدرسه قبل بداية ساعات العمل.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٦. دائما احضر الحصص الدراسيه في الوقت المحدد.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٧. أؤمن أن إنجاز الطالب مرتبطٌ بحضور المعلم.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٨. دائما ابقى في المدرسة حتى نهاية ساعات العمل.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

١٩. دائما أحضر اليوم الأول من أيام العمل الأسبوعي.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٢٠. دائما أحضر اليوم الاخير من أيام العمل الأسبوعي.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

الاداء الوظيفي

٢١. اعتبر التدريس فرصةً لخدمة الطلاب.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٢٢. التأكد بانتظام من إيصال المعلومات الجيدة النوعية للطلاب.

١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٢٣. في أوقات الفراغ دائما ارشد الطلاب بالتوجيه في شؤونهم الأكاديمية وغير الأكاديمية.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٢٤. دائما أستخدم تقنيات مختلفة في التدريس.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٢٥. إنجازاتي وأدائي في هذه المدرسة متوافق مع طموحاتي.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٢٦. دائما أنفذ الأنشطة اللاصفية مع الطلاب بنشاط وحيوية.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

٢٧. دائما أكمل شرح كل مواضيع المقرر الدراسي عند نهاية الفصل الدراسي.
١. لا أوافق بشده. ٢. لا أوافق. ٣. لا اوافق ولا اخالف. ٤. أوافق. ٥. أوافق بشده.

APPENDIX D: INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN ENGLISH

Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral candidate at Indiana State University in the United States of America. I am conducting a study on the examination of aspects related to teacher quality in Saudi schools. The objective of this study is to evaluate and determine the relationship between the factor of long-distance commuting and teacher quality through teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and job performance.

At the end of this email, you will find a direct link to the survey. The first thing that you will see on the survey will be the Informed Consent language; that will provide you with additional information on the survey, at which time, you will still be able to "opt-out," if you do not like what you read. If you like what you read, you will be asked to click on "I agree to participate in the study". Then you will be able to answer demographic questions such as age, years of experience, etc. The survey will then ask you to respond to statements that describe your job by rating statements on a Likert scale from 1-5: 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neither disagree nor agree, 4. Agree, or 5. Strongly agree. I am asking you to click the link at the end of this e-mail to access, complete, and submit the survey.

Your responses to the survey will be confidential. Since the Internet is being used to collect and transfer data, complete confidentially cannot be guaranteed; however; we expect any risks, discomforts, or inconveniences to be minor, and we believe they are unlikely to occur.

I hope you will take 5 minutes to complete this survey. Your participation is strictly voluntary, and you will be able to stop at any time. There is no penalty for withdrawing by simply closing out of the survey without submitting your responses.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me at (832) 875-5858 or at aalthobaiti@hotmail.com. If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Indiana State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) by mail at Indiana State University, Office of Sponsored Programs, Terre Haute, IN 47809, by phone at (812) 237-8217, or by e-mail at irb@indstate.edu.

Please click on the below link of the survey if you wish to read the Informed Consent, in order to further consider participating in the survey.

https://indstate.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bygv9gylucbOTBj

Sincerely,

Abdullah Althobaiti

APPENDIX E: INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN ARABIC

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الأخ المعلم / الاخت المعلمه

السلام عليكم ورحمه الله و بركاته و بعد

أفيدكم بأنني طالب دكتوراه في الاداره التربويه في جامعه ولايه انديانا بالولايات المتحده الامريكيه وأقوم حاليا بعمل بحث عن دراسة الجوانب المتعلقه بجودة المعلم في المدارس السعوديه.

و حيث ان الاستبيان الذي بين يديك جزء مهم لإتمام هذا البحث الذي يعتبر جزء من متطلبات الحصول على درجه الدكتوراه، فإنني ارجو منكم التكرم ببعض وقتكم الثمين للإجابه على جميع الأسئله بدقه و تمعن و موضوعيه وفقا للتعليمات الموضحه في ثنايا الاستبيان، مع العلم ان معدل الوقت الذي تستغرقه الاجابه على جميع اسئله الاستبيان لا يتجاوز ٥ دقائق.

و ختاما أود أن اؤكد لكم ان جميع المعلومات سوف تستخدم لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط. شاكرا لكم حسن تعاونكم و طيب تجاوبكم مقدما، آملا ان تسهم هذه الرساله في الرفع من مستوى مدارس التعليم العام في المملكه العربيه السعوديه. و الله يحفظكم ويرعاكم.

الرجاء الضغط على الرابط ادناه اذا كنت ترغب في المشاركه.

https://indstate.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bygv9gylucbOTBj

اخوكم

عبدالله عيضه الثبيتي

APPENDIX F: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH IN ENGLISH

An Examination of Aspects Related to Teacher Quality in Saudi Schools

You are being invited to participate in a research study conducted by Abdullah Althobaiti, a doctoral student at Indiana State University in the Department of Educational Leadership, and Dr. Ryan Donlan, from the department of Educational Leadership at Indiana State University, who is the faculty sponsor for this project. The study is a doctoral dissertation titled an examination of aspects related to teacher quality in Saudi schools.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a high school teacher in Saudi Arabia. You should read the information below and ask questions about anything you do not understand before deciding whether or not to participate. If you choose to participate, you may choose to skip or not respond to any questions for any reason.

PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

The purpose of this research is to investigate how the factor of long-distance commuting related to teacher quality affects teachers' levels of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance at high schools in the Saudi Arabian Department of Education in Al-Quwayiyah.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete the survey on the following pages. You will be asked to verify that you are a high school teacher in Saudi Arabia, and then fill demographic questionnaire and statements of job satisfaction, attendance, and performance. You will be rating statements on a Likert scale from 1-5: 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neither disagree nor agree, 4. Agree, or 5. Strongly agree. The information gathered will remain confidential. No personal identifiers and/or names of schools teacher will be used in reporting results.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

A potential risk of this study is a breach of confidentiality since the Internet is being used to collect and transfer data. A possibility exists that you may feel uncomfortable answering some of the questions. We expect that any risks, discomforts, or inconveniences will be minor, and we believe that they are not likely to happen. You may choose not to answer any question that makes you uncomfortable, and you may stop at any time by simply closing out of the survey and not submitting your answers.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR SOCIETY

It is unlikely that you will benefit directly from participation in this study, but the research should help us gain information about teacher quality in Saudi schools and get helpful data that could be suggested to the Ministry of Education to improve teacher quality.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION
There are no costs to you for participating in the study, nor will you be compensated for your participation.

CONFIDENTIALITY
Any information obtained in connection with this study, and that can be identified with you, will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Your name will not be used in any of the information we collect from this study or in any of the research reports. Mr. Abdullah will use the information collected in his dissertation. We may also use any information that we get from this study in any way we believe is best for education or publication. Again, any information used for publication will not identify you individually.

All survey data will be removed from the survey site and transferred to an Excel file. Data will be maintained on a password-protected server for three years after the conclusion of the study.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL
Your participation in this study is voluntary. By clicking *I agree to participate in the survey*, you are voluntarily agreeing to participate. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without penalty by simply closing out of the survey without submitting your answers. Once you submit the survey, you cannot withdraw because there will be no way for me to identify which survey responses is yours. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason.

You will receive a second email two week after the first contact reminding you to participate. One week following the second period of data collection you will receive third reminder email. If you wish not to receive future contacts, please email the principal investigator.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact

Abdullah Althobaiti
E-mail: aalthobaiti@hotmail.com
+1 (832) 875-5858

Dr. Ryan Donlan
Faculty Sponsor
E-mail: ryan.donlan@indstate.edu
+1 (812) 237-2918

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS
If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject or if you feel you've been placed at risk, you may contact the Indiana State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) by

mail at Indiana State University, Office of Sponsored Programs, Terre Haute, IN, 47809, by phone at +1(812) 237-8217, or by e-mail at irb@indstate.edu.

APPENDIX G: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH IN ARABIC

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الأخ المعلم / الاخت المعلمه

السلام عليكم ورحمه الله و بركاته و بعد

أفيدكم بأتني طالب دكتوراه في الاداره التربويه في جامعه ولايه انديانا بالولايات المتحده الامريكيه و أقوم حاليا بعمل بحث عن دراسة الجوانب المتعلقه بجودة المعلم في المدارس السعوديه.

و حيث ان الاستبيان الذي بين يديك جزء مهم لاتمام هذا البحث الذي يعتبر جزء من متطلبات الحصول على درجه الدكتوراه، فإنني ارجو منكم التكرم ببعض وقتكم الثمين للإجابه على جميع الأسئله بدقه و تمعن و موضوعيه وفقا للتعليمات الموضحه في ثنايا الاستبيان، مع العلم ان معدل الوقت الذي تستغرقه الاجابه على جميع اسئله الاستبيان لا يتجاوز ٥ دقائق.

الخطوات:

الاستبانه التي سوف يتم استخدامها في هذه الدراسه تتكون من ٢٧ سؤال. ولك الخيار في حاله عدم الرغبه بإجابه أي سؤال تركه فارغا

الغرض من هذه الدراسه:

الغرض من هذه الدراسه هو معرفة مدى تآثير التنقل لمسافات بعيده على جوده المعلم من خلال الرضا الوظيفي والحضور والاداء.

السريه و التطوع في هذه المشاركه:

مشاركتك في هذه الدراسه سوف تكون مجهوله الهويه. لذلك لا تضع اسمك في اي مكان من الاستبانه واذا رغبت في عدم المشاركه في هذه الدراسه لا تقوم بتعبئه الاستبيان. وتعبئه الاستبيان دليل على موافقتك على المشاركه في هذه الدراسه.

الأسئله:

اذا كان عندك أي سؤال او مشكله تتعلق بالاجابه على هذه الاستبانه يمكنك الاتصال بـ:

عبدالله عيضه الثبيتي

باحث رئيسي

رقم الجوال/ ٨٣٢٨٧٥٥٨٥٨ في امريكا

الايميل/ aalthobaiti@hotmail.com

كما يمكنك الاتصال على المشرف الدراسي

الدكتور راين دانلن

رقم الجوال/ 8122372918 في امريكا

الايميل/ ryan.donlan@indstate.edu

وختاما أود أن اؤكد لكم ان جميع المعلومات سوف تستخدم لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط. شاكرا لكم حسن تعاونكم و طيب تجاوبكم مقدما، آملا ان تسهم هذه الرساله في الرفع من مستوى مدارس التعليم العام في المملكه العربيه السعوديه. و الله يحفظكم ويرعاكم.

تحياتي

عبدالله عيضه الثبيتي