ENGLISH TEACHERS' MOTIVATION-RELATED OUTCOMES IN KUWAITI
PUBLIC SCHOOLS: A MIXED METHODS STUDY

A Dissertation in
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by

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ABSTRACT

Given the “linguistically diverse population” of Kuwait (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017, p. 79), English has become a “lingua franca” (Crystal, 2003) which facilitates communication among other non-native speakers in everyday life. Kuwait’s Minister of Education (MOE) reports experiencing an English teacher shortage (Kuwait Times, 2019). Globally, teacher shortage has been an ongoing problem associated with low job satisfaction levels that lead teachers to quit (Green-Reese et al., 1991). Therefore, it is imperative to study the factors that impact English teachers’ motivation-related outcomes (job satisfaction and their motivation to quit).

An explanatory, sequential, mixed methods design was used to investigate the influence of competence beliefs (English language proficiency and teaching self-efficacy) and classroom goal structures (mastery and performance classroom approaches) on teacher motivation-related outcomes of 579 English teachers in Kuwait, a population largely overlooked in the literature. Phase I survey results revealed that classroom goal structures were the strongest predictor of teachers’ job satisfaction, and efficacy in student engagement was found to be significantly related to teachers’ job satisfaction. In Phase II, interviews were conducted with three highly-satisfied teachers about their experiences. Teachers in Kuwait revealed a list of mastery- and performance- related strategies, goals, and engagement methods they used which contributes to their high job satisfaction. This study presents a significant theoretical contribution to the literature and provides practical implications for professional development and teacher education programs.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

This chapter aims to provide background information regarding Kuwait’s educational, socio-cultural, and English language teaching (ELT) context. This chapter includes five sections: 1. Educational system of Kuwait, 2. Socio-cultural context of English in Kuwait, 3. Major government curricular and instructional innovations, 4. Professional development programs for teachers, and 5. Recruitment and retention of English teachers. The first section provides an overview of Kuwait’s history as it relates to the Ministry of Education (MOE) educational system, public school structure, higher education, and English teacher education programs. The second section describes the socio-cultural contexts which led to the emergence of English language teaching (ELT) in Kuwait. It includes a discussion of Kachru’s (1985) “World Englishes model,” and the status of English in Kuwait. The third section explains a historical turning point (i.e., Gulf War), and the MOE’s role in terms of English language reform. This is followed by the fourth section, which clarifies the current state of professional development (PD) in Kuwait. The fifth section states the challenges facing the recruitment and retention of English language teachers in Kuwait, the Middle East, and the world. Lastly, this chapter concludes with a problem statement and the significance of this study.

1.1. Educational System of Kuwait

Kuwait’s MOE was established in 1960. The 1962 constitution entitles every Kuwaiti citizen to a K-12 government-funded education and as required by law, it stipulates that all students must attend school until they graduate with a high school

According to the 1965 Law No. 1, “education is compulsory and free of charge for all Kuwaiti children, from the first grade of primary education (age 6) to the end of the intermediate or preparatory level” (UNESCO & IBE, 2011, p. 3). Kuwait’s MOE implements a centralized, national curriculum that applies to all K-12 public schools, also called government schools, in the country (UNESCO & IBE, 2008). They are also in charge of developing testing, examination structures, and teacher evaluative assessment methods for all subjects in every Kuwaiti school. In a similar sense, Kuwait’s MOE dictates in-service teacher education and professional development (PD) for in-service school teachers. School leaders are limited in their freedoms to do as they please in their respective schools. They are required to follow the MOE’s master plan.

1.1.1. Public School Structure

The structure of Kuwait’s public-school educational system includes three levels: Primary (grades 1-6), Intermediate (grades 6-9), and Secondary levels (grades 10-12) (UNESCO & IBE, 2011; Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017; Dashti, 2015). It is important to note, public schools in Kuwait are gender-segregated, where female teachers teach in girls-only schools and male teachers teach in boys-only schools. The only exception is that female teachers can teach in primary schools for boys due to a shortage of male teachers.

1.1.2. Higher Education and Teacher Preparation

Higher education in Kuwait is divided into public and private institutions. Prior to 2002, there was only one public university in Kuwait, Kuwait University (KU), which
was established in 1966 (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). This government-owned institution offered four-year degrees in a variety of majors in business, engineering, medicine, and education. In 1980, the College of Education at KU was founded and was the only university offering teacher preparation and education programs across the four levels (i.e., kindergarten, primary, intermediate, and secondary) in all subjects (e.g., Arabic, Math, Geography, and History) including the English language (UNESCO & IBE, 2011; Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). Moreover, in 2002, a government-owned vocational college, Public Authority for Applied Education and Training (PAAET), began offering an English language major for the primary school level (UNESCO & IBE, 2011; Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). Since then, nine private universities and colleges have opened in Kuwait (Barnawi, 2017). However, only one private university, Gulf University for Science and Technology (GUST), offers an English in Secondary Education major (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017; Barnawi, 2017). Ultimately, only three educational institutions prepare teachers for Kuwait’s public schools, and a certification is not required with education degrees from KU, PAAET, and GUST.

1.2. Socio-Cultural Context of English in Kuwait

1.2.1. Kachru’s World Englishes Model

In order to identify the status of English in Kuwait, it is imperative to address Kachru’s (1985) “World Englishes” model, which places countries in three different circles based on their uses of English. In other words, Kachru (1985) identified three types of English speakers and has organized them according to three concentric circles: Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle. First, the “inner circle” represents
countries where English is the first language and probably the main language, such as the United States of America, United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. These countries comprise what is commonly referred to as the native speakers of English. Second, countries in the “outer circle” utilize English as a second language or as an “institutionalized additional language” (Hengsadeekul et al., 2014, p. 35). These countries have had their individual varieties of English ingrained since British colonial rule (Canagarajah & Said, 2010), and they include countries such as Singapore, India, and the Philippines. Third, the “expanding circle” or also called “outermost circle” includes countries where English is taught as a foreign language (Hengsadeekul et al., 2014) such as China, Thailand, Korea, and Japan. Behind each country is a rich history that influenced the status of English and its usage.

Though Kachru’s (1985) “World Englishes” model is widely used, it is still the subject of many debates since it faces scrutiny due to his “oversimplification” of the model and its basing the three classification types on the “ownership of English” (Modiano, 1999; Bruthiaux, 2003; Mollin, 2006, as cited in Al-Mutairi, 2020, p. 86). Schaub (2000) found that few models or frameworks “can be used to map the spread of English and its particular situations within specific regions, such as Egypt or the Middle East” (p. 225). This is true in the Middle East or North Africa where countries like Lebanon, Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria were under French rule, while Egypt, for instance, was under the British occupation that lasted for 70 years from 1882 to 1956 (Bruthiaux, 2003). However, Gulf countries (e.g., Kuwait, Bahrain, or Qatar) were not British colonies in the past, yet they were still under the British protectorate for decades
(Bruthiaux, 2003). Considering the unique history of the Middle East, it may be difficult to distinguish the status of English in the Gulf region in particular.

1.2.2. Status of English in Kuwait

Based on Kachru’s (1985) three concentric circles model, Al-Mutairi (2020) and Mahboob (2013) claim that Kuwait falls in the Expanding Circle. Due to the period of the British protectorate which lasted from 1899 to 1961, Kuwait introduced the English language as a subject into the school curriculum in 1910 (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). As an Islamic state, Kuwait has strong ties to the Arabic language (Barnawi, 2017); for this reason, after 1961, Arabic was still the main language of instruction in public schools, while English remained a compulsory subject in the public-school curriculum up to now. Kuwait’s situation is different from other countries placed under the Expanding Circle (e.g., Japan or China), since these countries are mostly homogeneous societies where English is spoken only during English class in school. Further, Kuwait was not colonized by Britain to be included in the Outer Circle with India and Singapore, where English is almost like a first language. Kuwait’s context is almost similar to Thailand’s context (Hengsadeekul et al., 2014), where citizens tend to use their native language when speaking with family or friends, with the ability to switch to English when interacting with the large international population on a daily basis.

Currently, English remains a required subject in Kuwait’s MOE curriculum for a number of reasons, such as Kuwait’s international political position, globalization of the English language, and the present “linguistically diverse population” (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017, p. 79). The discovery of oil in the 1940s led to a rapid period of
economic growth in the country (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017; Dashti, 2015). Due to economic prosperity, foreigners and expatriates who come seeking job opportunities created a shift in the population demographic, turning Kuwait into a linguistically-diverse environment over the years.

As a small diverse country, Kuwait has a population of nearly four million with 32% Kuwaiti nationals and about 70% non-national expatriates who have come to Kuwait seeking employment opportunities (Central Statistics Bureau, 2015, 2016; Dempster, 2020, p. 377; Barnawi, 2017). Expatriates who comprise two thirds of the population come from various countries including Egypt, India, the Philippines, Pakistan, Syria, Jordan, and Lebanon (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017; Dempster, 2020; Barnawi, 2017). According to Bruthiaux (2003), in Kuwait, “English is evolving into a language of wider communication connecting a dominant local ethnic community to a vast multinational immigrant labor force” (p. 166), stressing the importance of English in Kuwait’s context.

Given the large presence of non-Kuwaiti nationals, the workforce in Kuwait, both the private and government sectors started valuing the English language, requesting that employees be proficient in English (Barnawi, 2017; Dashti, 2015). Barnawi (2017) states that in Kuwait “English is used as transparent medium for market exchanges” (p. 138). Though Arabic is the official language of Kuwait, English holds the “unofficial status of the second language” (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017, p. 79) and is taught in schools across all grade levels (i.e., grades 1-12) (Al-Mutairi, 2020). Dashti (2015) explains that in Kuwait, street signs, store fronts of most businesses, and restaurants are written in both
Arabic and English to address the growing international population. There are also newspapers (e.g., *Kuwait Times* and *Arab Times*) (Barnawi, 2017), radio programs (e.g., 99.7 FM), and local tv stations (e.g., KTV 2) that are in English only (Dashti, 2015). Thus, English has become a “lingua franca” or a global language (Crystal, 2003) which facilitates communication among other non-native speakers in Kuwait in both business and education.

Furthermore, English is not only essential to communicate with others in the community, but is also a vital aspect of Kuwait’s higher education. All higher education universities (i.e., private and public universities) in Kuwait follow an English-medium education system (Dashti, 2015). Universities require students to submit English proficiency scores (TOEFL IBT, or IELTS scores) prior to their admission; otherwise, students are required to attend a one-year intensive English Language Program prior to their four years of undergraduate education (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufï, 2017; Barnawi, 2017). Moreover, private universities in Kuwait are accredited and affiliated with Western organizations (Barnawi, 2017; Dashti, 2015). For example, founded in 2005, GUST is affiliated with the University of Missouri–St. Louis in the United States (US). While, American University of the Middle East (AUM) is affiliated with Purdue University in Indiana, US.

Overall, the MOE’s compulsory English language subject prepares students to communicate with others in the country, to qualify for admission in higher education universities, and to successfully join the workforce. As stated by Barnawi (2017), “English language learning is not a choice; it has become the must-learn language for
Kuwaitis” (p. 138). With this in mind, English teachers in Kuwait hold a great responsibility for students’ language learning, requesting the attention of MOE to stress the importance of in-service teacher education initiatives.

1.3. Major Government Curricular and Instructional Innovations

After Iraq’s invasion in 1990, in what was known as Desert Storm and/or Gulf War, many students in Kuwait lost a year of education, prompting the MOE to reevaluate their educational system and rebuild some of the damaged school facilities (Al-Sharaf, 2006; Barnawi, 2017). Following the liberation of Kuwait in 1993, the MOE passed a decree announcing major changes with regards to English language instruction. Previously, in the public-school system, English was introduced in the intermediate level. After the decree, the English language as a subject was taught as early as first grade as part of primary education and continued to be taught until the end of secondary education. Thus, the total number of years students were learning and academically exposed to the English language increased from eight to 12 years. Presently, students attend 45-50 minutes of English lessons five times a week across their 12 years of academic life (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017).

Since Kuwait’s MOE did not have an English language curriculum in place for the primary school level, they adopted the curriculum from a neighboring Gulf country, the United Arab Emirates (UAE). They focused on the four language skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Over the years, the MOE slowly began modifying and enhancing the UAE English curriculum to fit Kuwait’s specific contexts and educational standards.
As part of the MOE English language curriculum reform, in 2002 the English Language Teaching (ELT) General Supervision Department introduced a new “modernized English language curriculum as well as new textbooks and assessment tools” (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017, p. 80), created specifically for the context of Kuwait. Due to Kuwait’s unified educational system, this ELT department manages English language teaching at the national level, and they do so by developing an adequate curriculum, setting national standards and goals, arranging teaching materials, and providing teacher assessment tools (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). The ELT General Supervision department enlisted the prominent Longman Company to develop English textbooks for the three levels: Primary, Intermediate, and Secondary (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017; Winokur & Sperandio, 2017). The MOE gradually introduced the new textbooks into schools in 2002, starting with the Fun with English series for the primary level, Target English series for the intermediate level in 2004, followed by the secondary level Over to You series in 2009 (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017; Barnawi, 2017), thus completing the transition from the adopted UAE curriculum to a fully newly-developed Kuwaiti English language curriculum. Each series was provided with a student’s workbook, teacher’s guide book, and additional materials, such as flashcards and CDs (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). The MOE, ensured that the Longman textbook content reflects Kuwaiti nationalism, Islamic values, and the Arab culture (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). Problematic topics that conflict with the Kuwaiti culture and religion were excluded from the curriculum (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017), for instance, pictures of alcoholic beverages or pigs.
This contemporary curriculum from “kindergarten to pre-university education is aimed at developing critical thinking, independence, creativity, and problem-solving skills to produce graduates who can keep pace with scientific and technological developments and meet the challenges of modern life” (ELT General Supervision, as cited in Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017, p. 82). As part of the Teacher’s Guide of all three textbook series are these bulleted statements outlining the changes that occurred to the old curriculum in comparison to the new curriculum:

The overall idea behind the new curriculum is to produce some major shifts regarding:
- The content: from theoretical teaching of the subject to a variety of contexts that generate learning with understanding.
- What is expected from learners: from merely applying algorithms to using problem solving strategies.
- Learning: from memorization and repetition to exploration and investigation, self-discovery and creativity.
- Teacher’s role: from an information provider to an organizer of a wide variety of learning activities for all children, adapted to individual levels of attainment and rhythms of development.
- Assessment: from subjectivism and the rigidity of marks meant to classify learners, to self-assessment and progress assessment.


These statements are meant to acquaint English teachers with the changes that occurred to the curriculum and how to teach using the new curriculum. In general, the new curriculum implemented in these books allowed for a structural and a communicative language teaching method to introduce grammar rules and new vocabulary words (Ministry of Education – State of Kuwait, 2008). They also integrated differentiated instruction and inquisitive questioning practices based on the most recent
research in the field, while the lessons tapped into students’ imagination, comprehension, and critical thinking skills (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017).

The new “competence-based” English language curriculum and textbooks are designed to enhance students’ English language competence based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Ministry of Education – State of Kuwait, 2008, p. 31). By the end of the primary school level, students should be at level A2; by the end of the intermediate school level, students should achieve level B1; and towards the end of the secondary level, students are expected to be at the B2 CEFR level. A detailed description of what each CEFR level would look like is available in the guide as well. A table indicating the general competencies (i.e., reading, writing, listening, speaking), suggested learning activities, and curriculum standards is available for teachers in the guidebook along with the English class modules and lessons (Ministry of Education – State of Kuwait, 2008, pp. 35-38).

1.4. Professional Development Programs for Teachers

Even with the MOE English curriculum reform, students from Kuwait received low scores on international English proficiency tests (i.e., TOEFL, IELTS). Likewise, English medium higher education entities voiced their concerns regarding the incompetence of students’ use of academic English (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017). This led the MOE to request an analysis of its education system from the World Bank (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017). In accordance with the most up-to-date research, the World Bank advised the MOE to update teachers’ “pedagogical methods” through in-service teacher professional development (PD) programs (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017, p.
Accordingly, the MOE responded by creating a plan to prepare and guide teachers in “modern teaching methods” (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017, p. 200). Kuwait’s public-school teachers were trained in traditional teacher-centered methods, while the new curriculum aims to foster student-centered approaches (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017). Therefore, to ensure successful application of the updated curriculum, teachers should undergo high quality effective professional development (PD) to become better acquainted with student-centered teaching methods. However, the MOE focused its efforts on curriculum reform, which seems to have taken precedence over the quality of teachers’ PD initiatives.

Though there is an absence of high-quality teacher professional development (PD) programs, a MOE PD structure was still in place. In Kuwait, similar to the education system, teacher training and professional development (PD) follows a linear hierarchal model as well. The chain of command starts with the MOE. Then, the MOE assigns subject area supervisors to directly manage the head of department (HOD) of each content area (e.g., English, Math, Arabic) in every school with the assistance of the principal in charge. As part of their role, subject supervisors ensure the correct implementation of the national curriculum and evaluate teachers routinely. Additionally, supervisors are held accountable for their specific subject area teachers within their respective school districts. The MOE Department of Training and Development oversees professional development for all subjects across the K-12 levels. Furthermore, the Department of Training and Development coordinates PD sessions only when they receive requests for specific training sessions from subject area supervisors, which fit
their teachers’ needs. As for the PD facilitators or trainers who lead these sessions, they are sometimes certified trainers from the MOE, subject area supervisors, and/or experts in the field from Kuwait University (i.e., KU Professors). At the present moment, there are no required hours and/or a specific number of PD training sessions for public school teachers in Kuwait. The only exception is the general new teacher orientation training session which counts as PD in Kuwait and is required for all newly-hired school teachers in all subject areas.

That being said, the Kuwait MOE still struggles to provide adequate professional development (PD) to all content area teachers, including English teachers. In the Education for All (2015) report, United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) states that it is necessary to improve the professional competence of teachers in Kuwait. According to Al-Sharaf (2006), professional development (PD) of teachers in Kuwait is often insufficient, lacking, and mismanaged. AlShammari (2011) states that Kuwait’s MOE professional development (PD) programs failed to address “teachers’ professional needs” (p. 57). Also, PD in Kuwait is usually conducted in the form of “one-shot” workshops or seminars (Guskey & Yoon, 2009, p. 496; AlShammari, 2011). Based on the UNESCO (2015) Education for All report, Kuwait lacks a “Continuous Professional Development (CPD) Framework that would provide to all teachers consistent and coherent CPD and would encompass all current forms of CPD or CPD related approaches” (p. 64). This is in alignment with the current research involving teacher education in the past decade (e.g., Alibakhshi & Dehvari, 2015; Fraser et al., 2007; Wei et al., 2009; Petrie & McGee, 2012), where effective
professional development has moved away from regular PD towards continued professional development (CPD). This is to foster ongoing professional development and life-long learning that will allow teachers to professionally advance in their careers as they improve their classroom instruction, which, in turn, eventually benefits students’ learning outcomes.

Since teachers in Kuwait lack access to effective MOE professional development programs (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017; Al-Sharaf, 2006; AlShammi, 2011), the quality of teachers in general as well as English teachers, specifically, is considered to be a major concern, especially considering the prominent role of English in Kuwait. Considering the MOE’s inadequate PD programs, Tryzna and Al-Sharoufi (2017) call for additional professional development opportunities to improve English teachers’ professional skills and pedagogical knowledge, since it has become a “matter of national debate” in Kuwait (p. 85).

1.5. Recruitment and Retention of English Teachers

1.5.1. Teacher Retention in the World

Worldwide, teacher retention has become an important topic for the field of education. Many countries are suffering from a teacher shortage caused by teachers leaving the profession (McGraw, 2001; Menter et al., 2002, as cited in Al-Yaseen, 2011). For instance, in 2015, the United States (US) Department of Education reported that almost 17% of teachers quit or leave the teaching profession within the first five years of teaching (Podolsky et al., 2016). Based on a study conducted by the Learning Policy Institute in the US, there are six reasons that contribute to teachers leaving the profession,
including the following: “inadequate preparation,” “lack of support for new teachers,” “challenging working conditions,” “dissatisfaction with compensation,” “better career opportunities,” and “personal reasons” (Podolsky et al., 2016, pp. 3-5). Similarly, the Department of Education in England reports that 22% of teachers quit the profession within two years of beginning to teach, and 33% within the first five years of teaching (Foster, 2018). In a study examining the factors affecting teacher retention in England, most teachers cited workload and wages as their main reasons for leaving (Department of Education, 2018). Early career teachers are often burdened by the endless amount of teaching tasks (Dickson et al., 2014) that, combined with trying to adjust to a new school, students, colleagues, and the ever-changing policies and curriculum became overwhelming. Overall, these statistics from various countries highlight low retention rates and associated reasons for these rates, making teaching a “less attractive profession” compared to others (Al-Yaseen, 2011, p. 668).

1.5.2. Teacher Retention in the Middle East

The challenges facing the recruitment and low retention rates of teachers across the globe is also apparent in Gulf and Middle Eastern countries. Over a period of ten years, there has been a significant increase in the “school-age population” in Gulf countries (Burney et al., 2013, p. 360). These increasing student enrollment rates have caused the ratio of students to teachers to increase (Burney et al., 2013). Therefore, there are not enough English teachers or other content area teachers to meet the growing demand. While there is a lack of research and information available on the state of education in the Gulf countries (Buney et al., 2013), Howard et al., (2016) indicated two
main reasons which challenge the low retention rates of teachers in the Middle East. First, policies regarding English language curriculum and teaching are modified and adjusted on a yearly basis in the Middle East (Howard et al., 2016). English teachers must follow the most-up-to date national educational policy of their respective country, which is altered frequently, making it more difficult to prepare for. Second, due to the diverse nationalities of the teachers, the teaching styles of teachers and their supervisors can clash (Howard et al., 2016). It has become increasingly difficult for teachers to remain in their respective teaching jobs for many years.

1.5.3. Teacher Retention in Kuwait

Similarly, there are several challenges that face recruitment and retention rates of content area teachers, especially English language teachers in Kuwait. Kuwait’s former Minister of Education, Hamed Al-Azmi, reports that Kuwait is experiencing an English teacher shortage (Saleh, 2019) although there is little-to-no empirical research for the reasons behind teacher retention in Kuwait causing the apparent shortage. Relying on local newspaper reports, Kuwait Times (2019) and Al-Qabas (2019) are often reporting facts regarding the continual shortage of English teachers and other content area teachers in Kuwait’s public schools. According to Saleh’s Kuwait Times news article (2019), sources from the MOE have attributed the shortage of teachers to hesitation of Kuwaiti nationals in joining the teaching profession, their unwillingness to tolerate “teaching burdens and administrative responsibilities,” “bad distribution of teachers,” and their inability to attract foreign teachers due to low wages. These challenges urged Kuwaiti teachers to quit their jobs and seek better opportunities somewhere else (Al-Sharaf,
Moreover, the MOE stated that the continual resignation of foreign or expat teachers is also influenced by the high cost of living in Kuwait (Saleh, 2019). This prompted Arab expat teachers to seek better employment opportunities with higher wages in other countries, such as Qatar (Al-Qabas, 2019). As stated in Al-Qabas (2019), the rate of teachers leaving the teaching profession is “alarming and a cause for concern for the Kuwaiti educational field.” For the MOE to adapt to the shortage, they are considering increasing the number of students in each class (Al-Qabas, 2019), which will take a toll on the remaining teachers and increases their burden, ultimately affecting student outcomes and achievements.

1.5.4. Private vs. Public School Recruitment

In terms of recruitment, there is a distinction between public and private schools in Kuwait. Private schools value native English speakers, preferably teachers from the Inner Circle. Employment ads explicitly state that native English speakers from the USA and UK are preferred. On the other hand, the MOE public school system is committed to hiring non-native English speakers from Kuwait and other Arab countries. Tryzna and Al-Sharoufi (2017) find the hiring of Arab expats to teach English in public schools to be somewhat problematic since Kuwaiti teachers in their teacher education programs are trained according to the standards of the MOE while other Arab teachers are trained in their respective countries (e.g., Jordan, Egypt, or Syria). Upon employment, they automatically become certified by the MOE to teach in Kuwait.

1.5.5. Teacher Shortage and Recruitment
Teacher shortage has been an ongoing issue facing the MOE in Kuwait for more than a decade. In a newsletter published by the Kuwait Cultural Office in 1993, where it was made public that English will be taught starting from the primary level, it was revealed that “Kuwait is still suffering from a chronic shortage of English teachers at all levels” (p. 4). At the time, Kuwait University (KU) had the only English Education program meant to prepare English teachers for public school employment. The lack of properly-trained, high-quality English language teachers in Kuwait was a challenge the MOE had to overcome. This demand led the MOE to employ anyone with an English degree, for instance, linguistics, translation, or even literature degree (Al-Mutawa, 1997). These teachers lacked proper preparation, teaching experience, and the necessary language-teaching knowledge.

Nearly 30 years later, with only three teacher preparation programs in Kuwait, there are still not enough qualified Kuwaiti nationals to teach English language classes in the public-school system. The MOE has attempted to create incentives, such as a salary increase, to get more Kuwaiti youth to apply to teacher education programs, ultimately joining the teaching profession. However, the perception of teachers in Kuwait is that “teachers do too many tasks and play too many roles at the same time” (Al-Yaseen, 2011, p. 677). This perception drove away potential applicants and is a factor in the consistent shortage of English teachers in Kuwait. In addition, the MOE started employing Arab nationals to fill this gap. Due to this shortage, the majority of teachers, including English teachers who are recruited by the Ministry of Education (MOE), come from Kuwait and other Arab countries such as Jordan, Egypt, and Syria (Winokur & Sperandio, 2017;
Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017). Therefore, all English teachers in Kuwait’s public schools are non-native English speakers with Arabic as their first language. It is important to note that individual public schools do not have the authority to interview teachers and actively employ them since the decision comes from the MOE.

1.6. Problem Statement and Significance of Study

Beginning with the MOE release of the English language curriculum reform, Kuwait has seen an increased demand from higher education and professional workforce entities for public schools to produce highly competent English language users (Tryzna & Al-Sharoufi, 2017; Winokur & Sperandio, 2017). Thus, this responsibility has fallen on the English language teachers; yet the quality of teaching has been put into question. Reports from the World Bank analyzed Kuwait’s education system and provided recommendations to the MOE to promote modern pedagogical teaching methods through professional development (PD) opportunities. Other similar reports have criticized the lack of effective PD provided by the MOE.

In addition, the former Minister of Education, Hamed Al-Azmi, stated that Kuwait is experiencing an English teacher shortage (Saleh, 2019). As reported by the MOE, this teacher shortage still exists in 2021, with continued shortages in English and other subject areas including math, science, Arabic, and biology (as cited in Arab Times, 2021). Retention rates of public-school teachers in Kuwait have raised major concerns. For the 2020-2021 school year, there was a total of 74,326 teachers in Kuwait (Ministry of Education, 2021, as cited in Arab Times, 2021); however, the MOE reports that between 2009 and 2019, more than “17,704 public school teachers, 12,152 female and
5,552 males, left their profession” (as cited in Al-Mahdy & Alazmi, 2021, p. 3). In another local Kuwaiti newspaper, *Al-Jarida*, Ramadan (2021) reports that on average, 400-500 teachers quit their jobs every year. A low level of job satisfaction has been cited as the main reason why teachers resign (e.g., Liu & Ramsey, 2008), causing poor retention rates. Therefore, it is imperative for Kuwait’s MOE and policymakers to study the factors that might influence English language teachers’ motivation-related outcomes to increase their retention in the profession.

In the literature on teacher education, job satisfaction is an outcome closely related to teacher retention (e.g., Ingersoll, 2001; Liu & Ramsey, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017), and there is substantial empirical evidence showing a negative relationship between job satisfaction and teachers’ turnover intention or their motivation to leave the teaching profession (e.g., Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010, 2011, 2017). Self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) would say that a strong sense of competence (e.g., perceived English language proficiency and teaching efficacy) promotes a sense of commitment to the profession. Relatedly, Caprara et al., (2006) conducted a quantitative survey study with 2,184 high school teachers in Italy and found that the personal efficacy beliefs of teachers affected job satisfaction. There is also empirical evidence suggesting that the goals teachers have for their students (e.g., mastery classroom goal structures) address the intrinsic need for relatedness and promote a strong sense of commitment to the teaching profession (e.g., Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2013, 2017). A quantitative survey study conducted by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2013) with 2,569 elementary and secondary school teachers in Norway found that mastery
classroom goal structure was directly and positively related to job satisfaction of teachers, whereas performance classroom goal structure was negatively related to job satisfaction. However, it is important to note that these studies were conducted with teachers in Western contexts (e.g., Norway, Italy). This context is significant because there is empirical evidence that performance-goal structures have also been found to be positively associated with teachers’ motivation-related outcomes in non-Western contexts (e.g., King et al., 2012, 2013). The differences between these Western and non-Western findings suggests that both mastery and performance class goal structures could also be found to be associated with positive motivation-related outcomes in the Middle-Eastern cultural context of Kuwait, a population largely overlooked in the literature. Past studies have tried to find the indicators that contribute to teachers’ job satisfaction by studying its relationship to teaching self-efficacy and teachers’ classroom goals structures separately (e.g., Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007; Yıldırım, 2015; Wiens et al., 2018). In line with the deficits of previous studies, this study is the first to examine the combined effect of a teacher’s sense of competence (i.e., English language proficiency and teaching self-efficacy) and a teacher’s goals for students (i.e., mastery and performance classroom goal structures) on motivation-related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and turnover intention).

This mixed-methods, sequential, explanatory study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) first examined the relationships of teachers’ competence beliefs and classroom goal structures with job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession and then explored these relationships in more depth through a qualitative case study analysis. The results of this study will aid in the development of
more effective professional development (PD) programs to better meet English teachers’ needs in Kuwait, thus contributing to teacher development and retention. By identifying what predicts English language teachers’ job satisfaction, this study provides MOE policymakers and teacher educators with evidence-based implications based on the experiences of highly satisfied teachers. These implications include a list of classroom goals, teaching practices, and engagement strategies that were proven to contribute to teachers’ high job satisfaction levels. Policymakers at the MOE can use these findings to develop further the content of their PD programs leading to improved teaching quality, thus enhancing students’ learning. Additionally, teacher educators at teacher education programs can use these findings in their “methods course” to give pre-service teachers a tool kit of effective strategies. Furthermore, the results of this study are not only applicable to English language teachers in Kuwait but also to teachers from all content areas, especially in non-Western contexts.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

English language proficiency, teaching self-efficacy, classroom goal structures (i.e., teaching-related goals), and occupational commitment (i.e., motivation-related outcomes) are considered to be indicators of a teacher’s sense of professional identity (Canrinus et al., 2011, 2012). This chapter overviews relevant literature about English language teachers’ professional identities and identifies four indicators (e.g., Canrinus et al., 2011, 2012). In order to understand the importance of these indicators throughout the development of teachers’ professional identity, this study explores the relationships among the indicators at different stages in a teacher’s career. This chapter identifies relevant theories, methods, and gaps in the existing research on the relationships between professional identity indicators, specifically, teachers’ competence beliefs and classroom goal structures (i.e., teacher’ goals and classroom practices) on motivation-related outcomes, and the importance of these relationships. This chapter ends with a hypothesized conceptual model, research questions, and hypotheses guiding this study.

2.1. Professional Identity in Teacher Education

Professional identity (PI) plays a major role within the teaching profession (Beijaard et al., 2004). Having a strong sense of professional identity positively contributes to teacher quality and effectiveness, where teachers become “self-directed to acquire knowledge and skills necessary for teaching throughout their life” (Ivanova & Skara- Mincâne, 2016, p. 530). Additionally, a teacher’s professional identity significantly impacts growth, efficacy, teaching performance, and classroom practices
Teachers’ professional identity (PI) encompasses the four components previously mentioned, also called indicators, which are the factors that influenced the development of this study’s theoretical framework.

Within the field of teacher education, professional identity (PI) has been defined in a multitude of ways (Beijaard et al., 2004) since it is known to be a dynamic and “multifaceted” concept (Kelchtermans, 2009; Caninus et al., 2011; Derakhshan et al., 2020; Ostad et al., 2019, p. 2). Beijaard et al. (2004) define professional identity “as an ongoing process of integration of the ‘personal’ and the ‘professional’ sides of becoming and being a teacher” (p. 113). According to Kelchtermans (2009), professional identity is referred to as “how teachers see themselves as teachers based on their interpretations of their continuing interaction with their context” (as cited in Caninus et al., 2011, p. 594). The highest level of professional identity is achieved through the teachers’ “reflective and meaningful” actions and the “social, cultural and structural working conditions” that shape their context (Kelchtermans, 2009, p. 257). Though defined in different ways, professional identity shapes teachers’ quality and effectiveness in teaching.

A number of studies have identified indicators of teachers’ professional identity and used them as survey measures in their research in teacher education (e.g., Day, 2002; Day et al., 2006; Kelchtermans, 2009; Caninus et al., 2011). Day (2002) stated that there are four basic components of teachers’ professional identities, which involve the following: “motivation and commitment,” “beliefs, ideologies and personal and professional values,” “efficacy,” and “job satisfaction” (p. 687). Day (2002) also explained that commitment is a key predictor influencing the classroom performance of
teachers, their school attendance and absence, and motivation to stay or leave the teaching profession. A major finding suggests that teachers’ professional identity greatly adds to their occupational commitment, which is perceived in this study as job satisfaction and motivation to stay or leave the profession (Day, 2002). Similarly, a four-year longitudinal study by Day et al. (2006) investigated the professional identity of primary and secondary teachers in relation to their effectiveness in a Variations in Teachers’ Work, Lives and Effectiveness (VITAE) report. Findings indicate that a teacher’s sense of PI will influence and add to that individual’s self-efficacy, motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction (Day et al., 2006); therefore, it is considered to be a critical element in becoming a competent teacher. Day (2002) and Day et al. (2006) have identified the same key indicators of teachers’ professional identity. Here, “motivation and commitment” are viewed as teachers’ motivation-related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and motivation to leave the profession) in addition to their “ideologies and professional values” (i.e., classroom goal structures).

Similar to Day (2002) and Day et al. (2006), Kelchtermans (2009) measures what he terms “professional self-understanding,” a concept similar to that of professional identity, using five indicators that include these: “self-image,” “self-esteem,” “job motivation,” “task perception,” and “future perspective” (p. 261). Here, “self-image” and “self-esteem” are very much related to self-efficacy (Kelchtermans, 2009; Canrinus et al., 2011). Also, job motivation is related to both job satisfaction and motivation to stay or leave the profession, which are concepts the researcher explores in this study. “Task perception” is intertwined with “classroom goal structures” because it encompasses what
teachers do (i.e., classroom goal structures) to be effective in the classroom (Kelchtermans, 2009). Though these studies (e.g., Day, 2002; Day et al., 2006; Kelchtermans, 2009) use different terminology than the present study, they measure the same PI indicators and furthermore show how the PI indicators are linked to one another.

Based on past research, it is evident that teachers’ professional identity (PI) is manifested in and measured through several indicators. The most recent quantitative survey study by Canrinus et al. (2011) with 1,214 secondary school teachers in the Netherlands examined the relationships among indicators of professional identity (i.e., self-efficacy, job satisfaction, occupational commitment, change in level of motivation) to check their associations and significance to professional identity. Results showed that the four indicators of professional identity remained the same across the three career stages of teachers (i.e., early, mid, and late-career teachers) (Canrinus et al., 2011). This result further corroborates the findings of Day (2002), Day et al. (2006), and Kelchtermans (2009) measuring key predictors of PI.

Based on the literature concerning professional identity, the current study aims to explore the relationships among the four indicators of teachers’ professional identity as conceptualized by Canrinus et al. (2011) that include the following: teaching self-efficacy (TSE), classroom goal structures (CGS), job satisfaction (JS), and motivation to leave the profession (MTL) (i.e., occupational commitment and change in level of motivation). For this study, the term “occupational commitment” was replaced by “motivation to leave the profession,” and the term “change in level of motivation” was replaced by “job satisfaction.”
2.1.1. English Language Teachers’ Identities

In English language education, little attention is given to investigating the indicators of language teachers’ professional identity, despite English being a global language (e.g., Widodo et al., 2020; Zare-ee & Ghasedi, 2014). Very few empirical studies discuss the professional identity of language teachers, particularly English language teachers, compared to numerous studies that discuss the professional identity of teachers in general in the area of teacher education. Recent research in English language education uses PI indicators that appear to be consistent with the PI indicators in the early work in the field of teacher education. In the available literature, the researchers conducted their studies in international English language teaching contexts, in Iran and Saudi Arabia respectively (Abtahi & Motallebzadeh, 2016; Ahmad et al., 2017). It was evident that their perception of English language teachers’ professional identity and its indicators is built on the previous work done by Canrinus et al. (2011) in the area of teaching and teacher education, with the added indicator of English language proficiency and competence (Ahmad et al., 2017; Nunan, 2017).

In the Middle Eastern context, research findings indicated that English language proficiency should be considered when measuring the professional identity (PI) of non-native English language teachers. Abtahi and Motallebzadeh (2016) found a significant relationship between 718 non-native Iranian English language teachers’ sense of professional identity (job satisfaction, occupational commitment) and their computer literacy in Iran. Though this study only examined job satisfaction and occupational commitment as part of professional identity, it echoes Canrinus et al.’s (2011) notion that
self-efficacy and change in motivation are indicators of professional identity as well (Abtahi & Motallebzadeh, 2016). In the same realm, Ahmad et al. (2017) studied the construction of the professional identities of 41 Pakistani English language teachers working in Saudi Arabian English language programs. They also reiterate Canrinus et al.’s (2011) notion of what professional identity entails, while focusing on non-native English language teachers’ identity in particular (Ahmad et al., 2017). Perceived English language proficiency was a critical issue brought up as part of language teachers’ professional identities (Ahmad et al., 2017). Through a quantitative survey, findings indicate that in the case of these Pakistani English teachers, their proficiency along with their “accent and pronunciation” while speaking in English was in fact a concern affecting their professional identities as non-native teachers (Ahmad et al., 2017, p. 159).

Literature concerning professional identities (PI) of English language teachers, especially in non-western settings, found teachers’ perceived English language proficiency to be an added, fifth indicator or component to the PI indicators in Canrinus et al. (2011).

Literature in the area of English language teaching confirms that the proficiency concerns of language teachers are valid. Nunan (2017) explains that concerns regarding language teacher identity is “salient for the teacher who is not a native speaker of the second or foreign language being taught” (p. 165). Non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) have an “inferiority complex” regarding their English language proficiency, which negatively affects their classroom performance and instructional practices (Canagarajah, 1999; Ahmad et al., 2017). To become an effective teacher, being knowledgeable of the subject they are teaching is insufficient, but a “deep and full
understanding of the subject matter coupled with a knowledge of many concepts and their relationships are expected from an efficient teacher” (Calderhead, 1996, as cited in Ahmad et al., 2017, p. 151). Therefore, language proficiency is a critical indicator of an English teacher’s professional identity since the language, in this study English, is “both the medium and the content of instruction,” unlike other subject area teachers (e.g., math, science) (Nunan, 2017, p. 165).

Since the present study targets non-native English language teachers specifically, the researcher includes a fifth key indicator of English language teachers’ professional identity, which is their perceived English language proficiency. This is due to the literature concerning non-native English language teachers and how English language proficiency is critical to their identity (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2017; Nunan, 2017; Canagarajah, 1999). Considering the role of professional identity in English language teacher education, this study extensively examines the relationships among the following indicators that comprise the conceptual framework (See Figure 2-1): English language proficiency (ELP), teachers’ self-efficacy (TSE), classroom goal structures (CGS), job satisfaction (JS), and motivation to leave the profession (MTL). Each theory associated with each of the indicators will be discussed in the next section.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

This study is built on Bandura’s (1997) Self-Efficacy (SE) Theory, Classroom Goal Structures (CGS) (Wolters et al., 2010) as part of Goal Orientation (also called Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) of motivation) (Ames, 1992), and the concept of Job Satisfaction (JS) (Locke, 1976). Also, a major lens for analyzing the data involves career-
stage theory and gender role identity theory to identify group differences. In addition, Ryan and Deci’s (2000) Self-Determination Theory (SDT) explains the relationships among these professional identity indicators (PI) (i.e., ELP, TSE, CGS, JS, and MTL). All together these theories and concepts serve as a theoretical foundation for this study.

**Self-Determination Theory.** As part of the Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) of motivation, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) identifies competence, relatedness, and autonomy as three inter-related psychological needs and crucial elements in human motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). SDT states that people can feel when their three needs are met or not, and if these needs are fulfilled, individuals would feel motivated to grow in their respective workplaces (Ryan & Deci, 2000). First, competence is to feel effective with the task or job they are doing (Ryan & Deci, 2000). When competence is met, individuals feel they have mastered different skills needed to succeed in their work-related tasks. Second, relatedness is to feel a sense of belonging and attachment to specific groups that are important to them (Ryan & Deci, 2000). When this need is met, there is more meaning connected to the work that individuals are doing. Third, autonomy is to control their own lives and make their own decisions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In brief, negative psychological consequences will follow if one of these needs is not fulfilled (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In contrast, when these psychological needs are met, then “positive motivation and experience” will ensue, resulting in “enhanced performance and well-being” for people in a given social context (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 76). Therefore, the SDT theory, along with its three psychological needs, applies to administrators or
policymakers who want to promote motivation and commitment in the workplace (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Self-determination theory (SDT) is concerned with the well-being of people in general within various social contexts. These psychological needs can apply to “students in classrooms, patients in clinics, athletes on the playing field, or employees in the workplace” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 76). For instance, if school administrators and policymakers want teachers to feel motivated by continuously improving and growing, they need to support their three critical psychological needs to achieve optimal workplace outcomes. It is consistent with the SDT theory to predict that if an individual feels ineffective or incompetent as a teacher, that individual would feel dissatisfied in the teaching profession. For teachers, optimal workplace outcomes would be to have high levels of job satisfaction and low levels of motivation to quit the profession.

Ryan and Deci’s (2000) SDT explains the influence of teachers’ competence beliefs (i.e., perceived English language proficiency and teaching self-efficacy) and classroom goal structures (i.e., teaching goals) on job satisfaction. In this study, a teachers’ feelings of “competence” (e.g., high levels of English language proficiency and English language teaching self-efficacy) would predict higher levels of teaching satisfaction. Also, in this study, “relatedness” is viewed as teachers’ goals for their students (e.g., high levels of mastery and performance classroom goal structures) which is good not only for students, but when students do well, teachers would, in turn, feel good about themselves (i.e., teachers’ well-being). Thus, predicting higher levels of
teaching job satisfaction (i.e., doing something good for students would make the teacher feel satisfied).

2.2.1 Self-efficacy Theory

Grounded in social cognitive theory, Bandura (1997) first defined self-efficacy (SE) as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the necessary courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). According to Merriam et al. (2007), self-efficacy is “our own estimate of how competent we feel we are likely to be in a particular environment” (p. 4). This theory “accounts for both the learner and the environment in which he or she operates” (Merriam et al., 2007, p. 4). It is apparent that self-efficacy (SE) deals with the inner or intrinsic beliefs, positive or negative, one may have regarding his or her own ability to complete a particular task.

2.2.2. Teacher’s Self-Efficacy

Within the education field, “Teachers’ Perceived Self-Efficacy” is one of the major constructs that is explored in this research (Bandura, 1997, pp. 214-243). Teachers’ self-efficacy (TSE) is “the extent to which a teacher feels that she can bring about positive change and development among her pupils” (Ashton & Webb, 1986). According to Filatov and Pill (2015), teachers’ self-efficacy theory deals with “teachers’ beliefs in their capability to impact student learning” (p. 33). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) define the theory as a teacher’s “judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated” (p. 738). They have also established three domains of teaching self-efficacy (TSE): instructional strategies (IS), classroom management (CM),
and student engagement (SE). Therefore, teaching self-efficacy focuses on teachers’ self-perception and of their own teaching capabilities across the three domains, classroom management, student engagement, and instructional strategies, in an effort to contribute positive academic outcomes on their students.

In this research, Bandura’s (1997) definition of self-efficacy is used to understand teaching self-efficacy. Also, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy’s (2001) definition of teaching self-efficacy and the three domains is utilized as well. The following section discusses past studies which examined the relationship between teachers’ competence beliefs and motivation-related outcomes.

**Relations between Competence Beliefs and Motivation-related Outcomes.** Though many studies in the literature investigated the relationship between teachers’ competence beliefs (i.e., TSE and ELP) and motivation-related outcomes (i.e., JS and MTL), it is important to note that no study examined both competence beliefs in relation to motivation-related outcomes; rather, each study examined only one competence belief (Yıldırım, 2015; Türkoğlu et al., 2017; Caprara et al., 2006; Weins et al., 2018; Afshar & Doosti, 2016). First, the competence belief of teachers’ self-efficacy will be discussed. Caprara et al. (2006) conducted a quantitative survey with 2,184 high school teachers in Italy and found that personal efficacy beliefs of teachers significantly affected their job satisfaction. Yıldırım (2015) examines the relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction of 306 primary and secondary physical education (PE) teachers in Turkey. Quantitative survey results indicate that the relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction is positively significant since they are strongly associated with each other
(Yıldırım, 2015). Similarly, Türkoğlu et al. (2017) studied the relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction among 489 primary, intermediate, and secondary teachers in Istanbul, Turkey. Quantitative survey results also reveal a strong and positive relationship between teachers’ perceived self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Based on the available literature, it is evident that there is a positive association between teachers’ self-efficacy and their job satisfaction, which in turn affects their willingness to stay or leave the teaching profession.

Second, the competence belief of teachers’ perceived English language proficiency (ELP) will be discussed. Several studies investigated English language teachers’ (e.g., ESL or EFL teachers) perceived proficiency levels and their relationship to teachers’ self-efficacy in diverse international settings (e.g., Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Sabokrouh & Barimani-Varandi, 2013; Chacón, 2005; Ghasemboland & Hashim, 2013; Choi & Lee, 2016; Yilmaz, 2011), but very little empirical research exists investigating the association between English teachers’ English language proficiency and motivation-related outcomes (Afshar & Doosti, 2016; Weins et al., 2018). A quantitative survey study conducted by Afshar and Doosti (2016) with 64 secondary EFL teachers in Iran found that lack of subject knowledge was one of the factors that led to low job satisfaction levels in teachers. Recently, in a study conducted in Niger, Wiens et al. (2018) studied 609 English language teachers’ perceived English language proficiency, pre-service teacher training, and their relationship to job satisfaction. Quantitative survey results found that teachers with high perceived English language proficiency are more satisfied with their teaching jobs (Wiens et al., 2018). Research has indicated that English
language proficiency is also a predictor of teachers’ job satisfaction and occupational commitment because teachers who are proficient in English are more likely to teach more engaging classes and become more motivated to teach.

Past literature has established that both competence beliefs (English language proficiency and teaching self-efficacy) are in fact positively related to teachers’ job satisfaction and motivation to stay in the profession (i.e., motivation-related outcomes). Though this literature reveals a positive association between competence beliefs and motivation-related outcomes, the question of why the relationship is positive has not yet been clarified; therefore, follow-up qualitative interviews with the teachers are needed. In addition, these studies do not examine the specific experiences of non-native English language teachers, with the exception of a few studies that looked at ELP competence beliefs (Afshar & Doosti, 2016; Weins et al., 2018). Further, not only are competence beliefs related to teachers’ job satisfaction and retention, but what teachers do in the classroom in terms of classroom practices and teaching goals they have for their students (i.e., classroom goal structures) are also related.

2.2.3. Goal Orientation Theory

As part of the social cognitive theory, Goal Orientation Theory (GOT), also called Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) of motivation, examines the motivation and achievement levels of individuals. Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) emerged from the work of prominent scholars, such as Ames (1992), Ames and Archer (1988), Dweck (1986), Dweck and Leggett (1988), Elliott and Dweck (1988), Maehr and Nicholls (1980), in the field of social cognitive theories and motivation in education. According to
Elliott and Dweck (1988), “achievement goals run off a different "program" with
different commands, decision rules, and inference rules, and hence, with different
cognitive, affective, and behavioral consequences” (p. 11). Additionally, Ames (1992)
states that:

Achievement goal concerns the purposes of achievement behavior. It
defines an integrated pattern of beliefs, attributions, and affect that
produces the intentions of behavior (Weiner, 1986) and that is represented
by different ways of approaching, engaging in, and responding to
achievement-type activities (Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988, as

There are two types of achievement goals, but those most commonly used in the
literature are Ames and Archer’s (1988) mastery goal orientation (MA) and performance
goal orientation (PA). With regards to mastery goal orientation, “importance is attached
to developing new skills. The process of learning itself is valued, and the attainment of
mastery is seen as dependent on effort” (Ames & Archer, 1988, p. 260). Whereas, in
terms of performance goal orientation, “there is a concern with being judged able, and
one shows evidence of ability by being successful, by outperforming others, or by
achieving success with little effort” (Ames & Archer, 1988, p. 260). The basic premise
behind this theory was that individuals either want to demonstrate their competence to
others by performing well (i.e., performance goal orientation) or develop competence or
knowledge for the sake of learning (i.e., mastery goal orientation) (Dweck, 1986; Dweck
& Leggett, 1988; Ames & Archer, 1988; Schunk et al., 2007).
2.2.4. Teaching-related Goal Orientations

According to past literature, the majority of studies using Goal Orientation Theory (GOT) in education were associated with student motivation. Not many studies looked at goal orientation of teachers until recent years (Butler, 2007; Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007). Butler (2007) was the first to introduce the construct of Teachers' Achievement Goal Theory to the field of teacher motivation and education (as cited in Janke et al., 2019). Butler (2007) emphasized that achievement goal theory “can be applied...not only for learning but also for teaching” (p. 241). For this reason, she created a framework with the sole purpose of “conceptualizing teacher motivation in terms of qualitative difference in teachers’ motivation achievement goals for teaching” (Butler, 2007, p. 243). Furthermore, Papaioannou and Christodoulidis’ (2007) research also delves into the area of goal orientation theory for teachers. They emphasize that in order to develop and effectively apply a curriculum in schools or other educational institutions, teachers’ motivation must be considered (Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007). Both Butler (2007) and Papaioannou and Christodoulidis (2007) highlight teachers’ motivation in relation to goal orientation theory as opposed to student motivation only.

2.2.5. Classroom Goal Structures

Based on Goal Orientation Theory (GOT), classroom goal structures look at teachers’ goals for their students and the classroom practices they exhibit in the classroom. As Vedder-Weiss and Fortus (2017) state, “a major agent of goal structures is the teacher” (p. 183). According to Ames (1992), goal structures “refer to messages in the
learning environment (e.g., the classroom or school) that make certain goals salient” (as cited in Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006, p. 334). Goal structures are also described as “the type of personal achievement goals fostered by the prevailing instructional practices and policies in a classroom, school, or other academic setting” (Urdan & Turner, 2005; Wolters, 2004, as cited in Wolters et al., 2010, p. 2). Hence, classroom goal structures (CGS) looks at teachers’ goals for students, teachers’ behaviors, performance, and practices that are salient in the classroom. It is a pedagogical approach strategy and an indicator of teacher behavior regarding what the teacher is doing for students.

Similar to past research on goal orientation theory (GOT), there are two types of classroom goal structures (CGS): mastery goal structures (MA) and performance goal structures (PA) (Wolters et al., 2010). First, with mastery classroom goal structure (also called mastery approaches (MA), teachers try to create a learner-centered classroom atmosphere where “instructional practices, policies, and norms convey to students that developing competence is most important, that all students are valued, that trying hard is important, and that all students can be successful if they work hard to learn” (Midgley et al., 1998; Urdan, 1997, as cited in Wolters et al., 2010, p. 2). In other words, teachers care more about students’ growth and learning progress than simply their grades. Second, with performance classroom goal structure (PA), teachers create an atmosphere which “communicates to students that being successful means demonstrating high ability, doing better than others, or getting extrinsic rewards” (Midgley et al. 1998; Urdan, 1997, as cited in Wolters et al., 2010, p. 2). Simply put, teachers utilize teaching strategies and classroom practices which encourage competition among student peers. Essentially,
classroom goal structures are an indicator of the type of practices teachers endorse in their classroom (i.e., mastery or performance classroom goal structures).

In this research, Wolters et al.’s (2010) mastery and performance classroom goal structures or mastery and performance approaches are used interchangeably. The following section discusses the relationship between teachers’ classroom goal structures and their motivation-related outcomes.

**Relations between Classroom Goal Structures and Motivation-related Outcomes.** Numerous studies investigated students' classroom goal structures, but research examining teachers’ classroom goals for their students (i.e., mastery and performance classroom goal structures) and their relationship to motivation-related outcomes remains scarce (Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2013, 2017). For example, Papaioannou and Christodoulidis (2007) investigated the relationship between teachers’ achievement goals (mastery approaches, performance approaches, performance-avoidance goals) and the job satisfaction of 430 teachers in Greece. Quantitative survey results suggested that mastery approaches were positively related to job satisfaction, while there is no relation between performance approaches and job satisfaction (Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007). A quantitative study by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2013) conducted with 2,569 primary and intermediate school teachers in Norway found that mastery classroom goal structure was directly and positively related to job satisfaction, whereas performance classroom goal structure was negatively related to job satisfaction. Similarly, in a quantitative survey study by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017) with 760 primary and intermediate school teachers, they reported that mastery classroom
goal structure was positively related to teachers’ job satisfaction and negatively associated with motivation to leave the teaching profession. In comparison, performance classroom goal structure was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to motivation to leave the teaching profession (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017). Empirical evidence indicates mastery classroom goal structures have been positively associated with teachers’ motivation-related outcomes, whereas performance mastery classroom goal structures have been negatively associated with teachers’ motivation-related outcomes.

Past research has established that the two classroom goal structures (mastery and performance) have opposite relationships associated with motivation-related outcomes. Though the literature reveals contrary associations between the two classroom goal structures (i.e., MA and PA) and job satisfaction, these studies are limited; specifically, they utilized only quantitative methods, and they examined teachers from all content areas. In addition, it is important to address that these studies were conducted with teachers in Western contexts (e.g., Norway, Italy); thus, the results are most likely not generalizable in non-Western contexts (i.e., Asian or Middle Eastern contexts).

**Cross-cultural Differences.** Competitive classroom practices are not as common or well-perceived in Western cultures compared to collectivist non-Western cultures (e.g., Hong Kong, Philippines, Kuwait). Past research showed that the relationship between teachers’ mastery/performance classroom goal structures and motivation-related outcomes differs based on cultural context (King et al., 2012, 2013). The finding that mastery classroom goal structures is positively related to teachers’ outcomes holds across
cultures (Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2013, 2017; King et al., 2012, 2013), while performance classroom goal structures could be positively or negatively related depending on the culture and context of the said study. One major aspect of performance classroom goal structures (PA) is teachers endorsing competition within the classroom. For instance, Midgley et al. (2000) illustrated this competitiveness with students with higher grades acting as a model for other students and comparing students' work to each other. In the education field, empirical research shows that students in Western contexts view competition in a negative manner “leading to a zero-sum situation” whereas students in non-Western contexts view competition positively, allowing them to thrive as a person “leading to the improvement of themselves and society” (Fulop, 1999, 2005; Watkins, 2007, 2009, as cited in King et al., 2012, p. 447). It is apparent that context coupled with cultural norms affects teachers’ classroom practices and is a deciding factor of whether or not teachers promote mastery and/or performance classroom goals for their students.

The context where the study took place is significant because there is empirical evidence that suggests that performance classroom goal structures have also been found to be positively associated with students’ learning and teachers’ motivation-related outcomes in non-Western contexts (e.g., King et al., 2012, 2013). King et al. (2012) conducted a quantitative survey study with 697 students in a secondary school in Hong Kong to examine the relationships between individual differences, achievement goals (i.e., mastery and performance goals), and learning strategies. Findings state that in the Chinese cultural context, competitiveness found in performance goals is positively
related to mastery goals. Unlike in Western contexts where only mastery goals are proven to have a positive effect on students, in the non-Western context of Hong Kong, performance goals do in fact have the same positive effect on students’ learning (King et al., 2012). Similarly, King et al. (2013) examined the role of mastery, performance, and social goals of 245 secondary school students in the collectivist cultures of Hong Kong and the Philippines. Quantitative survey study findings suggest that in Hong Kong, performance goals are positively related to “motivational engagement and effort,” and in the Philippines, performance goals positively predicted “surface learning” (King et al., 2013, p. 1517). Unlike in Western cultures, the results suggest that performance goals are positively related to students’ motivation outcomes and learning. Though these studies examine students’ mastery and performance classroom goals rather than teachers’, which is the main focus of the present study, their findings regarding cross-cultural differences still hold.

In sum, past research did not recognize cultural differences when studying teachers’ and/or students’ achievement goals in different countries; however, based on empirical evidence going forward, it is an important aspect to consider. It is also critical to consider the moderating effect of career stage on teachers’ competence beliefs, teaching-related goals (i.e., classroom goal structures), and motivation-related outcomes.

2.2.6. Moderating Effect of Career Stage

The foundational work of early career theorists (e.g., Super, 1957,1984; Schein, 1971; Hall, 1976), carefully outlines the stages a working individual goes through during their lifespan in any career or occupation. Based on these seminal works, models of
teacher development started to develop (e.g., Steffy et al., 2000; Trotter, 1986). Recently, researchers have reached consensus on the three main stages of teacher development: early career stage, mid-career stage, and late career stage (Bressman et al., 2018; Haargreaves, 2005; Coulter & Lester, 2011).

**Early Career Stage.** These new teachers have five years or fewer of teaching experience (Haargreaves, 2005; Coulter & Lester, 2011). They are young adults who start off following a “defined path” by “scripting” activities and in-class dialogues with the students (Coulter & Lester, 2011, p. 12). They often face anxiety, are lacking in classroom management skills, and overall “professional confidence” (Day, 1999, as cited in Coulter & Lester, 2011, p. 20). Haargreaves (2005) states that Generation X teachers are “flexible, adaptable” and more accepting of change (p. 972).

**Mid-Career stage.** These teachers have six to 19 years of teaching experience (Haargreaves, 2005). They are more relaxed, experienced, and comfortable about their job and themselves (Haargreaves, 2005). They become more flexible as they personalize classroom lessons to address students’ specific needs (Coulter & Lester, 2011). Mid-career teachers positively respond to change due to growing expertise and self-assurance in teaching (Haargreaves, 2005).

**Late-Career stage.** These teachers have over 20 years of teaching experience (Haargreaves, 2005). Some teachers have become tired, burnt out, reluctant to change (Coulter & Lester, 2011), and looking forward to retirement (Haargreaves, 2005). Others become wiser and accepting of the conditions of their work life (Haargreaves, 2005).
This study uses Hargreaves’ (2005) and Coulter and Lester’s (2011) labels and criteria of teachers’ three career stages. The next section discusses the relationship between teachers’ career stages and their motivation-related outcomes.

**Relations between Career Stages and Motivation-related Outcomes.** Though limited, earlier literature suggests that teachers’ career stage positively affects teaching self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2011) and can positively or negatively impact teachers' motivation-related outcomes. A quantitative survey study by Liu and Ramsey (2008) in the United States found that as teachers gain more teaching experience over the years, their job satisfaction increases. Similarly, Klassen and Chiu’s (2010) study with 1,430 Canadian teachers found that years of teaching experience indirectly impact job satisfaction through self-efficacy. However, other studies found either negative (Perie & Baker, 1997) or a non-significant association (Liu et al., 2018) between teachers’ years of experience and their job satisfaction. Research examining the relationship between teachers’ years of teaching experience (i.e., career stage) and motivation-related outcomes yields contrasting and inconsistent findings (Liu & Ramsey, 2008; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Perie & Baker, 1997; Liu et al., 2018). As of yet, no study has examined the effects of teachers’ career stage on both competence beliefs (TSE and ELP) and classroom goal structures (MA and PA) in association with motivation-related outcomes (JS and MTL).

**2.2.7. Moderating Effect of Gender**

Eagly's (1987) social role theory of gender differences explains the division of labor in society and how the innate physical differences between men and women have
led to gender roles. Gender roles distinguish behaviors between men and women; however, these behaviors differ and are influenced by cultural and societal expectations. The gender differences between men and women lead them to inhabit different “occupational roles” (Sosik et al., 2017, p. 48). According to Steinmetz et al. (2017) women’s motherly nature allowed them to occupy “domestic roles,” such as “teaching” and “nursing,” while men occupy non-domestic jobs, such as becoming “soldiers” or “firefighters” (p. 52). People’s priorities change in life when they are young adults, middle aged, or elderly; for both men and women, life priorities are different.

**Gender in Teaching.** Research considering gender differences in the teaching profession is lacking (Acker, 1995; Sabbe & Aelterman, 2007; Badjanova et al., 2017). Not only do men and women join the teaching profession for different reasons, but they tend to have different teaching styles, which impacts their students accordingly (Sabbe & Aelterman, 2007). Male teachers are not common in the teaching profession due to traditional views that men are considered to be the head of their families and they must seek a high-paying job (Moses et al., 2016). On the other hand, women still dominate the teaching profession due to a number of personal, economic, societal, and cultural factors such as “demographical factors, the accessibility of education, meritocracy, the general employment possibilities, the possibility of reconciling professional and family work, the regulation of maternity leave and leave for childcare” (Acker, 1995, as cited in Tašner et al., 2017, p. 49). These reasons have made teaching a favorable occupation for females, which lead to the global predominance of women in the teaching profession (Drudy, 2008). Currently, teaching is labeled as a “feminized profession” (Moses et al., 2016, p.
due to the gender roles associated with “femininity, motherhood and caring,” and teaching is typically called a “women’s true profession” (Sabbe & Aelterman, 2007, p. 529; Drudy, 2008). Examining the role of gender in the teaching profession highlights that both females and males have a different set of societal expectations which they inherently adhere to, thus influencing their initial decision to pursue a degree in education and consequently accept a teaching position.

**Relations between Gender and Motivation-related Outcomes.** Limited studies explore the impact of gender on teachers’ motivation-related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and motivation to leave the profession) (Reilly et al., 2013; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Reilly et al. (2013) reported that there are no significant gender differences impacting the self-efficacy and job satisfaction of 121 primary school teachers in Ireland. Klassen and Chiu (2010) also reported that there are no gender differences in relation to job satisfaction. Contrary to the findings of Reilly et al. (2013), Klassen and Chiu (2010) found that gender differences did exist within levels of self-efficacy rather than job satisfaction, where male teachers had higher classroom management efficacy than did their female counterparts. Evidence indicates that there is no relationship between gender differences and motivation-related outcomes. Based on data collected in Canada and Ireland, it is not yet known whether this finding applies to the non-Western traditional culture of Kuwait.

**2.2.6. Motivation-related Outcome of Job Satisfaction**

Over the years, many scholars have defined the concept of job satisfaction (JS) (Locke, 1976; Demirtas, 2010; Spector, 1997; Weiss, 2002). Within organizational
research, such as schools, institutions, and companies, Locke’s (1976) definition of job satisfaction is predominantly used and accepted. He defines job satisfaction (JS) as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an approval of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). Similarly, Demirtas (2010) describes job satisfaction as “a positive of pleasant emotional state resulting from a person’s appreciation of his/her own job experience” (p. 1069). Also, Spector (1997) states that job satisfaction “is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs” (p. 2). Job satisfaction is also defined as “a positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation” (Weiss, 2002, p. 175). Overall, job satisfaction is the feeling of contentment individuals or employees have derived from a job through intrinsic (i.e., attitude, emotional state, likeness) or extrinsic factors (i.e., job experiences), which determines the extent to which they are truly satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. Within the teaching profession, job satisfaction (JS) is an integral factor and concept that influences in-service teachers in many ways.

**Teacher Job Satisfaction.** Improving teachers’ job satisfaction levels should be considered a top priority within educational or academic institutions. Teachers play a significant role with regards to students’ academic achievements and overall success. Research has shown that job satisfaction levels of teachers are associated with the quality of teaching students receive (Demirtas, 2010) and are also related to their motivation to stay in or leave the profession. Therefore, teachers with high job satisfaction levels provide high quality teaching resulting in better student learning outcomes.
For the purpose of this research, Locke’s (1976) definition of job satisfaction is going to be used to understand teacher job satisfaction in particular. Furthermore, this research utilizes Skaalvik and Skaalvik’s (2011) more recent definition of teacher job satisfaction as “teachers’ affective reactions to their work or to their teaching role” (p. 1030) because their job satisfaction measure has been adapted to be included as part of the survey instrument.

2.4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study fills the gaps identified in this literature review in the following ways. First, it employs a mixed methods research design to gain a nuanced understanding of the positive or negative relationships that exist between the indicators/factors studied. Second, this study takes place in the non-Western, Middle Eastern context of Kuwait. Third, participants of this study are non-native English language teachers, rather than teachers from all content areas, which allows for more applicable and practical implications to be discussed within the specific content area of ESL teachers.

The conceptual framework of this study is based on English language teachers’ professional identity indicators (Canrinus et al., 2011, 2012): English language proficiency, teaching self-efficacy, classroom goal structures (i.e., teaching-related goals), and occupational commitment (i.e., job satisfaction and motivation to leave the profession). This study uses the professional identity indicators from the conceptual framework to investigate the impact of teachers’ competence beliefs (1. English teaching self-efficacy (IS, CM, SE) and 2. perceived English language proficiency) and classroom goal structures (1. mastery approaches and 2. performance approaches), on teacher
motivation-related outcomes (1. job satisfaction and 2. motivation to leave the teaching profession) of public-school English language teachers in Kuwait. The aim of this study is to quantify teachers’ classroom goal structures and English teaching self-efficacy levels according to the three domains: 1. efficacy in instructional strategies (IS), 2. efficacy in classroom management (CM), and 3. efficacy in student engagement (SE). Gender and career stage (early, mid, late career teachers) differences are also investigated.

Building on Klassen and Chiu’s (2010) model, Figure 2-1 shows a hypothesized conceptual model for the 5-hypotheses in the current study.

**Figure 2-1**

*Hypothesized Conceptual Model*

An explanatory, sequential mixed methods research (MMR) design was used, which involves collecting quantitative data first and then explaining the quantitative
results with in-depth qualitative data to further explain the phenomenon in question (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Thus, the research plan proceeds in two phases with the following research questions and hypotheses.

2.4.1. Research Questions

For the first, *quantitative phase* of this study, the research questions are as follows:

1. What is the relationship between self-perceived English proficiency, English teaching self-efficacy, classroom goal structures, job satisfaction, and motivation to leave the profession of non-native English language teachers in Kuwait?

2. What is the moderating effect of gender or career stage on the teacher outcomes of English teaching self-efficacy, English language proficiency, classroom goal structures, levels of job satisfaction, and motivation to leave the teaching profession?

For the second, *qualitative phase* of this study, the research question is as follows:

3. How do English language teachers’ self-efficacy in student engagement (SE), mastery (MA), and performance classroom goal structures (PA) contribute to their job satisfaction?

This *mixed methods* question links the results of the quantitative data with the results of the qualitative data:

4. In what ways do the interview data reporting teachers’ views about their English language teaching abilities and classroom practices help to explain the quantitative results about job satisfaction reported on the surveys?

2.4.2. Hypotheses
Consistent with empirical evidence in the literature, this study is guided by the following hypotheses:

- H.1. English teachers’ self-efficacy will be positively associated with job satisfaction (Yıldırım, 2015; Türkoğlu et al., 2017; Caprara et al., 2006).

- H.2. Self-perceived English language proficiency will be positively associated with job satisfaction (Weins et al., 2018; Afshar & Doosti, 2016).


- H.4. Teachers who are more experienced in terms of career stage or years of teaching experience are more satisfied with their jobs (Klassen & Chiu, 2010, 2011).

- H.5. Consistent with prior empirical evidence (Reilly et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018; Klassen & Chiu, 2010), I hypothesize that there will be non-significant gender differences in teachers’ motivation-related outcomes.
Chapter 3

Methods

This study was designed to investigate the influence of competence beliefs (English teaching self-efficacy and English language proficiency) and classroom goal structures (mastery and performance classroom goal structures) on teacher motivation-related outcomes (job satisfaction and motivation to quit the profession) of English language teachers in Kuwait. Additionally, this study examines the moderating effects of gender and career stage (years of teaching experience) on measures of teacher motivation-related outcomes. This study also aims to establish construct validity of the Arabic TSE, ELP, CGS, MO (JS/MTL) version of the scales.

The chapter starts with a description of the research design and provides the rationale for why mixed methods research (MMR), specifically explanatory sequential MMR design, was suitable for the study. As part of the first phase of the study, the procedure for quantitative inquiry is described, including participant selection, survey administration procedures, sample size determination, description of the survey instrument used, translation issues, and why the survey instrument is valid and reliable. Statistical tests and procedures used to study the data are explained as well. As part of the second phase of the study, the procedure for qualitative inquiry is described, including case selection, interview protocol development, interview data collection, and qualitative data analysis.

3.1. Research Design
An explanatory, sequential, mixed methods research (MMR) design was utilized in this study, which is characterized by the collection and analysis of quantitative data in a first phase of research, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data in a second phase that builds on the results of the initial quantitative phase (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). In the first, quantitative phase of this study, survey data was collected from non-native English language teachers in Kuwait’s public (i.e., government) schools. In the second, qualitative phase of this study, semi-structured follow-up interviews take place with some of these non-native English language teachers from the same surveyed group. This study utilizes the notation of (QUAN → qual), where emphasis is placed on the quantitative survey.

3.2. Rationale for Methods and Procedures

Based on past research, self-efficacy is a construct known for being studied quantitatively, thus adding a qualitative element such as follow-up interviews, which would be unexpected and could lead to fruitful and “rich insights” (Nightingale, 2003, p. 79). Given the nature of the problem that this research aims to investigate, sequential explanatory mixed research design would be most appropriate (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). This two-phase design enables researchers to analyze the quantitative data collected and reach findings in the first phase. Then, as researchers require additional clarification (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), building on initial results, they start the second qualitative phase to “help explain, or elaborate on” primary quantitative findings in depth (Ivankova et al., 2006, p. 5). The quantitative data showed only which constructs are linked together and what their relationship is, but it
does not show how and in which way, nor does it show a nuanced understanding of those relationships. Therefore, the integration between the two methods yielded rich results pertaining to the participants’ experiences since as the second qualitative component answered questions of “why” certain relationships were significant or weak based on the first quantitative data. The qualitative phase captured teachers’ views to get a deeper understanding of how these constructs are related. Ivankova et al. (2006) stated that “in combination, quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and allow for a more robust analysis, taking advantage of the strengths of each” (p. 3). Therefore, employing one method only (i.e., quantitative or qualitative) would be ineffective or insufficient for the purpose of this study. Mixed methods can provide a better understanding of the problem in question.

3.3. Phase I: Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

3.3.1. Survey Participants

Participants were (N=579) in-service English language teachers from Kuwait’s public (i.e., government) schools located throughout the country across primary, intermediate, and secondary levels. A non-probability sampling technique of purposive sampling was utilized to reach the target population. From the population, 339 females and 240 males participated in this study. Respondents’ age ranged from 22 to 65 ($M = 37.23$, $SD = 9.58$). Of the participants, 162 were early career teachers, 277 were mid-career teachers, and 138 were later career teachers. The average number of years of teaching experience was approximately 13 years ($M = 12.71$, $SD = 8.87$). Of the respondents, 31.8% taught in the primary level, 36.8% in the intermediate level, and
31.4% in the secondary level. All English teachers in Kuwait’s public schools are non-native English speakers with Arabic as their first language.

This study follows Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2018) recommendations with regards to participant sampling in explanatory, sequential, mixed method research (MMR) design. Thus, the same participants who participated in the first quantitative phase also participate in the second follow-up qualitative phase, though the sample is smaller in size (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 185). As part of the initial survey, participants were asked if they were willing to participate in the second phase through a one-time anonymous interview, and if they agreed, they sent their contact information to the researcher.

### 3.3.2. Survey Administration

**Sample Size Determination.** With the work of Osborne (2014) and Costello and Osborne (2005), it is recommended to have a 20:1 ratio of participants to variable in order to eliminate error and obtain generalizable results. This means that for each variable there should be at least 20 participants. In this study, there are three main variables with eight underlying factors (3 in TSE, 1 in ELP, 2 in CGS, and 2 in MO); thus at least 120 participants would be required. This criterion has been met since the current sample is considerably large with N=579 participants who completed the paper-based survey.

**Phase I: Procedure for Quantitative Inquiry.** Initially, this study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the Pennsylvania State University (See Appendix A for IRB Approval Letter). To recruit English language teachers working in Kuwaiti public schools in this study, additional approval was required from the
Educational Research Administration at the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Kuwait (See Appendix B for MOE Approval Letter). Upon approval, an official MOE approval letter and a list of all public schools in Kuwait organized by grade level and district was obtained. Next, with the MOE approval letter, the researcher was able to contact school principals and request permission to enter the public schools and administer the surveys to the English teachers. After permission was granted, surveys were distributed to the English language teachers at that school.

Prior to participating in the current study, the teachers were made aware of the purpose and goals of the study. They were informed that their survey responses would be anonymous and no identifiable information (e.g., name, contact information, school name) would be asked of them. Further, the consent language prior to completing the survey clearly indicates the anonymity of the survey responses, their voluntarily participation, their ability to leave the study at any time, and their right to ask questions with the contact information (i.e., name, email address) of the principal investigator and overseeing advisor visibly available. If the teachers consented to participate in the study, surveys were administered by the researcher at the teachers’ sites of work. The surveys took participants an average of 12-15 minutes to complete. Participants returned the completed surveys in blank, sealed envelopes to ensure privacy. This study used data collected from December 2019 to January 2020.

3.3.3. Survey Instrument and Measures

A 75-item anonymous self-report survey, comprised of 8 parts was the research instrument in phase one of the study (See Appendix C for Research Instrument:
The instrument incorporated open-ended short answer questions and closed-ended questions including four existing measurement scales. In Part 1, to gather demographic information, respondents answered 10 items on gender, age, marital status, household income, years of teaching experience, and the grade level they were currently teaching. In Part 2, two items asked participants about their experiences in teaching English. A sample question is as follows: “List all the things that an effective English language teacher should be able to do.” In Part 3, nine items aimed to collect information on the participants’ current and past professional development (PD) experiences and the state of PD in Kuwait. Sample questions include these: “What professional development experiences did you have after you became an English language teacher? Please list all PD activities/workshops,” “How many professional development workshops or sessions have you attended this past academic year?” and “Which mode of professional development have you used in your school?” In Part 4, two items asked participants to share their opinions and perspectives on English language teaching strategies. Sample questions are the following: “What do you think are the major issues or problems in English language teaching in Kuwait?” Based on the literature, researcher background, and experience, the intention of parts 1-4 was to capture the contextual background of the participants and the educational system in which they work.

Further, parts 5-8 of the survey comprised four validated measurement scales: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale adapted from Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), Self-Reported English Language Proficiency adapted from Chacón (2005), Classroom Goal Structures from Midgley et al. (2000), and Teachers’ Motivation-related
Outcomes from Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011). Participants were asked to assess themselves and respond to each item using a 5-point Likert-type scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. All survey items were written in Arabic, the native language of the participants (See Appendix D for Research Instrument: Participants’ Arabic Version). Additional information regarding each measurement scale is presented below.

**Part 5. English Teaching Self-Efficacy (ETSE).** Teachers’ self-efficacy (TSE) was measured with the Teachers’ Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, (2001)). This instrument comprised 24 items which evaluate teachers’ perceived self-efficacy regarding their own teaching capabilities in relation to the three domains: instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement in an effort to contribute to positive academic outcomes for their students. This scale was adapted to fit the context of English teachers; therefore, each item was revised to reflect English teachers rather than the original intention of the scale for teachers in general. Sample items for each domain are as follows: 1. Instructional strategies (items 1-8, e.g., “I use a variety of assessment strategies in my English class.”), 2. Classroom management (items 9-16, e.g., “I can control disruptive behavior in my English class.”), and 3. Student engagement (items 17-24, e.g., “I am able to help my students think critically in English class.”), with eight items under each category.

**Part 6. English Language Proficiency (ELP).** Teachers’ English language proficiency (ELP) was measured with the Teachers’ Self-reported Proficiency instrument tool (Chacón, 2005). Originally, this measure included 16 items and utilized a 6-point
Likert-type scale. For this study, items (9, 14, 15, 16) were removed because they were deemed irrelevant for the Kuwaiti teacher demographic and context. The now-adopted 12-item instrument assessed participants’ English proficiency levels according to the four language skills of reading (items 1-3, e.g., “I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English.”), writing (items 4-6, e.g., “I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.”), listening (items 7-9, e.g., “I understand films in the English language without subtitles.”), and speaking (items 10-12, e.g., “I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics.”).

**Part 7. Classroom Goal Structures (CGS).** Classroom Goal Structures (CGS) was measured with the Approaches to Instruction scale as part of larger Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (Midgley et al., 2000). This instrument assesses classroom practices of teachers and their approaches to learner-centered instruction. It reflects teachers’ goals for their students, and simply asks them to evaluate their teaching practices and in-class performance. The 9-item instrument has two categories: 1. Mastery Approaches (MA) (items 1-4, e.g., “I give a wide range of assignments, matched to students’ needs and skill level”), and 2. Performance Approaches (PA) (items 5-9, e.g., “I help students understand how their performance compares to others”).

**Part 8. Teachers’ Motivation-related Outcomes (MO).** Teachers’ motivation-related outcomes (MO) were measured with the Job Satisfaction (JS) and Motivation to Leave the Teaching Profession (MTL) scales (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). This 7-item instrument measures the general job satisfaction and retention levels of in-service teachers. Job satisfaction is measured by four items (items 1-4, e.g., “I enjoy working as a
and motivation to leave the profession includes three items (items 5-7, e.g., “I often think of leaving the teaching profession.”).

Permission and written approvals were received from Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), Chacón (2005), Midgley et al. (2000), and Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) to utilize, adopt, and translate their measurement scales respectively (See Appendix E for Permission to Use Instruments).

3.3.4. Translation Issues

As part of the survey instrument, translation and cross-cultural adaptation of the open-ended, closed-ended questions, and measures of Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), Self-Reported English Language Proficiency (Chacón, 2005), Classroom Goal Structures (Midgley et al., 2000), and Motivation-related Outcomes (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011) from English to Arabic was essential. These measurement scales were initially developed and created in English for participants in Western countries. Since this study was conducted in Kuwait, translation into Arabic was essential so that the study participants could fully comprehend each question and avoid confusion and uncertainty.

The goal of translating instruments for research studies is not to achieve a “literal translation” (Beck et al., 2003, p. 64), but to strive for “conceptual equivalence” (Schmieding & Kokuyama, 1995; Mason, 2005, as cited in Beauford et al., 2009, p. 78). According to Mason (2005), “conceptual equivalence implies that an item may be translated into different words, but the original meaning or conceptual framework remains intact” (p. 70). On that basis, to ensure content validity of the quantitative
measures, the process of translation and cultural adaptation was conducted in four stages, following the recommendations and guidelines of Beaton et al., (2000). The stages by Beaton et al. (2000) were developed for translation of measures in the fields of medicine, sociology, and psychology, and they can also be used in a variety of other fields (e.g., education).

**Stage 1: Forward Translation.** The first stage was the forward translation of the English survey. Each survey measure was translated into the Arabic language by a bilingual translator, the researcher. The translator is a native Arabic speaker from Kuwait, the target culture. She is also knowledgeable of the English language and Western culture due to her post-graduate education in the United States. The translator meets the criteria for translation, which includes proficiency in Arabic and English, along with cultural awareness. The researcher translated each survey item into Arabic based on the conceptual meaning behind each statement or question and did not use a word-by-word, literal translation method.

**Stage 2: Backward Translation.** The second stage was the backward translation of the now Arabic survey into English, without going back and looking at the original English instruments. This was conducted by the same bilingual translator. Similar to the first stage, the translation aimed for conceptual and cultural equivalence. If there was a difference in meaning between the Arabic and English item, it went through the forward and backward translation process again.

**Stage 3: Expert Review Panel.** The review panel consisted of four experts, the researcher who is also the translator, a Professor in Education, and two public-school
English teachers from Kuwait. The bilingual teachers have more than seven years of English teaching experience. The original and translated versions of the survey were sent to the experts for feedback. A series of iterative meetings were conducted with the experts to assess the quality of adaptation and conceptual equivalence between the original English version of the survey and the translated Arabic version. A few weeks later, a meeting was scheduled with each of the members to discuss all their comments, make necessary revisions, and reach a consensus.

It was established that the majority of the survey items were clear in meaning, but additional revision was needed for some items. In Part 3, item 9 reads “Do you have a formal mentor in school?,” but when forward translated, it simply reads “Do you have an official mentor in school?,” which was not the intention. The experts stated that this yes and no question was ambiguous in meaning; therefore, wording adjustment was necessary. The revised question reads “Do you have someone in your school who directs and guides you in everything about English language teaching?.” In Part 3, for items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8, the word “development” in “Professional Development” can have several meanings in Arabic, since it can be translated to تعلم وبناء على معرفتك السابقة, and تطور means evolving and to become better. Therefore, the expert English teachers advised the researcher to adopt the former term used in education by the MOE of Kuwait, which is تطوير المهنية. Also, the Professor in Education recommended changing the question form of some measurement items into a statement from using the first-person pronoun “I.” In Part 5, item 9 “How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?” was revised to “I can control
disruptive behavior in my English class.” This shorter statement made easier to do the forward and backward translation as it became clear, direct, and to the point. Further, using “I” allows teachers to self-reflect prior to choosing a number on the scale. Modifications were made to reflect the expert review panel’s comments until consensus was reached regarding translations.

**Stage 4: Pre-testing Procedures and Cognitive Interviewing.** In the fourth stage, a pre-final Arabic version of the survey was established for pre-testing. The survey was given to a sample of four, experienced, public-school English teachers to identify any conceptual issues. After completion of the survey, participants were questioned on their understanding of each item on the survey and their chosen responses. The researcher noted any issues to consider for the final version. These four steps were conducted carefully to ensure content validity of survey items.

**Translation of Terminology.** English to Arabic and Arabic to English translation is fairly straightforward. Some words or phrases share the same meaning even when literally translated. The main terminology used in this study was translated from English to Arabic as follows:

In Kuwait, “alkafa’a” “الكفاءة” is the Arabic word used in reference to having the ability and qualifications for a task or job position and “aldhdhatia” “الذاتية” is literally, the self. Together, “alkafa’a aldhdhatia” “الكفاءة الذاتية” is the Arabic term of “self-efficacy.” “alkafa’a aldhdhatia fi aistaratijiat altaelim” is the Arabic term for self-efficacy for instructional strategies; here, “aistaratijiat” “ استراتيجيات” (literally, strategies) and “altaelim” “التعليم” refer to the process of teachers’ instruction and students’ learning.
“alkafa'a aldhdhatia fi al'iidarat alsifia” is the Arabic term for self-efficacy in classroom management. “al'iidarat alsifia” literally translates to classroom management and has an equivalent definition to the English term. “alkafa'a aldhdhatia fi masharikih altalaba fi aleamaliat altaelimia” is the Arabic term for self-efficacy for student engagement. In English the word “engagement” can refer to the degree of attention, curiosity, interest, optimism, and passion (cognitive and emotional engagement) as well as participation in academic, social, and co-curricular activities (behavioral engagement). In Arabic, however, the word engagement literally translates to participation (behavioral engagement only). Therefore, engagement was translated as “masharikih altalaba fi aleamaliat altaelimia” in order to capture cognitive, emotional and behavioral aspects of student engagement. As revealed by back translation, translates to students' engagement in class, which was the intended meaning reflecting students' active involvement in the educational process.

“'iijadat” is an Arabic word that is used in reference to having a good command of a language. “allughat al'iinjlizia” is the Arabic word for English language. Together, “'iijadat allughat al'iinjlizia” is the term which refers to English language proficiency.

“tadribat alfasl waistaratijiat al'ahdaf” is the Arabic term for classroom practices and goal structures. “wasayil” “وسائلا” is the Arabic word used in reference to “approaches.” “al'iitqan” (literally, mastery) and “al'ada” (literally, performance). Hence, mastery approaches refer to “wasayil al'iitqan” and performance
approaches refer to “wasayil al’ada’.” They share an equivalent Arabic and English definition.

In terms of motivation-related outcomes, English to Arabic translations were quite literal and share the same meaning: “alrida alwazifu” (literally, job satisfaction), “aldafie” (literally, motivation), “lil takhali” (literally, to leave and let go of), and “mihnat al tadrees” (literally, teaching profession), which translates to motivation to leave the teaching profession.

Although the four stages of Beaton et al., (2000) cross-cultural translation guidelines were followed to ensure content validity of the survey scales, some flaws may still go undetected. Even when the researcher did not literally translate survey scales, there is always a danger that the intended meaning of the original survey items did not come across in the translated Arabic version. This unavoidable threat could lead to different responses from the participants, ultimately affecting the results and findings of this study. However, before analyzing the data, the quality of survey data was examined through exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) which can be seen in the next chapter.

3.3.5. Construct Validity and Reliability

In order to examine data quality, data was cleaned, and skewness and kurtosis were measured. Before conducting EFA and CFA, the skewness and kurtosis for each measured value was interpreted. It is recommended that the absolute value of skewness should be below 3.0 (|S| < 3.0), and the absolute value of kurtosis be below 8.0 (|K| < 8.0) (Kline, 2010). Based on this recommendation, the skewness values ranged from 0.044 to
1.993, and kurtosis values ranged from 0.091 to 5.988. These values were within the acceptable range, thus suggesting that each variable was normally distributed. Since Kline’s (2010) assumption has been met, it is safe to continue with construct validity.

Participants (N= 579) were randomly split into two subsamples (respectively, n= 290 and n= 289) (Pohlmann, 2004). The analysis of the first subsample (Sample A) was computed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26 (IBM SPSS Statistics 26, SPSS Inc.) and the analysis of the second subsample (Sample B) was computed using Analysis of a Moment Structures (AMOS) version 26 (Arbuckle, 2014).

**EFA.** Based on the first random subsample (Sample A, n=290), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the 24-item ETSE scale, the 12-item ELP scale, the 9-item CGS scale, and the 7-item MO scale. Principal component analysis (PCA) extraction with promax rotation (Thompson, 2004) was applied to the data to ensure that each item loaded on its respective factor with no high cross loadings to other factors. Before continuing with factor analysis, there are several criteria to check for. First, it is critical to check for Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values and Bartlett’s test of sphericity for each measured variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is recommended to have a KMO value of 0.60 or higher (Kaiser, 1974; McCroskey & Young, 1979). Second, it is suggested that Bartlett’s test of sphericity should have a probability of 0.05 or less ($p < 0.05$) to indicate significance (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989). In addition to EFA, parallel analysis (PA) was conducted on Sample A to determine the number of factors within each variable. Parallel Analysis (PA) (Horn, 1965; O’Connor, 2000) compares raw eigenvalues with the random data eigenvalues to determine the number of factors to retain within each variable. Brian
O’Connor’s (2000) rawpar.sps existing syntax script was utilized to run PA on SPSS and generated 1,000 random data sets with a 95% confidence interval.

**CFA.** Based on the second random subsample (Sample B, n=289), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed, specifically measurement model comparisons on the now-revised 20-item TSE scale, the 12-item ELP scale, the 7-item CGS scale, and the 7-item MO scale. CFA is used to identify which items are related or unrelated to which factors (Arbuckle, 2014). This is to verify the factor structure extracted from EFA. Also, the researcher checked the fit indices of the modified model. This is conducted in AMOS through several statistical tests including the following: Chi-squared test, degrees of freedom (df), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and expected cross-validation Index (ECVI). It is important to note that Hooper et al. (2008) advise against the reporting of every index that was presented as output in the AMOS program.

The commonly-accepted cutoffs and thresholds for these fit indices are as follows. For CFI, a value of .90 is accepted (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). For TLI, a value greater than 0.9 indicates a satisfactory fit (Forza & Filippini, 1998; Awang, 2012). For SRMR, the value should be less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). For RMSEA, the acceptable threshold is a value of less than .07 (Steiger, 2007) and a value of less than .10, or else the model would be rejected (Browne & Cudeck, 1986).

Results of construct validity and reliability are presented in Chapter 4.

### 3.3.6. Quantitative Data Analysis
After factor analysis, a series of statistical analyses was conducted with the data as a whole (N = 579) using SPSS version 26 software (IBM SPSS Statistics 26, SPSS Inc.). Statistical procedures include the following: correlations, one-way ANOVA, and stepwise hierarchical regression. The purpose of correlation is to identify the strength and relationships (i.e., positive, negative, or no relationship) between two study variables: gender, years of teaching experience, ELP, TSE (efficacy in instructional strategies, efficacy in classroom management, efficacy in students engagement), CGS (mastery approaches, performance approaches), and MO (job satisfaction, motivation to leave the profession). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to show gender differences (male versus female English language teachers) and career stage differences (early, mid-career, late-career) of the measured variables. Finally, a four-stage stepwise hierarchical regression was conducted with job satisfaction as the dependent variable. This is in an effort to assess which of the measured variables are best predictors of teachers’ job satisfaction.

Results of data analysis are presented in Chapter 4.

3.4. Phase II: Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis

3.4.1. Case Selection

After 579 participants completed the survey in the study’s first phase, they were asked if they were interested in and willing to participate in the second phase through a one-time anonymous interview. Approximately 28 participants agreed and sent their contact information separately to the researcher. It is essential for the study to interview teachers with varied scores or levels in TSE, ELP, CGS, MO (i.e., JS and MTL) aspects
of the survey. Since the initial survey was completed anonymously, potential interview participants were given an option to complete the survey again to make a connection between the statistical data and their experiences. Of those who responded to the request, six participants were selected based on calculations that represented varied survey scores for this second qualitative phase. Eventually, only three participants with above-average job satisfaction scores (i.e., three highly satisfied public-school English teachers) were reported on in Chapter 4. The number of participants aligns with sample size recommendations for qualitative case studies, which typically focus on three to five participants (Creswell, 2002, as cited in Collins et al., 2006, p. 86).

3.4.2. Interview Protocol Development

The interview protocol questions were based on the quantitative results of the first phase of this study. Eight open-ended, semi-structured questions explored the role of TSE, ELP, and CGS in relation to teachers’ motivation-related outcomes (JS and MTL) (See Appendix F for Interview Protocol [English Version]). The information from the semi-structured interviews can further explain the results of quantitative analysis since quantitative analysis can tell us only which professional identity indicators or constructs are related, but it does not explain what causes these relationships or why they happen. It is critical to learn more about what factor explains teachers’ high or low levels in TSE, CGS, JS, and MTL. The best way to reach this information is to ask teachers about their background, motivation to join the teaching profession, English language-related experiences, teaching goals, teaching strategies, purpose of assessment, and about their future plans as seen in the interview protocol. Sample questions include: “What are your
goals as an English language teacher?,” “What is the purpose of assessment in English language learning?,” and “What teaching strategies do you use in your English language classroom?” The interview protocol questions were customized to gain an in-depth understanding of the key statistical findings found in the first quantitative phase of this study. Additional questions were added throughout the semi-structured interview process to learn more about teachers’ experiences.

The interview protocol was pilot tested on one participant, and slight modifications were made accordingly. Then the interview questions were translated from English to Arabic, the participants’ native language, to ensure the reliability of the interviews conducted (See Appendix G for Interview Protocol [Arabic Version]).

3.4.3. Data Collection

The data was collected from two main sources: (1) semi-structured telephone interviews with six participants that lasted between 35 to 52 minutes; (2) participant responses to the quantitative survey. The data collection took place during the Summer of 2021.

3.4.4. Validity and Reliability

Interviews were first transcribed in Arabic and then translated into English. To ensure validity of the interviews, the practice of member checking is essential (Creswell & Miller, 2000), where participants individually received a copy of their transcribed interviews to verify their accuracy and to make sure they are correctly represented in the study. Upon confirmation from the study participants, the researcher continued with the analysis.
3.4.5. Qualitative Data Analysis

Each phone call interview was audio recorded with permission from the participants and then transcribed verbatim (Glesne, 2016). The analysis was performed manually using Microsoft Word. A three-column table was used to organize line numbers, transcription, and initial memos. Also, the side comments feature along with highlighting and color-coding were useful for the analysis. All audio recordings and analysis-related files are saved on the researchers’ Penn State OneDrive storage device for optimal privacy. Pseudonyms have been assigned for all participants, and any identifiable information has been omitted from the transcripts to ensure confidentiality.

Braun and Clarke’s (2006) thematic analysis is commonly used in qualitative research since it is “a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (p. 79). Steps in the qualitative analysis included (Braun & Clarke, 2006): (1) reading and re-reading the transcripts to become familiar with the data and then writing initial memos on the sidelines; (2) using initial memos and open coding method to develop codes; (3) identifying final codes with categories to create a codebook (See Appendix H for Interview Analysis Codebook); (4) using the color-coded codes and categories to search for themes; (5) connecting similar and different themes found across participant cases.

Results of interview data analysis are presented in Chapter 4.
Chapter 4

Results

Based on the first quantitative phase of this study, this chapter presents the results of construct validity and reliability of the survey measures through factor analysis, namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA), parallel analysis (PA), and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In addition, a statistical analysis of the quantitative data collected via survey instrument and associated results are presented in this chapter. Statistical analysis procedures include correlations, one-way ANOVA, and stepwise hierarchical regression. Based on the second qualitative phase of this study, this chapter presents the results of the thematic analysis conducted on the three participants and provides a description of each participant case in relation to the themes found across cases.

4.1. Phase I: Quantitative Results

4.1.1. Results of EFA and PA

TSE Scale. The results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed that a three-factor solution accounted for 65.013% of the total variance, and the first three Eigenvalues were 10.222, 1.580, and 1.201. As a rule, only eigenvalues higher than one (>1) were taken into account (Ford et al., 1986; Henson & Roberts, 2006; Morrison, 2009; Russell, 2002). KMO value was .952, and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$). In terms of factor loadings, it is recommended that .32 be the cut off level, while factor loadings between .30 and .40 are accepted by the literature (Carpenter, 2018). In this study, the researcher has chosen .40 (Ford et al., 1986; Hair et al., 2010; Reinard, 2006) as a value to be kept, but the researcher has also chosen any item which
cross-loaded and was more than .40 to be deleted. As presented in Table 4-1, the TSE factor loadings range from 0.481 to 0.965 and have met the criteria. Four items (items 7, 8, 15, and 16) were eliminated from the current scale, and 20 items were kept. Items 7 and 15 were deleted because they did not load on any factor, and items 8 and 16 were deleted due to semantic differences between the original English version and the translated Arabic version that lead to an unclear meaning in the translation. Deleted items were removed from subsequent analysis. However, parallel analysis (PA) (Horn, 1965; O’Connor, 2000) indicated retaining two factors instead of EFA’s three factors.

Table 4-1

*Exploratory Principal Component Analysis (Promax Rotation) with Factor Loadings of Teaching Self-efficacy Scale (n=290)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Efficacy in Instructional Strategies</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I use a variety of assessment strategies in my English class.</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I provide alternative explanations or examples when students are confused in the English class.</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I craft good questions for students in English class.</td>
<td>0.805</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I implement alternative strategies in my English classroom.</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I respond well to difficult questions from my students in English class.</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I make adjustments to my English lessons to suit the levels of individual students.</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Efficacy in Classroom Management</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can control disruptive behavior in my English class.</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can get children to follow class rules in my English classroom.</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I can calm students who are disruptive or noisy in my English class.</td>
<td>0.965</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I can establish a classroom management system with each group of students in my English class.</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire English lesson.</td>
<td>0.893</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I respond well to defiant students in my English class.</td>
<td>0.710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Efficacy in Student Engagement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I am able to get students to believe that they can do well in English schoolwork.</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am able to help students value learning English.</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I am able to motivate students who show low interest in English schoolwork.</td>
<td>0.694</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I am able to assist families in helping their children do well in English class.</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
21. I am able to improve the understanding of a student who is failing English class. 0.826
22. I am able to help my students think critically in English class. 0.903
23. I am able to foster student creativity in my English class. 0.760
24. I am able to get through the most difficult students in my English classroom. 0.664

**ELP Scale.** The results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed that a one-factor solution accounted for 63.121% of the total variance, and the first Eigenvalue was 7.574. As a rule, only eigenvalues higher than one (>1) were taken into account (Ford et al., 1986; Henson & Roberts, 2006; Morrison, 2009; Russell, 2002). KMO value was .942, and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant (p < .001). In terms of factor loadings, the researcher has chosen .40 (Ford et al., 1986; Hair et al., 2010; Reinard, 2006) as a value to be kept, but the researcher has also chosen any item which cross-loaded and was more than .40 to be deleted. Here, the ELP factor loadings were considerably higher than the cut-off level and range from 0.707 to 0.872 as shown in Table 4-2. Parallel Analysis (PA) (Horn, 1965; O’Connor, 2000) suggests retaining one factor.

**Table 4-2**

*Exploratory Principal Component Analysis (Promax Rotation) with Factor Loadings of English Language Proficiency Scale (n= 290)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Language Proficiency Scale</th>
<th>F1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can understand magazines, newspapers, and popular novels when I read them in English.</td>
<td>0.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English.</td>
<td>0.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.</td>
<td>0.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can write business and personal letters in English without errors that interfere with the meaning I want to convey.</td>
<td>0.707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.</td>
<td>0.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).</td>
<td>0.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can understand when two English-speakers talk at a normal speed.</td>
<td>0.826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I understand films in English without subtitles.</td>
<td>0.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I understand the meaning of common idiomatic expressions used by English-speakers.</td>
<td>0.802</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can participate in a conversation at a normal speed. 0.872
11. I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics. 0.845
12. I know the necessary strategies to help maintain a conversation with an English-speaker. 0.800

**CGS Scale.** The results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed that a two-factor solution accounted for 65.870% of the total variance, and the first two Eigenvalues were 3.360 and 1.250. As a rule, only eigenvalues higher than one (>1) were taken into account (Ford et al., 1986; Henson & Roberts, 2006; Morrison, 2009; Russell, 2002). KMO value was .827, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($p$ <.001). Two items (items 5 and 6) were eliminated from the current scale, and seven items were kept. After careful review of the items, item 5 was deleted because of a conceptual error that could have occurred during translation of the items from the original English to Arabic, and item 6 was deleted due to cross-loading of .40 on two different factors (Ford et al., 1986; Hair et al., 2010; Reinard, 2006). After deletion, factor loadings range from 0.470 to 0.915 as shown in Table 4-3. Deleted items were removed from subsequent analysis. It is recommended to have a minimum of three items per factor (Carpenter, 2018); therefore, there is no issue with this scale. Further, parallel analysis (PA) (O’Connor, 2000) suggests retaining two factors.

**Table 4-3**

*Exploratory Principal Component Analysis (Promax Rotation) with Factor Loadings of Classroom Goal Structures Scale (n= 290)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Goal Structures Scale</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mastery Goal Orientation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I make a special effort to recognize students’ individual progress, even if they are below grade level.</td>
<td>0.841</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. During class, I often provide several activities so that students can choose among them. 0.777
3. I consider how much students have improved when I give them report card grades. 0.892
4. I give a wide range of assignments, matched to students’ needs and skill level. 0.720

Performance Goal Orientation
7. I help students understand how their performance compares to others. 0.915
8. I encourage students to compete with each other. 0.470
9. I point out those students who do well as a model for the other students. 0.822

MO scale. The results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed that a two-factor solution accounted for 74.327% of the total variance, and the first two eigenvalues were 3.541 and 1.662. As a rule, only eigenvalues higher than one ( >1) were taken into account (Ford et al., 1986; Henson & Roberts, 2006; Morrison, 2009; Russell, 2002). KMO value was .789, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($p <.001$). In Table 4-4, factor loadings range from 0.750 to 0.922 and are above the .40 cut-off level (Ford et al., 1986; Hair et al., 2010; Reinard, 2006). It is recommended to have a minimum of three items per factor; therefore, having three items in F2 is within the acceptable range (Carpenter, 2018). Also, parallel analysis (PA) (O’Connor, 2000) suggests retaining two factors.

Table 4-4

Exploratory Principal Component Analysis (Promax Rotation) with Factor Loadings Teachers’ Motivation-related Outcomes Scale (n= 290)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Motivation-related Outcomes Scale</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I enjoy working as a teacher.</td>
<td>0.778</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I look forward to going to school every day.</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Working as a teacher is extremely rewarding</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. When I get up in the morning, I look forward to going to work.</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation to Leave the Profession</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I wish I had a different job to being a teacher.</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If I could choose over again I would not be a teacher.</td>
<td>0.922</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I often think of leaving the teaching profession.</td>
<td>0.912</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.2. Results of CFA

Table 4-5 presents confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) results of measurement model comparisons. English language proficiency (ELP) is a one factor model ($x^2 (df) = 268.7$ (54), CFI = .930, TLI = .914, SRMR = .039, RMSEA = .118, ECVI = 1.100).

Further, the results indicate that the three-factor model of teaching self-efficacy (IS/CM/SE) is a good and better fit than the one factor and two factor models based on the accepted thresholds ($x^2 (df) = 490.5$ (167), CFI = .919, TLI = .908, SRMR = .046, RMSEA = .082, ECVI = 2.002). This finding supports EFA and PA findings, which indicates that TSE is a three-factor solution with three domains (i.e., TSE in instructional strategies (IS), TSE in classroom management (CM), TSE in student engagement (SE)).

In terms of classroom goal structures (CGS), the results indicate that the two-factor model (MA/PA) is a better model that the one factor model based on the accepted cutoffs ($x^2 (df) = 58.4$ (13), CFI = .948, TLI = .916, SRMR = .067, RMSEA = .110, ECVI = .307). This finding also supports the EFA and PA findings, which suggests that CGS is a two-factor solution with two approaches (i.e., mastery classroom goal structures (MA) and performance classroom goal structures (PA)).

Similarly, the results reveal that the two-factor model of teacher motivation-related outcomes (JS/MTL) is a better model that the one factor model based on the accepted cutoffs ($x^2 (df) = 55.6$ (13), CFI = .962, TLI = .939, SRMR = .051, RMSEA = .107, ECVI = .297). This finding is consistent with earlier EFA and PA findings, which show that teacher outcomes is a two-factor solution with two teacher motivation-related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction (JS) and motivation to leave the profession (MTL)).
Table 4-5

Confirmatory Factor Analyses: Results of Measurement Model Comparisons (n = 289)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ (df)</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>ECVI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English language proficiency</td>
<td>268.7 (54)</td>
<td>.930</td>
<td>.914</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>1.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching self-efficacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-factor model (IS, CM and SE)</td>
<td>959.8 (170)</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>3.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-factor model I (IS and CM / SE)</td>
<td>798.2 (169)</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>.823</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>3.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-factor model II (IS and SE / CM)</td>
<td>656.0 (169)</td>
<td>.878</td>
<td>.863</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>2.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-factor model III (IS / CM and SE)</td>
<td>750.4 (169)</td>
<td>.854</td>
<td>.836</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>2.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three-factor model (IS / CM / SE)</td>
<td>490.5 (167)</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>2.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom goal structures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-factor model (MA and PA)</td>
<td>190.9 (14)</td>
<td>.797</td>
<td>.695</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-factor model (MA/PA)</td>
<td>58.4 (13)</td>
<td>.948</td>
<td>.916</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-factor model (JS and MTL)</td>
<td>408.3 (14)</td>
<td>.648</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>.190</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>1.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-factor model (JS/MTL)</td>
<td>55.6 (13)</td>
<td>.962</td>
<td>.939</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.297</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. IS = Instructional strategies; CM = Classroom management; SE = Student engagement; MA = Mastery classroom goal structure; PA = Performance classroom goal structure; JS = Job satisfaction; MTL = Motivation to leave the teaching profession; CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = Root mean squared error of approximation; ECVI = Expected cross-validation index.

4.1.3. Results of Correlation Analyses

Table 4-6 examines the inter-correlations among gender, years of teaching experience, English language proficiency, teaching self-efficacy (efficacy in instructional strategies, efficacy in classroom management, efficacy in student engagement), classroom goal structures (mastery approaches, performance approaches), and teacher motivation-related outcomes (job satisfaction, motivation to leave the profession) using the Pearson correlation coefficient.

Results indicate a positive correlation between gender and job satisfaction ($r = .09, p < .05$). There was positive correlation between efficacy in classroom management
(r = .10, p < .05), efficacy in student engagement (r = .14, p < .01), mastery classroom goal structures (r = .15, p < .01), and gender. Additionally, there was a negative correlation between gender and performance classroom goal structures (r = - .10, p < .05). Unexpectedly, there was no significant correlation between years of teaching experience and job satisfaction (r = -.00, p > .05) and other variables. However, there was a positive correlation between performance classroom goal structures and years of teaching experience (r = .15, p < .01).

Almost all variables have significant, positive correlations with English language proficiency, except for three (gender, years of teaching experience, and motivation to leave the profession). Specifically, there was a positive correlation between English language proficiency and job satisfaction (r = .20, p < .01).

As expected, the three domains of teaching self-efficacy (TSE_IS, TSE_CM, TSE_SE) have high correlations to each other because they are part of the same construct. There was a positive correlation among all three domains of teaching self-efficacy, efficacy in instructional strategies (r = .25, p < .01), efficacy in classroom management (r = .27, p < .01), efficacy in students engagement (r = .32, p < .01), and job satisfaction.

There was a positive correlation between mastery classroom goal structures (r = .35, p < .01), performance classroom goal structures (r = .23, p < .01), and job satisfaction. However, there was no significant correlation between motivation to leave the profession and any of the study variables except one (job satisfaction). There was a
negative correlation between job satisfaction and motivation to leave the profession \( (r = - .33, p < .01) \).

Table 4-6

Inter-correlations among Study Variables \((n = 579)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>-.33**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELP</td>
<td>.05</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSE_IS</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.63**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSE_CM</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.54**</td>
<td>.66**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSE_SE</td>
<td>.14**</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.62**</td>
<td>.72**</td>
<td>.72**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.56**</td>
<td>.64**</td>
<td>.56**</td>
<td>.67**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>-.10*</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS</td>
<td>.09*</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTL</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.00</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>-.33**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ELP = English language proficiency; TSE = Teaching self-efficacy; IS = Instructional strategies; CM = Classroom management; SE = Student engagement; MA = Mastery classroom goal structure; PA = Performance classroom goal structure; JS = Job satisfaction; MTL = Motivation to leave the teaching profession.

*p < .05; **p < .01

4.1.4. Results of ANOVA Analyses

Table 4-7 presents means, standard deviations, F values, and effect size as a function of gender for each measured variable. Overall, females had significantly higher teaching self-efficacy (IS, CM, SE) than males (Table 4-7). Females endorsed mastery classroom goal structures \((M = 4.27, SD = .59)\) more than males \((M = 4.06, SD = .78)\), but males preferred performance classroom goal structures \((M = 4.03, SD = .83)\) more than females \((M = 3.85, SD = .90)\). Females reported overall higher levels of job satisfaction \((M = 3.44, SD = 1.01)\) than males \((M = 3.24, SD = 1.07)\). However, there were no
statistically significant gender differences in motivation to leave the teaching profession ($M = 3.36, SD = 1.28$ for males and $M = 3.31, SD = 1.29$ for females) and in English language proficiency ($M = 4.27, SD = .67$ for males and $M = 4.34, SD = .59$ for females). Based on Cohen’s (1992) effect size guidelines (0.01 = small, 0.06 = moderate, and 0.14 = large effect), the results suggest a large effect size between gender differences, teaching self-efficacy in student engagement (SE), and mastery classroom goal structures (MA).

Table 4-7

Results of ANOVA Analyses: Gender Differences in the Measured Variables ($n = 579$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total (n = 579)</th>
<th>Men (n = 240)</th>
<th>Women (n = 339)</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Partial $\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELP</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IS</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTL</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ELP = English language proficiency; IS = Instructional strategies; CM = Classroom management; SE = Student engagement; MA = Mastery classroom goal structure; PA = Performance classroom goal structure; JS = Job satisfaction; MTL = Motivation to leave the teaching profession.

*p<.05; **p<.01

Table 4-8 presents means, standard deviations, F values, and effect size as a function of career stage for each measured variable. Overall, there were no statistically significant career stage differences in English language proficiency (ELP), teaching self-efficacy (IS, CM, SE), classroom goal structures (MA and PA), and motivation related-
outcomes (job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession). Effect size values in this study (See Table 4-8) were generally moderate by Cohen’s (1992) guidelines.

**Table 4-8**

*Results of ANOVA Analyses: Career Stage Differences in the Measured Variables (n = 579)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total (n = 579)</th>
<th>Early-career Teacher (n = 162)</th>
<th>Mid-career Teacher (n = 277)</th>
<th>Late-career Teacher (n = 138)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Partial η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELP</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IS</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTL</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. ELP = English language proficiency; IS = Instructional strategies; CM = Classroom management; SE = Student engagement; MA = Mastery classroom goal structure; PA = Performance classroom goal structure; JS = Job satisfaction; MTL = Motivation to leave the teaching profession.*

* *p<.05; **p<.01

**4.1.5. Results of Stepwise Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

Table 4-9 presents four hierarchically-ordered regression models created by sequentially adding (1) gender and experience, (2) English language proficiency, (3) teaching self-efficacy (instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement), and (4) classroom goal structures (mastery approaches and performance
approaches) to assess best predictors of job satisfaction. Gender and experience were entered as control variables at Step 1, explaining 1% of the variance in job satisfaction. The first regression model demonstrated that gender differences (male versus female) were significantly associated with teachers’ job satisfaction ($\beta = .11, t = 2.42, p = .02$). After entry of English language proficiency at Step 2, the variance increased to 4.9%. The second regression model showed that gender and English language proficiency demonstrated a significant association with job satisfaction ($\beta = .10, t = 2.32, p = .02; \beta = .20, t = 4.85, p < .01$). Next, the three domains of teaching self-efficacy (TSE), including efficacy in instructional strategies (IS), efficacy in classroom management (CM), and efficacy in student engagement (SE) were added at Step 3, explaining 10.8% of the variance in job satisfaction. The third model showed that when the three domains of TSE were added, only TSE in student engagement (SE) proved to have a significant association with job satisfaction ($\beta = .23, t = 3.48, p < .01$). Then, mastery (MA) and performance (PA) classroom goal structures were entered at Step 4. The fourth and final model demonstrated that both MA and PA have significant associations with job satisfaction ($\beta = .22, t = 3.82, p < .01; \beta = .12, t = 2.80, p < .01$) and uniquely explained 15.1% of the variance in job satisfaction (Table 4-9).

Table 4-9

*Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Predictors of Job Satisfaction (n = 579)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$R^2$ Change</th>
<th>$\Delta F$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>2.93*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In summary, results of hierarchical regression analysis show that the influence of gender on job satisfaction (with women reporting higher levels of job satisfaction than the men), and the influence of competence beliefs (English language proficiency and teaching self-efficacy) on job satisfaction, can all be explained by classroom goal structure—how students are evaluated in relation to each other and to a goal.

Based on the quantitative analysis of Phase I, two key results emerged. First, both mastery classroom goal structures (MA) and performance classroom goal structures (PA) were found to be predictors of teachers’ job satisfaction, even more so than the other factors studied (See Table 4-9). Second, teaching self-efficacy in student engagement (SE) has a higher correlation to job satisfaction than the other two domains (i.e., efficacy
in classroom management (CM) and efficacy in instructional strategies (IS)) (See Table 4-6 and Table 4-9).

4.2. Phase II: Qualitative Results

To further explain the quantitative results from Phase I, semi-structured follow-up interviews were conducted. Three out of the six participants interviewed were selected due to their high job satisfaction levels, and their responses were analyzed and reported on in the following section. A focus of Phase II is to further examine what teachers do in their classroom and what their goals are for their students. This is to understand why mastery and performance classroom goal structures were found as predictors of job satisfaction. In addition, since efficacy in student engagement was significantly related to job satisfaction, another focus of these interviews is to learn more about how teachers engage students in their classroom, which contributes to their high job satisfaction levels.

Table 4-10

Qualitative Theme Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flexible teaching strategies</td>
<td>Teachers move with the flow of the classroom, with a flexible routine depending on the lesson of the day. They choose from a selection of activities and materials. This decision is made with student input.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ growth and progress</td>
<td>Teachers have implicit goals and desires to see their students improve over the course of the semester or school year due to their teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ participation and feedback</td>
<td>Teachers thrive by hearing positive student feedback on their teaching. They</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
also thrive on being able to motivate and engage students to learn in their classroom.

The analysis of each participant case and across three cases yielded three themes related to English language teachers’ motivation-related outcomes in Kuwaiti public schools: flexible teaching strategies, students’ growth and progress, and students’ participation and feedback. Table 4-10 displays brief definitions associated with each theme derived from the interview data. Participant interviews were compiled and synthesized to form the definitions (See Table 4-10).

Each of the three participant cases reported high job satisfaction and low motivation to leave the profession scores on the survey, which made them ideal participants to conduct follow-up interviews with. The description of each case is as follows.

4.2.1. Haya

Haya (female) is a single, 24-year-old Kuwaiti early-career teacher who has taught English for two years in Kuwait’s public schools. She is currently teaching at the primary level. Haya’s reason for joining the teaching profession came from her passion for the English language growing up along with family influence; her mother was a kindergarten teacher. Based on the total average scores of the entire sample (N=579) presented in Table 4-7, it is evident that Haya has an average score in MTL ($M=3.33$), and an above-average score in TSE ($M=4.4$), ELP ($M=5$), MA ($M=4.25$), PA ($M=4.44$), and JS ($M=4.25$).
Flexible Teaching Strategies. Haya’s ability to flexibly incorporate teaching strategies in her classroom was positively affected by her high teaching self-efficacy. Regarding which strategies she utilizes in her classroom, Haya primarily works with students to give them a variety of activities and tasks to choose from: “The superior students would remain superior. They already participate in class and they’re getting full grades. I always follow the groups method and check who earns the highest number of diamonds or queens to raise their motivation level. **We also come up with new ideas during class.** I do not focus on the girls who do not wish to participate for the sake of it. Rather, I focus on the ones who are troubled from the inside.” Here, Haya employs mastery classroom goals and approaches (MA) into her teaching.

In addition, having students compete with each other by playing games to motivate them aligns with performance classroom goals (PA). Since Haya is teaching in the primary level, her go-to strategies consist of many kinds of games and fun activities to help engage the students and keep them interested. Haya has no specific routine; rather, she flexibly uses several teaching strategies in her classroom: “Nothing in particular. It depends on which idea I get. For example, I would get the idea of playing a game with them that day such as let’s get the pirate safely to his island so he can claim his treasure. Vocabulary words are introduced at the beginning of the class. The rest of the class consists of games, grammar, and reading.” Haya’s flexible teaching strategies are a combination of both mastery and performance classroom goals. On the survey, she scored high with regards to both approaches.
Students’ Growth and Progress. Haya has several implicit goals for her students. Haya’s main goal is for her students to be proficient in the English language to be able to successfully communicate with others using the English language. A second goal that is important to her and guides her teaching is for her to focus on the weaker students in the classroom and make sure they are attended to and improve over time. For example, Haya states: “First, I would like the students to be able to introduce themselves. I taught almost two years in the Applied College part-time teaching English, and even the older girls were not able to introduce themselves. For example, they would say “Name me Hessa” rather than “My name is Hessa.” They would eliminate the “is.” I’m concerned about this generation and that the youngsters would turn out the same. On the other hand, what I am currently noticing in our primary classrooms is that the students are great at the English language. There may be a few weak students who are not that strong in the language just yet though. Also, what I’d really like to have is instead of us supervising breaks and doing other managerial tasks, which are really not our specialties, is that we’d make use of that time to sit down with the weaker students and hold additional classes and explain things further to them. Currently, the school is asking us to put a betterment plan in place for those students, but they want us to do that during our break, which is wrong really because this is the student’s break also. I can’t force them away from it.” Here, Haya’s use of mastery classroom goals (MA) is highlighted with her ability to recognize students’ progress and by working with students based on their individual needs.
Students’ Participation and Feedback. Haya shares an example where she was able to get through to a difficult student and help the student believe in her abilities to do well in English class. Haya states: “Currently, I’m just forced to focus on participation. Personally, I believe attitude is everything. For example, I had one misbehaving student in my class who was always distracted. I did not use to teach that class, but I took it just so I can teach that student. As soon as I took the class, I found out that this student is not liked at school and is neglected by her parents in terms of school related work. That’s why she was acting up in class. She used to get a 0 out of 10 on any exam. By the end of the year, she managed to get a 10 out of 10 because she was able to find someone who cared about her at school.” Haya’s efficacy in student engagement (SE) shines through in this example where she got through to a difficult student by convincing this student to believe in the value of language learning, thus preventing failure in English class.

As a form of student feedback, student recognition and accomplishment are sources of Haya’s satisfaction. Haya shares several examples: “When the less-active students in my class start moving around and participating and when they start getting good grades. Also, when the students recall my name, they like me and are happy with my performance.” In a similar sense, Haya’s efficacy in student engagement is emphasized through her example of motivating students who didn’t show an interest in English schoolwork. Also, student feedback in the form of social persuasion makes Haya happy and satisfied in her teaching profession.

4.2.2. Amal
Amal (female) is a single, 23-year-old Kuwaiti early career teacher and has been teaching the English language for one year in a Kuwaiti public school. She is currently teaching at the primary level. Amal mentioned several reasons for becoming a teacher. Due to religious reasons, she chose to teach in an all-female environment; thus, gender-segregated schools were a perfect fit. She was also encouraged by her father to pursue a degree in English education. Further, Amal cited the high salary and long summer vacation as reasons for going into teaching. Based on the total average survey scores of the entire sample (N=579) presented in Table 4-7, Amal has a below average score in PA ($M=2.6$), MTL ($M=2.3$), and an above average score in TSE ($M=4.7$), ELP ($M=4.7$), MA ($M=4.25$), and JS ($M=4.75$).

**Flexible Teaching Strategies.** Amal flexibly integrates several teaching strategies and methods in her classroom: “It depends on the class and lesson during that day. Sometimes it’s a mix of videos and a simple game. Other times, it’s a game and group work. It depends on the lesson of the day.” Her choice of games, activities, or tasks are dependent on the topic that day. Though Amal scored low in the performance approaches (PA) part of the survey, she still encouraged students to compete with one another by using games as part of her lesson plan. She states: “I use games more than anything else, and then comes videos and group work.” Her mention of group work as an integral part of her lesson links to the idea behind mastery classroom goal structures where student-centered approaches are crucial. Furthermore, as part of utilizing mastery classroom goals (MA), Amal focuses on students’ progress in learning English rather than on grades, and she evaluates students based on their participation, engagement,
attitude, and classroom behavior. Amal states: “I follow certain instructions. For example, even though my department head asks me to evaluate students based on grades, I don’t evaluate them on grades alone. I do not grade them from the beginning; I follow their progress from the start of the course till its end based on their behavior and response rate. If I’m dealing with a student whose behavior is a bit challenging, I try to encourage her to change. And this happened with me. Some girls changed and improved their behavior due to my encouragement. Some students you can change. That’s why I don’t evaluate my students based on grades like what the school wants, or that I threaten them with grades. I don’t like to deal with my students that way. I like to try to change my students. If I notice that there is no use, then there is nothing I can do, especially since behavior is only graded out of five points. It is important to me that my students don’t behave badly with me or their peers in class.” Amal considers how much students have improved over the course of the semester before assigning grades. Here, Amal utilizes mastery classroom goals (MA) in her teaching; she also had a high MA score in the survey.

**Students’ Growth and Progress.** Amal’s main goal for her students is for them to leave her class having learned and acquired new information pertaining to the English language: “I’d like my students when they leave my class to have gained some valuable information, even if they are not be able to speak English correctly. It is, however, important to me that they benefited from me, learned new information, and understood something about the English language. I don’t want them to leave my class empty, to leave the subject gaining nothing. They don’t have to be perfect, because I don’t teach
them throughout all grades. It’s only one year, for two courses, so of course they will not be perfect in English just because of me. My first and last goal is that I just want them to have learned something from me as they leave the classroom. I mean that I feel happy knowing that they learned something from me; it does not have to be everything but some things.” Here, Amal’s use of mastery classroom goals (MA) shines through in her goal of recognizing students’ individual progress and by keeping track of students’ improvement and learning progress throughout the school year.

**Students’ Participation and Feedback.** Amal shares an example where she was able to get through to a challenging student and was able to positively change her classroom behavior, which made the student believe in her ability to do well in English class. Amal states: “… if I’m dealing with a student whose behavior is a bit challenging, I try to encourage her to change. And this happened with me. Some girls changed and improved their behavior due to my encouragement. Some students you can change …” Amal also engages students through the use of engaging strategies such as watching educational videos and playing games: “I was able to apply some fun and engaging teaching strategies and make use of tools that would energize my students and get them to become more participatory.” She is able to motivate students who initially show low interest in class in a variety of engaging ways. These are prime examples which explain Amal’s efficacy in student engagement (SE).

Through social persuasion, witnessing students’ accomplishments is a great source of satisfaction for Amal. Amal states: “I am happy when I work hard and give
students more of my time and then I notice that they truly care, and my efforts are having positive results. Whenever I feel my efforts are not lost in vain, I’m quite satisfied.”

4.2.3. Enaya

Enaya (female) is a 41-year-old late career teacher who has been teaching English for 20 years in one of Kuwait’s public schools as an expat. Enaya is married with children and is currently teaching at the secondary level. Enaya’s reason for joining the teaching profession stems from her fondness for the English language, which prompted her to join a teacher preparation program in Egypt. There, she found a passion for teaching; she cited the “nature of the preparation program” increased her “passion” for teaching. She also commends her past English teachers, who were unforgettable: “Some teachers leave a footprint that one can’t easily forget.” Based on the total average survey scores of the entire sample (N=579) presented in Table 4-7, Enaya has a below average score in PA (M= 2.6), MTL (M= 3.33), and an above average score in TSE (M= 4.75), ELP (M= 4.75), MA (M= 5), and JS (M= 4).

Flexible Teaching Strategies. Enaya uses a variety of teaching materials depending on the topic of the day. She makes it clear that she alternates between using both traditional and technological resources flexibly. Eyana uses a whiteboard and a smart board projector in the following ways: “I’d first write the date, the name of the lesson, the page numbers of the workbook and the students’ book that we will be working on, and lesson objectives on the board. I’d also be operating the smart board especially when it’s a session where the girls had a break prior. You’d find me rushing in, writing on the board and preparing the smartboard.” Enaya employs a mixed-methods teaching
strategy in her classroom and shares a critical example of incorporating real life scenarios in her lessons: “In general, the techniques we have been trying to use for years now, even before online classes, are to attract students’ attention, since a white board alone is not very useful. Using the board is, of course, important especially when teaching grammar, but we need to use smart boards, PowerPoint, and video illustrations. I don’t like using iPads to be honest, but I like working with laptops and preparing live simple material for each class. It depends on each lesson. If it was a recycling class, I would provide realistic materials on how to recycle using videos and PowerPoint as well as using the smart board.” Enaya provides students with a wide range of assignments along with a variety of activities; it is clear she employs mastery classroom goals and approaches (MA) in her teaching.

Enaya starts her class with a “warm up” routine, as she calls it. This is when she checks on her students, manages the classroom, checks on homework, and reviews past lessons: “I greet them first and check on them. If they have taken a test, I would inquire about that. If one student did not attend the previous class, I would check on her. If I noticed some noise in class, I would turn the light on and then off or use any movement to get their attention so we can get started. I would ask students to then open their workbook to a certain page, and I would review the content of the previous class. It depends on the class. Sometimes, I would check their homework first. Other times, I would review the previous lesson quickly. It’s a different case if the lesson is a new one or one which is grammar based. If it’s a new lesson, I would review the previous lesson first. We call it warming up.” As part of mastery classroom goals (MA), Enaya’s daily
warm-up routine where she checks on students’ progress and builds upon it makes it clear she is creating a learning-centered classroom atmosphere for students to learn successfully.

**Students’ Growth and Progress.** Enaya has two main goals for her students. Her first goal is for students to improve their English language proficiency over time using the skills they learned from her class. She also makes special effort to recognize students’ individual needs and provides additional resources in this regard. Her second goal revolves around fostering students’ creativity; she shares an example of one of her students entering an English poetry and short story contest. Enaya states: “I would teach the required curriculum in my own way, and everyone will benefit from it. What matters most is that they grasp the lessons and practice the language properly and develop their language skills. My goals are to teach them how to study, how to use the language, and develop their language skills. Honestly speaking, sometimes the curriculum requires some modifications. For many years now, I would prepare a notebook for my students where I would guide them to the important parts of the lessons that they need to focus on. It’s good to read and prepare at home, but these are the main points in the additional notebook I’d like students to focus on. Of course, I would meet the needs of both the academically high and low achievers. I still keep some of the stories and poetry some of the excellent girls have given me. What’s most important is that the girl would like the English language, and based on that, she’d be able to become creative and develop her skills further.” Here, the goals Enaya has established for her classroom are prime examples of utilizing mastery classroom goals (MA).
**Students’ Participation and Feedback.** In order to motivate students to participate in class activities and discussions, Enaya mixes up her teaching strategies. Enaya states: “In general, the techniques we teachers have been trying to use for years now, even before online classes, is to attract students’ attention and engage them in class…” This explains Enaya’s high teaching self-efficacy in student engagement (SE). Her many teaching strategies, methods, and resources are discussed in the *Flexible Teaching Strategies* section above.

As a form of social persuasion, Enaya states that through students’ gratitude and by observing her students’ achievements, she is most satisfied: “When I witness their accomplishments and they communicate with me later on telling me that they got into dentistry school or travelled abroad to study.” Enaya also states: “I’m content. There are many situations, whenever I feel gratitude from the girls that they now like the language due to my efforts.” She is happy and satisfied with her teaching when she realizes that her students have come to like and successfully learn the language.

**4.2.4. Cross-case Analysis**

Three similar themes related to the cause of participants' high job satisfaction levels in their teaching profession emerged in the analysis across the three cases: flexible teaching strategies, students’ growth and progress, and students’ participation and feedback. This analysis will clarify what actually contributes to and explains participants' high job satisfaction levels. Although these themes are common for all participants, they differed in the number and similarity of categories and the codes comprising them (See Table 4-11).
In general, there were many similarities between the participants, although they were at different career stages. Factors that are viewed as important for these three participants as related to high job satisfaction levels in their English teaching profession were as follows:

**Flexible Teaching Strategies.** This included a list of teaching strategies these highly-satisfied teachers have used with their students. Most of the interviewed teachers utilized games and activities, a variety of warm-up techniques, and technological resources in their lessons. Regarding assessment methods, these highly-satisfied teachers do not value grades but focus on students’ behaviors, attitudes, and participation in one form or another, which is more important to them.

**Students’ Growth and Progress.** This included creating a classroom environment where teachers’ goals revolve around developing students’ English competence and improving their English language skills over time.

**Students’ Participation and Feedback.** This included motivation for both teachers and their students. Teachers become satisfied with their jobs through social persuasion in the form of students’ recognition and students’ accomplishments. Another source of teachers’ satisfaction is manifested through students’ engagement in the classroom, which occurs by successfully getting through to difficult students and by motivating students to learn.

**Table 4-11**

*Themes, Categories, and Codes Across Cases*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub Category</td>
<td>Haya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Flexible Teaching Strategies</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching Strategy</td>
<td>Ideas generating</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Incorporate Games and Activities</td>
<td>Incorporate Games and Activities</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Warming up technique</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed methods</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Technology</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Group Work</td>
<td>Group Work</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-Category: Assessment Methods</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Behavior</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>End-term evaluation</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Students’ Growth & Progress*

Teaching Goals
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Introduction in English</th>
<th>Student to Learn New Info</th>
<th>Develop Language Skills</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assist Weak Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Stimulating Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Foster students’ Creativity</td>
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</table>

**Students’ Participation & Feedback**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Persuasion</th>
<th>Students’ recognition</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ accomplishment</td>
<td>Students’ accomplishment</td>
<td>Students’ accomplishment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Get through a difficult student</td>
<td>Get through a difficult student</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Student Engagement**

<table>
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<th>Motivate students</th>
<th>Motivate students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changes voice tone</td>
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Chapter 5

Discussion and Implications

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between competence beliefs (English language proficiency and English teaching self-efficacy) and classroom goal structures (mastery and performance approaches) as PI indicators that shape motivation-related outcomes (job satisfaction and motivation to leave the profession) of non-native English language teachers working in Kuwaiti public schools. This study also examined gender and career stage (years of teaching experience) differences of these English teachers. Quantitative findings in Phase I reveal that competence belief of efficacy in student engagement (SE) was found to be significantly related to teachers’ job satisfaction (JS), and mastery (MA) and performance (PA) classroom goal structures (CGS) were found to be major predictors of teachers’ job satisfaction, resulting in teachers staying in the profession. Specifically, females are more likely to endorse mastery approaches than are male teachers, who are found to be more performance-oriented. Guided by the two key findings from Phase I, the Phase II qualitative follow-up multiple case thematic analysis revealed what practices teachers use to teach and engage students and what goals teachers establish for their students. They are as follows: (1) flexible teaching strategies; (2) students’ growth and progress; and (3) students’ participation and feedback. Qualitative findings provide a practical list of mastery and performance-oriented teaching strategies and goals. This chapter discusses the results and findings of this sequential mixed methods study as answers to the four research questions that guided the data analysis. Theoretical and practical implications
are discussed, thus contributing to teacher development and retention. This chapter ends with a discussion of limitations and suggestions for future research.

5.1. Discussion

Results of the present study further corroborate the contribution of teachers’ self-efficacy (TSE) (e.g., Caprara et al., 2006; Türkoğlu et al., 2017) and teachers’ perceived English language proficiency (ELP) on their job satisfaction (e.g., Wiens et al., 2018) and provide a new contribution to the literature that attests to the influence of mastery (MA) and performance (PA) classroom goal structures (CGS) on teachers’ job satisfaction. The findings of this study did not fully support the model of hypothetical relationships (See Figure 2-1). Phase I of this study tested five hypotheses to understand the influence of competence beliefs (TSE and ELP) and classroom goal structures (MA and PA), in addition to gender and career stage differences on teachers’ motivation-related outcomes (JS and MTL). The quantitative results showed that three (i.e., H1, H2, H3) out of the five hypotheses were proven correct. H4 and H5 were proven false. According to the latest findings of this study, this research results in an improved model for studying influences on teachers’ motivation-related outcomes (See Figure 5-1).
5.1.1. Research Question 1

With respect to the first quantitative question of this study, “What is the relationship between self-perceived English proficiency, English teaching self-efficacy, classroom goal structures, job satisfaction, and motivation to leave the profession of non-native English language teachers in Kuwait?”, the results of the correlations analysis
showed that the three domains of teaching self-efficacy (TSE): instructional strategies (IS), classroom management (CM), and student engagement (SE) are strongly correlated to each other. These correlations prove that Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy’s (2001) Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES), which first divided TSE into the three domains, adequately represented the TSE construct.

The results also showed that the competence beliefs of teaching self-efficacy, instructional strategies (IS); classroom management (CM); and student engagement (SE), are highly correlated to job satisfaction. This finding confirms the findings from previous studies, and extends the research by showing the same finding with non-native English language teachers in the Middle Eastern context of Kuwait. This result also aligns with research on teachers that shows teachers’ self-efficacy is positively related to job satisfaction in the contexts of Turkey (Yıldırım, 2015; Türkoğlu et al., 2017) and Italy (Caprara et al., 2006). Notably, the results of this study showed that efficacy in student engagement (SE) had a higher correlation to job satisfaction than did the other two domains, efficacy in classroom management (CM) and efficacy in instructional strategies (IS) (See Table 4-6 and Table 4-9). This result is consistent with the work of Türkoğlu et al. (2017), which also found that teaching self-efficacy in student engagement (SE) had a higher correlation to job satisfaction than did other domains. Although teaching self-efficacy in student engagement (SE) is not a predictor of teachers’ job satisfaction, this particular domain is significantly related to job satisfaction. This result is likely due to teachers thriving on being able to successfully motivate and engage students to learn in their classroom, thus causing them to feel more confident in their teaching tasks and
abilities. Also, when teachers successfully attempt different strategies and methods to engage students in the classroom and consequently see students becoming more motivated to learn, students’ reactions seem to be more important to teachers than being able to manage the classroom (i.e., TSE_CM) or even use a variety of instructional strategies (i.e., TSE_IS). Teachers appreciate it more when students have positive reactions to their teaching; thus, efficacy in students’ engagement (SE) is highly related to teachers’ job satisfaction (JS) than to other domains. Additional qualitative results further elaborated and explained this finding based on teachers’ experiences, which will be discussed in sub-section 5.1.3.

The results highlighted that the second competence belief of perceived English language proficiency (ELP) was positively and significantly related to teachers’ job satisfaction (JS) (See Table 4-6). This result is in line with previous studies, where teachers’ high perception of their English language proficiency is correlated with high job satisfaction levels for English language teachers in Niger (Wiens et al., 2018). In the current context of Kuwait, public-school English language teachers have a high perception of their English language proficiency ($M = 4.31, \text{SD} = .62$). English teachers in Kuwait have a high perception that contrasts with English language teachers in Iran, where it was reported that English language teachers’ lack of subject knowledge of English led to low job satisfaction levels (Afshar & Doosti, 2016). The current study, situated in Kuwait, affirms the findings of the two previous studies in both Niger and Iran, adding strength to the idea that despite geographical and/or cultural contexts, non-native English language teachers who have a higher perception of their ability to
communicate in the second language (i.e., English) through high ELP leads to higher job satisfaction levels (Afshar & Doosti, 2016; Weins et al., 2018). One interpretation of this finding is that policymakers and teacher preparation programs should pay attention to the perceived English language proficiency of non-native English language teachers especially since Canagarajah (1999) and Nunan (2017) explain that those who are not native speakers of the language they teach have underlying concerns, which inevitably affect their classroom practices negatively. These negative effects on classroom practices stemming from underlying concerns affect their motivation-related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction).

In addition, the results of this study showed that many of the professional identity indicators studied (ELP, TSE, MA, PA, JS) are not significantly correlated with motivation to leave the teaching profession (MTL) (See Table 4-6) because in Kuwait, English language teachers do not have a reason to leave their profession. This is presumably attributed to the Ministry of Education (MOE) law No. 28, which increased the salary of public-school teachers in 2018 (Al-Mahdy & Alazmi, 2021; Al-Yaseen, 2011), along with the fact that teachers enjoy three months of paid summer holiday (Al-Yaseen, 2011). This interpretation has been confirmed with the interviews from Phase II of this study. One participant, Amal, cited high salaries and long summer vacations as some of her reasons for choosing the teaching profession. However, in the publicly-available literature, the Learning Policy Institute in the U.S. cited “dissatisfaction with compensation” as a major reason contributing to teachers leaving the profession (Podolsky, 2016, pp. 3-5). Similarly, the Department of Education (2018) in England also
cited low wages as a reason for teachers quitting the profession. Though low teacher salaries impact teacher retention in the U.S. and England, it is not a major issue affecting teachers in Kuwait.

As expected, the results of this study demonstrated a negative correlation between the two motivation-related outcomes (job satisfaction and motivation to leave the profession), this means that as levels of job satisfaction (JS) increase, motivation to leave the teaching profession (MTL) decreases. Therefore, by determining which indicator of professional identity best predicts teachers’ job satisfaction, this study can provide relevant implications to policymakers to curb the continual problem of teacher shortages in Kuwait and globally. Implications are discussed in sub-section 5.2.2.

Furthermore, another important aspect of this research question aims to determine the best predictors of job satisfaction. As part of classroom goal structures (CGS), the results of this study indicate that mastery (MA) and performance (PA) classroom goal structures are both positively related to job satisfaction (See Table 4-6). This result is further supported by the findings of the regression analysis, which found classroom goal structures (CGS) to be a better predictor of teachers’ job satisfaction (See Table 4-9) than competence beliefs (i.e., ELP and TSE). A majority of prior literature in the field quantitatively studied and examined how teaching self-efficacy is positively related to job satisfaction (e.g., Klassen et al., 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Moè et al., 2010; Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Høigaard et al., 2012; Çevik, 2017; Demir, 2020). These researchers have come to the consensus that teachers who are highly efficacious are competent, thus linking competence beliefs to teachers’ job satisfaction. However, the
novel finding of the current study found that teachers’ classroom goal structures (CGS), specifically mastery approaches (MA), explain more than teaching self-efficacy (TSE) and other professional identity indicators (See Table 4-9). This result is in line with past research, which found mastery approaches to be positively related to teachers’ job satisfaction in the Western contexts of Greece (Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007) and Norway (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2013). Another major finding of this study suggests there was also a positive correlation between performance classroom goal structures (PA) and job satisfaction (JS) in the non-Western context of Kuwait (See Table 4-6), and PA was also found to be a predictor of JS (See Table 4-9). When compared, mastery classroom goal structures (MA) was found to be a better predictor of job satisfaction (JS) than performance classroom goal structures (PA) (See Table 4-9). This finding is different from the limited studies done in the area because findings were inconsistent across cultures. With research conducted in Western contexts, Papaioannou and Christodoulidis (2007) found no relation between performance approaches and job satisfaction, and Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2013, 2017) found a negative relationship between performance classroom goal structure and job satisfaction. In contrast, studies conducted in the non-Western contexts of Hong Kong and the Philippines (e.g., King et al., 2012, 2013) found that not only mastery classroom goal structures (MA), but performance classroom goal structures (PA) were also positively associated with students’ learning and teachers’ motivation-related outcomes. These contrasting findings could be attributed to contextual and cultural differences of the countries where the studies took place (i.e., Western vs. non-Western contexts). The findings of King et al.
(2012, 2013) correspond with the findings in the non-Western context of Kuwait, where performance classroom goal structures were not negatively associated with teachers’ job satisfaction (See Table 4-6). The Middle Eastern context of Kuwait has a collectivist culture similar to that of Asian countries (i.e., the Philippines and Hong Kong), which explains why PA was positively related to JS and was found to be an additional predictor of MA (See Table 4-9). One interpretation of this finding indicates that competitive classroom practices (e.g., performance approaches) are negatively perceived in Western contexts (e.g., Papaioannou & Christodoulidis, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2013, 2017); however, in collectivist, non-Western cultures, teachers encourage and use these practices to motivate students to learn by competing with their peers (e.g., King et al., 2012, 2013). Additional qualitative results further elaborated and explained this finding based on teachers’ experiences, which will be discussed in sub-section 5.1.3.

5.1.2. Research Question 2

In terms of the second quantitative research question, “What is the moderating effect of gender or career stage on the teacher outcomes of English teaching self-efficacy, English language proficiency, classroom goal structures, levels of job satisfaction, and motivation to leave the teaching profession?”, gender was found to be positively correlated with English teaching self-efficacy (TSE) in classroom management (CM) and student engagement (SE), mastery classroom goal structure (MA), and job satisfaction (JS) (See Table 4-6). Though only limited research in this area examined the effect of gender differences on the above constructs, this finding corresponds with the research of Klassen and Chiu (2010), which showed gender is positively related to
teaching self-efficacy. Based on the ANOVA analysis, female teachers in Kuwait had significantly higher teaching self-efficacy in the three domains (IS, CM, SE) than did male teachers (See Table 4-7). Similarly, Klassen and Chiu (2010) found female teachers to have higher TSE in IS and SE; however, male teachers had higher TSE in classroom management (CM) than did female teachers (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). In contrast with the findings of this study, some researchers have found that there was no significant relationship between gender and teaching self-efficacy (e.g., Reilly et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018). Further, a closer inspection of the research findings (See Table 4-7) reveals that there were no significant gender differences in perceived English language proficiency (ELP).

Significant gender differences exist for classroom goal structures (i.e., MA and PA), which have been identified as the best predictor of job satisfaction (See Table 4-7). The results of this study indicate that women are more likely to endorse mastery approaches (MA) ($M = 4.27, SD = .59$) than are men ($M = 4.06, SD = .78$), and men are found to be more performance-oriented (PA) ($M = 4.03, SD = .83$) than are women ($M = 3.85, SD = .90$). In general, teachers in Kuwait promote both mastery (MA) and performance classroom goals structures (PA). As of yet, no study examined gender differences as they relate to mastery and performance classroom goal structures to be able to compare findings. However, this finding corresponds to Sabbe and Aelterman (2007), who state that female and male teachers tend to have different teaching styles, which impact their classroom practices (i.e., MA or PA) and students accordingly. A possible interpretation as to why female teachers favor mastery approaches while male teachers
prefer performance approaches is explained. In Kuwait, gender differences could be attributed to the fact that society is very traditional, so there are cultural differences and influences starting with why women join the teaching profession in the first place. Some conservative families prefer and push their daughters or wives to work among women in gender-segregated schools. In an interview with Enaya, she stated that this was exactly her reasoning: “...First of all, the customs and traditions in Kuwait are a bit different from those in Egypt. I liked being able to teach girls only especially that when I first started teaching. I started here in Kuwait, not in Egypt. I didn’t like mixed schools per se.” In a similar sense, Amal states: “My decision stemmed out of religious reasons because schools are gender-segregated. I also chose it due to vacations. It happens to be the second important thing that comes after religion when it comes to choosing a profession. There is also the good salary of teachers.” Most public-school education in the Gulf countries is gender-segregated. Furthermore, since schools in Kuwait are gender-segregated, male teachers teach in boy-only schools and female teachers teach in girl-only schools. Teachers’ behavior is reflected in and influenced by societal standards of how each gender should act or behave, thus affecting the classroom environment and teaching practices used. According to Spilt et al. (2012), female teachers tend to form close relationships with their students, more so than do male teachers. This could be due to women’s motherly nature (Sabbe & Aelterman, 2007; Drudy, 2008) and cooperative tendencies, while men, on the other hand, like to boast, overestimate their achievements, and encourage social comparisons and competition (Anderson & Dixon, 2009, as cited in Sosik et al., 2017). In an interview with Enaya, she states: “... We’re not just teachers.
We’re educators first and foremost and we deal with those girls as their moms. These girls are our daughters.” Enaya’s goal of being a mother figure to her students is in line with women’s motherly nature.

The results of this study indicate no significant gender differences in terms of motivation to leave the teaching profession, but these differences are highlighted in terms of job satisfaction (See Table 4-7). The findings showed that in the context of Kuwait, female teachers are more satisfied (\(M = 3.44, SD = 1.01\)) in their English teaching jobs than male teachers (\(M = 3.24, SD = 1.07\)). This can be explained by how mastery approaches (MA) were found to be the main determinant and predictor of teachers’ job satisfaction (JS) (See Table 4-9), and based on the findings, females endorse mastery approaches more than men (See Table 4-7). Thus, females have higher job satisfaction levels than men. This finding is in contrast with past studies that found no significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Reilly et al., 2013).

In terms of career stage differences, the results showed that teachers’ years of teaching experience had no significant relationship with the three domains of English teaching self-efficacy (i.e., IS, CM, SE), English language proficiency, mastery classroom goal structure, job satisfaction, and motivation to leave the teaching profession (See Table 4-6 and Table 4-8). Though only limited research in the area examined the effect of career stage and years of teaching experience on the said constructs, this result corresponds with limited research that found a negative or no association between teachers’ years of experience and their job satisfaction (e.g., Perie & Baker, 1997; Liu et
Findings proved false the assumption that the experience teachers gain over time will lead to higher levels of competence beliefs, classroom goal structures, and motivation-related outcomes. However, contrary to the findings of this study, Klassen and Chiu (2010, 2011) found years of teaching experience to be linked to the three domains of teaching self-efficacy: efficacy in classroom management (CM), efficacy in instructional strategies (IS), and efficacy in student engagement (SE) (Klassen & Chiu, 2011). Nevertheless, the findings of this study indicate that years of teaching experience were positively related only to performance classroom goal structures (PA) (See Table 4-6). This finding could be because as teachers gain more experience by attending workshops, observing classes, collaborating with peers, they therefore acquire more strategies, collect techniques, and learn different ways to promote competitive practices among students (i.e., PA). However, when examined further through ANOVA analyses there were no significant career stage differences on the measured variables (See Table 4-8). This means that a teachers' career stage (early-career, mid-career, late-career) does not impact their levels of teaching self-efficacy, levels in mastery and performance classroom goal structures, high or low levels of job satisfaction, and their decision to stay or leave the teaching profession.

5.1.3. Research Question 3

The third qualitative research question was “How do English language teachers’ self-efficacy in student engagement (SE), mastery (MA), and performance classroom goal structures (PA) contribute to their job satisfaction?” Two major quantitative findings guide the qualitative Phase II of this study. In sum, Phase I of this study found
that both mastery classroom goal structures (MA) and performance classroom goal structures (PA) are predictors of teachers’ job satisfaction and that teaching self-efficacy in student engagement (SE) has a higher correlation to job satisfaction than the other two domains (CM and IS). In response, as part of Phase II, this study interviewed highly-satisfied public-school teachers to explore these relationships in more depth to find out what goals and practices they employ in their classroom (i.e., mastery and performance approaches) and to learn about what they do to engage students in their classes (i.e., efficacy in student engagement) that contribute to their high job satisfaction levels. The results of the multiple case thematic analysis yielded three critical themes: flexible teaching strategies, students’ growth and progress, and students’ participation and feedback (See Table 4-10).

**Flexible Teaching Strategies.** Highly-satisfied English language teachers in Kuwait effectively alternate between mastery and performance-related classroom practices, as seen by their examples presented in Chapter 4. Accordingly, this study compiles a list of strategies and resources that contribute to teachers’ high job satisfaction levels, in hopes that other teachers can learn from them and replicate their ideas in their respective classes, eventually leading to higher job satisfaction and retention levels. Mastery classroom practices include these: encouraging students to speak up and share their ideas and provide input on class tasks and activities, teaching lessons using visual aids (e.g., PowerPoint) and videos, keeping up with technology to keep students interested (e.g., using smart boards), encouraging group work and peer collaboration, and bringing in authentic materials to complement lessons. In addition, these highly-satisfied
teachers prefer not to focus on grades, but follow students’ progress over time. Another mastery approach includes establishing a classroom routine to build a personal connection with the students which does not take the entire lesson, but would be part of a warm up routine. As part of a warm up, teachers should take this time to catch up with students, ask about their day, ask about their most recent quiz or test, and just check on them in general. Moreover, performance classroom practices these highly-satisfied teachers used generally included competitive activities and a variety of games that involve the collecting of points to see which team or individual won.

**Students’ Growth and Progress.** Teachers begin the school year with a set of goals they want their students to achieve. These goals are aligned with the classroom goal structures they choose to employ; teachers can be mastery or performance-oriented or even both. Based on the interviews, the goals these highly-satisfied English language teachers in Kuwait have for their students are mastery-oriented goals. Although these teachers shared that they like playing competitive games, which was a performance approach strategy, they did not share any performance-oriented goals when asked about the goals that they have for their students. Highly-satisfied English language teachers in Kuwait shared similar examples of mastery-oriented goals and they include the following: (1) wanting their students to leave their classroom retaining new knowledge; (2) developing students’ English language skills and helping them to be more proficient than the start of the school year; (3) focusing on students’ individual needs, especially, weaker students and helping them improve over time; and (4) recognizing students’ progress and tracking their improvement. Hence, when English language teachers teach
with these mastery-oriented goals in mind, they will become more effective in teaching and therefore more satisfied in their job.

**Students’ Participation and Feedback.** Highly-satisfied English language teachers in Kuwait engage students in a variety of ways including the following: (1) encouraging and fostering students’ creative efforts in the English language (i.e., short story contest, poetry contest); (2) changing students’ negative views and making them believe in the benefits of learning the English language; (3) getting through to a challenging or difficult student who is failing class and preventing failure from happening; and (4) including fun strategies in the lesson plan such as active engagement with the target language, games, or competition.

Highly-satisfied English language teachers in Kuwait report students’ feedback as a source for their job satisfaction since teachers are effectively using mastery and performance-oriented teaching strategies and goals, along with successful engagement efforts. Consequently, students are receiving high quality teaching, for which they commend their teachers and therefore show greater success. When teachers hear students’ positive feedback about their teaching, it makes them feel happy and more confident in their teaching abilities. Also, when teachers hear about students’ accomplishments, such as receiving an acceptance letter from a university abroad, they feel proud that it is because of their English teaching that their students were accepted.

5.1.4. Research Question 4

The fourth mixed-methods research (MMR) question was “In what ways do the interview data reporting teachers’ views about their English language teaching abilities
and classroom practices help to explain the quantitative results about job satisfaction reported on the surveys?”. This study treated teaching self-efficacy, English language proficiency, mastery, and performance classroom goal structures as independent variables and job satisfaction as an outcome or dependent variable. When determining what predicts teacher job satisfaction, integrating quantitative and qualitative data as part of the explanatory sequential MMR design is critical to gaining a “deeper understanding that occurs when personal experience help(s) to explain statistical results” (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 186). In the first quantitative phase, results of the survey data analysis found mastery (MA) and performance classroom goal structures (PA) to be the best predictors of job satisfaction. In addition, efficacy in student engagement (SE) was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction, more than other efficacy domains. In the second qualitative phase, follow-up interview questions were customized to ask highly-satisfied teachers about their experiences. Accordingly, qualitative data analysis provided a practical list of mastery and performance-oriented practices and goals and student engagement methods for other teachers to follow to have high job satisfaction levels as well. Using both quantitative and qualitative methods to determine what leads to high job satisfaction can result in teachers remaining in the teaching profession, thus increasing retention and reducing the teacher shortage.

In this study, qualitative data supports quantitative findings. Specifically, a significant finding of this study is that quantitative data analysis showed that not only mastery classroom goal structures (MA) was a predictor of teachers’ job satisfaction, but performance classroom goal structures (PA) was a predictor as well. This finding is
supported by follow-up qualitative interview data analysis. Teachers were asked questions such as “What are your goals as an English language teacher?” “What is the purpose of assessment in English language learning?” “What teaching strategies do you use in your English language classroom?” as part of the semi-structured interview protocol to learn more about their experiences. Interviewees' responses to these questions supported the statistical finding mentioned above. For example, Haya recalled a time where her students used incorrect grammar when introducing themselves, to which she emphasized her mastery-oriented goal of wanting to develop her students’ English language skills and competence. She also indicated that she introduces games where students compete with each other to collect points “...I would get the idea of playing a game with them that day such as let’s get the pirate safely to his island so he can claim his treasure...”, thus endorsing competitive practices in the classroom as an example of a performance-related approach. Furthermore, a similar response indicating the use of both mastery and performance-oriented classroom goal structures were found in Amal’s responses. She states “It depends on the class and lesson during that day. Sometimes it’s a mix of videos and a simple game. Other times, it’s a game and group work. It depends on the lesson of the day.” Encouraging students to collaborate in groups is mastery-oriented; at the same time Amal is encouraging them to compete by playing games, which is performance-oriented. Both Haya and Amal scored high in the job satisfaction scale in the survey, supporting the finding that their use of both mastery and performance approaches do in fact, have a positive association with high job satisfaction levels.
Another key quantitative finding indicated that out of the three domains of teaching self-efficacy, efficacy in student engagement (SE) was significantly and positively related to teacher’s job satisfaction, more than efficacy in classroom management (CM) and instructional strategies (IS). Similar to the significant finding on classroom goal structures, this finding is also supported by the qualitative interview data. As part of the semi-structured interview protocol, teachers were asked “Tell me more, how does it apply to the teaching of language, what strategies do you use that you find very useful?” to elicit responses on what goes on in their classroom, what they focus on, what strategies they find useful that have worked for them in their English language classrooms. Accordingly, interviewees’ responses focused on how they go about engaging students in their classroom (i.e., efficacy in SE); however, they did not discuss or share examples of classroom management strategies (i.e., efficacy in CM) or instructional strategies (i.e., efficacy in IS). For example, Amal states “I was able to apply some fun and engaging teaching strategies and make use of tools that would energize my students and get them to become more participatory.” Similarly, Enaya states “In general, the techniques we teachers have been trying to use for years now, even before online classes, is to attract students’ attention and engage them in class…” In an interview response by Haya, she shares an encounter with one of her misbehaving students where she managed to successfully reach out, motivate, and engage that student, leading her to improve and develop in English class. The examples Amal, Enaya, and Haya shared about their experiences adequately reflect Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy’s (2001) efficacy in student engagement, which was found to be significantly related
to teachers’ job satisfaction. All interviewees scored an above-average survey score in teaching self-efficacy across all domains but focused their interview responses on the student engagement strategies that they employ. In sum, these significant findings show that integrating the initial quantitative phase with the qualitative follow-up phase in this explanatory sequential design provides a nuanced understanding of the statistical findings.

5.2. Implications and Limitations

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between competence beliefs (English language proficiency and English teaching self-efficacy) and classroom goal structures (mastery and performance approaches) as professional identity (PI) indicators (Canrinus et al., 2011, 2012) that shape motivation-related outcomes (job satisfaction and motivation to leave the profession) of non-native English language teachers working in Kuwaiti public schools. By determining which indicator of PI best predicts teachers’ job satisfaction, this study makes a theoretical contribution to the literature and provides implications for practice to policymakers, teacher educators at teacher education programs, and teachers in general.

5.2.1. Theoretical Implications

Empirical evidence indicates that competence beliefs (ELP and TSE) positively impact teachers' job satisfaction (e.g., Caprara et al., 2006; Weins et al., 2018); however, this mixed-method study adds classroom goal structures (MA and PA) to the framework and found it to be a better predictor of teachers' job satisfaction. This study's theoretical contribution suggests that there are benefits to emphasizing classroom practices,
particularly mastery and performance-oriented classroom goal structures, which focus on students' individual growth and needs. Highlighting these classroom practices was found to be measurably beneficial to a teachers' sense of well-being (i.e., job satisfaction). In brief, this study found that a teachers' goal for their students' individual needs was a better predictor of job satisfaction than a teacher's sense of competence. Therefore, this finding contributes to a theoretical understanding of key factors that make teaching a satisfying profession. This finding also contributes to the theoretical basis for the design of professional development (PD) centered on mastery and performance-oriented classroom practices, which will be discussed in the following section.

5.2.2. Practical Implications

Since the category of classroom goals structures (MA and PA) was found to be a better predictor than competence beliefs, what teachers do in terms of classroom practices (e.g., designing the learning environment, developing goals for their students, and creating learner-centered practices) contributes more to their job satisfaction and has more of a positive effect than competence beliefs (i.e., TSE and ELP). This implication strongly suggests that teachers should focus on using mastery classroom practices and establish mastery-related goals for their students. Similar to the examples given by highly-satisfied teachers in Kuwait in sub-section 5.1.3., Midgley et al.’s (2000) mastery approaches (MA) and practices include the following: applying differentiated instruction according to students’ individual needs, recognizing students’ efforts and progress, and promoting student autonomy. This study has further established that not only should MA be promoted in the classroom, but in the non-Western context of Kuwait, teachers should
also utilize performance approaches (PA) since they also have a positive effect on their job satisfaction. Some of the performance approaches (PA) and practices include the following: sharing students' best work with the class as an example, encouraging competition with the students, and pointing out high-achieving students to the class (Midgley et al., 2000). Evidence suggests that being knowledgeable and aware of these two approaches (i.e., MA and PA) and using them appropriately and effectively will lead teachers to have positive motivation-related outcomes (i.e., higher job satisfaction and lower motivation to leave the profession), thus improving students’ learning outcomes. Teachers reading this study can take the MA and PA strategies and goals listed above and in sub-section 5.1.3. and try them in their classroom with their students. Practical implications for in-service teachers and pre-service teachers will be discussed below.

**Professional Development.** This study can influence the design of more effective, high-quality professional development programs in Kuwait in two ways, the first relating to PD structure and the second relating to PD content. First, MOE policymakers should change the structure of the regular, traditional, and facilitator-centered PD sessions that occur occasionally or infrequently to continued professional development (CPD) that occurs throughout the school year instead. Survey responses from this study indicated that, on average, public-school English language teachers in Kuwait attended only two PD sessions at a given school year. The duration of PD sessions in Kuwait is lacking compared with the latest literature concerning in-service teacher education and CPD (e.g., Wei et al., 2009). Further, about 80% of the PD sessions the participants attended did not provide an opportunity for group discussions with
colleagues or peers. This is consistent with teachers’ interviews in phase two, where they stated that MOE PD is usually delivered in a traditional lecture mode where the PD facilitator was imparting knowledge and teachers were passive listeners. This study illuminates critical and alarming information regarding the structure of PD programs in Kuwait; a finding supported by the 2015 UNESCO education report, which also found that Kuwait is in need of a CPD framework. Similarly, this current study highly recommends that MOE policymakers allow teachers to attend interactive and engaging CPD sessions because teachers should have a chance to implement in their classrooms what they have learned, come back to the session and discuss what happened with their colleagues. Like a continuous cycle, Petrie and McGee (2012) explain that CPD has no endpoint and is a constant learning process that allows for continued growth in skills, abilities, and educational knowledge for teachers to support themselves as ongoing learners. In sum, MOE policymakers should move away from their current “one-shot” PD workshops (Guskey & Yoon, 2009, p. 496), and give teachers the opportunity to attend CPD (Alibakhshi & Dehvari, 2015) sessions that are “sustained over time” (Wei et al., 2009, p. 9).

Second, policymakers at Kuwait’s MOE should also update and redevelop the content of their teachers’ PD programs to focus more on mastery (MA) and performance-oriented (PA) goals and classroom practices. Survey data showed that 43.35% of the participants reported that their PD workshops did not address their needs as English language teachers, consistent with AlShammari’s (2011) study. This survey data is also consistent with participants’ interviews in phase two, where they shared some
weaknesses of their MOE PD experiences, including that PD offers repetitive content and is only helpful for novice teachers. These weaknesses should be considered going forward. With generalized professional development, teachers passively receive the information; thus, facilitators should focus on providing personalized, useful, relevant, and engaging content that applies to the teachers’ context (Wei et al., 2009). Wei et al. (2009) explain that CPD becomes most effective when teachers are provided with a practical demonstration (i.e., modeling) of the sought-after teaching practice, strategy, or task where they can observe, reflect, and discuss with their peers over multiple PD sessions. Therefore, as part of the recommended interactive CPD sessions, MOE facilitators should model these mastery (MA) and performance-oriented (PA) practices with the teachers, so they get a chance to experience it for themselves and get a sense of how it feels and then be able to apply it in their classrooms. The PD facilitator should explain that this study, situated in Kuwait examining public school teachers, found MA and PA practices to be determinants of their job satisfaction. The current study's findings are not only relevant and useful to their specific context (Wei et al., 2009), but they are also substantiated, research-based, and applicable, gaining credibility from the teachers. Upgrading the PD content based on these recommendations will be more valuable and appreciated by English language teachers in Kuwait, hence, addressing their needs.

The findings of this study provided implications for both the PD structure and content. In terms of structure, MOE PD should move away from the infrequent stand-alone workshops and towards an ongoing CPD framework. In terms of content, MOE PD should introduce and incorporate both mastery (MA) and performance-oriented (PA)
goals and classroom practices for the non-western context of Kuwait. The professional development implications provided by this study answers Tryzna and Al-Sharoufi’s (2017) call for improved PD for teachers in Kuwait, especially English language teachers.

Pre-service Teacher Education. In addition, the findings of this study are beneficial to teacher educators and pre-service teachers in teacher education programs. As pre-service teachers graduate and start joining schools to begin their teaching careers, they often face many challenges (e.g., Saleh, 2019; Toom & Husu, 2021), especially during their beginning years. In the United States (US), about 40-50% of early-career teachers are at risk of quitting the teaching profession within their first five years (Ingersoll, 2003). Though Kuwait MOE does not publish its statistics publicly, low teacher retention rates are not only exclusive to the US. The findings of this study indicate that using MA and PA effectively in their classrooms makes teachers more likely to be satisfied in their jobs and less likely to consider quitting the teaching profession. Therefore, it is critical that teacher educators improve the content of the teacher education programs to better prepare pre-service teachers as they join the workforce, one example being the “methods course” (e.g., Clark, 1951). In most teacher education programs, the methods course is a required course dedicated to providing pre-service teachers with teaching approaches and methods to teach their content area. Through this course, teacher educators can better equip pre-service teachers by providing resources, readings, and assignments centered around incorporating mastery and performance. For example, these MA and PA practices can be included as part of these assignments: developing lesson plans, teaching method demonstration, and peer teaching (Jenset et al., 2018); co-
teaching (Rodriguez et al., 2020); and classroom observations at a local school (Ebersole & Worster, 2007). It is also essential to write a reflection paper (Jenset et al., 2018) on observing or using these MA and PA practices and considering the students' or peers’ reactions. Beyond the methods course, teacher educators can give students other opportunities to learn more about and effectively implement MA and PA in other courses throughout the program. Informing pre-service teachers of these practices can better prepare pre-service teachers to successfully join the workforce and help with the retention issues of teachers, especially early career teachers, in Kuwait and globally.

MOE policymakers, teacher educators, and teachers, in general, can implement these MA and PA classroom practices and goals to enhance quality of teaching leading to improved student outcomes. Implementing MA and PA classroom practices and goals, therefore, contributes to teachers’ job satisfaction and retention, which has been an ongoing problem worldwide, including in Kuwait.

5.2.3. Limitations and Future Research

This research study has three limitations. The first is limited access to information and relevant literature. For example, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Kuwait does not publicly publish its statistics on teachers and students; therefore, information related to the number of teachers quitting and the extent of the teacher shortage was found through local newspaper articles. This can be considered unreliable since this information was not obtained from an official MOE source and may contain bias. Also, there was a lack of access to research conducted in Kuwait and the Middle East, which the researcher can refer back to and make comparisons with the findings of the current study. The
second limitation is sample size. The researcher first attempted to collect survey data online through the Penn State Qualtrics website; however, this yielded a small participant sample size (N=121), which was not suitable for the study. Therefore, the researcher opted to move forward with a paper-based survey and distributed surveys to schools in person to reach a larger number of participants (N=579). The third limitation is the timing in which the two phases of this study took place. Quantitative survey data was collected prior to the Covid-19 global pandemic, while qualitative data was collected after Covid-19. This means that participants’ responses during their interviews on their teaching experiences could have been influenced by the current post-Covid-19 state of education in Kuwait. Similarly, out of the 28 participants who initially agreed to be interviewed, only six continued their participation in the study's second phase. This is because some did not want to redo the survey, others were traveling during the Summer 2021 vacation, and a few were struggling with Covid-19 conditions. It is critical to acknowledge that their survey responses the second time around may have changed since the initial quantitative survey was completed prior to the Covid-19 pandemic and the second survey was completed during the Covid-19 pandemic.

There are several opportunities for future research. First, future research can address the same research questions in a different country to compare findings, perhaps in another Middle Eastern country, where research in the area is limited. The TSE, ELP, CGS, JS, and MTL instruments were translated into Arabic and validated and can therefore be readily used by other researchers working in Arabic-speaking contexts to address their own research questions. Second, other researchers interested in teachers’
professional identity, teaching self-efficacy, classroom goal structures, and job satisfaction can replicate this study in their own cultural context and compare findings. Third, the researcher would like to further study gender differences in more depth; for example, why gender differences are instilled in gender-segregated schools in Kuwait and what this means for the educational experience these girls and boys receive since this study did not focus solely on the gender differences aspect. Fourth, it would be interesting to survey and interview students after surveying teachers to learn more about how and in what ways teachers’ job satisfaction impacts students and what this means for students’ overall learning and educational experience. Finally, the researcher would like to replicate this study with teachers from other content areas (e.g., math, science) in Kuwaiti public schools and make comparisons since teacher shortages are not exclusive to English teachers.

5.3. Conclusions

This study was designed to investigate a context primarily overlooked in the literature concerning competence beliefs, classroom goal structures, and motivation-related outcomes. This study contributed to the literature in several ways. First by expanding on the current literature by highlighting the importance of classroom goal structures (MA and PA) over competence beliefs (TSE and ELP) when studying teachers’ job satisfaction. In addition, teachers’ efficacy in student engagement (SE) was found to be positively significant to teachers’ job satisfaction more than teachers’ efficacy in classroom management (CM) and instructional strategies (IS). Second, this study found that context and culture (Western vs. non-Western) impact findings associated with
classroom goal structures as a predictor of teachers’ job satisfaction. Third, this study used a mixed methods research design to provide PD policymakers and teacher educators with an easy to follow practical list of mastery and performance-oriented goals and strategies. Critical to the context of Kuwait, MOE policymakers should consider the findings and implications of this study as they redevelop PD initiatives in an effort to curb the ongoing teacher shortage. Future research examining the impact of gender differences on CGS and JS in Kuwait is needed. It is possible to look at its influence on teachers and students in gender-segregated schools in Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries, where empirical studies are limited.
References


Al-Qabas. (2019, April 16). Reasons foreign teachers from the ministry of education are leaving to Qatar. *Al-Qabas Newspaper*. [https://alqabas.com/article/657163](https://alqabas.com/article/657163)


www.ibe.unesco.org/National_Reports/ICE_2008/kuwait_NR08.pdf


Appendix A

IRB Approval Letter

EXEMPTION DETERMINATION

Date: October 23, 2019
From: Joanie Tan,  
To: Hala Almutawa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Submission:</th>
<th>Initial Study</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title of Study:</td>
<td>Effects of PD and English Proficiency on Non-native English Teachers’ Efficacy in Kuwait in relation to Classroom Goal Structures and Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Investigator:</td>
<td>Hala Almutawa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study ID:</td>
<td>STUDY00013444</td>
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<tr>
<td>Submission ID:</td>
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<td>Funding:</td>
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Documents Approved:
- HRP-591 - Protocol for Human Subject Research.pdf (1.02), Category: IRB Protocol
- Survey_Arabic Version (1.01), Category: Data Collection Instrument
- Survey_English Version (1.01), Category: Data Collection Instrument

The Office for Research Protections determined that the proposed activity, as described in the above-referenced submission, does not require formal IRB review because the research met the criteria for exempt research according to the policies of this institution and the provisions of applicable federal regulations.

Continuing Progress Reports are not required for exempt research. Record of this research determined to be exempt will be maintained for five years from the date of this notification. If your research will continue beyond five years, please contact the Office for Research Protections closer to the determination end date.

Changes to exempt research only need to be submitted to the Office for Research Protections in limited circumstances described in the below-referenced Investigator Manual. If changes are being considered and there are questions about whether IRB review is needed, please contact the Office for Research Protections.

Penn State researchers are required to follow the requirements listed in the Investigator Manual (HRP-103), which can be found by navigating to the IRB Library within CATS IRB (http://irb.psu.edu).
Appendix B

Ministry of Education (MOE) Approval Letter

[Document Image]
Appendix C

Research Instrument: Researcher’s English Version

Welcome to the research study!

**Part 1: Demographic Information**

Please mark ✓ into ☐ which corresponds with yourself or fill the spaces.

1. Gender:
   - Male
   - Female

2. Age: ___________ (in years)

3. Marital status: Are you now married, widowed, divorced, separated, or never married?
   - Married
   - Widowed
   - Divorced
   - Separated
   - Never married

4. Do you have children?
   - Yes
   - No

5. Household income: How much total combined money did all members of your household earn in 2019?
   - 0 - 5,000 KD
   - 5,000 - 10,000 KD
   - 10,000 - 15,000 KD
   - 15,000 - 20,000 KD
   - 20,000 - 25,000 KD
   - 25,000 - 30,000 KD
   - 30,000 - 35,000 KD
   - 35,000 - 40,000 KD
   - 40,000 - 45,000 KD
   - 50,000 KD or more

6. Grade level you teach
   - Kindergarten
   - Elementary School
   - Middle School
   - Highschool

7. Your English teaching experience (in years)
   - ____________________________
8. Are you a native English speaker?
   o YES
   o NO

9. As a child, which language(s) did you speak? ____________________________

10. Your highest degree: ________________________________________________

**Part 2: Teaching English**

1. List all the things that an effective ENGLISH LANGUAGE teacher should be able to do:

2. Did you have experience teaching English BEFORE you became an English language teacher?
   o YES
      i. How many years? ______________
   o NO

**Part 3: Professional Development**

1. What professional development experiences did you have AFTER you became an English language teacher? Please list all PD activities/workshops:

2. Can you recall, what was the content of the professional development workshops? List the topics of PD activities/workshops:

3. How many professional development workshops or sessions have you attended this past academic year?
   o None
   o 0-2
   o 3-5
   o 6+

   According to your experiences, what kind of professional development workshops did the Ministry of Education provide?

4. Face to face professional development:
   o Formal lectures
   o Hands on workshops
   o Group discussions
   o Other _____________________

5. Online professional development:
   o Online courses
   o Online discussion forum
6. Did these workshops address your needs as an English teacher?
   - YES
   - NO

7. Are you part of any professional community of practice?
   - YES
   - NO
   i. In what way?____________________

8. Which model of professional development have you used in your school?
   - Peer observation: Do you frequently observe teachers in classrooms and provide them with feedback?
   - Open classroom: Do you invite colleagues to your classroom to observe and provide feedback in a post-observation session?
   - Lesson study group: Do you and other English teachers work together to plan and create lesson plans?
   - Topic study group: Do you frequently meet with your colleagues to write, discuss, and reflect on your classroom teaching experience?
   - Looking at students’ work: Do you look at students’ work (i.e., homework, class activities) and discuss their learning with your colleagues?

9. Do you have someone in your school who directs and guides you in everything about English language teaching?
   - YES
   - NO

**Part 4: English Teaching Strategies**
1. What do you think are the major issues or problems in English language teaching in Kuwait?

2. In your view, what strategies could improve the quality of English language teaching in Kuwait?

**Part 5: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale** Adapted from (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001)

| Opinion |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 5 = Strongly agree | 4 = Agree | 3 = Unsure | 2 = Disagree | 1 = Strongly disagree |

Opinions
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Efficacy for instructional strategies</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I use a variety of assessment strategies in my English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I provide alternative explanations or examples when students are confused in the English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I craft good questions for students in English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I implement alternative strategies in my English classroom.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I respond well to difficult questions from my students in English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I make adjustments to my English lessons to suit the levels of individual students.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I regularly measure students’ comprehension of the English content taught.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I provide appropriate challenges to the more capable students in the English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Efficacy for classroom management</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can control disruptive behavior in my English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can get children to follow class rules in my English classroom.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I can calm students who are disruptive or noisy in my English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I can establish a classroom management system with each group of students in my English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire English lesson.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I respond well to defiant students in my English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I make expectations clear about student behavior in my English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I establish routines to keep activities running smoothly in my English classroom.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Efficacy for student engagement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I am able to get students to believe that they can do well in English schoolwork.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am able to help students value learning English.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I am able to motivate students who show low interest in English schoolwork.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I am able to assist families in helping their children do well in English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. I am able to improve the understanding of a student who is failing English class.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
22. I am able to help my students think critically in English class.  

23. I am able to foster student creativity in my English class.  

24. I am able to get through the most difficult students in my English classroom.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English skills</th>
<th>Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can understand magazines, newspapers, and popular novels when I read them in English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can write business and personal letters in English without errors that interfere with the meaning I want to convey.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can understand when two English-speakers talk at a normal speed.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand films in the English language without subtitles.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand the meaning of common idiomatic expressions used by English-speakers.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can participate in a conversation at a normal speed.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know the necessary strategies to help maintain a conversation with an English-speaker.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part 6: Self-reported English Language Proficiency  
Adapted from (Chacón, 2005)  

5 = Strongly agree  
4 = Agree  
3 = Unsure  
2 = Disagree  
1 = Strongly disagree  

Part 7: Classroom Goal Structures (Midgley et al., 2000)

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Unsure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mastery Approaches</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I make a special effort to recognize students’ individual progress, even if they are below grade level.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. During class, I often provide several activities so that students can choose among them.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I consider how much students have improved when I give them report card grades.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I give a wide range of assignments, matched to students’ needs and skill level.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance Approaches</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I give special privileges to students who do best work.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I display the work of highest achieving students as an example.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I help students understand how their performance compares to others.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I encourage students to compete with each other.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I point out those students who do well as a model for the other students.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Part 8: Teachers’ Motivation-related Outcomes** (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011)

5 = Strongly agree 4 = Agree 3 = Unsure 2 = Disagree 1 = Strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Opinions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I enjoy working as a teacher.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I look forward to going to school every day.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Working as a teacher is extremely rewarding</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. When I get up in the morning, I look forward to going to work.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Motivation to leave the teaching profession

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. I wish I had a different job to being a teacher.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If I could choose over again I would not be a teacher.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I often think of leaving the teaching profession.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*After submission a separate Qualtrics link will ask:*

Are you willing to voluntarily participate in a one-time short interview, by phone or in person, if I need additional information in the future? The interview will be anonymous.

- Yes, please include your whatsapp # and you email. ________________
- No

***** THANK YOU *****
Appendix D

Research Instrument: Participants’ Arabic Version

جامعة ولاية بنسلفانيا
كلية التربية
قسم المناهج وطرق التدريس

استبيان بعنوان

العلاقة بين تجارب التنمية المهنية، إتقان اللغة الإنجليزية، البقاء الذاتية، استراتيجيات التدريس، والرضي الوظيفي

إعداد الطالبة
هلا تسير المطوع

إشراف الدكتور
رافيندر كول
الاستاذ المشارك في التربية
كلية التربية
جامعة ولاية بنسلفانيا
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

* استبيان خاص لمعلم اللغة الإنجليزية في مدارس الكويت الحكومية*

نحن مهتمين بفهم خبراتك كمدرس للغة الإنجليزية. سوف نقوم بتزويدك بالمعلومات المتعلقة بالتنمية المهنية، إتقان اللغة الإنجليزية، ممارساتك داخل الفصل الدراسي، والرضا الوظيفي. ما عليك إلا الإجابة عن بعض الأسئلة الخاصة بذلك. يرجى التأكد إن هذا الاستبيان مجهول الاسم والأجوبة، ولن تكون للإجابات التي تعطيها أي تأثير عليك. يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة بصدق. البيانات ستتعامل بسلاسة تامة وسيتم التخلص بالبيانات بعد استكمال البحث.

سوف يستغرق الإجابة على الاستبيان حوالي 12 دقيقة والمشاركة في هذا الاستبيان يتم بشكل تطوعي. يحق لك الانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت، لأي سبب، ودون أي حرج. إذا رغبت في التواصل مع الباحث الرئيسي، هلا المطوع، في الدراسة لمناقشة الأمر يمكنك التواصل عبر البريد الإلكتروني hua158@psu.edu

الباحث الرئيسي: هلا المطوع، طالبة دكتوراه بكلية التربية في جامعة ولاية بنسلفانيا في الولايات المتحدة.

إشراف الدكتور: رافيندر كول، جامعة ولاية بنسلفانيا في الولايات المتحدة

شكراً جزيلًا
مرحبا بك في هذا البحث الدراسي!

الجزء الأول: البيانات الشخصية
يرجى الإجابة بعلامة ✓ على إجابتك داخل الدائرة.

1. الجنس:
   - ذكر ✓
   - أنثى ✓

2. العمر (بالسنوات):

3. الحالة الاجتماعية:
   - متزوج ✓
   - ارمل
   - مطلق
   - منفصل
   - غير متزوج

4. هل لديك أطفال؟
   - نعم ✓
   - لا ✓

5. دخل الأسرة: ما هو مجموع كل ما كسبه أفراد أسرتك في عام 2019؟
   - صفر - 1000
   - 1000 - 2000
   - 2000 - 3000
   - 3000 - 4000
   - 4000 - 5000
   - 5000 - 6000
   - 6000 - 7000
   - 7000 - 8000
   - 8000 - 9000
   - 9000 - 10000
   - 10000 - 15000
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   - 250000 - 275000
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   - 90000000 - 92500000
   - 92500000 - 95000000
   - 95000000 - 97500000
   - 97500000 - 100000000

6. ما هي المرحلة الدراسية التي تدرس فيها؟
   - الروضة ✓
   - الابتدائي
   - المتوسط
   - الثانوي ✓

7. عدد سنوات خبرتك في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية (بالسنوات):

8. هل اللغة الإنجليزية هي لغتك الأم؟
   - نعم ✓
الجزء الثاني: تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية

1. هل كنت لديك خبرة في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية قبل أن تصبح مدرساً لغة إنجليزية؟
   - نعم، كم سنوات خبرتك؟
   - لا

الجزء الثالث: التنمية المهنية

1. ما هي تجارب التنمية المهنية والبرامج التدريبية التي شاركت فيها بعد أن أصبحت مدرباً لغة الإنجليزية؟ يرجى ذكر جميع الأنشطة وورش العمل:
2. هل تستطيع أن تتذكر ما هو المحتوى الذي اطلعته عليه ورش التنمية المهنية؟ يرجى ذكر أسماء مواضيع جميع الأنشطة وورش التدريب المهني:

3. كم عدد دورات التنمية المهنية التي حضرتها في العام الدراسي الماضي؟
   لا شيء  ○
   20  ○
   21-30  ○
   31-50  ○
   51-100  ○

وفقًا لخبراتك، ما هو نوع التنمية المهنية التي تقدمها وزارة التربية؟

4. التدريب المهني التقليدي والباشر:
   المحاضرات الرسمية  ○
   الورش التفاعلية/تدريب العملي  ○
   تشمل نشاطات الجماعية  ○
   أخرى  ○

5. التنمية المهنية عبر الإنترنت:
   دورات أونلاين  ○
   مناقشات عن طريق منتجات أونلاين  ○
   أخرى  ○

لا يوجد  ○

6. هل ورش العمل هذه لبست احتياجاتك كمعمل للغة الإنجليزية؟
   نعم  ○
   لا  ○

7. هل اختارت أي مجتمع/جمعية للممارسة المهنية؟
   نعم  ○
   لا  ○

كيف تشارك فيها؟  

لا  ○
8. ما هو نموذج التطوير المهني الذي تستخدمه في المدرسة؟
- مراقبة الزملاء: هل تقوم بزيارة ومراقبة أداء المعلمين الآخرين في فصولهم بشكل متكرر وتزودهم بالملاحظات؟
- الفصل المفتوح: هل تدعو زملائك المعلمين إلى الحضور إلى فصولكم لمراقبة أداءكم وتقييم الملاحظات في الاجتماعات؟
- مجموعة إعداد الدروس: هل تقوم أنت وبائي معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية بالعمل معا لمناقشة وتحطيم الدروس؟
- مجموعة دراسة المواضيع: هل تقوم بالاجتماع بشكل متكرر مع زملائك المعلمين لكتابة، مناقشة، والتفكير بخبرات التدريس داخل الفصل؟
- الاضطلاع على أعمال الطلاب: هل تقوم بالنظر على عمل الطلاب (مثل الواجبات المنزلية والأنشطة الصيفية) وتنقش تعليمهم ومستواهم مع زملائك المعلمين؟

9. هل لديك في المدرسة شخص يوجهك، يعينك، ويرشدهك في كل ما يخص تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية؟
- نعم
- لا

الجزء الرابع: استراتيجيات تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية

1. باعتقادك، ما هي العقبات والمشاكل التي يواجهها مجال تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في الكويت؟

2. في وجهة نظرك، ما هي الاستراتيجيات التي تعتقد بأنها ستساعد في تطوير جودة المعلم في مجال تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في الكويت؟
الجزء الخامس:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الاراء</th>
<th>العبارة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>في صف 1. أنا استخدم استراتيجيات تقييم مختلفة أثناء تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2. أنا بامتياز أن أعتمد على توضيحات قديمة إذا وجدت بأن الطلبة يواجهون صعوبة بالفهم في صف اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3. أنا بامتياز أن أبتكر أسئلة جديدة للطلبة في صف اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4. أنا بامتياز أن أطبق تدريس تقييم متعدد/أحاديث في صف اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5. أنا أقوم بالإجابة باعتبار على الآلة الصعبة من طلابي في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6. أنا أقوم بتحديثات على مدرسة الإنجليزية لتتناسب مع الاتجاهات الفردية للطلبة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7. أنا دائما أتاكد وأقصى مقدار استيعاب فهم الطلبة للمحتوى الإنجليزى الذي يتم تدريس.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8. أنا بامتياز أن أوفر تقييمات متالصفة للطلاب المتقدمين في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9. أنا بامتياز تحكم بالسلوك الفوضوي في صف اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10. أنا بامتياز أن أجعل الأطفال يتبعون قواعد قوانين الصف في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>11. أنا بامتياز أن أتقد طلبة المشاغبين أو المزعجين في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>12. أنا بامتياز أن أشترك نظام الإدارة الفصل الدراسي يتاسب مع كل مجموعات الطلبة في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>13. أنا بامتياز نعم عدد من الطلبة المشاغبين من أقسام الفصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>14. أنا استجيب بشكل جيد عندما أتعامل مع الطلبة المشالكين والمتحدين في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>15. أنا أضع توقعات واضحة عن سلوك الطلبة في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>16. أنا أقوم بإجراءات روتينية للحفاظ على سير الأنشطة بسلاسة في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>17. أنا بامتياز أن أجعل الطلبة يرونون أنهم سليهم على الاداء الجيد للأعمال المدرسية باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>18. أنا قادر على مساعدت الطلبة على تدفق التعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
الجزء السادس:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية</th>
<th>الأراء</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. أنا قادر على قراءة المجلات والروايات في الإنجليزية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. أنا تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل مثالي في المدرسة.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. أنا قادر على كتابة رسائل تجارية وشخصية باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. أنا قادر على كتابة مقال قصير باللغة الإنجليزية حول موضوع معرفي.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. أنا قادر على إعداد نماذج تقديمية باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. أنا قادر على كتابة دخان بترجمة ابتدائية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. أنا قادر على إعداد نماذج تقديمية باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. أنا قادر على كتابة مقالات خاصة باللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. أنا قادر على ابتدائي الإنجليزية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. أنا قادر على كتابة دخان بترجمة ابتدائية.</td>
<td>5  3  1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

النماذج المطلوبة:

1. أنا قادر على تحقيق النتائج المثلى في إجابات الأسئلة. |
2. أنا قادر على تقديم المناقشات الإيجابية. |
3. أنا قادر على المشاركة في المناقشات الإيجابية. |
4. أنا قادر على المشاركة في المناقشات الإيجابية. |
5. أنا قادر على المشاركة في المناقشات الإيجابية. |
الجزء السابع:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الواعظ</th>
<th>في صفتي أنا:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. أنا أطلب إجراء في ملاحظة التقدم الأكاديمي لكل طالب، حتى وإن كانت درجاتهم منخفضة أو تحت المعدل الطبيعي.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. أثناء الفصل، أنا غالبا ما أقدم العديد من النشاطات كي يتمكن الطلاب من الاختيار بينهم ما يريدهم فعله.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. أنا أضع بعض الاعتبار مقدر تحسن الطلاب عندما يضع لهم درجاتهم على الشهادة.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. أنا أعرف مجموعة واسعة من المهام تتناسب مع احتياجات الطلاب ومستوي قدراتهم.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. أنا أعطي استيارات خاصة للطلاب المجتهدين الذين يقومون بفضل عمل</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. أنا أعرض أعمال الطلبة المتفوقين للصف كمثال.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. أنا أساعد الطلاب على فهم مستوى الدراسة من خلال مقارنتهم بأئمهم.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. أنا أشجع الطلاب على التنافس مع بعضهم البعض.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. أنا أقوم بتعريف الصف على الطلاب المتميزين حتى يصبحوا نموذج/قدوة للطلاب الآخرين.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<p>|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الأراء</th>
<th>تصريح</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 = لا أوافق بشدة</td>
<td>2 = لا أوافق</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 = غير متأكد</td>
<td>4 = أوافق</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 = أوافق بشدة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

الجزء الثامن:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الواعظ</th>
<th>في صفتي أنا:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. أنا استمتع بالعمل كمدرس.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. أنا أتطلع للذهاب إلى المدرسة كل يوم.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. العمل كمعلم مجزي للغاية.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>٤</td>
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<tr>
<td>٥</td>
<td>٤</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. وقتی بیدار شدی، بازی کلیه ای از کار خود به مدت طولانی بپردازی.
5. اگر من امیدوار بودم در کاری دیگری مشغول گردیم.
6. هنوز چگونه کاری در سه روز اخیر مرا تربیت نمی‌نماید.
7. همواره در نظر داشته‌ام که سه‌روزه از کار خود است."}

**متأسفانه، صحبت‌های این پیام کاملاً ناقص است.**
Appendix E

Permission to Use Instruments

Approval to Use Classroom Goal Structures Instrument

From: Anderman, Lynley <anderman.2@osu.edu>
Subject: RE: Permission to use Instrument
Date: September 11, 2019 at 9:29 AM
To: AlMutawa, Hala T A I A <hua158@psu.edu>

Thank you for your message. The PALS is available for broad usage – I don’t see any problem with using a translated version. The citation you have is fine.

Lynley H. Anderman, Ph.D.

Professor of Educational Psychology
Department of Educational Studies
College of Education and Human Ecology
Ohio State University

145D Ramseyer Hall
29 W Woodruff Ave
Columbus, OH 43210

From: AlMutawa, Hala T A I A <hua158@psu.edu>
Sent: Tuesday, September 10, 2019 8:18 PM
To: Anderman, Lynley <anderman.2@osu.edu>
Subject: Permission to use Instrument

Dear Professor Lynley Anderman,


In brief, the research problem that I am interested in studying is the relationships between non-native English as a second language (ESL) teachers’ professional development (PD) experiences, perceived English language proficiency, classroom goal structures, and teacher satisfaction in Kuwait.

I am planning to use the instrument without modifying or changing it. I will be translating it into Arabic in order to receive valid results from my teacher participants. It will be administered online through a survey link. It will be part of a larger survey.

In addition to using the instrument, I also ask your permission to reproduce it in my future dissertation appendix.
I would like to use and reproduce your instrument under the following conditions:

- I will use the instrument only for my research study and will not sell or use it for any other purposes.
- I will include a statement of attribution and copyright on all copies of the instrument. If you have a specific statement of attribution that you would like for me to include, please provide it in your response.

If you do not control the copyright for these materials, I would appreciate any information you can provide concerning the proper person or organization I should contact.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail at hua158@psu.edu.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,
Hala AlMutawa

Hala T. AlMutawa, M.S.Ed.
PhD Candidate
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
hua158@psu.edu
Approval to use Self-Reported English Proficiency Scale

ELSEVIER LICENSE TERMS AND CONDITIONS

Sep 14, 2019

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Licensed Content Title Teachers’ perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela
Licensed Content Author Carmen Teresa Chacón
Licensed Content Date Apr 1, 2005
Licensed Content Volume 21
Licensed Content Issue 3
Licensed Content Pages 16
Start Page 257
End Page 272
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Languages English Arabic
Original figure numbers table 2
Title of your thesis/dissertation Effects of PD and English Proficiency on Non-native English Teachers’ Efficacy in Kuwait in relation to Classroom Goal Structures and Job Satisfaction
Expected completion date Jul 2022
Estimated size (number of pages) 110
Approval to use Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

From: Anita Woolfolk Hoy anitahoy@me.com
Subject: Re: Permission to use Instrument
Date: September 13, 2019 at 2:41 PM
To: AlMutawa, Hala T A I A hua158@psu.edu

You are welcome to use the TSES in your research as you describe below. This website might be helpful to you:

http://ou.osu.edu/hoy.17/research/instruments/


Best wishes in your work.

Anita

Anita Woolfolk Hoy, PhD
Professor Emerita
The Ohio State University
7655 Pebble Creek Circle, Unit 301
Naples, FL 34108

anitahoy@mac.com
415-640-2017

HTTP://OU.osu.edu/hoy.17/

On Sep 13, 2019, at 2:36 PM, AlMutawa, Hala T A I A <hua158@psu.edu> wrote:

Dear Professor Anita Hoy,

I am a PhD candidate at the Curriculum and Instruction program at Penn State University. I am working on a research study for my dissertation project.


In brief, the research problem that I am interested in studying is the relationships between non-native English as a second language (ESL) teachers’ professional development (PD) experiences, perceived English language proficiency, classroom goal structures, and teacher satisfaction in Kuwait.

I am planning to use the instrument by adapting the items to fit my English teacher participants. I will be translating it into Arabic in order to receive valid results from my teacher participants. It will be administered online through a survey link. It will be part of a larger survey.

In addition to using the instrument, I also ask your permission to reproduce it in my future dissertation appendix.

I would like to use and reproduce your instrument under the following conditions:

- I will use the instrument only for my research study and will not sell or use it for any other purposes
- I will include a statement of attribution and copyright on all copies of the instrument. If you have a specific statement of attribution that you would like for me to include, please provide it in your response.

If you do not control the copyright for these materials, I would appreciate any information you can provide concerning the proper person or organization I should contact.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail at hua158@psu.edu.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,
Hala AlMutawa

Hala T. AlMutawa, M.S.Ed.
PhD Candidate
Approval to use Job Satisfaction Measurement Scale

Dear Hala,

Please feel free to USE the scales you mention in your Mail. I do not have the scales at hand right now, but I believe all items are given in the article.

Best wishes

Einar

Sent fra min iPad

Den 11. sep. 2019 kl. 02:29 skrev AlMutawa, Hala T A I A <hua158@psu.edu>.

Dear Professor Einar Skaalvik,

I am a PhD candidate at the Curriculum and Instruction program at Penn State University. I am working on a research study for my dissertation project.

I am writing to ask written permission to use the items in “Job satisfaction” and “motivation to leave the teaching profession” on page 1033 of your article.


In brief, the research problem that I am interested in studying is the relationships between non-native English as a second language (ESL) teachers’ professional development (PD) experiences, perceived English language proficiency, classroom goal structures, and teacher satisfaction in Kuwait.

I am planning to use the instrument by adapting the items to fit my English teacher participants. I will be translating it into Arabic in order to receive valid results from my teacher participants. It will be administered online through a survey link. It will be part of a larger survey.

In addition to using the instrument, I also ask your permission to reproduce it in my future dissertation appendix.

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If you do not control the copyright for these materials, I would appreciate any information you can provide concerning the proper person or organization I should contact.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail at hua158@psu.edu.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Hala AlMutawa

Hala T. AlMutawa, M.S.Ed.

PhD Candidate
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
hua158@psu.edu
Appendix F

Interview Protocol [English Version]

Semi-structured interview: Guiding questions and prompts

Thank you [participant name] for agreeing to be interviewed today. Would it be okay to record this interview? The purpose of this interview is to understand the experiences of English language teachers in Kuwaiti public schools. Our interview will take about 40-45 minutes if that’s okay. Great. Let’s get started!

1. I would like to learn a little bit about you:
   - Where you teach? What subjects?
   - Why did you choose to be a teacher?
   - How did you get into the teaching profession?

2. Please share your English language-related experiences:
   - During the childhood?
   - Any role models?
   - Family/sibling interactions?
   - Hobbies and activities?
   - Teacher preparation experiences?
   - Professional development experiences?

3. What are your goals as an English language teacher?

4. What is the purpose of assessment in English language learning?

5. What teaching strategies do you use in your English language classroom?
   - Tell me more, how does it apply to the teaching of language, what strategies do you use that you find very useful?
   - Did you learn these strategies in your teacher education program or did you learn these strategies from your professional development?

6. Would you share with me a time when you have felt particularly satisfied with your job?
7. Would you share with me a time when you have felt particularly dissatisfied with your job?

8. How do you see your family and professional plans in the future?

Thank you so much for your time!
Appendix G

Interview Protocol [Arabic Version]

شكرًا لك [اسم المشارك] على موافقتك على إجراء مقابلة اليوم. هل سيكون من المقبول تسجيل هذه المقابلة؟ الغرض من هذه المقابلة هو تبادل معلومات اللغة الإنجليزية بين المشاركين في المدارس الحكومية الكويتية. ستستغرق مقابلتنا حوالي 40-45 دقيقة. رأين. هيا نبدأ!

1. أود أن أعرف عليك كمدرس لغة إنجليزية:
   - السؤال الأول، أود أن أعرف اين تدرس وما هي المواد التي تدرسها؟
   - لماذا اخترت مهنة التدريس، ومتى قررت أن تكون مدرسًا؟
   - كيف دخلت مهنة التدريس؟

2. قل لي عن تجاربك مع اللغة الإنجليزية:
   - خلال طفولتك؟
   - هل لديك قوة؟
   - التفاعلات العائلية/الأخوة؟
   - الاهتمامات أو الأنشطة؟
   - تجاربك بكلية التربية لأعداد المعلمين؟
   - تجاربك مع التنمية المهنية؟

3. ما هي أهدافك كمدرس لغة إنجليزية؟
   - إذا تقدمت صفا وتلاميذك، ما هو أهم الأشياء التي تركز عليها؟
   - ما هي استراتيجيات التدريس التي تستخدمها انت في صقل اللغة الإنجليزية؟
   - ما هي الاستراتيجيات التي تدرب بها مفيدة لتدريس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة ثانية؟
   - هل تعلم هذه الاستراتيجيات بكلية التربية أو تعلمتها من دورات التنمية المهنية؟

4. ممكن تشاركتي وقت أحساستك فيه إحكام رضي عن وظيفتك كمدرس لغة إنجليزية؟

5. ممكن تشاركتي في وقت أحسست فيه إحكام غير رضي عن وظيفتك كمدرس لغة إنجليزية؟

6. وصلنا لأخر سؤال، ما هي خططك العائلية والمهنية في المستقبل؟

شكرا على وقتك وصراحتك.

يعطلك العافية، وبالتوقيع اين شاء الله
### Appendix H

**Interview Analysis Codebook**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category/Area</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Teaching</td>
<td>Ideas generating</td>
<td>Strategy depends on the situation a teacher needs to handle or the topic they need to teach.</td>
<td>“…we also come up with new ideas during class.” (Participant 2-Haya)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorporate Games and Activities</td>
<td>Incorporate Games and Activities</td>
<td>Use of games and fun activities to help engage the students and keep them interested in learning the topic at hand.</td>
<td>“…The class would be like its usual state, full of toys..” (Participant 2-Haya)</td>
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<td>“…For example, I would get the idea of playing a game with them that day such as let’s get the pirate safely to his island so he can claim his treasure…” (Participant 2-Haya)</td>
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<td>“Since it’s all about online teaching now, the games are all online. They are not moving of course. But back during regular school days, I used to get them to move around in some of the games.” (Participant 3-Amal)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Incorporate Real Scenarios</td>
<td>Incorporate Real Scenarios</td>
<td>Use real life examples to help students understand the lessons.</td>
<td>“It depends on each lesson. If it was a recycling class, I would provide realistic materials on how to recycle using videos and PowerPoint as well as using the smart board…” (Participant 6-Enaya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Warming up techniques</td>
<td>Warming up techniques</td>
<td>An activity done at the beginning of the lesson to help activate the students to help them engage more with the lesson. Every class starts with a warm up before diving into the lesson. Warm up strategies include: check on students, reviewing past lesson,</td>
<td>“…Vocabulary words are introduced at the beginning of the class…” (Participant 2-Haya)</td>
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</table>
|               |                       |                                                                             | “….I greet them first and check on them. If they have taken a test, I would inquire about that. If one student did not attend the previous class, I would check on her. If I noticed some noise in class, I would turn the light on and then off or use any movement to get their attention so we can get started. I would ask students to then
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Group work</th>
<th>Students working together in groups of two or more to tackle the task at hand.</th>
<th>“…I would have them divided into groups as we have 5 tables in each classroom…It depends on the activity at hand, whether it’s a group work, play work, or visual work.” (Participant 2-Haya)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Technology | Use of technological resources when teaching to help students understand the lesson better. | “…Sometimes it’s a mix of videos and a simple game…” (Participant 3-Amal) “Since it’s all about online teaching now, the games are all online…”(Participant 3-Amal) “I’d also be operating the smart board especially when it’s a session where the girls had a break prior. You’d find me rushing in, writing on the board and
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Quote</th>
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<td>Variety</td>
<td>Uses a combination of different teaching strategies, activities, and group formations depending on the lesson of the day.</td>
<td>“It depends on the class and lesson during that day. Sometimes it’s a mix of videos and a simple game. Other times, it’s a game and group work. It depends on the lesson of the day.” (Participant 3-Amal)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mixed Methods</td>
<td>Uses a mixture of resources and materials to teach the lesson from traditional whiteboard with a book and pencil to using modern technological resources.</td>
<td>“… I have to combine between using pens, notebooks, and workbooks with modern technology. We witnessed the result of using modern technology alone in online classes which was disastrous. I’m not used to correcting such science-related papers. The smart students are supposed to be good but they’re unable to write words properly, such as “importance,” they’re missing a letter or two. That’s the result of using modern technology only. So, it has to be a mix of both.” (Participant 6-Enaya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Traditional White board</td>
<td>Using traditional whiteboard and marker to teach the lesson.</td>
<td>“…the techniques we have been trying to use for years now, even before online classes, are to attract students’ attention, since a white board alone is not very useful. Using the board is, of course, important especially when teaching grammar, but we need to use smart boards, PowerPoint, and video illustrations. I don’t like using iPads to be honest, but I like working with laptops and preparing live simple material for each class…” (Participant 6-Enaya)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Goals</strong></td>
<td>Modify existing curriculum</td>
<td>Makes necessary changes to the ministry provided textbooks and curriculum.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Goals</strong></td>
<td>Develop Language Skills</td>
<td>The aim is to observe considerable improvement in students’ language proficiency skills over the course of the academic year.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Foster students’ Creativity</strong></td>
<td>Foster students’ Creativity</td>
<td>The aim is to ensure students are able to develop and create ideas on their own using the English language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student Introduction in English</strong></td>
<td>Student Introduction in English</td>
<td>The aim is to have students be able to proficiently introduce themselves in English using correct grammar and pronunciation.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Assist weak students</strong></td>
<td>Assist weak students</td>
<td>Give extra attention to those students who are behind in class and not as fast in grasping knowledge as others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stimulating Students</td>
<td>Utilizing certain strategies and activities in order to keep students engaged and excited to learn.</td>
<td>“As for participation, I make sure they all participate. I like to have the class in constant motion. If they fell asleep, I’d urge them to get up and jump around or I’d play a game with them, as long as I keep them active.” (Participant 2-Haya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student to Learn New Info</td>
<td>The teacher aims for students to gain new information and learn new concepts in English.</td>
<td>“I’d like my students when they leave my class to have gained some valuable information, even if they are not able to speak English correctly. It is, however, important to me that they benefited from me, learned new information, and understood something about the English language. I don’t want them to leave my class empty, to leave the subject gaining nothing. They don’t have to be perfect, because I don’t teach them throughout all grades. It’s only one year, for two courses, so of course they will not be perfect in English just because of me. My first and last goal is that I just want them to have learned something from me as they leave the classroom. I mean that I feel happy knowing that they learned something from me; it does not have to be everything but some things.” (Participant 3-Amal)</td>
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<td>Social Persuasion</td>
<td>Students’ recognition When students acknowledge the teacher’s hard work and express their gratitude.</td>
<td>“…Also, when the students recall my name, they like me and are happy with my performance.” (Participant 3-Amal) “I can’t think of a certain situation, but in general, I’m content. There are many situations, whenever I feel gratitude from the girls that they now like the language due to my efforts.” (Participant 6-Enaya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students’ accomplishment</td>
<td>Students’ ability to show improvement in English and show that they understand the lessons.</td>
<td>“When the less active students in my class start moving around and participating and when they start getting good grades…” (Participant 2-Haya)</td>
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<td>“I am happy when I work hard and give students more of my time and then I notice that they truly care, and my efforts are having positive results. Whenever I feel my efforts are not lost in vain, I’m quite satisfied.” (Participant 3-Amal)</td>
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<td>“When I witness their accomplishments and they communicate with me later on telling me that they got into dentistry school or travelled abroad to study.” (Participant 6-Enaya)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Students’ Engagement</th>
<th>Get through a difficult student</th>
<th>Teacher is able to change difficult or troublesome students to help them become motivated in learning English.</th>
<th>“…For example, I had one misbehaving student in my class who was always distracted. I did not use to teach that class, but I took it just so I can teach that student. As soon as I took the class, I found out that this student is not liked at school and is neglected by her parents in terms of school related work. That’s why she was acting up in class. She used to get a 0 out of 10 on any exam. By the end of the year, she managed to get a 10 out of 10 because she was able to find someone who cared about her at school.” (Participant 2-Haya)</th>
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<td>“…If I’m dealing with a student whose behavior is a bit challenging, I try to encourage her to change. And this happened with me. Some girls changed and improved their behavior due to my encouragement. Some students you can change…” (Participant 3-Amal)</td>
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</table>
| Motivate students | Teacher is able to engage student in the lesson through verbal encouragement or point system games. | “…I always follow the groups method and check who earns the highest number of diamonds or queens to raise their motivation level.” (Participant 2-Haya)  
“…there were many things that I was able to apply especially the fun teaching strategies, how to use tools that would excite students in class and get them to become engaged and participate…” (Participant 3-Amal)  
“In general, the techniques we have been trying to use for years now, even before online classes, are to attract students’ attention…” (Participant 6-Enaya) |
| Changes voice tone | Teacher personalizes tone of voice depending on students’ age group to keep them interested in lesson. | “…I would never address the students in the same tone I’m addressing you because they’re just kids. I have to go down to their level and play with them…” (Participant 2-Haya) |
VITA

Hala T A I A Almutawa

ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS
- 2022 – Ph.D. in Curriculum and Instruction, The Pennsylvania State University, USA.
- 2018 – M.S.Ed. in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), University of Pennsylvania, USA.
- 2016 – B.A. in English Education, Gulf University for Science and Technology.

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- August 2017 – December 2017 – Research Assistant, Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, USA.
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- 2012-2016 – Kuwait’s Ministry of Higher Education Scholarship for pursuing a B.A. in English Education at Gulf University for Science and Technology.

CONVENTION PRESENTATIONS/PUBLICATIONS