

**JOB SATISFACTION AND CYNICISM TOWARDS CHANGES IN  
EDUCATION AMONG SCHOOL TEACHERS IN KINTA SELATAN  
DISTRICT**

By

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **JOB SATISFACTION AND CYNICISM TOWARDS CHANGES IN EDUCATION AMONG SCHOOL TEACHERS IN KINTA SELATAN DISTRICT**

**Joanne Yim Sau Ching**

This exploratory study investigates job satisfaction of teachers in primary and secondary public schools in the Kinta Selatan district, Malaysia. The idea was mooted with the intent to explore teachers' job satisfaction, in the current state of education challenged by on-going educational changes. The study considers the context of educational change with regard to the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 - 2025, a signatory reformation package for educational improvement by the current government.

Together with some major work facets of the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues, teachers' cynicism toward change was assessed as possible variables that can affect their job satisfaction. An English-Malay dual language questionnaire was used, where the Job Descriptive Index, Job In General, and Cynicism About Organizational Change scales were adapted. The instrument was pre-tested in a pilot study prior to the actual study which consisted of 628 practicing teachers from primary and secondary schools.

Quantitative analysis indicated teachers to be satisfied with overall aspect of their job, the work itself, pay, supervision, and colleagues with the exception of the promotion aspect which they were ambivalent about. Besides, teachers reported moderate cynicism toward the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 – 2025. Standard multiple regression showed all variables significantly contributed to overall job satisfaction, and explained half of its variance ( $R^2 = .50$ ) with nearing to large effect size  $f^2 = .34$ . No significant difference was found in overall job satisfaction between primary and secondary school teachers.

Practically, the findings suggested attention need to be given to job promotion aspect, which participants were ambivalent about despite recent changes in promotion policy to improve career progression. New findings were found in the Malaysian context with the negative influence of cynicism toward change on job satisfaction. Therefore, this research has both practical and theoretical implications that could contribute towards successful educational change.

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## APPROVAL SHEET

This dissertation/thesis entitled “**JOB SATISFACTION AND CYNICISM TOWARDS CHANGES IN EDUCATION AMONG SCHOOL TEACHERS IN KINTA SELATAN DISTRICT**” was prepared by JOANNE YIM SAU CHING and submitted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy (Social Science) at Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman.

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## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the dissertation is based on my original work except for quotations and citations which have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that it has not been previously or concurrently submitted for any other degree at UTAR or other institutions.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAOC	Cynicism About Organizational Change
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
JDI	Job Descriptive Index
JIG	Job In General
KSSR	Kurikulum Standard Sekolah Rendah
MOE	Ministry of Education
MRS	Malaysia Remuneration System
NUTP	National Union of Teaching Profession
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PMR	Penilaian Menengah Rendah
RQ	Research Question
SBA	School Based Assessment
SPM	Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific Cultural Organization

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background Review

The role of education in Malaysia had evolved to complement the developmental stages of the country. According to Malakolunthu (2010), the earlier agenda of education had emphasized on achieving universal literacy rate, stressing the importance of basic literacy skills in reading, writing, and arithmetic. When literacy is no longer an impending issue, education assumes greater challenges in its role to propel the country in its growth and to remain competitive. Subsequently, gradual changes shifted to encompass the integration of higher-order thinking skills in teaching, application of multiple intelligences across curriculum, and the usage of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in learning.

This role-change in education is observed through the reforms which were progressively introduced by the government. Initial reforms were largely infrastructural and curriculum oriented, mostly manageable by personnel external to schools such as curriculum planners and policy makers. However, later and recent reforms that directed at teaching practices which required integration of higher order thinking skills and applying multiple

intelligences across curriculum depend very much on the capability and support of teachers for its successful implementation (Malakolunthu, 2010).

### **1.1.1 Change Affects Teachers' Job Satisfaction**

Along with the changing agenda of education, teaching has become one profession which entails constant change and adaptability, and the work of teachers has been profoundly affected over the years (Day, Flores, & Viana, 2007). Observers in educational change had noted the global pattern of reform overload and teachers' work intensification (Fullan, 2007). This pattern was also observed in Southeast Asian educational systems including Malaysia, where excessive changes sap the energy and motivation of those responsible to implement the reform (Hallinger, 2010). Teachers may respond to education reform in different ways. Some may encounter fear, frustration and loss of self-image, whereas some may be happy to support and sustain reform efforts (Zembylas, 2009). Amidst the environment of policy changes, they are subject to work intensification and bureaucratization, increased public scrutiny and greater accountability, all of which have led to decrease in their motivation, job satisfaction and sense of professionalism (Day, Flores, et al., 2007). On the other extreme, it could be contrasted with the notion that teachers' motivation could be sustained or increased despite adverse external changes due to strong sense of vocationalism (Day, Flores, et al., 2007).



As Day (2007) noted, even though education reforms in every country may differ in their content, direction, and pace, there are common effect of increased teachers' workload and challenges to teachers' existing practices which cause temporary destabilization. He further opined reformations commonly disregard factors central to teachers' job satisfaction, motivation, efficacy, commitment, and effectiveness. Teachers attitude on their work may be subject to change and therefore deserves attention in any educational improvement efforts. One such attitude would be their job satisfaction, as reform implementation strongly depends on their satisfaction level (Simona, Doina, Norel, & Vlad, 2013). As such, it is vital that teacher satisfaction be assessed as part of the grounds which the seeds of transformation effort will germinate.

### **1.1.2 Current Changes**

The latest major educational development in Malaysia takes the form of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, launched on 6 September 2013 to embark on a transformation of preschool to post-secondary education. The Education Minister and also Deputy Prime Minister Tan Sri Muhyiddin Yassin described it as “the most comprehensive and biggest manifestation of government transformation in getting the best returns in human capital to drive all national development aspirations” (“Malaysia Education Blueprint Manifestation,” 2013, para. 1). The blueprint outlines comprehensive transformation programs for the Malaysian educational system over the next 13 years. There are 11 improvement thrusts in the blueprint, aptly named

‘shifts’ to enhance five outcomes of education: access, quality, equity, unity, and efficiency. They are as shown in table 1.1:

**Table 1.1: Improvement Thrusts Proposed by Malaysia Education  
Blueprint 2013-2025**

No.	Improvement Thrusts to Transform the Education System
Shift 1	Provide equal access to quality education of an international standard.
Shift 2	Ensure every child is proficient in Bahasa Malaysia and English Language and is encouraged to learn an additional language.
Shift 3	Develop values-driven Malaysians.
Shift 4	Transform teaching into the profession of choice.
Shift 5	Ensure high-performing school leaders in every school.
Shift 6	Empower State Education Departments, District Education Departments, and schools to customize solutions based on need.
Shift 7	Leverage ICT to scale up quality learning across Malaysia.
Shift 8	Transform ministry delivery capabilities and capacity.
Shift 9	Partner with parents, community, and private sector at scale.
Shift 10	Maximize student outcomes for every ringgit.
Shift 11	Increase transparency for direct public accountability.

*Note.* Retrieved from *Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 (Preschool to Post-Secondary Education)* by Ministry of Education. (2013). Putrajaya, Malaysia.

One of the shifts is to specifically “transform teaching into the profession of choice” (Ministry of Education [MOE], 2013, p. E-14), especially to attract top academic achievers to propel the system to be one of the top third countries in terms of student performance (MOE, 2013). This logic is apparent as teachers are one of the most significant school-based determinants of student outcomes, and they are central to the process which stimulates school improvement (Hofman, Dijkstra, & Adriaan-Hofman, 2009; MOE, 2013). Their job satisfaction is imperative for school performance (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003). As evidenced by one of the best performing systems in the world, teachers in Finland are listed as the most satisfied professional group in the country (Extended Performance Satisfaction Index, 2012).

Other changes involve curriculum and assessment at both primary and secondary level. The new curriculum of Primary School Standard Curriculum or Kurikulum Standard Sekolah Rendah (KSSR) was introduced to Year 1 students, while Year 2 to Year 6 students still adopt the previous curriculum. While the previous curriculum focus on the mastery of reading, writing and arithmetic skills, the new KSSR maintains these three skills and also emphasizes reasoning, with elements of creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship (MOE, 2013). This curriculum will be progressively integrated in all primary schools by 2016, while a new continuing secondary curriculum will be introduced in year 2017. Teachers are required to tailor lesson plans to the needs of students at different performance levels within a same classroom (MOE, 2013). In its preliminary stages of implementation,

teachers were found to understand little about the fundamental concepts of KSSR which advocates integrated learning, creativity, innovation and holistic education (MOE, 2013).

The student assessment system also saw major policy changes in both primary and secondary schools with the introduction of the School Based Assessment (SBA). This new assessment system saw its full fledged adoption in public schools at the primary level in 2011, and at the secondary level in 2012. With SBA, teachers are required to design assessment tools for periodic school assessment component, to replace the standardized examination system which gives substantial credence to final examinations. As proposed in the blueprint, the SBA will replace the national assessment for lower secondary school of Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR) with effect from 2014 (MOE, 2013). However, teachers' initial response indicated that a majority of them were not in favor of the abolishment of PMR (Nurul-Awanis, Hazlina, Yoke-May, & Zariyawati, 2011).

The SBA assessment method is new to Malaysian teachers, and negative responses to it have been reported as teachers are burdened with the tasks of processing marks of hundreds of students (Salmiah, Ramlah, Rahim, & Rashid, 2013). The administrative task entails the tracking of performance of each student through maintenance of hardcopy files and online input of student results. Teachers had expressed grouses on the inaccessibility of the online databases and often have to wake up in the wee hours to key in data to meet deadline (Izhab, 2013). Teachers opined that it is time-consuming to

assess individual students, besides having to grapple with the inadequacy of their knowledge on the new system (Baidzawi & Abu, 2013). In a study on the implementation of SBA, it was found that one-third of respondents admitted to have applied the 'cut and paste' technique of sourcing test items from reference books for students' assessment (Chan & Sidhu, 2011). Another study noted teachers' low acceptance of SBA as replacement of the previous system of assessment, accompanied by a weak attitude and low willingness to implement this change (Salmiah et al., 2013). The MOE responded to teachers' grouses by simplifying the recording of student assessment, and abolishing the online input of student marks (Goon, 2014).

In the execution of change, continuous monitoring in teachers' implementation of new policies in curricula, teaching, learning, and assessment would diminish their sense of motivation, efficacy, and job satisfaction (Day, 2007). Other impacts of reformation caused teachers' personal and professional identity thwarted, creativity and autonomy undermined, and ability to forge relationships with students diminished — all factors critical to their job satisfaction (Crocco & Costigun, 2007). As such, teachers' job satisfaction is subject to change during educational change, and a timely study on this could contribute important information about their satisfaction which accompany the change effort.

### **1.1.3 Previous Change Experience**

Research has identified the history of change to affect and shape employees' opinions (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Bordia, Restubog, Jimmieson, & Irmer, 2011). Hallinger (2010) studied education reformation in South East Asia countries including Malaysia, and found that these countries mostly adopt a top-down initiation method of reformation, where changes are passed down through the ranks from the ministry. Not all changes implemented were successful or achieve the impact it purported to produce, with numerous u-turns made in major policy change (Hallinger, 2010; Malakolunthu, 2009). One of such recent examples was the policy in using English Language for teaching of Science and Mathematics.

For more than 30 years, Science and Mathematics were taught in Malay Language at secondary level, and respective mother tongues of Malay, Chinese and Tamil at primary level. Naturally, teachers were challenged in teaching the subjects in English, as most of them did not learn these subjects in English nor were trained to teach the subjects in the language (Yahaya et al., 2009). Teaching aids were provided in the forms of uniform courseware used with LCD projectors, with resources packages given as teaching instructions and models for pronunciation of scientific terms (Mohd Nazri & Maniam, 2013). Some teachers chose not to use the teaching aids, as they felt bound to teach students with different abilities with a standardized approach (Selamat, Esa, Saad, & Atim, 2011). The process of teaching and learning

became inefficient, as there were only a small proportion of teachers who has excellent command of English (Rokiah et al., 2012).

This policy was implemented in year 2003 but was abolished in year 2009 with the medium of instruction being reverted to former arrangement, and to be progressively phased out by 2015. Part of the reasons for this is the deterioration of proficiency for both subjects in international assessment and insignificant improvement in national examinations (Rokiah et al., 2012).

Another initiative which did not manifest clear success involves the integration of ICT into education. Malaysia was one of the pioneering country in the world to integrate ICT into education development plan in the 1990's, and many policies and plans were developed to facilitate its implementation such as the National ICT Agenda contained in the Seventh Malaysian Plan 1996-2000, Multimedia Super Corridor in 1996 and the Malaysian Smart School Roadmap 2005-2020 (UNESCO, 2013). Despite the array of policies, the country is now behind many of its benchmarking regional countries, even in basic ICT infrastructure like computer to student ratio and internet connectivity (UNESCO, 2013). About RM 6 billion capital investment was spent over the past decade, but ICT usage in schools is still short of expectations with reports that computer usage has not gone beyond word-processing as instructional tool (MOE, 2013).

There were also unplanned changes such as the re-sit examinations of National Primary School Achievement Test for the subjects of Science, Mathematics, English Language and Tamil Language. Leakages of examination questions in social media platforms have called for this ad hoc arrangement, and compromised the country's bid to create a world-class education system (Kulasagaran, 2014; Zahiid, 2014). Past history of change which were not entirely or clearly succesful have been found to induce employee's cynicism towards future change initiatives (Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997). This cynicism toward change may create a vicious cycle, where it is reinforced with repeated change programs which are futile (Choi, 2011). Cynicism toward change may affect employees' job satisfaction, for employees who did not experience improvement of change programs direct their resentment toward the job itself and become dissatisfied (Abraham, 2000).

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Some studies on Malaysian teachers' job satisfaction had noted disparate findings, such as teachers being satisfied with school leadership (Noordin, Rashid, Ghani, Aripin, & Darus, 2010) and collegiality (Muda & Omar, 2006), while also dissatisfied with these same factors (Jusoh, 2012). These findings may be due to investigations applied in different contexts, and updated findings is warranted. Even though research has advanced us in the understanding of teacher job satisfaction, there is a paucity of generalizable published studies in Malaysia about public teachers' job satisfaction during



educational change. Furthermore, because the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 – 2025 is at its preliminary implementation, there is very little investigation which update teachers' satisfaction at this juncture.

There is also a dearth of investigation on teachers' cynicism on educational change which may influence their job satisfaction. Research on cynicism in organization is comparatively new and at the initial stage of scientific research, with a lack of comprehensive understanding of its antecedents and outcomes based on integration of findings (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Qian & Daniels, 2008; Chiaburu, Peng, Oh, Banks, & Lomeli, 2013). Moreover, a majority of studies done on cynicism have focused on organizations in Western countries (Mohd Noor, Mohd Walid, Ahmad, & Darus, 2013). As such, it would be an opportune time to bridge this gap in research literature, to analyze teachers' cynicism towards changes brought about by the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025.

As Malakolunthu (2010) observed, not all of the education reform in Malaysia have been successful, with the failed ones being "laid to oblivion over time" (p. 79), while another reform will be introduced with the possibility that the cycle will be repeated. Previous effort of change which were unsuccessful could leave teachers extremely wary about accepting further attempts (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Experiences of previous change initiatives which had failed to achieve its purported objectives or were not clearly successful may predispose employees to be cynical toward organizational changes (Bordia et al., 2011). The inclusion of cynicism in the

study of job satisfaction is supported by studies which found negative correlations between these two variables (Arabaci, 2010), while meta-analysis have noted the effect size of .58 true score correlation (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Other researcher suggested that organizational cynicism has directly resulted in job satisfaction levels to decrease over the last decade (Nafei, 2013). With this, investigation into teachers' cynicism toward change in education would be timely as there are no known studies which gauge this opinion towards the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025.

Due to the paucity of this context of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, this study will take an exploratory approach to investigate teachers' job satisfaction and their cynicism toward change. Variables which are applicable have to provide insight into effectiveness of organizational personnel procedures and policies in effecting teachers' job satisfaction. However, no theory has been developed to provide guidance for selecting facets that are most important in different situations or for different people (Brief, 1998; Fritzsche & Parrish, 2005). Drawing from the literature, the main determinants of job satisfaction are often identified as the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues (Balzer, et al., 2000). Schneider and Alderfer (1973) had earlier identified these work facets as "the most basic or generally most visible aspects of a person's work role" (p. 650). They were explored as sources of job satisfaction in meta-analytical studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), while Judge and Klinger (2007) suggested them to be the "most typical" (p. 395) job facets commonly included in the study of job satisfaction. Luthans (2011) stated that job satisfaction could be

summarized along these five job dimensions, while Balzer et al. (2000) noted these facets together with a global satisfaction index could make up the profile of satisfaction in an organization. As such, these five work facets will be considered for investigation in the study as independent variables which could affect teachers' job satisfaction. The review of literature had also noted relatively few studies that compare teachers' between teaching in different school levels (Marston, 2010). As such, this study would also investigate the difference in job satisfaction between primary and secondary school teachers.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The study aims to explore teachers' job satisfaction and their cynicism toward proposed change initiatives of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. Having considered the background and issues surrounding the research problems, the following research questions (RQ) are presented:

- RQ1. What are the levels of satisfaction of teachers as they consider the major work facets of the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues, and overall job satisfaction?
- RQ2. What is the level of cynicism among teachers toward change initiatives proposed in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025?
- RQ3. Is there any relationship between teachers' overall job satisfaction and their cynicism toward the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025?

RQ4. How much of the variance in teachers' overall job satisfaction can be explained by their satisfaction on their major work facets, and their cynicism toward change?

RQ5. Is there a difference in overall job satisfaction between primary and secondary school teachers?

#### **1.4 Definition of Terms**

The variables presented for investigation are operationalized for conceptual clarity as below:

##### **1.4.1. Overall Job Satisfaction**

Locke (1976) stated that job satisfaction is derived from the pleasurable or positive emotional state from the evaluation of one's job experiences. Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) proposed that job satisfaction is made up of affective responses to facets of the situation. Balzer et al. (2000) classified overall job satisfaction as an integrative feeling of satisfaction when all aspects of the job are evaluated in long term consideration (Balzer et al., 2000). In this study, overall job satisfaction is operationalized as a global, long term evaluation of the general aspect of the job of teaching.

### **1.4.2 Satisfaction with the Work Itself**

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) categorized the satisfaction of the work itself as good or bad feelings that come from the actual doing of a job or the tasks of the job. Luthans (2011) refers it as the extent to which the job provides the employee with opportunities for learning, interesting tasks, and the opportunity to accept responsibility. Satisfying work is considered as work that can be accomplished and is intrinsically rewarding, allowing for opportunities for creativity and task variety, room for development, and provide challenges (Balzer et al., 2000). As such, this study considers satisfying work to include the actual job of teachers that include teaching and non-teaching tasks, which are accomplishable, interesting, challenging, allow room for development and creativity, and intrinsically rewarding.

### **1.4.3 Satisfaction with Promotion**

Promotion was mentioned as advancement by Herzberg et al. (1959) which was referred as a change in the status or position of the person in a company. Satisfaction with promotion is thought to be a function of the regularity of promotion, the importance of promotion, and the desirability for promotion (Balzer et al., 2000). Luthans (2011) noted that satisfaction with promotion involves the perception of opportunity for advancement in the organization. As such, this study considers teachers' satisfaction with

promotion in consideration of the MOE promotion policy and the administration of that policy including the opportunity for promotion.

#### **1.4.4 Satisfaction with Pay**

According to Heneman and Schwab (1985), pay consists of four dimensions: pay level, pay raise, its structure and administration, and benefits, while Miceli and Lane (1991) define pay satisfaction as the overall positive or negative affect (feelings) that employees have toward their pay. Smith et al. (1969) suggested pay satisfaction might be influenced by the personal financial situation of the employee, the current state of economy, and the amount of pay an employee has received previously. In this study, pay satisfaction is operationalized as teachers' feelings toward their pay, when they take into account of their financial situation and the current state of economy.

#### **1.4.5 Satisfaction with Supervision**

Herzberg et al. (1959) categorized supervision in two categories: technical supervision and interpersonal relationship. The technical part directed at supervisor's competency, willingness to teach, and tendency to criticize, whereas the inter-personal part include interactions between superior and subordinates. Luthans (2011) defined supervision as the abilities of supervisors to provide support and technical assistance. Balzer et al. (2000) suggested that satisfaction with supervision reflect an employee's satisfaction

towards his/her supervisor, contributed by attributes such as supervisors being considerate, employee centered, and competent. As such, this study conceptualize satisfaction with supervision as teachers' satisfaction toward their supervisors who are perceived to be competent, supportive, displaying behavior like providing feedback, and acknowledging good performance. In Malaysia, head of schools are referred as headmaster at primary level and principal at secondary level. They are usually assisted by senior assistants in areas of student affairs, academic affairs and co-curricular activities and head of divisions in subject areas of science and mathematics, technical and vocational, language, and humanities. These people in leadership positions assume supervisory roles in teachers' job.

#### **1.4.6 Satisfaction with Colleagues**

Herzberg et al. (1959) identified co-workers relations as interpersonal interactions among work peers in the course of performing a job. Luthans (2011) discussed that satisfaction with colleagues is the degree to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive, while Balzer et al. (2000) noted that satisfaction with colleagues is determined by the work-related interaction among co-workers and the mutual liking or admiration of fellow employees. Drawing from these concepts, satisfaction with colleagues in this study refers to satisfaction with peers who are teachers teaching in the same school, who display attributes such as competent, supportive, helpful, responsible, and likeable.

#### **1.4.7 Cynicism Toward Change**

Reichers et al. (1997) stated that cynicism toward organizational change combines pessimism about success of change with blame of those responsible for change as lazy, incompetent, or both. Wanous et al. (2000) referred to it as a pessimistic viewpoint about change efforts being successful because people responsible for change are attributed to be unmotivated or incompetent. This concept of cynicism is a response to a history of change attempts that were not clearly successful and involves a loss of faith in the leaders of change in spite of their best intentions for change (Reichers et al., 1997). As such, it is a learned response rather than a personal dispositional trait (Wanous et al., 2000). In this study, it refers to teachers' cynicism toward change initiatives of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2015 that result from previous change experience which were not entirely successful.

#### **1.5 Research Context**

The study is conducted among primary and secondary public schools in the Kinta Selatan district, situated in the state of Perak, Malaysia. There are generally two types of public primary schools which are mainly characterized by their language of instruction. The national schools use Malay language as medium of instruction, while national-typed schools use the Chinese language (in Chinese national-type schools) and Tamil language (in Tamil national-typed schools). All schools use the same syllabus for non-



language subjects. Malaysian legislation mandates primary education to be compulsory for all Malaysians from age seven. All students will go through the national Primary School Evaluation Test known as *Ujian Pencapaian Sekolah Rendah (UPSR)* at the end of the sixth year of primary education.

The secondary level offers five years of education which is offered in two stages: the lower secondary categorized as Forms 1 to 3, and the upper secondary which include Forms 4 to 5. On completion of the three years lower secondary education, students sit for Lower Secondary Assessment or *Pentaksiran Tingkatan 3 (PT3)*. This is a new School Based Assessment introduced in 2014. At the end of the upper secondary education, students will be assessed for the award of Malaysian Certificate of Education or *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM)* that mark the end of their secondary level education.

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

There are several important reasons why this study has to be conducted. With the findings, transition and implementation of change may be carried out in the knowledge of teachers' opinion towards their job. Their readiness as one of the stakeholders of education is important for the understanding, identifying and bridging the gaps between education policy planning and implementation (Cheng, 2002). Without this knowledge, policy makers may not know teachers' opinion that accompany the execution of new policies. As suggested by Nurul-Awanis et al. (2011) in investigating

education reform in Malaysia, teachers' attitudes, feelings and perception must be considered, or else reform implementation will result in "self deceiving public exercise of education reform and a waste of energy and resources" (p. 110).

Although research has advanced the understanding of teachers' job satisfaction, further understanding on the construct could be gauged in relation to their cynicism toward introduced change. To the best knowledge of the researcher, there are no known local studies of teacher job satisfaction which included investigation of cynicism toward change. The study could contribute to the knowledge base in this area, especially during a major education reformation such as the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025. The findings of this study would be useful as practical knowledge in school management and leadership, which pertains to teacher job satisfaction during educational change. With the results, change implementation could be carried out more effectively in the knowledge of teachers' cynicism during these times of change.

This study may be also of contribution to the MOE as a form of feedback from teachers in the Kinta Selatan district. Results obtained might provide valuable insights to complement MOE's aspiration to "transform teaching into a profession of choice" (MOE, 2013, p. E-15). The findings obtained might be useful for the development of teaching manpower, and also for the consideration of policy design. For instance, their opinion toward work facets such as promotion and pay may reflect the effectiveness of

personnel policies in bringing about satisfaction. Lastly, teachers or prospective educators may also benefit from this study, as the findings may raise awareness of the attributes that satisfy teachers in their profession.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The literature review addresses areas of research related to job satisfaction that will provide the theoretical foundation for this study. In the first section, historical perspective of the development of job satisfaction and theories pertinent to the study will be discussed. The subsequent sections will address job satisfaction relative to teachers' work context and during educational change. Lastly, review of literature and previous research will be presented to examine the roles of variables in how they relate to teachers' job satisfaction.

#### **2.2 History of Studies on Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is an important and central construct in organizational studies, as its research has practical application for the enhancement of individual lives and organizational effectiveness (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Hellar, & Llies, 2001). According to Wright (2006), early interest in job satisfaction was propelled by few key studies, especially those by Frederick Winslow Taylor, Frank Gilbreth and George Elton Mayo in the early 1900's. Industrial engineer Taylor and his associates investigated issues pertaining to

employee fatigue and production, and resulted in the development of Scientific Management, a system which sought to give organizations an economic advantage by improving manufacturing techniques, increase operational efficiency and sharing rewards with employees (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). In the course of development of the Scientific Management, Taylor (as cited in Wright, 2006) noted successful industrial production not only entailed workers' physical strength or fatigue, but also an element of "mental revolution" (p. 263). This notion is also supported by Gilbreth (as cited in Wright, 2006) who found employee contentment to have a significant impact on production output. Both researchers shared the underlying philosophy of Scientific Management which assumed that workers who accepted the basic principles would receive the highest possible wages, and experience the least amount of physical and mental fatigue - attributes which resulted these workers to be the most satisfied and productive. However, there were suggestions that this system caused widespread opposition with its single-minded focus on measurable productivity, which eventually drove the upheaval of unionization efforts in the 1930s when companies maximized productivity without simultaneously increase employees rewards (Bruce & Nyland, 2011; Steers et al., 2004).

Meanwhile, social scientist Mayo and his associates offered the perspective of social influences on performance with their seminal work famously known as the Hawthorne studies (Steers et al., 2004). Set in a telephone equipment factory, interventions in the form of rest breaks, supervisory styles, incentive plans and group dynamics were experimented to

increase productivity (Sonnenfeld, 1985). One of the significant interventions took the form of rest breaks, which was extended to the factory's 30,000 workers when proven to increase productivity (Gale, 2004). The study found production output rose in response to changes in working conditions such as relaxed supervisory styles and friendlier working environment as opposed to the sweat-shop conditions of factory life in the 1920's. Mayo pointed out that the key variable in linking the change in working conditions and increased productivity was the workers' attitude. This is so because investigations revealed workers could work as they felt with some degree of independence. Besides, the workers also felt their increased productivity is related to the freer, happier, and more pleasant working environment (Gale, 2004).

At the time when prevailing ideas suggested that human behavior was to be corrected and controlled for in the industry, Mayo and his associates offered the perspective of increasing workers' morale and productivity through friendlier and participative supervisory styles, freedom from tight quotas and harsh discipline, and respecting workers (Sonnenfeld, 1985; Gale, 2004). This was a rare proposition in the 1920's, due to the social disparity which existed between the uneducated labor class and their workplace superiors (Gale, 2004). Instead of treating workers as "appendage of the machine" (Sonnenfeld, 1985, p. 125), the Hawthorne studies shed light on workplace ideas concerning motivational influences, qualities of supervision, workers participation and involvement in decision making, group norms, resistance to change and job satisfaction. Mayo and his associates became main proponents of the Human Relations movement, and were attributed to

discovering the social being in employee and their centrality to the workplace, thereby increasing their capacity for collaboration at work (Bruce & Nyland, 2011).

### **2.3 Job Satisfaction**

Workplace motivation generates much interest in organizational studies, and one of the central constructs is job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001). In defining the construct, Locke (1976) proposed job satisfaction as a positive or pleasurable emotional state derived from the evaluation of one's job experiences. Smith et al. (1969) provided a direct definition of the construct as the feelings workers have about their job. The authors proposed that job satisfaction is the product of affective responses to facets of the situation, and it is associated with the difference between what is expected as fair and reasonable, and what is expected out of their job. In view of the multidimensionality characteristic of job satisfaction, most scholars consider the construct as a global concept that also comprises various job facets (Judge et al., 2001).

Despite the various perspectives offered by scholars, the attitudinal perspective is predominant in the investigation of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). This logic is apparent according to Eagly and Chaiken (1993) because people who evaluate an attitude object favorably may engage in behaviors that foster it, and people who evaluate an attitude object unfavorably tend to engage in behaviors that hinder or oppose it. When a person evaluates the

satisfaction on his/her job, both thinking (cognitive) and feelings (affective) are involved, and the results of his/her evaluation may affect his/her behavior. Locke (1976) proposes that job satisfaction results from the interaction of cognition and affect, and this notion is supported by Weiss, Nicholas and Daus (1999) who revealed that both cognitions about the job and mood have significant and independent contribution in predicting job satisfaction. The cognitive and affective components are closely related, and are therefore essential for the evaluation of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001).

### **2.3.1 Teacher Job Satisfaction**

Teacher job satisfaction is a multifaceted construct that is essential for school effectiveness, teacher retention, and teacher commitment (Shann, 1998). Robert Hoppock (1935) conducted one of the classic studies on job satisfaction that involved 500 teachers. His results indicated relationships between job satisfaction and factors like religion, social status, age, fatigue, size of community, emotional adjustment and interest. His results indicated that satisfied employees displayed less evidence of emotional maladjustment, and taught in cities of above 10,000 in population. Along with his other findings on the construct, he described job satisfaction as any mixture of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that can result a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job" (Hoppock, 1935, p. 47).



Teacher job satisfaction continues to generate interest for the possible effect it has on the school. Caprara et al. (2003) suggested teachers' job satisfaction to be a decisive element in their attitude toward the school, and an important outcome of teachers' self and collective efficacy belief. He opined that teachers' job satisfaction is imperative for the enhancement of their motivation and school performance. Teachers' job satisfaction is one of the central factors for improvement in school effectiveness and school outcomes (Bogler & Nir, 2014). As suggested by Price (2012), schools with higher average job satisfaction among staff would positively affect school learning climates.

As a multidimensional construct, research has identified various variables associated with teacher job satisfaction such as collegiality, school leadership, students' behaviour, relations with parents, occupational status, working conditions, self-efficacy, and autonomy (Bogler, 2001; Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014). Examples of organizational factors associated with the construct include advancement opportunities, pay, supervision support, and the work itself (Boeve, 2007), while demographic factors comprise of gender, years of experience and teaching position (Marston, 2010). Researches have also linked teachers' job satisfaction to variables like school climate, teaching efficacy, job demands, job stress, and culture influences (Bogler & Nir, 2014; Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012; Klassen, Usher, & Bong, 2010).

Collie et al. (2012) reviewed that ample research have shown teachers to be satisfied with the teaching aspect of their job (i.e., work task, professional growth), but dissatisfied with aspects that surround their job such as working conditions, interpersonal relationships, and salary (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Kim & Loadman, 1994). An interesting study was conducted by Klassen and Anderson (2009) to compare teachers' job satisfaction in 2007 to another similar study conducted in 1962. Their results showed teachers in 2007 rated satisfaction significantly lower than teachers in 1962, and respondents from the two eras were concerned with different factors. Whereas teachers in 1962 were concerned with extrinsic factors such as salary, condition of buildings and human relations, teachers in 2007 were concerned with factors relating to teaching itself like time constraint and pupils' behavior.

In terms of school level, teaching in primary or secondary school might give rise to different experience shape by students' age group, different curriculum, or administration policies. Primary and secondary teachers assume different roles in the way they relate to their students (Wong, Chong, Choy, Wong, & Goh, 2008). This is also echoed by Hargreaves (2001) who noted differences in the emotional geographies of primary and secondary teachers. Primary schools teachers enjoyed greater emotional intensity in teacher-student relationship with physical and professional closeness, but secondary school teachers reported professional and physical distance with their students. Marston (2010) studied elementary, secondary and college teaching personnel, and found high school teachers and college professors

scored significantly lower for satisfaction in tenure, salary, and teaching schedule than elementary teachers.

Studies conducted by Leithwood (2008) found that working conditions of secondary schools was more favorable than primary schools. Differences were found in classroom conditions, student diversity, school conditions, district conditions, and external influences. Even though the differences were small, the author opined that collective effect of these differences is likely to produce a distinct and relatively more positive secondary school culture that is also likely to be associated with higher levels of morale and job satisfaction.

In Malaysia, Rahman (2001) examined satisfaction of 776 teachers in Sarawak where primary school teachers rated higher satisfaction than secondary school teachers for the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues, and overall job satisfaction. The descriptive results suggested primary teachers to rate higher satisfaction than their secondary counterparts. As read from the literature, various factors interact to affect job satisfaction. There may be differences or similarities between primary and secondary school teachers, unfortunately relatively few studies have address these areas at different school levels (Buyukgoze-Kavas, Duffy, Autin, & Güneri, 2014; Marston, 2010). Marston, Brunetti and Courtney (2005) investigated job satisfaction of elementary and high school teachers, and found both groups experienced high degree of satisfaction while the elementary group reported higer satisfaction. These authors has also identified both groups of teachers to

be similar in satisfaction with teaching, devotion to students, and their balance of life in and outside of school, but dissimilar in how they valued their relationships with colleagues and administrators, freedom and flexibility in the classroom, and the subject(s) they taught. As such, this study would provide an opportune setting to explore the difference in overall job satisfaction of primary and secondary teachers.

Other studies discussed about teacher satisfaction according to the classification of extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Kim and Loadman (1994) examined predictors of teacher job satisfaction, and classified intrinsic predictors as working conditions, relationships, professional autonomy and professional challenge, while extrinsic predictors include opportunities for advancement and salary. Bogler (2001) suggested satisfiers are linked to higher order needs such as the intrinsic aspects of work, achievement, recognition, responsibility and opportunity for advancement, while dissatisfying factors correspond to the extrinsic aspects directed at lower order needs like working conditions, supervision, work policy, salary, and interpersonal relationships. Fuming and Jiliang (2007) compared job satisfaction of elementary and secondary schools across mainland China, Hong Kong and Taiwan, and found teachers were more satisfied with the work itself, relationships with colleagues and leadership, while being most dissatisfied with their pay, promotional opportunities and working conditions.

In Malaysia, various factors were investigated along with teacher job satisfaction such as teacher-student relationship, interpersonal relationships, administrative relationships, job content, professional development, student performance and performance appraisal system (Ab Samad & Gooi, 2005; Jabnoun & Chan, 2001; Veloo & Zolkepli, 2011). Local studies directed at teacher satisfaction had included various variables and presented similar or dissimilar findings. Othman (1979) carried out one of the early studies of Malaysians teachers' satisfaction, involving primary and secondary school teachers from urban, semi-urban and rural schools in Peninsula Malaysia. His findings highlighted few factors that influence teacher's satisfaction including gender, relationship with superiors, perceived societal position, and being posted to teach in isolated schools (Othman, 1979). He noted teachers without degrees were generally more satisfied than graduate teachers. This is in contrast to the report of Abdullah, Uli and Parasuraman (2009) and Rahman (2001) who found graduate teachers to be generally more satisfied than non-graduate teacher.

Jabnoun and Chan (2001) investigated 135 teachers and found them to be satisfied with their job content, teaching, relationships with colleagues and students, administration, but dissatisfied with professional development opportunities and their salary. Muda and Omar (2006) investigated teachers' satisfaction of colleagues, supervision, the work itself, pay, and promotion among 144 teachers, where teachers reported lowest satisfaction for promotion, moderate satisfaction for pay and supervision, and high satisfaction for the work itself and colleagues. Kosnin and Tan (2008) found

slight differences in these same facets among 255 secondary school teachers in the state of Johor Bahru, where moderate satisfaction for all facets were reported except for satisfaction with colleagues which recorded a high satisfaction level. Varying results from the aforementioned studies were also noted by Abdullah et al. (2009), where 200 teachers reported to be dissatisfied with their pay, and satisfied with facets of the work itself, promotion, supervision, and colleagues. These disparate findings indicated that facet satisfaction might fluctuate, especially in the changing landscape caused by education policies, and constant updating is warranted.

In more recent studies, Noordin et al. (2010) found teachers to be satisfied with their school leadership, moderately satisfied with their overall job satisfaction and their salary, while a majority agreed that routine duties and paperwork interferes with their work. Focusing on senior teachers, Tugimin, Saadan, Yusof and Hasan (2009) found them to have low satisfaction toward their pay and respondents agreed that their salary scheme should be revised to reflect their workload. Another study found school leadership communication styles to be significantly associated with teacher job satisfaction (Boon & Ghazali, 2011).

With respect to the locality of the current study, there is a dearth of generalizable studies carried out in Kinta Selatan district. However, some investigations were done in the state where the district is situated, or other nearby districts. An earlier research investigated 108 senior assistants in charge of student affairs who also teach, revealed that promotion

opportunities, colleagues, pay, supervision, and work situation influenced their satisfaction (Kamarudin, 1995). Meanwhile, another study involving 175 teachers identified factors like promotion opportunities, principles and management of the organization, and opportunity for self-development significantly contribute to teachers' satisfaction, while the pay factor carried least contribution (Idris, 2002). Together with the insights of past research, this study might provide update and generalizable insights into what satisfy teachers in their job.

### **2.3.2 Teacher Job Satisfaction during Educational Change**

Change in organization could refer to an attempt or attempts to change an organization's structure, goals, technology or work task (Carnall, 1986). In explaining change in educational context, Huberman (1973) noted three forms of change in education: the 'hardware', the 'software' and interpersonal relations. Hardware pertains to addition of equipment like new classrooms, computer, books or facilities; software refers to instructional practices, the content and range of the curriculum, while interpersonal relations are changes in the roles and relationships between teachers and students, teachers and administrators or among teachers. In this context, he opined teachers' satisfaction is one of the reflections of the internal state of organization which tend to create a psychological climate favoring change and innovation (Huberman, 1973). As change is an unavoidable context in teaching, the work of teachers has been inevitably affected (Day, Flores, et al., 2007).

Issues about education change often arise from conflicting motives, pressures for change, and various measures attempting to facilitate change that are not always perceived as positive by students and teachers (Dinham & Scott, 1998). Teacher satisfaction is a fundamental link in the chain of education reform, as it influences their job performance, attrition and ultimately, student performance (Shann, 1998). However, in the implementation of change, the changes to educational policies and procedures were identified to cause job dissatisfaction among teachers (Dinham & Scott, 1998). Teachers' sense of efficacy, motivation and job satisfaction may diminish as reform requires them to mainly teach what is tested, and reduces time for them to connect and care for individual students (Day, 2007).

Margolis and Nagel (2006) investigated teachers' lived experience during reform by becoming a participant-observer in a school for a year. Their investigation revealed teacher job satisfaction and performance were negatively impacted by cumulative stress, the pace of change and relationship with administrators. In New York City, implementation of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act entitled "No Child Left Behind" entailed streamlining and narrowing of curriculum, and was found to negatively affect new teachers' job satisfaction (Crocco & Costigun, 2007). This happened when the rigid curriculum undermined the control they have over their teaching practice, bogged them down with the pace to cover vast amount of topics and prevented them to develop relationships with students.



Conversely, while empirical evidence often examined teacher dissatisfaction caused by reforms, other researchers advocated the “powerful role” (Gess-Newsome, Southerland, Johnston, & Woodbury, 2003, p. 760) of teachers’ dissatisfaction with current teaching methods and goals to be critical to the success of reform efforts. Through findings about implementation of science education reformation, they found teachers with unchallenged instructional complacency to have little motivation to engage in reform. This finding is in cognizance with Feldman (2000) findings who investigated how science teachers modify their practice required by education reformation. He suggested that teachers might accept new practical theories, consonant with reform, if they are dissatisfied with their old practical theories and find the new ones sensible, beneficial, and enlightening. This seems to suggest that teachers’ dissatisfaction is an important pre-cursor to motivate teachers to change (Gess-Newsome et al., 2003).

Research has also identified differing opinions given by teachers of different cultures about education reform. Kwong, Wang and Clifton (2010) had mixed findings with teachers from China compared to Western countries. The authors found teachers in China welcomed government intervention and were contented to stay out of school governance – characteristics which teachers in the Western countries might find unacceptable. While teachers in the Western countries feel empowered to participate in decision making within the school, their Chinese counterparts were happy to be excluded from decision making and did not express desire to participate in school administration. Unlike the Western culture, Chinese teachers were

accustomed to the hierarchical and authoritarian social organizations around them. The authors highlighted the cultural sensitivity to local beliefs and structures in carrying out research and making education policy.

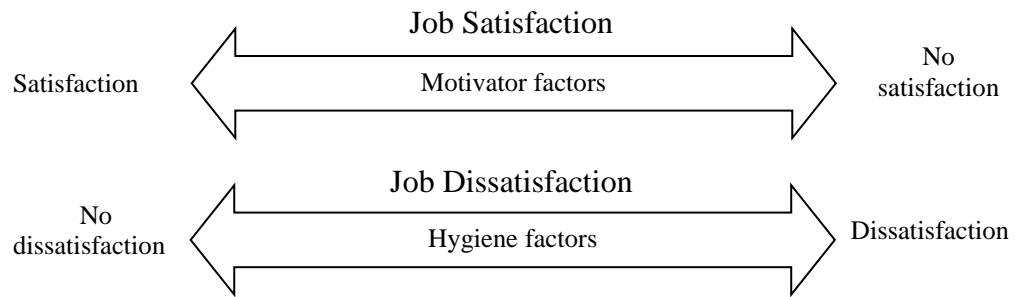
In Malaysia, application of the new policy of School Based Assessment (SBA) had caused teachers' dissatisfaction through constant workload. The heavy workload contributed to moderate belief of the new policy that consequently led to a weak attitude and low willingness to implement SBA (Salmiah et al., 2013). Other researchers found that teachers strongly felt that relevant revision and modification to SBA is needed (Majid, 2011).

## **2.4 Theoretical Framework**

Various theories have been developed and established to account for the complexity of job satisfaction. One of the earliest and most influential theory is the Motivator-Hygiene Theory by Herzberg et al. (1959). This theory is attributed to propel research on job satisfaction, and most research on teacher job satisfaction is rooted in it (Steers & Porter, 1992; Bogler, 2001). Herzberg et al. (1959) postulated that satisfaction and dissatisfaction exist in separate scales, where they are mutually exclusive and act independent of each other. This is due to the discovery of different sets of factors that satisfy and dissatisfy. The satisfiers are called Motivator factors, while dissatisfiers are called Hygiene factors. The Motivator factors are intrinsic to the job and include the work itself, achievement, recognition for

achievement, responsibility, and growth. Hygiene factors relate to facets that are extrinsic to the job such as company policy, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions.

The presence of Motivator factors is effective in satisfying the worker, whereas Hygiene factors cannot satisfy, but is necessary to suppress dissatisfaction. Due to its extrinsic and tangible nature, Hygiene factors will always be easier to manipulate, measure and control, compared to Motivator factors that are elusive. As such, management will tend to develop Hygiene factors such as company policies, salary and working conditions to manage employees (Pardee, 1990). Although Hygiene factors do not directly contribute to employee satisfaction, they are important as maintenance factors to prevent employees' discontentment. The needs for both factors are important, but assume different roles in influencing job satisfaction. Before the development of this theory, mostly single scales were used to measure satisfaction where scores on the high end of the scale reflected high levels of job satisfaction, whereas scores on the low end represented high dissatisfaction (Iiacqua, Schumacher, & Li, 1995). With the Motivator-Hygiene theory, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction appear on separate scales, the opposite end of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction, while the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction (Iiacqua et al., 1995). Figure 2.1 depicts the separate dimensions of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction according to the Motivator-Hygiene Theory.



**Figure 2.1: Separate Dimensions of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction According to Motivator-Hygiene Theory**

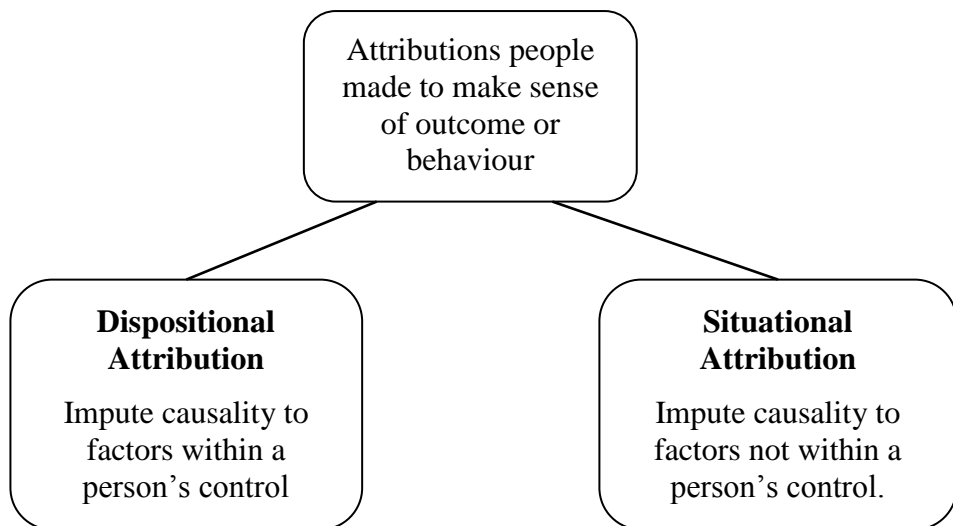
Dinham and Scott (1998) based their project on this theory with teacher respondents, and confirmed satisfying factors to be intrinsic to the teaching work itself, while dissatisfying factors were extrinsic to teachers' job over which they have little control. Additionally, they identified a third set of factors that fell in the neutral range that were neither satisfying nor dissatisfying such as leadership, school reputation, school infrastructure, and school climate. This third set of factors was mainly school based and has higher occurrences of variation from school to school. This discovery led them to propose an extension of the two factored Motivator-Hygiene Theory to include a third domain factor of teacher satisfaction. Dinham & Scott (2004) subsequently tested this model on respondents from Australia, New Zealand, England, the United States, Canada, Malta and Cyprus. Factors belonging to the third domain were identified as the status and image of teaching, recognition of teachers by society, imposed responsibilities on schools, as well as the pace and nature of educational change. However, the third domain is not apparent in Malta and Cyprus teachers, and findings were more reflective of Herzberg's classic Motivator-Hygiene Theory (Dinham &

Scott, 2004). Nevertheless, the authors suggested the increasing pressure for change and pace of educational change will affect the work of teachers.

With regard to this study, the work facets of the work itself and promotion are classified as Motivators, while pay, supervision, and colleagues are considered as Hygiene factors. It must be noted that pay has displayed characteristics of both Motivator and Hygiene factors, but Herzberg placed it along with other Hygiene factors. Although pay may have some short-term satisfying value, it is difficult to conceive of it as a long-term satisfier in the same way as the work itself (Herzberg et al., 1959). According to this theory, the work itself and promotion contribute to job satisfaction, whereas pay, supervision, and colleagues would not contribute to satisfaction, but are necessary to suppress job dissatisfaction.

With regard to cynicism toward organizational change, studies have often depended heavily on Attribution Theory (James, 2005). Heider (1958) propelled this theory with the idea that people are naïve psychologists who want to know the causes of human behavior, and make causal attribution in explaining the behavior. There is no single theory of attribution, but rather many attributional perspectives (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Heider (1958) provided the foundation for this theory in his seminal work about social perception, with the analysis of actions taken by people in what he termed “*naïve analysis of actions*”. He offered the concept of “Dispositional Properties” and “Forces of the Person and the Environment” which became the basis for causal assessment using dispositional and situational attribution.

The theory postulates people are inclined to attribute two types of factors when observing others' behavior or an outcome: dispositional factors or situational factors (Heider, 1958). Dispositional factors like personality, motives, beliefs, and competency are directed at personal factors (internal), while situational factors like weather, luck, and environment are aspects beyond the control of a person (external). Figure 2.2 depicts the two manners of attribution posited by this theory.



**Figure 2.2: The Way People Attribute Causes of Outcomes or Behavior**

In attempting to reason the causes for an outcome, people may not be accurate and make errors in judgment called fundamental attribution error (Ross, 1977). This is a tendency that people draw interpretations about an outcome or others' behavior based on dispositional factors, but underestimated the situational determinants that have contributed to the outcome (Ross, 1977). Self-serving bias is another tendency which occurs

when people draw inferences from an outcome. This happens when people make dispositional attribution for desirable outcome, but make situational attribution for undesirable outcome (Miller & Ross, 1975). For instance, people attribute their successes to dispositional factors like own effort or ability, but blame situational factors such as task difficulty for their failures.

Applying the theory to organizational cynicism, Wanous et al. (2000) suggested that cynicism toward organizational change result from dispositional attribution (i.e., blaming incompetency of management) for the failure of change. Conversely, cynicism could be minimized if employees make situational attribution for failure of change. Situational attribution which place blame on unforeseen circumstances and factors beyond the control of the management could downplay dispositional attribution. For example, cynicism may be resulted if teachers attribute failure of educational change to incompetency of their leaders, but it will lessen if the failure is due to factors which is beyond control such as unexpected budget cut by the government. Basing on this, Wanous et al. (2000) defined cynicism about organizational change as a pessimistic viewpoint about change being successful because people responsible for change are blamed for being incompetent and/or lacking motivation. The people responsible for change are often referred to the management or union leaders.

## **2.5 Conceptualization of Main Variables**

### **2.5.1 The Work Itself**

The satisfaction literature has identified various attributes of the work itself in relation to satisfaction. These attributes are intrinsic in nature, and include opportunities for creativity and task variety, capacity for an individual to increase in knowledge, changes in responsibility, workload, job autonomy, job enrichment, and job complexity (Balzer et al., 2000). In studies where employees were asked to evaluate different work facets, the work itself will generally emerged as the most important work facet (Judge et al., 2001).

It is interesting to note that research has found factors considered extrinsic in other occupation to appear closely bound with the intrinsic nature of the work itself in the educational setting. In her seminal work on primary school teachers, Nias (2002) discovered teachers' work itself to include their involvement in the school as a social system. Their relationships with students, colleagues, and administrators may appear extrinsic, but immensely affect their work and are inseparable from teaching, because behaviors of students and other teachers directly affect their teaching. She proposed that relationship aspects which other organizations see as extrinsic are actually intrinsic to the job of teaching. Iiacqua et al. (1995) who examine satisfaction of university academicians also suggested the existence of some factors that can be taken as both intrinsic and extrinsic.



Another issue that plays significant role in teachers' work satisfaction is their workload. Collie et al. (2012) found teacher workload stress had direct influence on teacher job satisfaction. Thornburg and Mungai (2011) identified teachers' highest concern about education reformation involving the constraint on their time, which was bogged by administrative tasks and professional development sessions. Increased workload especially during implementation of educational change not only entails spending more time working outside the school, but also taps into teachers' reserves of emotional energy and intellectual energy (Day, Sammons et al., 2007). This happens when increased emotional energy is required to teach a broader spectrum of pupils in terms of ability and behaviors, while increased intellectual energy is needed to implement and administer new curricula in new ways (Day, Sammons et al., 2007). In addition to these, teachers' physical energy would be consumed while giving rise to the challenge of their performativity and accountability (Day, Sammons, et al., 2007). Such scenario might aptly describe what teachers in Malaysia are going through, as they need to juggle between lesson and assessment planning, while trying to grasp and orientate to new changes.

In Malaysia, teachers' work also encompasses non-teaching activities, especially involvement in programs for school enhancement. Examples of programs were anti-drug campaign, safety campaign, reading campaign and promotion of caring school environment. These programs were carried out with directives from the federal level, state level and district level, and can exceed 100 programs per year in some districts (MOE, 2013). While high

performing schools with many teachers may be able to cope with the demand, poor performing schools or schools with less teachers might encounter difficulty in teaching and learning tasks. As such, the current study consider teaching and non-teaching tasks to be included in teachers' work itself.

### **2.5.2 Promotion**

According to the Motivator-Hygiene theory (Herzberg et al, 1959), promotion is considered as a Motivator factor which increases job satisfaction as it directly relates to growth, recognition, achievement and responsibility. In terms of organizational change, Yousef (2000) investigated the influence of satisfaction with promotion on cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions of attitudes toward organizational change. This study which involved 800 employees found promotion satisfaction to directly and positively influence employees' affective attitudes toward change, and suggested that gaining employees' acceptance to organizational change relies on the satisfaction of this job facet.

Promotion is suggested to be a better tool compared to salary in motivating teachers, because salary structure in educational setting can be relatively fixed and inflexible (Wong & Wong, 2005). However, caution must be exercised when promotion is used as means to motivate teachers, as it might also have brought less satisfaction when teachers felt their classroom teaching suffered because of added responsibilities following the promotion (Day, Sammons, et al., 2007). These added responsibilities would then add to

pressures in terms of work-life balance, and support received at workplace may be lesser owing to the assumption that promoted teachers are 'better' and will be able to cope (Day, Sammons, et al., 2007).

Wong and Wong (2005) investigated promotion and teacher satisfaction in Hong Kong, where teachers reported to have low satisfaction on promotion due to the limited opportunities constraint by budget allocation. The study also found that promotion opportunities, distributive justice and interactive justice to have positive effects on satisfaction with promotion. Besides, the aforementioned study also found differing opinion between teachers and their principals about promotion criteria. Teachers believed their promotion depended on personal relationships, social affiliation and demographics, while principals believed they had emphasized on teachers' ability and potential in teaching and administration as promotion criteria. This finding highlighted the necessity to ensure promotion criteria to be reinforced with good communication and free of unfavorable human factors (Wong & Wong, 2005).

In Malaysia, teachers' promotion usually depends on their length of service and work performance which is evaluated on a yearly basis. As teachers in public schools, they are subject to the Annual Performance Report (APR) or Laporan Nilaiian Prestasi Tahunan, which is the universal appraisal instrument applied to all civil servants. The evaluation dimensions contained in APR are relatively generic and do not lend themselves well to performance differentiation (MOE, 2013). Teachers have also found this instrument to be

vague in evaluating their performance, and performance goals set by the instrument are not relevant to the education sector (Veloo & Zolkepli, 2011). To compensate the shortcoming, the MOE introduced two instruments - the Excellent Teacher (Guru Cemerlang) and Standard Four evaluation instrument to support teachers' evaluation process. Excellent Teachers need to demonstrate excellence in various competency areas such as pedagogy and subject matter. The Stand Four evaluation encompasses the teaching and learning aspects that include student participation, students' mastery of learning, students' work, teachers' planning and preparation of lessons, lesson delivery, communication skills, utilization of education resources, assessment, question techniques, mastery of lesson content, class management, and teachers' professional practices (MOE, 2010). Teachers have voiced concerns that the evaluation is a waste of time, as they contain duplication in areas of assessment, and they were confused as to which criteria really matters (MOE, 2013).

Promotion opportunities are closely bound with the fulfillment of promotional criteria, and attributes of the appraisal system have been found to affect teacher job satisfaction (Kelly, Ang, Chong, & Hu, 2008). In Malaysia where teachers' performance is evaluated with more than one instrument, Veloo and Zolkepli (2011) found teacher job satisfaction to have significant relationship with the performance appraisal system. It appeared their job satisfaction was related to system fairness, system clarity, system credibility, administration of the process, and teachers' controllability of assessment criteria. Further, limited opportunities for promotion and low

satisfaction in teachers' promotion had been reported (Muda & Omar, 2006; Mustapha, 2009).

Malaysian teachers could also be promoted according to their length of service. With effect from 1 January 2012, the government introduced a time-based promotional path for teachers who possess teaching diploma and bachelor degree. For instance, teachers with degrees who entered into the profession on salary grade of DG41 may advance to the higher grade of DG44 in eight years' time. It may take another eight years to be promoted to the subsequent grade of DG48, six years to the next grade of DG52, and another three years to the highest possible grade of DG54 (MOE, 2013). In this instance, a teacher may be promoted to the highest possible grade in 25 years of service.

Besides, the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 proposed a fast-track scheme, where high-performing teachers are expected to progress from DG41 (a fresh graduate salary grade) to DG54 (highest possible grade in non-leadership role) within a shorter time frame of 25 years (MOE, 2013). An estimated 2% to 5% of teachers will benefit from this new scheme annually (MOE, 2013). The career progression was also improved through the introduction of the Excellent Teacher or Guru Cemerlang track in 1994. Depending on quota provision, teachers who demonstrate excellence in multiple competency areas such as subject matter and pedagogy will be able to have opportunity to hasten promotion, thus, allowing for increased total lifetime earnings. Out of the teaching force of about 410,000 teachers, there

are currently 13,300 teachers designated as Excellent Teachers (MOE, 2013). There are also some local studies which suggested teachers to have decreasing or low professional status (Chee, 2008; Lee, 2004; Mustapha, 2009), and promotion may be able to alleviate their status as it brings along monetary reward, prestige and status to them (Wong & Wong, 2005).

Teachers have voiced their concerns about promotional opportunities in their career via the National Union of Teaching Profession (NUTP) (“NUTP Presents 9-Point Memo to Ministry,” 2012). These grouses arose despite the government’s announcement earlier in the same year to allocate of RM934 million for teacher promotion exercise and about 60,000 teachers were being promoted or recognized for promotion progressively (Dermawan, 2012). As such, it would be timely to investigate teachers’ reaction to improvement made to their career pathways, because the NUTP with about 173,000 members may not be representative of the 410,000 teachers in Malaysia. Nevertheless, collective voices from the teacher union are important as Ostroff (1992) suggested that collective job attitudes could reflect satisfaction which may be shown in organizational performance because of “cumulative responses and interactions among employees” (p. 965).

### **2.5.3 Pay**

According to Miceli and Lane (1991), pay satisfaction is defined as the overall positive or negative affect (feelings) that employees have toward their pay. Balzer et al. (2000) noted that pay satisfaction pertains to attitude toward pay which is based on the perceived difference between actual and expected pay. The expected pay is established on the value of perceived inputs and outputs of the job and the pay of other employees who are holding similar jobs and qualifications. This might be influenced by the personal financial situation of the employee, the current state of economy, and the amount of pay an employee has received previously (Smith et al, 1969). In terms of attitude towards organizational change, Yousef (2000) found pay satisfaction to directly and positively influencing cognitive attitudes toward change, and opined that gaining of employee's acceptance of organizational change relies on their satisfaction with their pay.

Herzberg et al. (1959) original findings on the pay factor produced complex results. His study documented events causing high and low attitude felt by the interviewees to identified factors which caused these attitudes. Events which caused high attitude were called high sequences revolves around good feelings, whereas low sequences referred to events which caused low attitude that revolves around bad feelings. Factors occurring in low sequences were rarely found in high sequences, with the exception of pay that appeared as frequently in both high and low sequences. It was explained that pay has short-term satisfaction value, but difficult to conceive

of it as a long term motivator in the same way as recognition and achievement. As such, Herzberg et al. (1959) classified pay as a hygiene factor.

Satisfaction with pay has been recognized as a construct that consists of four dimensions: pay level, pay raise, its structure and administration, and benefits (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Judge, 1993). Among these dimensions, pay level is noted as the most reliable in predicting pay satisfaction, and was mainly influenced by comparisons of one's pay relative to others (Judge, 1993). However, a recent meta-analysis found pay to be marginally related to pay satisfaction and job satisfaction (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010). While pay was recognized as one of the core components of job satisfaction (Judge, 1993), Spector (1997) conversely stated "pay itself is not a very strong factor in job satisfaction" (p. 42). As such, this study aims to revisit the pay – job satisfaction effect.

Research has suggested teacher pay satisfaction as a major predictor of their job dissatisfaction (Imazeki, 2005; Kelly, 2004). This may reflect the Motivator-Hygiene theory that posits pay as a hygiene factor that does not satisfy but is essential to suppress dissatisfaction. Basing on the reason that pay affect teacher satisfaction and eventually affect student learning, Akiba, Chiu, Shimizu and Liang (2012) examined the relationship between teacher salary and national achievement in mathematics and science. Their study used teacher salary data of 30 countries from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and student achievement data from



the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Findings revealed countries with higher average salary for experienced teachers are more likely to have higher national achievement, but there was no significant association found for new teachers.

However, higher salary does not necessary contributes to higher satisfaction. Marai (2003) investigated teacher job satisfaction according to their pay level in Indonesia, and found teachers who are underpaid or overpaid have less job satisfaction than the equitably paid group. The author suggested the overpaid group would experience demotivation as they work harder to justify their high salary, and experience guilt if they failed to do so. The same study also found that teachers who are not equitably paid experienced more symptoms of depression, anxiety, and hopelessness.

Low pay level often leads to teacher dissatisfaction and higher attrition rate (Akiba et al., 2012). In the United States, higher teacher salaries were found to lower teacher attrition rates (Kelly, 2004; Imazeki, 2005), while teachers in Finland attributed low salary to be the biggest disincentive for remaining in the profession (Webb et al., 2004). Stinebrickner (2001) carried out a longitudinal study on 551 teachers and concluded that higher salaries are, on average, associated with a longer stay in teaching during the first nine years. A report on teacher retention also cited the effect of pay level toward teachers' retention in their early span of career, where higher salaries could bring about higher retention rates among these teachers (Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005). These findings have important implications to the

Malaysian teaching force, as two-thirds of the 410,000 teachers in Malaysia consist of teachers who are at their early span of career (MOE, 2013). This demographic feature is due to the ministry's rapid expansion of the teaching force the past decade to reduce overall student-to-teacher ratio (MOE, 2013).

In the context of Malaysia's public service, teachers in public school are subject to the Malaysia Remuneration Scheme (MRS) or Sistem Saraan Malaysia (Government of Malaysia, 2002). This scheme was introduced in 2002 to improve the previous scheme that was introduced in 1992. Some of the changes brought about by the MRS were enhanced career pathways, revision of salary scheme and improved terms of employment (Veloo & Zolkepli, 2011). Given that this new scheme formed as part of the means for the government to achieve its vision, competency became one of the main elements for career development and salary progression in the public service (Siddiquee, 2010). Unlike the previous scheme, the MRS provides more control for civil employees by rewarding their salary progression through their own job performance. As Wong and Wong (2005) noted, that teachers' pay is closely associated with their promotion, and it is imperative that pay be investigated when promotion is examined.

Some local studies found teachers were moderately satisfied with their pay. Muda and Omar (2006) identified this trend with results from the east coast state of Terengganu, while Kosnin and Tan (2008) also obtained similar findings from the southern state of Johor. However, Abdullah et al. (2009) noted general dissatisfaction on pay among teachers in Sabah. Jusoh

(2012) also found teachers to be dissatisfied with their pay through a qualitative study, and identified differential starting pay for this occurrence. The starting pay of teachers who entered into the profession through the Post Graduate Teaching Course is determined by the type of bachelor degrees they obtained earlier. A teacher with a bachelor degree in Accounting earns a higher basic salary compared to teachers with degrees in Arts, Law or Engineering. With the same amount of workload and teaching hours, teachers have voiced that it is unfair to have such discrepancy in the salary. Besides, teachers have voiced their concern about their salary through their union – the NUTP (“NUTP presents 9-point memo to ministry”, 2012).

When compared to other nations, the monetary remuneration of Malaysian teachers is considered competitive by international standards (UNESCO, 2013). In terms of salary relative to per-capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) ratio, the country has a ratio of 3.9, while ratios for OECD countries are in the range of 1.5 to 2.0 (UNESCO, 2013). As such, further investigation is warranted to understand the dissatisfaction reported.

#### **2.5.4 Supervision**

Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene theory considers supervision as a Hygiene factor that operates to diminish job dissatisfaction. Employees’ job dissatisfaction can be decreased with supervisors who are employee-centered and considerate, displaying behavior such as acknowledging good performance, interested in employee well-being, providing feedback and

listening to subordinates' opinions (Balzer et al., 2000). Researchers repeatedly find that school leaders such as principals are central to teacher job satisfaction and school improvement (Johnson et al., 2012).

Leadership is an important factor in teachers' career, as Evans (2001) posited teachers' working lives to be leader-dependent, revolving within the schools' social and administrative structures. In an indirect but consequential way, school leadership has the capacity in shaping teachers' work context factors in relation to: organizational efficiency, equity and justice, interpersonal relationships, and pedagogy or andragogy (Evans, 2001). Price (2012) found the relationships and interpersonal interactions between principal and teachers to be significant predictors of job satisfaction and commitment. These relationships were found to affect both principals' and teachers' satisfaction, cohesion, and commitment levels in schools, which in turn might affect the schooling environment (Price, 2012). Other research also showed principal's leadership together with teachers' collegial relationship and school culture establish important school context such as supportive environment which predict teacher job satisfaction (Johnson et al., 2012).

In the context of education reform, Hallinger and Heck (2010) highlighted school collaborative leadership as a driver for change in enhancing school capacity for improvement. This finding was derived from longitudinal data of student achievement test and teachers' perception about school leadership in areas like staff empowerment, leadership participation

on educational improvement and encouragement of staff commitment. In order to foster this collaborative environment, positive attitude towards supervision is paramount.

In the Malaysian context, Chan and Sidhu (2007) discussed the importance of transformational leadership styles as a driver for educational change and not merely reacting to changes. The transformational leader would empower their teachers to be confident with their actions with minimal instruction or supervision. This leadership style was found to have medium and positive relationship with teacher satisfaction.

Meanwhile, supervision practices was identified to have a positive and medium relationship with teacher satisfaction (Mohd Hamzah, Yan, Ahmad, Hamid, & Mansor, 2013). Among the aspects of supervision practices, teachers rated highly dimensions of communication, staff development, curriculum, instructional practices, motivation and organization. The strongest relationships with teacher satisfaction were found with supervisor's motivation and organization, indicating the potential of these aspects in alleviating teacher satisfaction (Mohd Hamzah et al., 2013). Some studies indicated teachers to be satisfied with their supervisors (Abdullah et al., 2009; Muda & Omar, 2006), while some were not happy due to favoritism behavior which caused some new teachers to be assigned more tasks than experienced teachers (Jusoh, 2012).

### **2.5.5 Colleagues**

Evans (1997) noted the importance of teachers' contextual work factors like school management and collegiality that directly represents the realities of the job, and might have greater impact upon job-related attitudes than factors such as centrally initiated policies or their pay. She cited inter-relationships among teachers and people in management as one of the major causes of dissatisfaction in a school (Evans, 1997). Nias (2002) noted that teachers' satisfaction is affected by the social context of the school as a social system, and their colleagues who make up the majority of this system might influence their job satisfaction.

Organizational environment with characteristics such as poor communication, disorganized management systems and lack of management support may provide opportunities for negative relationships to form, for employees might compete for resources or have incompatible goals (Morrison & Nolan, 2007). Amidst the social interactions and diversity of employees, the potential for misunderstanding and hostility might also increase. Employees who are experiencing animosity or obstruction in working interpersonal relationships at work are likely to be less satisfied than employees who do not need to deal with interpersonal negativity (Morrison & Nolan, 2007). As noted by Ducharme and Martin, (2000) employees' overall job satisfaction is significantly contributed by co-workers' support in their workplace. Data were derived from a nationally representative sample

in the United States, and also found that co-workers' support affectively and instrumentally (as source of assistance) enhance job satisfaction.

In the school context, Johnson et al. (2012) found the social condition of the school to be predominant in predicting teachers' job satisfaction and career plans. Apart from school culture and leadership, they found teachers' relationships with their colleagues to be important predictors of teachers' satisfaction and student performance achievement, suggesting good working relations promote joint successes of teachers and students. This is supported by Kelchtermans (2006), who also found positive relationship with colleagues and job satisfaction, eventually resulted better learning in school.

In educational change context, Fullan (2011) advocated the importance of social capital which is formed by relationships among teachers and between teachers and principals. He opined that social capital could be a powerful strategy to bring about system reform with peer power in schools. Local quantitative studies have noted teachers to be satisfied with the relationship they have with their colleagues (Kosnin & Tan, 2008; Muda & Omar, 2006; Mustapha, 2009), while qualitative research revealed the intricacies of human factors in causing dissatisfaction such as being ignored by colleagues when greetings were extended (Jusoh, 2012).

### **2.5.6 Cynicism Toward Change**

Cynicism toward organizational change is one of the five major concepts of organizational cynicism. The other four concepts consists of employee cynicism, occupational cynicism, societal or institutional cynicism, and personality cynicism (Abraham, 2000; Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998). Personality cynicism is directed at personal attributes, while the others are directed at situational attribution of cynicism (Qian & Daniels, 2008). Some studies have attributed organizational cynicism as a learned response and shaped by experiences in the work context, rather than a personality disposition (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Wanous et al., 2000). This form of cynicism is susceptible to organizational experience and external factors, rather than shaped by personality dispositions such as negative affectivity (Bommer et al., 2005). With regard to the current study, the underpinning topic of interest would be organizational change cynicism.

Goldner, Ritti and Ference (1977) contributed to early understanding of organizational cynicism with their study set in one of the archdioceses of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States. This institution was undergoing structural changes to open up communication, and a major impact took the form of a loss of control by the authority over the exchange of cynical knowledge. Cynical knowledge as noted by the authors describe an understanding that altruistic actions by organizations are taken for the purpose of maintaining the legitimacy of authorities. Goldner et al. (1977)



noted that cynical knowledge denies the goodness and sincerity of motives, and results in cynicism towards the organization. For example, the display of humility and simplicity by the church authority was interpreted as pretense humility to suppress protest by the lower ranks (Goldner et al., 1977).

Much of the interest in organizational cynicism was later generated from Kanter and Mirvis (1989), whose book showed 43% of Americans to be cynical about the intentions and honesty of other people, causing them to refrain from participating in citizenship behavior such as voting during elections. Drawing on national surveys in the United States, they also revealed that cynicism has become rampant in workplaces. Some of the causes identified were lack of meaningful and challenging work, limited opportunity for advancement, and negative managerial styles that led to widespread disappointment.

Dean et al. (1998) gave an early conceptualization of organizational cynicism as an attitude that comprise of beliefs, affect and behavioral tendencies. The authors suggested that employees become cynical about their organization as they hold certain beliefs about the organization's lack of integrity and display certain behavioral tendencies toward the organization such as criticizing the organization or make pessimistic prediction about the organization's course of actions. Rather than focusing cynicism as a personality trait, the authors considered the concept as a state directed at the organization that may change over time as employees' experiences change. These authors proposed that organizational cynicism could be understood as

outcome of processes that involve leadership, power distribution, organizational change, or procedural justice.

Organizational cynicism has recently been investigated with other workplace variables such as job satisfaction (Arabaci, 2010), commitment, turnover intention (Bedeian, 2007), and organizational change (Nafei, 2014). In the context of educational institution, investigations identified organizational cynicism to be influenced by organizational politics, organizational justice, psychological contract violations, and perceived organizational support (James, 2005). Recently, organizational cynicism was identified to negatively affect school culture, academic achievement, and school leaders' altruist behaviors (Karadağ, Kiliçoğlu, & Yılmaz, 2014; Konakli, Özyılmaz, & Çörtük, 2013).

With respect to the narrower concept of cynicism toward organizational change, Reichers et al. (1997) proposed the concept to be a response to history of change attempts which were considered not successful by employees, and involves a loss of faith in leaders of the change despite their best intentions for change. Wanous et al. (2000) also offered similar definition that change cynicism is a pessimistic viewpoint about change efforts being successful because those responsible for making change are blamed for being unmotivated or incompetent. Reichers et al. (1997) cautioned that cynicism toward change could become a self-fulfilling prophecy. This is possible when cynical employees refuse to support change, with their lack of support leading to failed changes, and the failure reinforces

their cynicism which carried on to future programs. Reichers et al. (1997) suggested employees do not simply decide to be cynical, as their cynicism is developed through experience, and persists because of mixed record of successful change, and influence by other people who have similar cynical views. Furthermore, cynicism toward change arises as employees try to make sense of confusing events in their environment, or it may serve as a defense that employees embrace to avoid disappointment when changes were not completely successful.

When cynicism toward change leads to failed implementation, the failure reinforces the employees' cynical beliefs and may affect the success of subsequent changes (Bommer et al., 2005). This may affect job satisfaction, as found by Abraham (2000) that organizational change cynicism is negatively related to job satisfaction. She further explained that employees who do not see any improvement from proposed changes would direct their resentment toward their job itself by becoming dissatisfied and alienated. Alienation occurs when employees disconnect themselves from their job, lose control of work production and fail to maintain industrial link with their peers and associates (Abraham, 2000). Drawing from the these reviews, this construct is conceptualized as a learned response shaped by experiences in the work context, rather than a stable innate personality trait (Chiaburu et al., 2013; Choi, 2011; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Wanous et al., 2000). Despite studies which linked the construct to various antecedents and outcomes, Chiaburu et al. (2013) suggested there is a lack of comprehensive understanding about the concept based on these cumulative

findings. There was increased scholarly attention paid to the concept in the last decade, but majority of the studies have focused on the Western countries (Mohd Noor et al., 2013).

Studies that investigated cynicism in the context of organizational change had found it to be positively linked to colleagues cynicism and resistance to change, while negatively linked to perceived quality of information, trust in the administration, management integrity and ability, transformational leadership, group cohesion and justice perceptions (Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005; Qian & Daniels, 2008; Stanley, Meyer, & Topolnysky, 2005; Wu, Neubert, & Yi, 2007). In the school setting, an earlier qualitative Australian study carried out by Churchill, Williamson and Grady (1997) highlighted the effect of cynicism toward educational change on teachers' work lives. The main source for this cynicism was caused by teachers' belief that educational change is advocated with the main objective of advancing the self-interests of its proponents. Teachers' cynicism exacerbated through their views that changes are only transitory which will soon be replaced by other initiatives. Despite the negative effects related to cynicism toward change, a study found that it actually influence higher level of receptivity toward school based intervention programs (Magee, 2006). This somewhat contrary findings were explained with cynical employees' eager attitude in wanting to prove how the changes would fail or taking the approach of "it may not be better but couldn't be worse" (Magee, 2006, p. 42).

In a South East Asian setting such as Malaysia, Hallinger (2010) noted distinct reaction from Western countries to announcement of education change, where it is received politely by stakeholders such as teachers, parents, principals and students. Change proponents have the belief that those who are designated to implement changes will accept the changes. While this inclination of accepting decisions from higher authorities might appear to create a seemingly smooth acceptance toward change implementation, it may not translate to teachers being agreeable to the changes. Cultural norms of high power distance tend to prioritize group harmony to avoid public dissent, and any suppressed dissent may result in a longer process of change adaptation (Hallinger, 2010). Malaysia may not be exempted from this situation, as the country recorded high power distance tendency in its culture (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010).

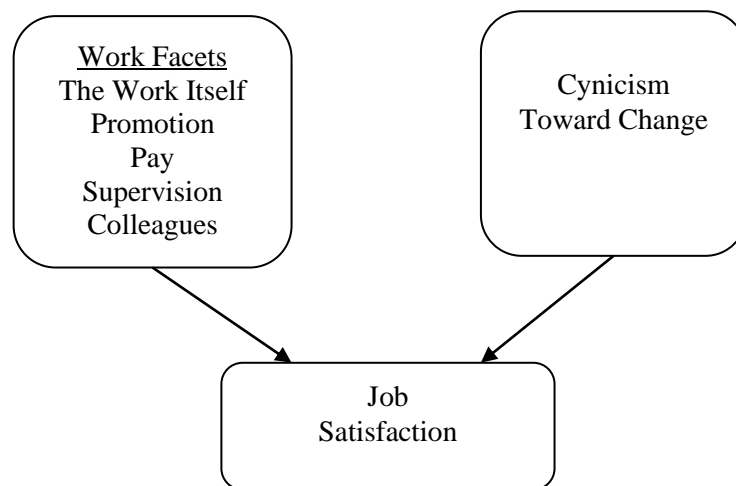
While no outright resistance was observed from teachers towards the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, dissent may take a passive form. Cynicism could be a passive barrier and is a common reaction among employee during organizations' initiation for change (Qian & Daniels, 2008). Even though considered as a passive reaction, widespread and prolonged cynicism could become a precursor that leads to aggressive reaction such as intention to resist change (Choi, 2011; Mohd Noor et al., 2013; Qian & Daniels, 2008). If cynicism were prevalent, resistance would likely be the next step taken by employees (Qian & Daniels, 2008). Most change management discuss the impact of resistance to change as a critical step to overcome change failures, but cynicism about organizational change may be

a form of change resistance which implementer must first overcome (Bommer et al., 2005). Rubin, Dierdorff, Bommer and Baldwin (2009) suggested organizational cynicism to be associated with “certain level of toxicity in organizational environments” (p. 680), and bears negative effect on employee job satisfaction, motivation, organizational commitment and the intent to create change. In educational setting, cynicism was attributed to slow down and cause potential disruption to the change process, as its proponents abandon the change effort (Ramaley, 2002).

## **2.6 Proposed Research Framework**

This study aims to explore the broad areas of strength and weakness in determining teachers’ job satisfaction, taking into account cynicism toward change as one of the possible variables. Job satisfaction is explored in terms of the major work facets suggested by the literature, as there is an absence of theory development to guide the selection of the most important work facets for different people or for different situations (Brief, 1998; Fritzsche & Parrish, 2005). The work facets often identified to represent the most important characteristics influencing job satisfaction are the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues (Luthans, 2011). These work facets are considered as principal aspects of job satisfaction that are relatively independent of each other (Balzer, et al., 2000).

The review of the literature also identified educational change as a factor that affect teachers' job satisfaction. As such, this study considered the timely inception of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, to gauge teachers' opinion about changes proposed by the blueprint. Referring to teachers' change experience reviewed in Chapter 1, there may be a predisposition of cynicism toward change among teachers. As such, their cynicism toward change is investigated as an important factor that may affect their job satisfaction. Figure 2.3 depicts the theoretical framework that guided this study.



**Figure 2.3: Proposed Research Framework**

## **2.7 Summary**

This chapter discussed the historical background of job satisfaction and illuminated the seminal and current studies related to the variables of the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues and cynicism toward change. Theoretical constructs that are useful for the study were noted, with discussions derived from international and local literature. The following chapter will describe the steps that have been taken to address the research questions presented.



## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODS**

#### **3.1 Research Design**

This chapter is organized into four major sections which describes the steps taken to address the research questions presented in chapter one. These sections explain the details taken in this cross-sectional quantitative study that include participant selection, procedures, instrumentation, and data analysis. The study used a cross-sectional design across the primary and secondary schools to allow for collection of data at one point in time. This method is relatively inexpensive to administer with a shorter period of data collection. Besides, cross-sectional designs usually derive the study sample from the population with probability method to have a representation of the study population (Bourque, 2004). With this, a snapshot of the opinions of teachers in the Kinta Selatan District was obtained.

#### **3.2 Participants**

The targeted population was all teachers teaching in primary and secondary public schools in the Kinta Selatan district. A sampling frame of a list of schools in the district was obtained from the internet portal of the district's education division (Pejabat Pelajaran Daerah Kinta Selatan, 2013).

A crosscheck with the Kinta Selatan district education office was done to ensure the validity of the sampling frame. Participants were selected by cluster sampling, where the population is grouped according to primary and secondary level.

The district has a total of 80 schools, 65 of them are primary schools while 15 of them are secondary schools. There is a total of 2696 teachers where of 1565 of them are teaching at the primary level, and 1131 of them positioned at the secondary level (Pejabat Pelajaran Daerah Kinta Selatan, 2013). There are some pre-calculated sample ranges available such as the table provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) that shows population sizes rounded to multiple fives, tens and hundreds. It would be more accurate to calculate the sample size using a formula with manual calculation. The following calculation using the formula by Yamane (1967) yielded sample sizes of 319 primary school teachers and 296 secondary school teachers.

Primary School Participants

$$\begin{aligned}
 n &= \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} \\
 &= \frac{1565}{1 + 1565(.05)^2} \\
 &= 319
 \end{aligned}$$

Secondary School Participants

$$\begin{aligned}
 n &= \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} \\
 &= \frac{1131}{1 + 1131(.05)^2} \\
 &= 296
 \end{aligned}$$

n = required sample size

N = the population size

e = precision level

The above formula assumes a degree of variability of 0.5 and a confidence level of 95%. From the above manual calculation, a total of 615 respondents were required. Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001) propose oversampling to achieve the targeted sample size, especially for educational and social research studies. To obtain the desired sample size of 615, a total of 1104 questionnaires were distributed to over sample in anticipation of the response rate of 54% (Chee, 2008) to 69% (Mohd Noor et al., 2013), observed from local studies.

A random table was used to assist in the selection of participants (RAND Corporation, 2001). There were seven tables available, and the day of the week determined the table that was used. There are a total of 80 schools, and an arbitrary two digits number was obtained by dropping a pencil. Numbers between 01 and 80 were recorded by going down the column to the end of the page and then to the top of the next column. These numbers would represent the school listed in the sampling frame. The selected school was then contacted to determine its teacher population, and the number of teachers in the schools were added up until the desired participants to be sampled is achieved.

### **3.3 Measurements**

The construct of job satisfaction had been assessed in global form asking about satisfaction in general, and as a composite product of different facets which may affect satisfaction such as pay, work environment,

colleagues, and supervisors. Global measurement can provide an overview of a person's job in general, whereas facet measurement could serve as diagnostic tool for identification of specific areas in which employee's satisfaction need improvement (Russell et al., 2004).

Proponents for facets measurement often advocate the summation or aggregation of scores across facets to work out overall job satisfaction. However, caution must be exercised as aggregation might distort interpretations, because there are no definitive consensuses of facets which make up of the absolute assessment of the multidimensional construct of job satisfaction (Ho & Au, 2006). The four main standardized, validated instrument measuring facets satisfaction which account for the majority of job satisfaction research are the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham 1976), the Index of Organizational Reactions (Dunham, Smith, & Blackburn, 1977), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith et al., 1969). These established instruments were evaluated psychometrically, and were found to converge dimensionally with each other when used to assess similar job factors (Hulin & Judge, 2003).

Research has shown differences exist between measuring individual job satisfaction across facets and as a general construct, and various instruments were designed to measure both types of measurement (Brief, 1998). Instrument that measure overall job satisfaction include the Job Satisfaction Index (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) and the Job In General (JIG)

scale (Ironson et al., 1989). The latter was developed to complement the JDI which measure individual work facets, providing both styles of measurement. Due to this advantage, the JDI and JIG scale are adopted in this study. Another reason for using these measures is that the JDI contains sub-scales which measure the major work facets investigated. The authors of JDI and JIG designed the instrument for the identification of broad areas of strength and weakness for the follow up of more detailed investigations where necessary (Balzer, et al., 2000). This rationale aptly fulfills the explorative intent of this study.

As the nature of the present study required the direct opinion of teachers, primary data collection is the most suitable method. This will allow for the most current data and direct opinion to be collected. This study did not adopt an explanatory study using newly created items, but rather an established instrument with appropriate measure was used. De Vaus (2002) encouraged the adoption of well-established measures whenever available. This is especially so because job satisfaction is a regularly investigated variable and various well-established instruments are available (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). With established instrument, the results of the study would be comparable to those of other studies, and this could contribute to the cumulating body of knowledge in the research area.

The instrument used in this study consists of three sections (Appendix G). The first section requested the demographic profile of the respondents that includes gender, age, teaching experience, teaching load, school level (primary/secondary) and academic qualifications. The second section consisted of the latest revision of Job In General (JIG) and Job Descriptive Index (JDI) scales (Brodke, et al., 2009) originated from Smith et al. (1969). The JIG measured overall job satisfaction, while JDI measured satisfaction with the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues. Both instruments are copyrighted and permission was granted by the Bowling Green State University to use these instruments (Appendix D). The third section consisted of the Cynicism About Organizational Change (CAOC) by Wanous et al. (2000) to measure cynicism toward change initiatives in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. Permission to use CAOC was sought and granted by the authors of the instrument (Appendix F). The final instrument consist of a total of 104 items. The nature of the study was explained in the questionnaire with assurance of respondents' anonymity, and their freedom to withdraw from the study at any time.

### **3.3.1 Job In General to Measure Overall Job Satisfaction**

The dependent variable of this study, overall job satisfaction, was measured with JIG (Brodke et al., 2009). This scale consisted of 18 items in the form of short phrases and adjectives measuring one's job in general. JIG provides a measurement of overall job satisfaction that gives an integrative feeling of satisfaction when all aspects of the job were taken into

consideration. This measurement yields an evaluative form of global and overall job satisfaction (Ironson et al., 1989). Respondents may select “yes”, “?” or “no” to indicate their opinion with scoring in the form of “3” for “yes” option, “1” for “?” option and “0” for “no” option (Brodke et al., 2009). With 18 items, scores in this scale range from minimum 0 to a maximum of 54. This scoring format is the same as the Job Descriptive Index and it is the original scoring method developed by its authors (Ironson et al., 1989). This scoring system is further discussed in the following section.

### **3.3.2 Job Descriptive Index to Measure Satisfaction of Work Facets**

The independent variables of satisfaction with work facets were measured with JDI (Brodke et al., 2009). The JDI consisted of 72 items with five sub-scales which measure satisfaction of the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues. These sub-scales contained short phrases and adjectives that described the variables measured, and are scored in the same manner. According to the reference guide of the instrument, respondents may select yes, no or “?” to indicate their opinion, with “?” to represent ambivalence or being not sure (Brodke et al., 2009). All sub-scales contained 18 items, except “promotion” and “pay” which consisted of nine items. To make a consistent analysis, scores of ‘promotion’ and ‘pay’ sub-scales with nine items would be doubled up as instructed in the user manual (Brodke et al., 2009). With “yes” scored as “3”, “?” scored as “1” and “no” scored as “0”, the scale scores for all five facets scale would range from minimum 0 to maximum 54. As such, both JIG and JDI will be scored with the same

response format, and levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction will also be categorized the same way.

The original asymmetrical scoring system of 3, 1 and 0 for JIG and JDI, was maintained in this study, as recommended by Hanisch (1992) who based her study of the scale on item response theory, and found dissatisfied individual responded to “?” more frequently than individuals who are satisfied. She concluded this scoring method to be “still justified today” (Hanisch, 1992, p. 382). The original 3 point scale was also maintained in the current study, as recommended by research that have tested it with other type of format such as five point Likert scales; where the five point scale did not improve the scale reliability, validity, and capacity to distinguish among the five facets of JDI (Johnson, Smith, & Tucker, 1982).

To determine level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, the authors of JDI noted that the neutral range has to be determined as it “represent ambivalent feeling, a balance of positive and negative feelings about aspects of the job overall” (Balzer et al., 2000, p. 24). The authors acknowledged in theory there is no real “neutral” point in the scale, but gave an indication that in the range of 0 to 54 on the scales, scores 22 or below indicate dissatisfaction and scores 32 or above indicate satisfaction (Balzer et al., 2000). The categorization is as depicted in Table 3.1.



**Table 3.1: Categorization of Satisfaction Level**

Score	Categorization
0-22	Dissatisfaction
23-31	Ambivalent
32-54	Satisfaction

### **3.3.3 Cynicism About Organizational Change**

The Cynicism About Organizational Change (CAOC) scale consisted of eight items was used to gauge teachers' cynicism toward change initiatives proposed by Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, which is an independent variable in this study. This instrument was chosen as it is appropriate for studies which specifically concern organizational change efforts (Dean et al., 1998, Reichers et al., 1997).

The authors of the scale describe cynicism towards change as an attitude determined by the futility of change, and the scale was developed to reflect previous change experience and leadership competency in change management (Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000). This scale is considered as a composite of two components: pessimism about future change being successful and blaming those responsible for inducement of one's pessimism (Wanous et al., 2000; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Choi, 2011). The pessimistic component is system-referenced, because the object of evaluation for likelihood of change success is one's organization; while blaming of "those responsible" is usually directed at management who is in-

charge of change (Kath, 2005). There are altogether eight items which are negatively worded sentences, such as “Most of the programs that are supposed to solve problems around here will not do much good” or “The people responsible for making changes around here do not have the skills needed to do their jobs.” Items in the scale were given five point options ranging from strongly disagree scored as “1,” disagree scored as “2,” not sure scored as “3,” agree scored as “4,” and strongly agree scored as “5.” The total score of the scales ranges from a minimum of 8 to 40. The level of cynicism was gauged by the mean of the scale according to the classification level of Wanous et al. (2000) in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Categorization of Cynicism Level**

Score	Categorization
1.00 – 2.50	Low Cynicism
2.51 – 3.49	Moderate Cynicism
3.50 – 5.00	High Cynicism

### **3.3.4 Reliability and Validity of Scales Used**

The JDI was first developed in 1969 to measure job satisfaction in terms of facet satisfaction for the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues, while the JIG was later development in 1989 as a global scale to complement the JDI (Ironson et al., 1989). These instrument are constantly updated and their items reviewed, the latest being in 2009 (Brodke et al.,

2009). In this latest revision, the JIG and sub-scales of JDI were reported to possess Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .88 to .92, indicating reliable internal consistency (Brodke, et al., 2009). Validity of the instrument had been established through meta-analytical studies, with discriminant and convergent validity demonstrated from a variety of job situations and samples (Balzer et al., 2000; Brodke, et al., 2009; Kinicki et al., 2002). Moreover, it was found that the sub-scales of JDI which measure the five work facets are distinct and independent from each other through their inter-correlations (Brodke, et al., 2009). In the local context, studies which utilized JIG and JDI had found it suitable for the Malaysian context with internal reliability ranging from .71 to .91. (Ahmad, Muhammad, & Hassan, 2012; Kosnin & Tan, 2008; Rathakrishnan, 2011).

With regard to CAOC, the initial testing of the scale's internal consistency by its authors reported an alpha of 0.86 (Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 1994). Studies which later used this scale reported internal consistency ranging from 0.81 to 0.89 (Bordia et al., 2011; Watt & Piotrowski, 2008; Williams, Pillai, Deptula, & Lowe, 2011). The instrument's validity was also tested through discriminant validity investigation which showed low correlation not more than  $r = .20$  between variables used for the test (Wanous et al., 2000).

### 3.3.5 Translation of Research Instrument

As Kinta Selatan district encompasses some townships, smaller towns and rural areas, the study adopted an English-Malay language instrument to ease comprehension. While the JDI and JIG had been translated into the Malay Language by few local researchers (Rahman, 2001; Rathakrishnan, 2011), there is a dearth of local studies which adopt the CAOC. Attempts to contact local researchers for consent to use their instrument were unsuccessful, thus, the instrument was translated from the original language of English Language to the Malay Language using back translation (Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998). This method was chosen for its translation purpose and also to assess the quality of translation through the different stages involved. The following sequential steps were taken:

1. The instrument with original language of English Language (EL text 1) is translated into Malay Language (ML text).
2. The translated text (ML text) is translated back to English Language (EL text 2) by another translator, who had no knowledge about prior translation and not familiar with original questionnaire.
3. Another independent language expert, compared EL text 1 to EL text 2 and made recommendations based on the equivalency of ML text to EL text 1.

The Malay version of the instrument was translated by an expert who is a native speaker of Malay Language and also a lecturer teaching the language in an institution of higher learning. Other experts are also academicians who are qualified lecturers teaching English Language in an institute of higher learning. All of the experts are bilingual in both Malay and English Language as suggested by Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998). Their language ability is representative of the target population because Malay Language is the national language, while English Language is advocated as the international language of communication in Malaysia (MOE, 2013).

### **3.3.6 Internal Consistency of Final Instrument**

The instrument was pre-tested in a pilot study with 145 teachers from two primary and two secondary schools which were not involved in the actual study. Reliability for each sub-scales and the overall instrument were tested by way of obtaining the Cronbach alpha value, which is a measurement of internal consistency. A Cronbach's coefficient alpha ranges from 0 to 1, with value of at least .70 being an acceptable reliability coefficient (Nunnally, 1978). The sub-scales yielded Cronbach's coefficient alpha of between .86 to .93. This high reliability was supported by claims of the developers of the instrument (Brodke et al., 2009). The CAOC also yielded good internal consistency. Table 3.3 shows the Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the respective sub-scales produced in the pilot study.

**Table 3.3: Internal Consistency of the Sub-scales for Pilot Study**

Sub-scales	No of cases	No of items	$\alpha$ -value
Overall Job Satisfaction	145	18	.88
The Work Itself	145	18	.89
Promotion	145	9	.88
Pay	145	9	.86
Supervision	145	18	.93
Colleagues	145	18	.89
Cynicism Toward Change	145	8	.93
Total		98	

As the questionnaire was developed in the United States and might not suite local context, opinions on its suitability were sought during the pilot study. It was suggested that original term of “co-workers” be replaced with “colleagues” as this is a more familiar term used to refer to people working in the same workplace. This is because Malaysia was formerly ruled by the United Kingdom, and “colleagues” is a term more commonly used. Some changes were also suggested for the original items in the questionnaire to suite local context and the teaching profession. Permission to adapt the scales was sought and granted by the Bowling Green State University where the administrative office of the scales is housed (Appendix E). The amendments are listed in Table 3.4 and a copy of the finalized questionnaire is attached as Appendix G.

**Table 3.4: Replacement of Items in Sub-scales**

Sub-scale	Item in the sub-scale	Replacement
Job In General	Worse than most	Lower than other professions
Job In General	Poor	Does not develop me
Promotion	Very limited	Unfair promotion policy
Colleagues	Stupid	Unintelligent

In the actual study, the Cronbach's alpha values for sub-scales ranged from .86 to .93, which exceeded the recommendation by Nunnally (1978) of .70 and above. The internal consistency for each scale is illustrated in the Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5: Internal Consistency of Sub-scales for Actual Study**

Sub-scales	No of cases	No of items	$\alpha$ -value
Overall Job Satisfaction	628	18	.89
The Work Itself	628	18	.90
Promotion	628	9	.90
Pay	628	9	.86
Supervision	628	18	.93
Colleagues	628	18	.90
Cynicism Toward Change	628	8	.92
Total		98	

### **3.4 Procedures**

The MOE required all researchers to obtain permission to carry out research in public schools. According to the requirement set by MOE, permissions have to be granted by various departments in the ministry before reaching the schools. There were four levels of permission needed in order to access the teachers. The departments involved were (order of authorities from the top to the bottom): Division of Education Policies Research and Planning (Appendix A), Perak State Education Department (Appendix B), Kinta Selatan District Education Office (Appendix C), and finally headmasters of primary schools or principals of secondary schools. All departments with the exception of school headmasters and principals requested the findings of the research to be reported to them.

Appointments were made with headmasters of primary schools and principals of secondary schools at their convenience. Participation from schools was solicited with assurance that the identity of schools will be kept in confidence. Questionnaires were hand delivered to the schools upon approval by the principals or headmasters. A teacher or school clerk was tasked by the school leaders to distribute and collect the questionnaires. These people became the contact person whom the researcher communicated with in the data collection process. They were provided with the contact information of the researcher in the event that further information or clarification is needed. Participants' demographic information were sought in the study and they were given information about the questionnaire with the



choice to withdraw their participation at any juncture (Appendix G). With this, data collection was carried out from 11 November 2013 to 20 December 2013. In returning the questionnaires, the completed ones were sealed in an envelope by the school, while the blank questionnaires were returned in unsealed envelopes, plastic bags or in stacks held by rubber bands.

### **3.5 Data Analysis**

Before data analysis were carried out, data obtained were assessed for the fulfillment of various assumptions required by various statistical tests. In-depth discussion of data assessment is presented in the following chapter. Data were assessed and analyzed with IBM® SPSS Statistics 20 software. Descriptive statistics is applied for RQ1 to gauge the satisfaction levels of the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues, and overall job satisfaction. The same method is also applied for RQ2 to examine respondents' cynicism towards organizational change initiatives. Correlation analysis is conducted for RQ3 to assess the relationship between overall job satisfaction and teachers' cynicism toward organizational change initiatives.

In determining the predictive ability of the independent variables (the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues, and cynicism toward change) to the dependent variable (overall job satisfaction), standard multiple regression analysis is applied to answer RQ4. Finally, independent sample t-test is used for RQ5 to find out the difference (if any) of overall job

satisfaction between primary and secondary school teachers. In applicable cases, research questions are tested at the .05 level of significance.

### **3.6 Summary**

A quantitative approach was adopted for this study. With a sampling frame of schools in the Kinta Selatan district, respondents were identified through selection from a random table by chance. Three scales were consolidated as the survey instrument to measure overall job satisfaction, work facets satisfaction and cynicism toward change. The instrument was translated to Malay Language from the original English Language where a questionnaire in Malay and English was used. A pilot study was conducted to ascertain reliability of the translated instrument. With the necessary permission obtained from the various departments in the MOE, data collection were carried out from 11 November 2013 to 20 December 2013.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter gives a description of the profile of the respondents and present the results of statistical tests used to analyze the data. A total of 1104 questionnaires were distributed, while 664 questionnaires were returned yielding about 60% of response rate. The final usable questionnaires arrived at 628 after disregarding the incomplete ones, and this number is more than the minimum required sample size of 615. As the analyses involve parametric technique to answer some of the research questions, data were subject to assessment to make sure that assumptions for these parametric tests are fulfilled.

#### **4.2 Data Assessment**

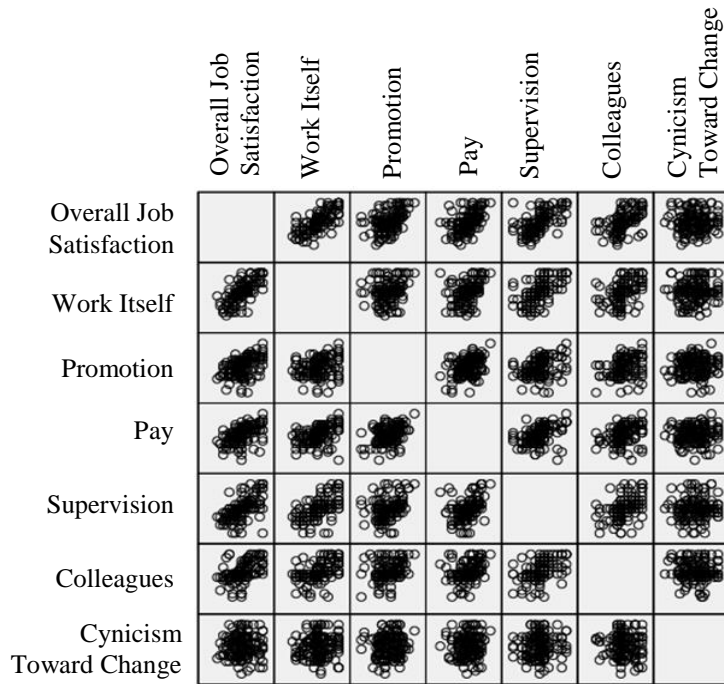
First and foremost, data were tested for normality. Checks for normality were determined by way of values obtained for skewness and kurtosis. Data were considered almost normally distributed as the values fell within the criteria of within +1 and -1 for skewness and +3 and -3 for kurtosis (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). It appeared that

values for all variables were within the acceptable range as shown in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Skewness and Kurtosis**

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Overall Job Satisfaction	-.97	.85
The Work Itself	-.93	.29
Promotion	.04	-.76
Pay	-.86	-.32
Supervision	-.89	.21
Colleagues	-.96	.82
Cynicism Toward Change	-.01	-.56

To ensure the assumption of linearity is not violated, scatter plots were produced for visual inspection to check for linear association. There was no presence of curvilinear relationship thus no violation of assumption was found with this visual inspection as shown in the scatter plot matrix as illustrated by Figure 4.1.



**Figure 4.1: Scatter Plot Matrix of Variables**

Besides this, the presence of multicollinearity would not contribute to a good regression model, as high correlation between independent variables would convey the same information in explaining dependent variables (Pallant, 2010). Multicollinearity may also cause some variables to be statistically insignificant while they should be significant. To test the presence of multicollinearity, a ‘collinearity diagnostics’ as provided by SPSS is carried out. This assessment consider the Tolerance value and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Tolerance and VIF values were obtained with overall job satisfaction as dependent variable and the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues, and cynicism toward change as independent variables.

Pallant (2010) advised that multicollinearity will be a problem if tolerance values are less than .10 or VIF values are above 10. With this, no presence of multicollinearity were detected as the lowest tolerance among variables was .63 and the highest VIF was only 1.59 as shown in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)**

Sub-scales	Tolerance	VIF
The Work Itself	.70	1.42
Promotion	.74	1.35
Pay	.82	1.22
Supervision	.63	1.59
Colleagues	.83	1.21
Cynicism Toward Change	.82	1.21

Besides tolerance and VIF, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggested that variables with correlations of more than .70 be omitted to ensure there are no multicollinearity. From Table 4.3, the highest pairwise correlation between variables was .61, thus all variables were retained.

**Table 4.3: Inter - Correlation of Variables**

Sub-scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Overall	-	.61***	.41***	.34***	.50***	.43***	-.35***
2. The Work Itself		-	.41***	.30***	.47***	.23***	-.31***
3. Promotion			-	.30***	.43***	.25***	-.28***
4. Pay				-	.34***	.24***	-.27***
5. Supervision					-	.38***	-.34***
6. Colleagues						-	-.23***
7. Cynicism Toward Change							-

*Note.* Overall: overall job satisfaction. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ,  $N = 628$  for all analyses.

### 4.3 Demographic Description of Respondents

This section lists the frequencies and percentages of respondents' demographic information of school, gender, age, weekly workload, teaching experience and academic qualifications. Information for school, gender and academic qualifications were group according to their respective categories, while age, weekly workload and teaching experience were grouped in units of multiple fives and tens to give a general description of the sample's characteristics.

#### 4.3.1 School Level

Out of the total sample of 628, there were 326 teacher respondents from the primary schools, while 302 teacher respondents from the secondary

schools. Table 4.4 illustrates the distribution of respondents according to types of schools.

**Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents according to Primary and Secondary School**

School	Respondents	
	N	%
Primary	326	51.90
Secondary	302	48.10
Total	628	100.00

#### 4.3.2 Gender

Of the 628 participants in this study, 483 or 76.9% were female and 145 or 23.1% were male. This reflected the characteristics of Malaysian teachers where female teachers exceed male teachers. Table 4.5 illustrates the breakdown of respondents' gender.

**Table 4.5: Distribution of Respondents according to Gender**

Gender	Respondents	
	N	%
Female	483	76.90
Male	145	23.10
Total	628	100.00



### 4.3.3 Age

The majority of respondents, 192 or 30.6% of them fell within the category of 41-50 years old, with 175 or 27.9% of them within 31-40 years old, 169 or 26.9% of them within 21-30 years old, and 90 or 14.3% were above 50 years old. Two of them were under 20 years old, who are temporary teachers. The minimum age for qualified teacher may be around 20 years old, considering teachers start their 2.5 years of teachers' training after leaving secondary school at 17 years old. Table 4.6 depicts the information of the respondents' age groups.

**Table 4.6: Distribution of Respondents according to Age**

Age	Respondents	
	N	%
<20 years old	2	0.30
21-30 years old	169	26.90
31-40 years old	175	27.90
41-50 years old	192	30.60
>50 years old	90	14.30
Total	628	100.00

### 4.3.4 Weekly Workload

Table 4.7 depicts the workload of the respondents in a typical week which included teaching and non-teaching duties. The largest percentage of

respondents recorded workload of more than 50 hours per week and represented 23.0% or 145 of teacher respondents. This is followed by 19.3% of them who reported 41 - 50 hours of workload, 18.8% with 21 - 30 hours of workload, 18.2% with 31 - 40 hours of workload and 15.8% with 11 - 20 hours of workload. The smallest percentage of respondents (4.9%) accounted for the least workload of less than 11 hours per week.

**Table 4.7: Distribution of Respondents according to Weekly Workload**

Weekly Workload	Respondents	
	N	%
<11 hours	31	4.90
11-20 hours	99	15.80
21-30 hours	118	18.80
31-40 hours	114	18.20
41-50 hours	121	19.30
>50 hours	145	23.00
Total	628	100.00

#### **4.3.5 Teaching Experience**

The largest percentage of 25.0% or 157 teachers reported to having 1 - 5 years of experience. There were 15.9% or 100 respondents who have 6 - 10 years of teaching experience, and 15.4% or 97 with teaching experience of 11 - 15 years. The same percentage of 15.4% or 97 also applied to teaching experience of 16 - 20 years. Respondents who taught for more than 25 years

accounted for 14.4% or 90 of them, while respondents who taught for 21 - 25 years accounted for 13.9% or 87 participants. The frequencies and percentages of respondents teaching experience are illustrated in Table 4.8.

**Table 4.8: Distribution of Respondents according to Teaching Experience**

Teaching experience	Respondents	
	N	%
1-5 years	157	25.00
6-10 years	100	15.90
11-15 years	97	15.40
16-20 years	97	15.40
21-25 years	87	13.90
>25 years	90	14.40
Total	628	100.00

#### 4.3.6 Academic Qualifications

There were 420 respondents who were graduate teachers with a bachelor or post graduate qualification. Among them, 61.0% or 383 of them possess bachelor degrees while 33.1% or 208 of them possess Certificate or Diploma qualifications. The rest of the respondents who possess post graduate qualifications accounted for 5.9% or 37 of the total sample. Their academic qualifications are depicted in Table 4.9 below.

**Table 4.9: Distribution of Respondents according to Academic Qualifications**

Academic Qualifications	Respondents	
	N	%
Certificate/Diploma	208	33.10
Bachelor degree	383	61.00
Post graduate qualifications	37	5.90
Total	628	100.00

#### 4.4 Teachers' Overall Job Satisfaction

Overall job satisfaction of respondents was investigated with the Job In General (JIG) scale. The overall mean of the scale will reflect a global evaluation of the general aspects of the work of primary and secondary schools teachers. Scores of 22 or below indicate dissatisfaction, and scores of 32 or above indicate satisfaction. Scores from 23 to 31 indicate ambivalence or neutral. Results show that respondents were satisfied with the general aspect of their job with an average score of 44.76 (SD = 10.15).

Table 4.10 illustrates the descriptive data of items scored in the scale. The pattern of responses appeared to be quite consistent where a majority agreed on positive worded items and disagreed on negative worded items. The item with highest mean ( $M = 2.77$ ,  $SD = 0.69$ ) was “good” where about 90% agreed on. The lowest mean were recorded by negative item of “bad”

( $M = 0.12$ ,  $SD = 0.42$ ) and “rotten” ( $M = 0.12$ ,  $SD = 0.44$ ) where only about 1% respondent agreed on.

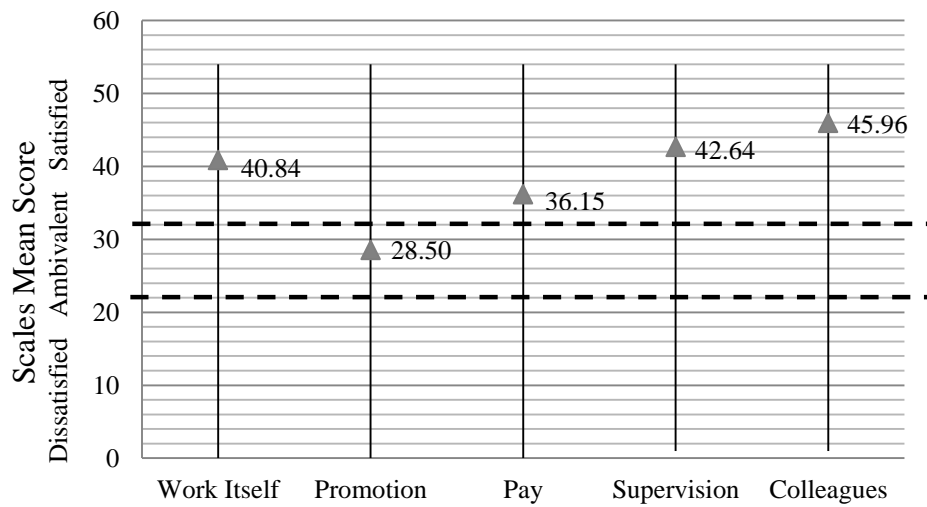
**Table 4.10: Descriptive Data for Overall Job Satisfaction**

Item	Yes		Not Sure		No		Mean	SD
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
Pleasant	521	83.00	70	11.10	37	5.90	2.60	0.90
Great	355	56.50	143	22.80	130	20.70	1.92	1.27
Good	562	89.50	52	8.30	14	2.20	2.77	0.69
Worthwhile	496	79.00	72	11.50	60	9.50	2.48	1.03
Bad	7	1.10	57	9.10	564	89.80	0.12	0.42
Undesirable	64	10.20	104	16.60	460	73.20	0.47	0.93
Waste of time	21	3.30	43	6.90	564	89.80	0.17	0.58
Lower than other professions	83	13.20	91	14.50	454	72.30	0.54	1.02
Superior	377	60.00	153	24.40	98	15.60	2.04	1.21
Excellent	406	64.70	130	20.70	92	14.60	2.15	1.19
Better than most	495	78.80	90	14.30	43	6.90	2.50	0.97
Disagreeable	15	2.40	61	9.70	552	87.90	0.17	0.53
Makes me content	491	78.20	77	12.30	60	9.50	2.47	1.03
Inadequate	40	6.40	132	21.00	456	72.60	0.40	0.79
Acceptable	557	88.70	54	8.60	17	2.70	2.75	0.72
Does not develop me	68	10.80	67	10.70	493	78.50	0.43	0.95
Enjoyable	480	76.40	84	13.40	64	10.20	2.43	1.06
Rotten	9	1.40	47	7.50	572	91.10	0.12	0.44

#### 4.5 Teachers' Satisfaction with Work Facets

Satisfaction for the work facets were classified according to the average scale mean for each sub-scales. The scoring method was similar to that of the JIG scale discussed in section 4.4. There were 18 items for the sub-scales of the work itself, supervision, and colleagues, while sub-scales of promotion and pay consist of nine items. Thus, scores for promotion and pay sub-scales were doubled up, standardizing all scale scores to range from 0 to

54 (Balzer et al., 2000). For a better understanding of the scores of variables measuring satisfaction, a graph depicting the levels of satisfaction is plotted in Figure 4.2. The average mean scores as represented by ▲ for each subscales indicated satisfaction levels, while the vertical lines depict minimum and maximum scores to illustrate the dispersion of data.



**Figure 4.2: Overall Scale Mean Score of Variables**

Teachers were most satisfied with their colleagues ( $M = 45.96$ ,  $SD = 9.51$ ), followed by the supervision they received ( $M = 42.64$ ,  $SD = 12.89$ ). They were also reported to be satisfied with the work itself ( $M = 40.84$ ,  $SD = 12.16$ ) and the pay they received ( $M = 36.15$ ,  $SD = 15.14$ ). However, respondents were ambivalent about the promotion facet ( $M = 28.50$ ,  $SD = 16.98$ ) as the mean score fell in the ambivalent or neutral range. Descriptive information of items in each scale will be discussed in the following sections. With this, the first research question is answered.

### 4.5.1 The Work Itself

This work facet scored well over 32 at 40.84 (SD = 12.16) which indicated teachers were generally satisfied with their job. Table 4.11 shows the descriptive data of items of the scale, with means that could score between 0 to 3. Item with the highest mean was “useful” (M = 2.72, SD = 0.76) which 87.7% respondents agreed on, whereas item “boring” had the lowest mean (M = 0.52, SD = 0.98), where 72% of respondents disagreed on.

**Table 4.11 Descriptive Data for Satisfaction with the Work Itself**

Item	Yes		Not Sure		No		Mean	SD
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
Fascinating	470	74.80	67	10.70	91	14.50	2.35	1.15
Creative	434	69.10	93	14.80	101	16.10	2.22	1.20
Satisfying	505	80.40	63	10.00	60	9.60	2.51	1.01
Good	522	83.10	65	10.40	41	6.50	2.60	0.92
Boring	75	11.90	101	16.10	452	72.00	0.52	0.98
Gives sense of accomplishment	487	77.50	77	12.30	64	10.20	2.45	1.05
Respected	483	76.90	71	11.30	74	11.80	2.42	1.09
Exciting	455	72.50	76	12.10	97	15.40	2.30	1.17
Rewarding	484	77.10	74	11.80	70	11.10	2.43	1.07
Useful	551	87.70	57	9.10	20	3.20	2.72	0.76
Challenging	562	89.50	31	4.90	35	5.60	2.73	0.79
Simple	127	20.20	65	10.40	436	69.40	0.71	1.19
Repetitive	302	48.10	101	16.10	225	35.80	1.60	1.39
Routine	298	47.50	90	14.30	240	38.20	1.57	1.40
Dull	110	17.50	108	17.20	410	65.30	0.70	1.12
Uninteresting	119	18.90	97	15.50	412	65.60	0.72	1.16
Can see results	414	65.90	111	17.70	103	16.40	2.15	1.21
Uses my ability	547	87.10	43	6.80	38	6.10	2.68	0.85

#### 4.5.2 Promotion

The mean score for promotion is 28.50 (SD = 16.98), which indicated a state of ambivalence. With this, teachers were generally neither satisfied or dissatisfied with promotional opportunities in the teaching profession. There were high dispersion of scores given by respondents that indicated a wide range of views regarding this work facet. This is aptly reflected with the respond to the contradicting items of “good opportunities for promotion” and “opportunities somewhat limited”, where the same percentage of respondents (44.3%) answered “yes”. Despite some fragmented views, about half of the respondents agreed that there are “fairly good chance for promotion” (M = 1.76, SD = 1.33) as reflected in this item with highest mean. Meanwhile, item with lowest mean score was “dead-end-job” (M = 0.44, SD = 0.93). Table 4.12 illustrates the descriptive data which measured this variable.

**Table 4.12: Descriptive Data for Satisfaction with Promotion**

Item	Yes		Not Sure		No		Mean	SD
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
Fairly good chance for promotion	323	51.40	134	21.40	171	27.20	1.76	1.33
Good chance for promotion	296	47.10	146	23.30	186	29.60	1.65	1.33
Good opportunities for promotion	278	44.30	158	25.20	192	30.50	1.58	1.32
Opportunities somewhat limited	278	44.30	154	24.50	196	31.20	1.57	1.33
Unfair promotion policy	191	30.40	160	25.50	277	44.10	1.17	1.28
Promotion on ability	309	49.20	121	19.30	198	31.50	1.67	1.36
Infrequent promotions	315	50.20	141	22.40	172	27.40	1.71	1.32
Regular promotions	213	33.90	182	29.00	233	37.10	1.31	1.28
Dead-end-job	65	10.30	79	12.60	484	77.10	0.44	0.93



### 4.5.3 Pay

The mean score for this scale was 36.15 (SD = 15.14), indicating teachers were generally satisfied with their pay. Item with highest mean was “fair” (M = 2.38, SD = 1.12), while item with lowest mean was “bad” (M = 0.53, SD = 1.04). Table 4.13 shows the descriptive data of the scale items.

**Table 4.13: Descriptive Data for Satisfaction with Pay**

Item	Yes		Not Sure		No		Mean	SD
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
Income adequate for normal expenses	449	71.50	47	7.50	132	21.00	2.21	1.26
Enough to live on	465	74.00	55	8.80	108	17.20	2.31	1.19
Comfortable	355	56.50	61	9.70	212	33.80	1.79	1.40
Well paid	122	19.40	104	16.60	402	64.00	0.75	1.16
Fair	474	75.50	70	11.10	84	13.40	2.38	1.12
Underpaid	99	15.80	71	11.30	458	72.90	0.58	1.09
Barely live on income	148	23.60	56	8.90	424	67.50	0.79	1.25
Less than I deserve	198	31.50	84	13.40	346	55.10	1.08	1.34
Bad	88	14.00	66	10.50	474	75.50	0.53	1.04

### 4.5.4 Supervision

Satisfaction for supervision also fell within the satisfied range with mean score of 42.64 (SD = 12.89). According to the interpretation of the authors of the instrument, this reflected that supervisors were perceived as highly competent, employee centred and thoughtful (Balzer et al., 2000). Table 4.14 illustrates the descriptive analysis of items in this scale. Item scored the highest mean was “tactful” (M =2.63, SD = 0.88), while item with lowest mean was “lazy” (M = 0.17, SD = 0.49).

**Table 4.14: Descriptive Data for Satisfaction with Supervision**

Item	Yes		Not Sure		No		Mean	SD
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
Supportive	492	78.40	85	13.50	51	8.10	2.49	1.00
Hard to please	108	17.20	122	19.40	398	63.40	0.71	1.11
Impolite	31	4.90	79	12.60	518	82.50	0.27	0.70
Praises good work	472	75.20	75	11.90	81	12.90	2.37	1.12
Tactful	528	84.10	66	10.50	34	5.40	2.63	0.88
Influential	430	68.50	120	19.10	78	12.40	2.25	1.15
Up-to-date	491	78.20	103	16.40	34	5.40	2.51	0.95
Unkind	22	3.50	88	14.00	518	82.50	0.25	0.63
Has favourites	109	17.40	117	18.60	402	64.00	0.71	1.12
Tells me where I stand	331	52.70	115	18.30	182	29.00	1.76	1.35
Annoying	90	14.30	92	14.70	446	71.00	0.58	1.05
Stubborn	57	9.10	101	16.10	470	74.80	0.43	0.89
Knows job well	479	76.30	96	15.30	53	8.40	2.44	1.03
Bad	15	2.40	100	15.90	513	81.70	0.23	0.57
Intelligent	482	76.80	95	15.10	51	8.10	2.46	1.02
Poor planner	89	14.20	123	19.60	416	66.20	0.62	1.04
Around when needed	405	64.50	101	16.10	122	19.40	2.10	1.26
Lazy	10	1.60	78	12.40	540	86.00	0.17	0.49

#### 4.5.5 Colleagues

This facet scored the highest mean score of 45.96 (SD = 9.51), indicating teachers to be most satisfied with their colleagues. This facet had the smallest standard deviation indicating small dispersion of data with responses near to the mean. From Table 4.15, positive worded items had well defined higher percentages of agreement from the negative worded items. Item with highest mean was “helpful” (M = 2.78, SD = 0.73), while lowest mean was scored with disagreement on “rude” (M = 0.15, SD = 0.45).

**Table 4.15: Descriptive Data for Satisfaction with Colleagues**

Item	Yes		Not Sure		No		Mean	SD
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%		
Responsible	543	86.50	76	12.10	9	1.40	2.72	0.73
Boring	27	4.30	157	25.00	444	70.70	0.38	0.70
Slow	28	4.50	127	20.20	473	75.30	0.34	0.70
Stimulating	406	64.60	171	27.30	51	8.10	2.21	1.10
Unintelligent	21	3.30	143	22.80	464	73.90	0.33	0.65
Helpful	564	89.80	55	8.80	9	1.40	2.78	0.66
Likeable	548	87.30	73	11.60	7	1.10	2.73	0.70
Intelligent	480	76.40	142	22.60	6	1.00	2.52	0.87
Smart	485	77.20	134	21.40	9	1.40	2.54	0.87
Rude	8	1.30	71	11.30	549	87.40	0.15	0.45
Lazy	7	1.10	82	13.10	539	85.80	0.16	0.45
Easy to make enemies	15	2.40	114	18.10	499	79.50	0.25	0.58
Unpleasant	23	3.70	83	13.20	522	83.10	0.24	0.64
Supportive	548	87.30	73	11.60	7	1.10	2.73	0.70
Active	477	76.00	127	20.20	24	3.80	2.48	0.94
Narrow interests	45	7.20	189	30.10	394	62.70	0.52	0.83
Frustrating	29	4.60	82	13.10	517	82.30	0.27	0.69
Stubborn	29	4.60	96	15.30	503	80.10	0.29	0.70

#### 4.6 Cynicism Toward Change

The Cynicism About Organizational Change (CAOC) scale was used to measure teachers' cynicism toward change initiatives proposed in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. The CAOC is determined by gauging respondents' pessimism about future change being successful and attributing likely failure of change initiatives to people in charge of change. All items in the scale were negative worded sentences which describe a cynical outlook toward change initiatives. Classification for the scale indicate

mean score of 1.00 to 2.50 as low cynicism, 2.51 to 3.49 as moderate cynicism and 3.5 to 5.0 as high cynicism, where higher mean represent higher cynicism toward change (Wanous et al., 2000).

Teachers reported moderate cynicism toward changes proposed in the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013 – 2025 with an overall scale mean of 3.23 (SD = .85). All individual items recorded moderate cynicism with the exception of one item that recorded high cynicism. This item asked respondents' opinion about the programs organized in schools with the phrase "Most of the programs that are supposed to solve problems around here will not do much good" (M = 3.68, SD = 1.01). Meanwhile, item with lowest mean was "Plans for future improvement will not amount to much" (M = 2.89, SD = 1.08). Hence, research question two is addressed, and the descriptive data of items which measure this variable were shown in Table 4.16.

**Table 4.16: Descriptive Data for Cynicism Toward Change**

Item	Strongly Disagree <i>f</i> %	Disagree <i>f</i> %	Not Sure <i>f</i> %	Agree <i>f</i> %	Strongly Agree <i>f</i> %	Mean	SD
Most of the programs that are supposed to solve problems around here will not do much good.	11 1.80%	87 13.90%	129 20.50%	268 42.60%	133 21.20%	3.68	1.01
Attempts to make things better around here will not produce good results.	31 4.90%	233 37.10%	147 23.40%	173 27.60%	44 7.00%	2.95	1.06
Suggestions on how to solve problems will not produce much real change.	23 3.70%	198 31.50%	151 24.10%	200 31.80%	56 8.90%	3.11	1.06
Plans for future improvement will not amount to much.	43 6.80%	231 36.80%	149 23.70%	161 25.70%	44 7.00%	2.89	1.08
The people responsible for solving problems around here do not try hard enough to solve them.	15 2.40%	158 25.20%	118 18.80%	234 37.30%	103 16.30%	3.40	1.10
The people responsible for making things better around here do not care enough about their jobs.	20 3.20%	186 29.60%	171 27.20%	185 29.50%	66 10.50%	3.14	1.06
The people responsible for making improvements do not know enough about what they are doing.	15 2.40%	152 24.20%	152 24.20%	221 35.20%	88 14.00%	3.34	1.07
The people responsible for making changes around here do not have the skills needed to do their jobs.	22 3.50%	138 22.00%	179 28.50%	190 30.30%	99 15.70%	3.33	1.09

#### **4.7 Relationship of Overall Job Satisfaction and Cynicism Toward Change**

With JIG measuring overall job satisfaction, Pearson product-moment correlation was used to assess the relationship between overall job satisfaction and cynicism toward change. Tests of significance performed for this analysis were two tailed, with the strength of the relationship indicated. The interpretation for the strength of relationships was determined using the absolute value of correlation coefficients according to Cohen (1988): .10 to .29 as weak, .30 to .49 as medium and .50 to 1.0 as strong.

Test revealed a medium, negative relationship between teachers' overall job satisfaction and cynicism toward change,  $r(626) = -.35, p < .001$ . Increases in overall job satisfaction were correlated with decreases in cynicism towards changes proposed by the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. This result answered the third research question.

#### **4.8 Predictive Value of Variables on Overall Job Satisfaction**

Overall job satisfaction was regressed on the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues, and cynicism toward change using standard multiple regression analysis. These six independent variables accounted for half of the variance in overall job satisfaction ( $R^2 = .50$ ), which was highly significant,  $F(6, 621) = 104.30, p < .001$ . The remaining half of the variance

unaccounted for indicates the presence of other factors which may influence overall job satisfaction.

To know the independent variables' contribution to the prediction of teachers' overall job satisfaction, their standardized coefficients or beta weights ( $\beta$ ) are referred. Beta weights give a measure of contribution of an independent variable to the dependent variable in a comparable manner across independent variables, as it is scaled in the same standardized metric. All independent variables made statistically significant unique contributions to the prediction of overall job satisfaction. The work itself made the largest strongest unique contribution ( $\beta = .42, p = .001$ ), followed by colleagues ( $\beta = .22, p = .001$ ), supervision ( $\beta = .13, p = .001$ ), promotion ( $\beta = .09, p = .006$ ), cynicism toward change ( $\beta = -.08, p = .008$ ), and lastly pay ( $\beta = .07, p = .028$ ). These findings answered research question four.

Positive beta weights indicate same direction of changes between the independent variable and dependent variable. For instance, if overall job satisfaction is increased by 1 standard deviation unit, the work itself would likely to increase by .42 standard deviation units. Relatively, negative coefficient indicates negative direction of change in units. As can be seen in Table 4.17, the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues had significant positive regression weights, indicating teachers with higher scores on these scales were expected to have higher overall job satisfaction. Meanwhile, cynicism toward change had a significant negative weight, indicating that teachers with higher cynicism toward change may be expected

to have lower overall job satisfaction, or vice versa. Further discussion of the findings is presented in Chapter Five.

**Table 4.17: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis**

Variable	Overall Job Satisfaction		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$
(Constant)	.76	.14	
The Work Itself	.37	.03	.42**
Promotion	.06	.02	.09*
Pay	.05	.02	.07*
Supervision	.10	.03	.13**
Colleagues	.25	.04	.22**
Cynicism Toward Change	-.06	.02	-.08*
$R^2$		.502	
$F$		104.29**	

Note. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .001$ .

To determine the effect size of the multiple regression model, Cohen  $f^2$  was determined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f^2 &= \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2} \\
 &= \frac{(.502)^2}{1 - (.502)^2} \\
 &= \frac{0.252}{0.748} \\
 &= 0.337 \\
 &= 0.34
 \end{aligned}$$

Cohen (1988) categorized effect sizes into small  $f^2 = .02$ , medium  $f^2 = .15$ , and large  $f^2 = .35$ , thus indicated the study's regression model to be very closely approaching a large effect size with  $f^2 = .34$ .



#### 4.9 Difference in Overall Job Satisfaction of Primary and Secondary School Teachers

An independent sample t-test was conducted at a .05 confidence level for statistical significance to compare the overall job satisfaction for primary and secondary school teachers. Secondary school teachers ( $M = 45.42$ ,  $SD = 10.02$ ) reported slightly higher overall job satisfaction than primary school teachers ( $M = 44.14$ ,  $SD = 10.25$ ), but this difference was not significant according to a t-test which assumed equal variances of scores,  $t(626) = 1.59$ ,  $p = .113$ . The test showed no significant differences of job satisfaction in general between teachers teaching in primary and secondary schools. Further, the effect size is very small (Eta squared = 0.004). The summary of t-test result is displayed in Table 4.18. With this, the final research question is answered.

**Table 4.18: Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Overall Job Satisfaction by School Level**

	School						t	df
	Primary			Secondary				
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n		
Overall Job Satisfaction	44.14	10.25	326	45.42	10.02	302	-1.59	626

*Note.*  $p = .113$  for analysis.

#### **4.10 Summary**

Data obtained were analyzed with IBM® SPSS Statistics version 20. Teachers reported satisfaction toward their overall job satisfaction, the work itself, pay, supervision, and colleagues. They were ambivalent toward the promotion aspect in their job and moderately cynical toward the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013 – 2025. A significant relationship is found between teachers' overall job satisfaction and their cynicism toward change. Standard Multiple Regression indicated all independent variables made significant contribution to the prediction of overall job satisfaction. However, independent sample t-test revealed no significant difference in teachers' overall job satisfaction between primary and secondary school teachers. As this chapter purely concentrated on objective analysis, the findings are further discussed in Chapter Five with inferences drawn from theoretical frameworks and other studies.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter is organized into five major sections to conclude the study. It begins with discussion on each research questions that highlight the vital aspects of the study derived from the findings. The second section discusses the research implication on practice, in consideration of current issues. The third and fourth sections address the research limitations with suggestions on how future research could possibly overcome these boundaries. Lastly, the fifth section gives an overall summary of the study.

#### 5.2 Summary of Major Findings and Discussions

##### 5.2.1 Research Question One

*Research question 1: What are the levels of satisfaction of teachers as they consider the major work facets of the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, colleagues, and overall job satisfaction?* Research findings for each work facets are discussed based on current issues and research outcomes of other studies.

*The Work Itself.* Teachers are satisfied with the work itself, supporting previous studies carried out locally and internationally that found teachers satisfied with the aspects of their work itself such as teaching tasks, opportunities for personal achievement, recognition and growth (Abdullah et al., 2009; Collie et al., 2012; Dinham & Scott, 2004; Fuming & Jiliang, 2007; Jabnoun & Chan, 2001; Nias, 2002). This seems to be apparent for the teaching profession in Malaysia and other countries. Drawing from two decades of investigation, Nias (2002) found teachers primarily derive their job satisfaction from their work itself. She found the satisfaction for the work itself among teachers remained consistent in the longitudinal study, even when the other job contextual factors fluctuated.

The scale consisted of items related to intrinsic job characteristics that contributed to the current satisfactory state of the respondents such as “challenging”, “gives sense of accomplishment”, “can see results”, “rewarding”, “creative”, and “respected”. According to the Motivator-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), such elements are Motivator factors that are intrinsically rewarding and resulted in satisfaction. It is interesting to find that close to half of the respondents agreed their work to be “routine” and “repetitive”, while also being in agreement that it is “satisfying”. This situation is somewhat contradictory to Herzberg’s proposition that repetitive work would bring about dissatisfaction. Nonetheless, some research suggested that routine work does not necessarily translate to dissatisfying work, and some employees may prefer routine and repetitive work due to factors like personality (Lazenby, 2008; Vidal, 2007).

*Promotion.* While participants reported satisfaction on other work facets, they were ambivalent about the promotional aspect of their job. This finding differs from local research which reported teachers to be satisfied with their promotion (Abdullah et al., 2009), and also earlier research that found teachers to have low satisfaction toward their promotion (Muda & Omar, 2006). This variable scored the largest standard deviation, indicating that responses were spread out and deviated from the mean. The wide dispersion of minimum and maximum scores charted in the scale suggested there were a wide range of opinion about this work facet. This is a common situation, as participants who are satisfied with other job aspects may not have the same attitude towards specific job aspect (Leatherman, 2000).

A review on current issues surrounding teachers' promotion revealed there were some disgruntled teachers who complaint about recent changes in policy which limited their promotion opportunities. According to the teachers' union (NUTP) website, a circular issued in April 2012 allowed teachers to be promoted based on salary grade. This implies that to be promoted from the salary grade of DG44 to DG48, direct promotion is given as long as teachers reach grade DG44 (PIT 11 to PIT 18) (National Union of Teaching Profession, 2013). However, a later announcement in January 2013 no longer allowed direct promotion based on grade, but mandated teachers to first fulfill eight years of service in DG44 before they are considered for promotion to DG48 (National Union of Teaching Profession, 2013). With this change of policy over a period of less than a year, teachers due for

promotion were denied direct promotion, and had to fulfill a stipulated number years of service before being eligible for promotion.

The aforementioned change in promotion policies have altered the job progression landscape, contributing to teachers' ambivalence toward the promotion facet. Hence, it could be the reason that teachers are 'not sure' about their satisfaction towards promotion, because promotion opportunities affect satisfaction with promotion (Wong & Wong, 2005). Employees who experience a delay in promotion could attribute this delay to external factors over which they had no control, and would likely to feel disappointed and regret efforts they had invested (Tzafrir & Hareli, 2009).

The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025, proposed to enhance the career progression of high performing teachers through a fast track system. While common progression route from the lowest grade to highest grade takes 25 years, the fast track scheme will take less than this duration. Progression speed will depend on how quickly each teacher masters the competencies expected of each level, and it is estimated 2 to 5 percent of teachers per year will benefit from the fast-track scheme (MOE, 2013). However, it may be too early for this policy to affect teachers' satisfaction towards their career promotion.

*Pay.* Teachers reported to be satisfied with their pay with more than two thirds of respondents were of the opinion that their monetary remuneration is fair and do not think they are underpaid. According to the

operationalized definition, this reflected teachers to be satisfied with the salary they received, when they take into account of their financial situation and the current economical state. This finding is not consistent with the earlier results of Abdullah et al. (2009), and Jabnoun and Chan (2001), which found Malaysian teachers generally dissatisfied with their salary and suggested that teaching profession have a “poor pay system” (Abdullah et al., 2009, p.16). The discrepancy may be due to the revisions of salary scheme over the years.

Since the introduction of the current civil remuneration scheme named Malaysia Remuneration System on 1 November 2002, occasional salary revisions were implemented with the latest on 1 November 2013 (Government of Malaysia, 2014). As a comparison of salaries increment over the years, the salary for graduate teachers at the grade of DG41 was RM1474.65 in 2002, and has since increased to RM1917.00 in 2013 (Government of Malaysia, 2002; Government of Malaysia, 2014). The ceiling pay for the higher grade of DG54 was RM6381.20 in 2002, and has since increased to RM11, 864.00 in 2013 (Government of Malaysia, 2002; Government of Malaysia, 2014). With pay satisfaction being one of the core components of overall job satisfaction (Judge, 1993), these revisions might have caused the respondents to be satisfied with their pay, which in turn contributed to their overall job satisfaction.

Revisions in salary had also increased Malaysian teachers' pay to a higher range compared to other OECD countries, and their salaries are deemed competitive by UNESCO standards (UNESCO, 2013). Considering salary relative to per-capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) ratio, Malaysian teachers have a ratio of 3.9, while comparable ratios for other OECD countries are in the range of 1.5 to 2.0 (UNESCO, 2013). The upward revision of salary had also increased teachers' starting salaries to be comparable to other professions including lawyers, accountants, and IT executives (MOE, 2013). Even with these marked improvements, nearly two thirds of the respondents do not think they are better off financially nor highly paid. This could be because, situational factors such as personal financial situations and the current state of the Malaysian economy could influence pay satisfaction (Smith et al.,1969). The Malaysian government recently unleashed a series of subsidies cut in essential food items, fuel and energy, and consumers are bearing the brunt of price increase in goods (Chong, 2015). Teachers may find their cost of living higher, and hence, do not think they are highly paid. With the implementation of the Goods and Services Tax in Malaysia effective 1 April 2015, the higher cost of living is felt even more.

Nevertheless, teachers are still satisfied with their pay, and this hygiene factor is well maintained and fulfilled Herzberg et al. (1959) position that organizations wanting to motivate its employee must first maintain hygiene factors so dissatisfaction does not occur. Hygiene factors serve to prevent dissatisfaction but in itself will not promote satisfaction, just as good



hygiene prevent the spread of diseases but will not produce good health. Thus, pay may not bring about long term satisfaction, as satisfaction brought about by Hygiene factors are only short term (Pardee, 1990).

*Supervision.* Teachers reported to be satisfied with their supervisors. Majority of them agreed that their supervisors are competent, supportive, display behavior such as providing feedback, and acknowledging good performance. These findings correspond closely to those of Muda and Omar (2006), as well as Kosnin and Tan (2008) which reported teachers' satisfaction on supervision received. According to Herzberg (1959), supervision as an extrinsic factor has served well in maintaining "good hygiene" (p. 131) in the workplace to prevent job dissatisfaction.

The current study indicated that most respondents think highly of their supervisors' influence and capabilities, with two thirds agreeing to items measuring these elements. Further, 78% of them agreed that their supervisors are supportive. Malaysia according to Hofstede et al. (2010) is a collectivist country with a culture of high power distance. This is reflected in the workplace by subordinates being willing to accept a hierarchical order without any justification, and the superior-subordinates relationship resembling that of a family with mutual obligations of being treated as in-group members in exchange for loyalty (Hofstede et al., 2010). Centralization of organizational structures is preferred, and members in the workplace act according to the interest of their group fostering strong relationships. This can explain the positive relationships with superiors found

in this study. Furthermore, this finding of satisfaction with superiors may reflect the teachers' acknowledgement of their superiors being benevolent autocrats or 'good father', an ideal characteristic of leaders in large power distance societies (Hofstede et al., 2010).

This finding portrayed a positive outlook to foster collaboration and implementation of supervisory practices in schools. The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 may well benefit from these positive attitude found for school leaders, because part of the blueprint's aspirations for schools leaders is for them to be excellent instructional leaders, and act as agents of change through greater school-based management (MOE, 2013).

In a longitudinal study by Hallinger and Heck (2010), collaborative leadership that share strategic improvement measures among school leaders, administrators, and teachers were found capable of building school's capacity for academic improvement. This area is worth exploring for the uplift of our education system, because every high performing system advocates leaders and teachers to collaborate as improvement measures, besides developing a high quality teaching force (Fullan, 2011).

For school leaders and teachers to work together successfully, policy makers have to look into some local issues such as the frequent change of principals, where up to three principals may be transferred in and out of the same school in a year (Jusoh, 2012). Frequent change of principals may stall collaborative efforts for they are in the structural position to direct

implementation of collaboration. The large concentration of authority figures in the education system as identified by UNESCO (2013) could pose obstacles for school leaders to practice a collaborative culture when implementing curriculum and instructional reform policies (Malakolunthu, 2010). The ministry is headed by the Minister of Education, who serves as a link between the government and the ministry. The administration of the education system is headed by the Director General of Education assisted by deputies, state and district level directors. The Director General is answerable to the minister. The principals are positioned at the bottom of the administrators' hierarchy, assume operative roles, and have limited decision-making powers (Malakolunthu, 2010).

The size of the ministry's central administration is large by international standards, and authorities assume a broad concentration of roles and responsibilities (UNESCO, 2013). Such concentration was necessary at the initial stages of nation building to standardize the education system and increase literacy rate among citizens, but may not be suitable as the country progresses to become innovative and creative in education (UNESCO, 2013). This large concentration of authority figures are not only involved in areas of decision making, therefore limiting the opportunities for the lower level management to innovate and adapt in education delivery (UNESCO, 2013).

School leaders need to be given more autonomy, as their current roles appear to be operative and have limited decision-making power especially where overall changes or reforms may be concerned (Malakolunthu, 2010). However, improvement may be on the way, as the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 promises principals to have operational flexibility that commensurate with their school's performance (MOE, 2013). Principals will also be able to have input into school's performance goals, and enjoy greater transparency in respect to decisions affecting their school (MOE, 2013).

*Colleagues.* Among the work facets, teachers reported to be most satisfied with their colleagues. This finding is congruent with local studies done earlier, which also reported teachers to be most satisfied with their colleagues among other work factors (Kosnin & Tan, 2008; Muda & Omar, 2006; Mustapha, 2009). There seem to be consistency in responses given by participants to questionnaire items for this variable, because there were distinct responses to positive worded items and negative worded items, where about 65% to 90% of respondents agreed on all positive worded items, while only 1% to 7% agreed on all negative worded items. Respondents agreed their colleagues are responsible, helpful, intelligent, smart, stimulating, active and supportive. From a cultural standpoint, Malaysia is a collectivist society (Hofstede et al., 2010), and teachers in collectivist cultures have higher satisfaction with their colleagues than individualistic societies (Cerit, 2014). In the workplace, collectivists value strong interpersonal relationships, in-group membership, and place the group interest before personal interest (Robert & Wasti, 2002). This finding of positive relationships among

colleagues reflect the characteristics of the Malaysian collectivistic culture. In such a culture, members of a work group foster a close long-term commitment to the group, with offences in the group being kept to a minimum to preserve in-group harmony (Hofstede et al., 2010). With the high satisfaction found in this study, this indicates teachers were closely knitted as in-group members.

Satisfaction towards colleagues could be a strength of the teaching force for teachers to immerse in a culture of collaboration for professional excellence, which is one of the aspirations of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. Together with the second highest satisfaction recorded by the supervision factor, these set an advantageous edge to schools because positive relationships boost the social capital in schools, which is a powerful tool to bring about change (Fullan, 2011). Fullan (2011) postulated that individualistic incentives invested in human capital is not as powerful as social capital in achieving educational goals. He illustrated the multiple benefits of using social capital in collaborative practices, where collective ownership of educational practice is fostered, lateral accountability is achieved when teachers know each others' work, poor performers are naturally phased out as teaching become less private and more collaborative. Apart from focusing individualistic human capital for change, Fullan (2011) highlighted the 'peer power' of social capital to increase quality and accelerate speed for whole system reform.

Opportunities need to be provided to encourage teachers to collaborate professionally, because collegiality, open communication, support, job satisfaction and morale are closely interrelated (Fullan, 2007). A report published by OECD lately have identified teachers' professional collaboration to enhance student learning is rare, as they merely exchange information or ideas (Schleicher, 2011). Part of the deterrents may be due to possible increase in workload or constraint of time caused by collaboration tasks, and policy makers may provide incentives for teachers to encourage professional collaboration among them (Schleicher, 2011). Some countries provide monetary incentives or schedule time slot for collaboration tasks to encourage collaboration among teachers (Schleicher, 2011), practices which may be useful in Malaysia. With teachers' collaboration, the 410,000 teachers nation wide who make up the majority personnel in the education system can indeed be a powerful tool to impact school success.

*Overall Job Satisfaction.* Findings indicated teachers are satisfied with the general aspect of their work. This result is close to those previously documented which identified moderate overall job satisfaction in Malaysian teachers (Kosnin & Tan, 2008; Mustapha, 2009). Analysis of items in the scale found a majority of participants to be contented with their job. More than three quarters of respondents agreed their job in general to be pleasant, good, worthwhile, makes them content, acceptable and enjoyable. When asked a higher evaluation for their job, more than half also agreed that their job was great, superior and excellent.

Items regarding occupational perception were included in the scale, where more than three quarters of respondents think their job is “better than most”, and nearing to three quarters disagreed their job to be “lower than most profession”. This finding differed from previous findings which identified teachers’ low occupational perception in terms of social and professional status (Chee, 2008; Lee, 2004; Mustapha, 2009). This change in perception of occupational status might contribute to respondents’ job satisfaction, because teachers’ occupational status was identified to strongly affect their job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001).

The improvement of occupational status may be due to MOE’s aim to raise the profile of the teaching profession. Recently, the entry level into teacher training programs was raised where school leavers are required to obtain seven distinctions in the SPM examinations, while previous admission standard required only three distinctions and three credits (MOE, 2013). Further, teachers’ salary and service scheme were also revised upwards.

Growth opportunities were also measured by the JIG scale, where a majority of respondents agreed that their work allow room for further development. As development and growth are important elements for consideration of teachers’ job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Dinham & Scott, 2004), this aspect might contributed to their overall job satisfaction. According to the interpretation of JIG, the status and growth elements contribute to the fulfillment of teachers’ long term job satisfaction (Balzer et al., 2000).

### 5.2.2 Research Question Two

*Research question 2: What is the level of cynicism among teachers toward change initiatives proposed in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025?* Teachers reported moderate level of cynicism towards the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. According to the scale, this reflected their pessimism about the likely success of change, and implication of failure placed on people responsible for change (Wanous et al., 2000).

Cynicism among employees could imply messages about defects in an organization's system (Bommer, 2005). For instance, the findings revealed teachers were highly cynical toward the effectiveness of programs conducted in schools. This is an important finding from the "horses' mouth", because teachers are often involved in delivering these programs. It is important that the efficacy of these programs be monitored, because the total annual programs can exceed 100 in some districts, and may lead to a lack of focus in schools, burdening teachers and constraining financial resources (MOE, 2013). It may be better to concentrate on fewer programs that are supported by research and have higher possibility to achieve the impact it purport to produce.

Teachers also reported moderate cynicism due to people responsible for change being incompetent or unmotivated. The people responsible for change is often directed at the management (Kath, 2005). Despite this moderate cynicism caused by dispositional attribution of the management,



teachers reported to be satisfied with their school supervisors with a majority of them responded positively to items about supervisors' competency. This somewhat contradictory situation indicated school leaders are not the people whom the cynicism is targeted at, mainly because school leaders are not largely responsible for change due to the concentration of authority at the higher level in the Malaysian education system. Because of the nature of the system, teachers know their school leaders have no jurisdiction on major educational policies as they only act as middle managers influenced by the higher authorities in the ministry (Malakolunthu, 2010). Thus, this cynicism may be directed at higher authorities in the ministry.

As Malakolunthu (2010) observed, reforms in Malaysia come from the higher authority, often bypassing principals to reach the teachers. She suggested the centralized education system which is "typically bureaucratic" (p. 81) might be a hindrance to curriculum and instructional educational reformation, as changes become sluggish and cumbersome (Malakolunthu, 2010). A recent report by UNESCO also highlighted MOE's structure to be large but not well coordinated with a high concentration of authority at the top management (UNESCO, 2013). The report advised that such structure might exacerbate the capacity gap between policy intent and implementation in the Malaysian education system.

To counter the element of blame put on people responsible for change, Reicher et al. (1997) emphasized that effort must be made to fully inform and educate employees about the necessity for change, and update them with the

progress of change programs. Sharing of information discourages employees to rely on informal channels of communication, such as rumors (Andersson, 1996). From an Attribution Theory perspective, this may reduce the possibility of fundamental attribution error, where negative outcomes were attributed to dispositional factors, and situational determinants of the outcome were underestimated. Wanous et al. (2000) suggested cynicism could be reduced if employees make situational attribution for failure of change, rather than dispositional attribution. This is because situational attribution is directed at factors beyond the control of human factors.

Attribution Theory (Miller & Ross, 1975) explained the possibility of self-serving bias which is the tendency of people blaming external factors for failures, and rarely sees themselves as contributors to the failures (Reichers et al., 1997). By including teachers extensively in the change process, there are no 'other people' to blame in the event of negative outcome, for they have to take ownership of the failure. Further, teachers might be able to see things from the management perspective, understand the rationale for decisions made and actions taken by the management (Wanous et al., 2000). Even when failure in changes is inevitable, at least teachers' cynicism could be minimized as their attribution of failure is not dispositional but rather situational.

### 5.2.3 Research Question Three

*Research question 3: Is there any relationship between teachers' overall job satisfaction and their cynicism toward the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 – 2025?* Cynicism toward change is found to be negatively correlated with overall job satisfaction. This finding confirms the inverse relationship of cynicism and job satisfaction, where increase in cynicism is accompanied by a decrease in job satisfaction (Abraham, 2000; Arabaci, 2010; Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). The inverse relationship found is new knowledge that indicates higher cynicism toward the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 is related to lower job satisfaction.

Abraham (2000) proposed that cynicism toward change is task-related, because employees who do not experience improvement of change can direct their resentment toward the job itself and become dissatisfied. When applied to the teaching profession, if teachers experience improvements in their job tasks due to the proposed changes, it may decrease their cynicism and increase their job satisfaction. The most obvious improvement may come in the form of student academic performance. The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 proposed various initiatives to uplift the country to be among the top third of countries in terms of performance in international assessments, as measured by the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Assessment (TIMSS) and Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) assessments (MOE, 2013). However, more effort is needed if results are sought after, because the country's performance in the

TIMSS and PISA assessments has declined to below average when benchmarked against international standards (MOE, 2013). If the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 brings about improvements it purported to produce, teachers' cynicism towards change may be reduced, and their satisfaction increase.

Chudzicka-Czupala, Chrupala-Pniak, and Grabowski (2014) suggested that teachers become cynical when they are unable to meet the work demands required of them. These work demands which arise from the growing requirements in the teaching profession include increasing task complexity, pace of work, extra hours, and requirements for new competencies like computer literacy. Meeting these challenges creates potential conflicts between home and professional duties, as it negatively influenced private life and lowered job satisfaction. It must be noted that Chudzicka-Czupala et al. (2014) study consisted of a majority of female respondents, similar to the current study that consisted of 77% of female teachers. These female respondents could experience duty overload in connection with an inability to fulfill professional responsibilities because of family responsibilities, and experience cynicism and lower job satisfaction (Chudzicka-Czupala et al., 2014).

#### **5.2.4 Research Question Four**

*Research question 4: How much of the variance in teachers' overall job satisfaction can be explained by their satisfaction on their major work*

*facets, and their cynicism toward change?* Motivator-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) emphasized the importance of both Motivator factors and Hygiene factors to produce overall job satisfaction. Motivators are important in bringing about job satisfaction, while Hygiene factors cannot satisfy on their own but must be present in order to prevent job dissatisfaction. From the findings of this study, both Motivators (the work itself, promotion) and Hygiene factors (pay, supervision, colleagues) were present and brought about job satisfaction. Together with cynicism toward change, the variables accounted 50.2% of variance in teachers' overall job satisfaction. Pallant (2010) mentioned that 46.8% of variance in explaining an outcome variable is considered "a respectable result" (p. 160), and this finding has exceeded this expectation.

The order of the variables' contribution in explaining overall job satisfaction is (from largest in contribution to smallest): the work itself, colleagues, supervision, promotion, cynicism toward change, and lastly pay. It is not surprising that the work itself made the strongest unique contribution in explaining overall job satisfaction, as this is consistent with other research carried out earlier on the teaching profession (Boeve, 2007; Dinham & Scott, 2004; Klassen & Anderson, 2009). Some aspects in teachers' work itself such as teaching, working with students, and increasing own knowledge can bring about intrinsic attributes such as personal achievement, growth, recognition, responsibilities, and challenges which induce teachers' satisfaction (Boeve, 2007; Dinham & Scott, 2004; Nias, 2002).

The second largest contribution is the colleagues facet, followed by supervision. They are both Hygiene factors, and their influence on job satisfaction is not in line with the Motivator-Hygiene theory that posits Motivators to have more influence than Hygiene factors on job satisfaction. However, Hofstede et al. (2010) suggested this theory may also be viewed from a cultural stand point when applied in non-Western countries. Malaysia is a collectivist society, as opposed to most Western countries which are individualistic (Hofstede et al., 2010). Collectivists value in-group membership as their identity is defined by membership and acceptance of that group (Robert & Wasti, 2002). In the workplace, personal relationships of the collectivist are given precedence and will prevail over their tasks (Hofstede et al., 2010). The Malaysian society is also found to have a large power distance compared to Western societies. In large power distance societies, people accept an order of inequality which highly regard people in power, because such an order satisfies people need for dependence (Hofstede et al., 2010). In a culture with large power distance orientation, Hofstede et al. (2010) suggested that supervision should not be viewed as as a Hygiene factor, because dependence on more powerful people is considered as a basic need that can be a Motivator. As noted by Klassen et al. (2010), teacher job satisfaction differs across cultural dimensions as they possess different workplace values.

The promotion aspect came after colleagues and supervision. Promotion is considered as a Motivator, but it had less contribution to overall job satisfaction than the Hygiene factors of colleagues and supervision.

Again, this could be viewed from Malaysia's collectivist stand point that gives precedence to inter-personal relationships. As found by Cerit (2014) with regard to the teaching profession, relationships with colleagues and supervisors among collectivistic teachers have stronger influence on job satisfaction compared to the promotion facet.

Cynicism toward change has a negative influence on teachers' job satisfaction. To the best of the author's knowledge, this is new information which adds to the knowledge base of existing literature. The negative influence of cynicism toward change on job satisfaction is supported by research done earlier (Abraham, 2000; Polat & Gungor, 2014). Attribution theory that has been used to explain this variable posits that people make dispositional or situational attribution to an occurrence. Applying this to the study, these attributions are involved when teachers try to make sense of educational changes which have failed or are not entirely successful. Both types of attributions bring about cynicism toward change, as reflected in the findings of the study. Polat and Gungor (2014) investigated the link between job satisfaction and these two types of attributions in cynicism toward change, and found situational attribution meaningfully explained job satisfaction. Hence, the situational elements in the current study such as "most of the programs that are supposed to solve problems around here will not do much good" and "suggestions on how to solve problems will not produce much real change" can have precedence over the dispositional elements when addressing cynicism toward change.

Lastly, this study found pay to have an influence on job satisfaction, which supports the findings of Judge et al. (2010). Although this variable had the smallest contribution among all the variables, satisfaction toward pay is still important to keep job dissatisfaction at bay (Herzberg et al., 1959). This is especially vital in the current state of the Malaysian economy where prices of consumer goods and services are increasing, resulting in a higher cost of living (Chong, 2015).

### **5.2.5 Research Question Five**

*Research Question 5: Is there a difference in overall job satisfaction between primary and secondary school teachers?* In terms of school level, t-value indicates no statistically significant differences in the overall job satisfaction between primary and secondary school teacher.

Marston (2010) identified teacher satisfaction across all school levels to be similar, and the common aspect of satisfaction arose from working with students. Her conclusion was arrived at through quantitative investigations and interviews, found that regardless of the level of teaching, teachers have a common satisfaction from working with students, and seeing them learn and grow.

Further to this, part of the reasons for the absence of significant differences among teachers may be attributed to the MOE's concurrent efforts to improve the profession at both primary and secondary school



levels. For instance, the academic requirements to become primary and secondary teachers was adjusted to be similar. The minimum qualification for primary school teachers was raised from a diploma to a bachelor degree, similar to the requirements for a secondary school teacher (MOE, 2013). This is part of the efforts by MOE to raise the profile of the teaching profession. As there are now no distinction in entry requirements for primary and secondary school teachers, it might reduce the differences in teachers' opinion about their occupational status. Occupational status was also included in the measurement of overall job satisfaction, hence, could give rise to the lack of significant difference among the respondents in this variable.

There are also similarities in the guidelines imposed at both school levels. For example, the MOE has set guidelines to keep class sizes in both primary and secondary schools to be less than 35 students (MOE, 2013). Prior to this, maximum students per classroom in some schools could exceed fifty. Consequently in 2013, 92% of the primary schools and 88% of the secondary schools achieved this criteria (MOE, 2013). This guideline had brought about rather even distribution of class sizes in both school levels, with only a 4% discrepancy noted between the schools which had achieved the criteria (MOE, 2013). Class size influences teacher job satisfaction (Sentovich, 2004), and imposing the same class sizes at both school levels brings about similar class conditions in terms of student numbers. This may reduce differences in teachers' opinions in this regard.

The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013 – 2025 aspired to uplift the teaching profession to become a profession of choice in Malaysia. Some of the ongoing strategies to realize this aspiration include improvement of teachers' status, reduction of workload, enhancement of professional development, revamping of career progression and uplifting teacher quality (MOE, 2013). These improvement strategies will be rolled out in phases from 2013 until 2025, and may alter teacher satisfaction during its implementation. Hence, this could be the reason for the lack of difference in overall job satisfaction.

### **5.3 Implications of the Study**

Findings from the current study showed that teachers are satisfied with their job in general, and the work facets of the work itself, pay, supervision, and colleagues, while they were ambivalent about the promotional aspect in their job. Teachers were also moderately cynical toward the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. This cynicism is measured by pessimism of change being successful and imputing the likely failure on people responsible for change.

While areas of satisfaction can be reasons for celebration, aspects in promotion and teacher cynicism have to be addressed. The significance of the current study appears obvious to policy makers that further improvement is needed for the promotional aspect in teachers' career, despite the various improvements made to enhance their career pathways and progression. The

Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025 promises to enhance pathways for teachers' career progression, and teachers with good performance will enjoy faster career progression through a new performance evaluation instrument (MOE, 2013). Consideration should be given for this new evaluation instrument to emphasize on formative purposes, rather than summative purposes. Formative purposes focus on providing information to meet individual career needs for development of the individual to attain higher level of competency, whereas summative purposes aim at providing information for making personnel decisions such as promotion or bonuses (Kelly et al., 2008). Research has shown teachers opined formative element to be more important than summative element in evaluation instrument (Kelly et al., 2008). Because not all teachers will be promoted, the promotion process as oppose to promotion per se will better meet the needs of individual teacher through a well-designed instrument.

Teachers' cynicism toward change appears to have a statistically significant negative relationship with job satisfaction. This is a new finding among Malaysian teachers, and reaffirms suggestion by Brown and Cregan (2008) that cynicism is undeniably a feature of organizational life. Besides, their cynicism toward change appears to have a significant negative influence towards job satisfaction. To reduce teachers' cynicism toward change, policy makers may want to consider involving teachers extensively in change programs by letting teachers participate in decision-making and steer changes. There is a lack of involvement and ownership of change among teachers who are stakeholders in education reform in Malaysia (Hallinger, 2010).

Involving teachers extensively in change will prevent them from blaming others when the change process fails, for they have to take ownership of the failure.

This study also found supervision to have a significant influence on teachers' job satisfaction. Hence, more opportunities should be given to school leaders to propose and steer changes, instead of only assuming administrative roles to implement education changes. School leaders could be given opportunities to propose changes, and reforms have to be comprehensively planned in consultation with them. Although they are at the lower rung of the MOE administrative hierarchy, they are the agents of change who know the unique situations and needs of their schools, and how it influences the teachers and students.

Besides, communication about change implementation is also vital. In anticipation of teachers' cynical responses, the next announcement of change should focus the attention of school leaders on appropriate communication strategies to minimize cynicism (Reichers et al., 1997). Past failures need to be fully explained rather than ignored as they have implications on the present and future through the attributions made by employee (Wanous et al., 2000; Choi, 2011). Absence of news about change process may paint a picture that things have not gone well. The progress of change has to be communicated in a constant manner. Instead of announcing conclusive results of change initiative at the end of intervention, small successes may be communicated in continuous manner to imply positive direction of change

process. With this, cynicism might be reduced and teachers may be less pessimistic of future change being successful.

#### **5.4 Limitations of the Study**

Part of the limitations of the study is that data collection is by way of self-reporting surveys. It was also assumed that respondents would honestly answer the survey items to the best of their ability. Inevitably, some degree of subjectivity would be inherent in the data collected.

Another limitation of the study is that discussion on change in education was not exhaustive as only some major policy changes taken effect since the 2000s were discussed. As cynicism is a learned response, it may be brought about by other changes in education which were not discussed in the study. However, emphasis was given to the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025 being that the study targets teachers' cynicism toward this blueprint.

This study is an exploratory study that investigated the main determinants of job satisfaction as suggested by the literature. While it had identified the current condition of the variables in terms of levels of satisfaction, the variables may be too general to detect meaningful differences in primary and secondary teachers' satisfaction. More variables specific to the context of school levels such as curriculum and workload may be included.

The outcome variable of interest in the study is job satisfaction and the independent variables in this study accounted for half of the variance of job satisfaction. As this is a multidimensional variable, the inclusion of more variables could increase the variance in explaining job satisfaction. Lastly, observational measures from different sources and methods can be utilized to triangulate and support the validity of self-report measures, and to add to the richness of these quantitative findings.

## **5.5 Recommendations for Future Studies**

Now that aspects of satisfaction were identified by the current study, further research to delve deeper into the variables may be pursued. For instance, given the three strongest predictive values of the work itself, supervision, and colleagues on job satisfaction, they may be the best variables for further study. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) may be used to test the cause-effect relationships between the more significant predictor variables of the work itself, supervision, and colleagues on job satisfaction. SEM can also be used to determine and validate the study's regression model.

To delve deeper into the ambivalence state reported on promotion, future studies could also be directed at the opportunities and policy for promotion, as indicated by the survey. Investigation on teachers' opinion on evaluation instrument designed for career progression would also be valuable, especially when there are new instrument implemented for their career progression as proposed in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025.

Studies which include more variables could also be included in future studies. The variables investigated in this study explained half of the variance of overall job satisfaction. Including other variables may be able to account for more variance in overall job satisfaction. These variables may include demographic factors, school climate, teaching efficacy, job demands, job stress, and culture influences (Bogler & Nir, 2014; Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012; Klassen, Usher, & Bong, 2010; Marston, 2010). From the earlier discussions, cultural dimensions have shown to influence job satisfaction (Cerit, 2014; Robert & Wasti, 2002). As teaching is not practiced in a cultural and social vacuum, teachers' job satisfaction will be affected by their interactions with students, colleagues, or supervisors. These interactions in a school setting may be influenced by cultural dimensions values in a multi-cultural setting in Malaysia.

As the study was conducted at the inception stage of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025, results obtained may serve as a platform for the longitudinal measurement of the blueprint's impact on teachers' job satisfaction during this educational improvement journey. Since the blueprint comprehensively integrates various programs for change, future study could target at the relationship between teachers' change cynicism and specific change program.

The effect of cynicism and styles of change management pertaining to the program may be investigated to provide insights into the effectiveness of change management in Malaysia's education system. To the best knowledge

of the researcher, studies of this nature that incorporate change cynicism have not been conducted, and there is still a lack of comprehensive understanding in organizational cynicism (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Findings obtained could be reconciled with other research so as to synthesize a practical list of best practices for the introduction, transition or management of educational change.

## **5.6 Conclusion**

The purpose of this exploratory study is to explore teachers' job satisfaction in the Kinta Selatan district. Job satisfaction was assessed in an overall evaluative aspect, and also in various job aspects with regard to the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and colleagues. The current context of education was also considered where the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 was launched. Thus, teachers' opinion toward the blueprint was examined as one of the variables that may affect their job satisfaction. This variable took the form of their cynicism about change initiatives proposed by the blueprint - whether change will be successful or people responsible for change is capable to bring about desired change.

Research questions were raised to determine the respective levels of the aforementioned variables, the relationships and predictive power of the variables on overall job satisfaction, and the difference in job satisfaction between primary and secondary school teachers. Teachers reported to be satisfied with the general aspects of their job, the work itself, pay,



supervision, and colleagues, but were ambivalent about the promotion aspect. These findings imply that considerations need to be given to promotional opportunities when designing career progression routes for teachers. The moderate cynicism teachers reported needs attention as it reflected teachers' pessimism about change being successful due to previous educational changes which were not entirely successful. The effectiveness of the programs conducted in schools also need consideration from policy makers as teachers reported to be highly cynical toward the effectiveness of such programs. Further, a significant negative relationship was found between overall job satisfaction and cynicism toward change among Malaysian teachers, contributing new knowledge to the body of knowledge concerning job satisfaction.

All variables were found significantly linked to overall job satisfaction, albeit in differing strength of influence. Together, these variables explained 50.2% of the variance in overall job satisfaction. Findings also suggested colleagues and supervision significantly influence job satisfaction, which is only partially in line with the Motivator-Hygiene theory. In terms of differences in overall job satisfaction between school levels, there was no significant difference between primary and secondary school teachers.

Therefore, this research has both practical and theoretical implications that could contribute towards successful educational change. In conclusion, the viewpoints of the respondents and the findings may provide

helpful information for policy makers, other researchers, and stakeholders to improve educational practices and outcome.

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## Appendices

### Appendix A

#### Permission by Division of Education Policies Research and Planning to Conduct Research



BAHAGIAN PERANCANGAN DAN PENYELIDIKAN DASAR PENDIDIKAN  
KEMENTERIAN PELAJARAN MALAYSIA  
ARAS 1-4, BLOK E-8  
KOMPLEKS KERAJAAN PARCEL E  
PUSAT Pentadbiran Kerajaan Persekutuan  
62604 PUTRAJAYA.

Telefon : 03-88846591  
Faks : 03-88846579

Ruj. Kami : KP(BPPDP)603/5/JLD. 9(143)  
Tarikh : 5 Julai 2012

Joanne Yim Sau Chin  
Kolej Tunku Abdul Rahman  
Jalan Kolej  
Taman Bandar Baru  
31900 Kampar  
Perak

Tuan/Puan

**Kelulusan Khas Untuk Menjalankan Kajian Di Sekolah, Institut Perguruan, Jabatan  
Pelajaran Negeri Dan Bahagian-Bahagian Di Bawah Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia**

Adalah saya dengan hormatnya diarah memaklumkan bahawa permohonan tuan/puan untuk menjalankan kajian bertajuk :

**"A Study Of The Job Satisfaction Of Primary And Secondary School Teachers"**  
diluluskan.

2. Kelulusan ini adalah berdasarkan kepada cadangan penyelidikan dan instrumen kajian yang tuan/puan kemukakan ke Bahagian ini . **Kebenaran bagi menggunakan sampel kajian perlu diperolehi dari Ketua Bahagian/Pengarah Pelajaran Negeri yang berkenaan.**

3. Sila tuan/puan kemukakan ke Bahagian ini senaskah laporan akhir kajian/laporan dalam bentuk elektronik berformat Pdf di dalam CD bersama naskah *hardcopy* setelah selesai kelak. Tuan/Puan juga diingatkan supaya **mendapat kebenaran terlebih dahulu** daripada Bahagian ini sekiranya sebahagian atau sepenuhnya dapatan kajian tersebut hendak dibentangkan di mana-mana forum atau seminar atau diumumkan kepada media massa.

Sekian untuk makluman dan tindakan tuan/puan selanjutnya. Terima kasih.

**"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"**

Saya yang menurut perintah,

  
**(DR HAJI ZABANI BIN DARUS)**

Ketua Sektor  
Sektor Penyelidikan dan Penilaian  
b.p. Pengarah  
Bahagian Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Dasar Pendidikan  
Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia

## Appendix B

### Permission Granted by Perak State Education Department to Conduct Research



JABATAN PELAJARAN PERAK  
JALAN TUN ABDUL RAZAK,  
30640 IPOH,  
PERAK DARUL RIDZUAN.



Telefon : 05-501 5000 Faks : 05-527 7273 Portal : [www.pelajaranperak.gov.my](http://www.pelajaranperak.gov.my)

**"MALAYSIA : RAKYAT DIDAHULUKAN PENCAPAIAN DIUTAMAKAN"**

Ruj. Kami : J. Pel. Pk (AM)5114/4 Jld.9 (51)

Tarikh : 31 Julai 2012

**JOANNE YIM SAU CHIN,,**

Kolej Tunku Abdul Rahman,

Jalan Kolej.

Taman Bandar Baru,

31900 Kampar.

Perak Darul Ridzuan.

Tuan.

#### **KEBENARAN UNTUK MENJALANKAN KAJIAN DI SEKOLAH-SEKOLAH MENENGAH/ RENDAH NEGERI PERAK**

Sukacitanya perkara di atas di rujuk dan surat tuan bertarikh 9 Julai 2012 adalah berkaitan.

2. Sehubungan dengan itu, dimaklumkan bahawa Jabatan Pelajaran Perak **tiada halangan** untuk membenarkan pihak tuan menjalankan kajian "A Study Of The Job Satisfaction Of Primary And Scondary School Teachers" seperti dinyatakan dalam surat tuan dengan syarat-syarat berikut :-

- 2.1 Pihak tuan perlu mendapatkan kebenaran terlebih dahulu daripada Pegawai Pelajaran Daerah dan Pengetua sekolah untuk menggunakan sampel kajian;
- 2.2 Kajian yang dijalankan hendaklah tidak mengganggu proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran sekolah;
- 2.3 Pihak tuan bertanggungjawab menjaga keselamatan dan kebajikan guru-guru dan murid yang terlibat dalam kajian ini;
- 2.4 Pihak tuan hendaklah bertanggungjawab menanggung semua kos kajian;
- 2.5 Guru-guru/ murid tidak bolch dipaksa terlibat dengan kajian ini;



2.6 Pihak tuan dipohon agar mengemukakan satu (1) salinan laporan kajian dalam tempoh 30 hari ke jabatan ini selepas kajian tersebut dilaksanakan: dan

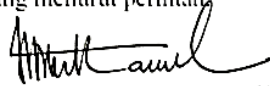
2.7 Tiada sebarang implikasi kewangan terhadap Jabatan Pelajaran Negeri Perak. Pejabat Pelajaran Daerah dan pihak sekolah.

3. Kebenaran permohonan ini adalah untuk tujuan yang dipohon dan melibatkan sekolah dalam daerah yang dinyatakan dan luput selepas 31 Disember 2012.

Sekian terima kasih.

**“BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA”**

Saya yang menurut perintah



**(HAJI MOHD IDRIS BIN HAJI RAMLI, PMP., AMP.)**

Timbalan Pengarah Pelajaran Negeri Perak.

b.p Pengarah Pelajaran Negeri Perak.

s.k    1. Pengarah Pelajaran Negeri Perak  
      2. Semua Pegawai Pelajaran Daerah



JABATAN PELAJARAN PERAK  
JALAN TUN ABDUL RAZAK  
30640 IPOH,  
PERAK DARUL RIDZUAN.



Telefon : 05-501 5000 Faks : 05-527 7273 Portal : www.pelajaranperak.gov.my

“MALAYSIA : RAKYAT DIDAHULUKAN PENCAPAIAN DIUTAMAKAN”

Ruj. Kami : J. Pel. Pk (AM)5114/4 Jld.11 (18)

Tarikh : 11 Disember 2012

JOANNE YIM SAU CHIN,  
Kolej Tunku Abdul Rahman,  
Jalan Kolej, Taman Bandar Baru,  
31900 Kampar,  
Perak Darul Ridzuan.

Tuan.

PERMOHONAN PERLANJUTAN KEBENARAN MENJALANKAN KAJIAN DI  
SEKOLAH-SEKOLAH MENENGAH/RENDAH DI NEGERI PERAK

Sukacitanya perkara di atas di rujuk dan surat tuan bertarikh 26 November 2012 adalah berkaitan.

2. Sehubungan dengan itu, dimaklumkan bahawa Jabatan Pelajaran Perak **tidak halangan** untuk membenarkan pihak tuan meneruskan kajian “**A Study Of The Job Satisfaction Of Primary And Secondary School Teachers**” seperti dinyatakan dalam surat tuan dengan mematuhi syarat-syarat seperti tercatat dalam Surat Kebenaran, Rujukan : J. Pel. Pk (AM) 5114/4/ Jld.9 (51), bertarikh 31 Julai 2012 yang telah diberikan kepada pihak tuan tempoh hari.

3. Kebenaran permohonan ini adalah untuk tujuan yang dipohon dan melibatkan sekolah dalam daerah yang dinyatakan sahaja. Kerjasama dan keperihatinan tuan dalam hal ini didahului dengan ucapan terima kasih.

Sekian dimaklumkan.

“BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA”

Saya yang menurut perintah,

( ABD. MAJID BIN YUSOF, PMP, AMN., AMP. )

Ketua Sektor Pengurusan Sekolah,  
b.p Pengarah Pelajaran Negeri Perak.

- s.k
1. Pengarah Pelajaran Negeri Perak
  2. Timbalan Pengarah Pelajaran Negeri Perak
  3. Semua Pegawai Pelajaran Daerah

## Appendix C

### Permission Granted by Kinta Selatan District Education Office to Conduct Research



PEJABAT PELAJARAN DAERAH KINTA SELATAN,  
JALAN KUALA DIPANG,  
31900 KAMPAR,  
PERAK DARUL RIDZUAN.

Telefon : 05-465 0521  
Faks : 05-465 0519

"1 MALAYSIA: RAKYAT DIDAHULUKAN, PENCAPAIAN DIUTAMAKAN"  
PERAK SENTIASA DI PUNCAK KECEMERLANGAN

Ruj. Tuan :  
Ruj. Kami : KPM.PPDKSPk.100-1( )  
Tarikh : 10 MEI 2013

Puan Joanne Yim Sau Ching  
Kolej Tunku Abdul Rahman  
Jalan Kolej  
Taman Bandar Baru  
31900 Kampar,  
Perak Darul Ridzuan

Tuan,

#### KEBENARAN MENJALANKAN KAJIAN 'JOB SATICFACTION OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL IN KINTA SELATAN DISTRICT'

Dengan segala hormatnya saya merujuk kepada perkara di atas.

2. Pejabat Pelajaran Daerah Kinta Selatan tiada halangan untuk membenarkan pihak tuan menjalankan kajian dengan syarat;

- i. Mendapat kebenaran dari Pengetua atau Guru Besar sekolah berkenaan untuk menggunakan sampel kajian.
- ii. Tidak mengganggu pembelajaran dan pengajaran guru dan pelajar
- iii. Tiada sebarang kos melibatkan sekolah, guru, dan murid.
- iv. Guru dan murid tidak dipaksa terlibat dengan kajian tersebut.
- v. Bertanggungjawab terhadap keselamatan dan kebajikan guru dan pelajar yang terlibat dalam kajian tersebut.
- vi. Mengemukakan **satu (1) salinan laporan kajian dalam tempoh 30 hari** ke pihak PPD Kinta Selatan selepas kajian tersebut dilaksanakan dan
- vii. Tiada sebarang implikasi kewangan kepada pihak PPD Kinta Selatan.

3. Kebenaran ini hanya bagi sekolah di daerah Kinta Selatan sahaja.

Sekian, terima kasih.

**'BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA'**

Saya yang menurut perintah,



**(Kapt. Dr. Haji Ahmad Damanhuri b Ibrahim P.M.P)**  
Pegawai Pelajaran Daerah Kinta Selatan

## Appendix D

### Permission Granted by Bowling Green State University to use JDI and JIG Scales



Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Office  
214 Psychology Building  
Department of Psychology  
Bowling Green State University  
Bowling Green, OH 43403

June 24, 2013

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and family of measures – including the Job In General scale (JIG), abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI), abridged Job In General scale (aJIG), Trust in Management scale (TIM), Intent to Quit (ITQ), Stress in General (SIG) scale, Scale of Life Satisfaction (SOLS), and Survey of Work Values, Revised, Form U. (SWV) are owned by Bowling Green State University, copyright 1975-2012.

Permission is hereby granted to ~~Jeanne Yim~~ to use these measures in his or her research.

The aforementioned scales may be administered as many times as needed in this course of this research.

*Jasmine Khosravi*

Jasmine Khosravi  
JDI Research Assistant  
Tel: 419.372.8247  
Fax: 419.372.6013  
jdi\_ra@bgsu.edu

## Appendix E

### Permission Granted by Bowling Green State University to adapt the JDI and JIG Scales via Electronic Mail

To  
joanyim@yahoo.com  
May 13 at 11:36 AM  
Hide original message  
On Friday, 8 May 2015, 23:20, JDI Research Assistance <jdi\_ra@bgsu.edu> wrote:

Dear Joanne,

Yes, you may adapt the scale, just make sure your study reflects that you used an adapted version of the JDI/JIG.

Best,  
Rachel

---

**Rachel T. King**  
JDI Research Assistant  
Bowling Green State University  
Email: [jdi\\_ra@bgsu.edu](mailto:jdi_ra@bgsu.edu)  
Tel: (419) 372-8247  
Fax: (419) 372-6013  
<http://www.bgsu.edu/arts-and-sciences/psychology/services/job-descriptive-index.html>

---

**From:** joanne yim <joanyim@yahoo.com>  
**Sent:** Friday, May 8, 2015 4:07 AM  
**To:** JDI Research Assistance  
**Subject:** Re: JDI/JIG reference guide

Dear Jasmine,

Thank you for the letter for the permission to use the JDI/JIG scales. I've purchased the manuals and is currently using the scales in my MPhil studies.

After my pilot and pre-tests, it was advised that I should change the word "co-worker" to "colleague", because this is more commonly used in Malaysia to refer to people at work. Malaysia was formerly under the British rule and therefore UK English is more commonly used here. There are also replacement of some words to adapt to our context. May I have permission to adapt the JDI/JIG scales? Your consent is greatly appreciated.

Thank you so much for your assistance!

Joanne Sau Ching YIM

## Appendix F

### Permission Granted by Professor Emeritus John Wanous to use CAOC Scale via Electronic Mail

-----  
>From: John Wanous <wanous.1@osu.edu>  
>Date: Fri, 5 Sep 2013 10:56:27 -0400  
>Subject: Re: Permission to use Cynicism About Organizational Change scale  
>To: YIM SAU CHING JOANNE <yimsc@mail.tarc.edu.my>

yes you may use our scale, and good luck with your research efforts.

John P. Wanous, Ph.D.  
Professor Emeritus  
Fisher College of Business  
The Ohio State University  
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7718 Norhill Rd.  
Columbus, OH 43235  
614.888.7441

On Sep 4, 2013, at 11:28 PM, YIM SAU CHING JOANNE <yimsc@mail.tarc.edu.my>  
wrote:

>  
>  
> Good morning Professor,  
>  
>  
> Greetings from Malaysia. I am a postgraduate student pursuing an MPhil in Social  
> Science degree. My research involves teachers' job satisfaction and cynicism  
> toward organizational change in Malaysia, and the study is targeting about 600  
> respondents.  
>  
> I would like to seek your permission to reproduce the Cynicism About  
> Organizational Change scale as part of the instrument for my study. Your consent  
> will be highly appreciated and greatly facilitate the study.  
>  
> Thanking you in advance.  
>  
>  
> Best wishes,  
>  
> Ms Joanne Yim Sau Ching  
> Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman  
> Jalan Universiti  
> Bandar Barat  
> 31900 Kampar, Perak

## Appendix G

### Final Questionnaire



#### ***Kepuasan Kerja dan Sinisme Terhadap Perubahan Dalam Pendidikan***

#### **Job Satisfaction and Cynicism Towards Changes in Education**

*Guru-guru yang dihormati/ Dear respected teachers,*

*Soal selidik ini mengandungi tiga bahagian, dan bertujuan untuk mendapat respon guru-guru sekolah rendah dan menengah tentang kerjaya mereka. Tuan/puan dengan segala hormatnya diminta memilih SATU pernyataan dengan menandakan (✓) pada petak yang berkenaan atau membulatkan pilihan tuan/puan. Identiti tuan/puan tidak akan didedahkan dan semua respon yang diberi akan dianggap sulit. Tuan/puan dipilih menyertai kajian ini kerana jawatan tuan/puan dan tuan/puan berhak menarik diri daripada menjalani kajian ini bila-bila masa. Masa yang akan diambil untuk menjawab soal selidik ini ialah lebih kurang 7 minit. Terima kasih atas kerjasama dan sokongan tuan/puan.*

This questionnaire consists of three sections, and aims to gather the responses of primary and secondary school teachers about their job. You are respectfully requested to select ONE statement by indicating (✓) in the space provided or circle the appropriate option. Your identity will be kept anonymous and all responses obtained will be kept in confidence. You are chosen to participate in this survey because of your occupation and you may withdraw from the survey anytime. Time required to complete this questionnaire is about 7 minutes. Thank you for your co-operation and support.

#### **SECTION A – Informasi latar belakang / Background information**

- |    |  |  |   |
|----|--|--|---|
| a1 | <i>Jantina/Gender</i>  | <i>Perempuan/ Female</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                    | <i>Lelaki/Male</i> <input type="checkbox"/>   |
| a2 | <i>Sekolah/School</i>  | <i>Rendah/ Primary</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                      | <i>Menengah/ Secondary</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                                     |
| a3 | <i>Umur/Age</i>  | <i>&lt;20 tahun/years old</i> <input type="checkbox"/>               | <i>41-50 tahun/years old</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                                   |
|    |  | <i>21-30 tahun/years old</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                | <i>&gt;50 tahun/ years old</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                                 |
|    |  | <i>31-40 tahun/years old</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                |   |
| a4 | <i>Pengalaman mengajar Teaching experience</i>                     | <i>1-5 tahun/years</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                      | <i>16-20 tahun/years</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                                       |
|    |  | <i>6-10 tahun/years</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                     | <i>21- 25 tahun/years</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                                      |
|    |  | <i>11-15 tahun/years</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                    | <i>&gt;25 tahun/years</i> <input type="checkbox"/>                                      |
| a5 | <i>Kelayakan tertinggi/ Highest Qualifications</i>                 |  |   |
|    | <i>Sijil/ Diploma Certificate/Diploma</i> <input type="checkbox"/> | <i>Ijazah sarjana muda/ Bachelor degree</i> <input type="checkbox"/> | <i>Lepasan Ijazah &amp; ke atas/ Post Graduate &amp; above</i> <input type="checkbox"/> |



a6. *Beban kerja mingguan (termasuk tugas pengajaran dan bukan pengajaran)*  
*Weekly workload (including teaching and non-teaching tasks)*

- |                  |                          |                  |                          |
|------------------|--------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| <10 jam/ hours   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 31-40 jam/ hours | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11-20 jam/ hours | <input type="checkbox"/> | 41-50 jam/ hours | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21-30 jam/ hours | <input type="checkbox"/> | >50 jam/ hours   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### SECTION B: *Index Deskriptif Kerja/ Job Descriptive Index*

*Sila fikirkan pekerjaan anda dari sudut pandangan umum dan buat satu pilihan yang paling tepat mengikut pandangan anda.*

Think of your present work in general and choose one option which best represents your opinion.

<i>Pilihan/ Option</i>	<i>Yes - Setuju/ Agree</i>	<i>? - Tidak pasti/ Not sure</i>	<i>No - Tidak setuju/ Disagree</i>
------------------------	----------------------------	----------------------------------	------------------------------------

#### **Kerja (The Work Itself)**

w1	Menyeronokkan (Fascinating)	Yes	?	No
w2	Kreatif (Creative)	Yes	?	No
w3	Memuaskan (Satisfying)	Yes	?	No
w4	Baik (Good)	Yes	?	No
w5	Membosankan (Boring)	Yes	?	No
w6	Memberi suatu rasa pencapaian (Gives sense of accomplishment)	Yes	?	No
w7	Dihormati (Respected)	Yes	?	No
w8	Menarik (Exciting)	Yes	?	No
w9	Memberi kepuasan (Rewarding)	Yes	?	No
w10	Berfaedah (Useful)	Yes	?	No
w11	Mencabar (Challenging)	Yes	?	No
w12	Mudah (Simple)	Yes	?	No
w13	Perkara yang diulangi (Repetitive)	Yes	?	No
w14	Perkara yang sama (Routine)	Yes	?	No
w15	Membosankan (Dull)	Yes	?	No
w16	Kurang menarik (Uninteresting)	Yes	?	No
w17	Hasil kerja yang ketara (Can see results)	Yes	?	No
w18	Menggunakan kebolehan saya (Uses my abilities)	Yes	?	No

<b>Kenaikan Pangkat (Promotion)</b>				
pr19	Harapan agak baik untuk kenaikan pangkat (Fairly good chance for promotion)	Yes	?	No
pr20	Harapan baik untuk kenaikan pangkat (Good chance for promotion)	Yes	?	No
pr21	Peluang baik untuk kenaikan pangkat (Good opportunities for promotion)	Yes	?	No
pr22	Peluang kenaikan pangkat agak terhad (Opportunities somewhat limited)	Yes	?	No
pr23	Dasar naik pangkat yang kurang adil (Unfair promotion policy)	Yes	?	No
pr24	Kenaikan mengikut kebolehan (Promotion on ability)	Yes	?	No
pr25	Kenaikan pangkat tidak kerap (Infrequent promotions)	Yes	?	No
pr26	Kenaikan pangkat berterusan (Regular promotions)	Yes	?	No
pr27	Tiada kenaikan pangkat (Dead-end-job)	Yes	?	No

<b>Gaji (Pay)</b>				
p28	Mencukupi untuk perbelanjaan biasa (Income adequate for normal expenses)	Yes	?	No
p29	Cukup untuk saraan hidup (Enough to live on)	Yes	?	No
p30	Pendapatan memberi keselesaan (Comfortable)	Yes	?	No
p31	Lumayan (Well paid)	Yes	?	No
p32	Sederhana (Fair)	Yes	?	No
p33	Gaji rendah (Underpaid)	Yes	?	No
p34	Tidak mencukupi (Barely live on income)	Yes	?	No
p35	Kurang daripada yang selayaknya (Less than I deserve)	Yes	?	No
p36	Tidak baik (Bad)	Yes	?	No

<b>Penyeliaan (Supervision)</b>				
s37	Memberi sokongan (Supportive)	Yes	?	No
s38	Tidak berpuas hati (Hard to please)	Yes	?	No
s39	Tidak sopan (Impolite)	Yes	?	No
s40	Memberi pujian untuk kerja baik (Praises good work)	Yes	?	No
s41	Berhemah (Tactful)	Yes	?	No
s42	Berpengaruh (Influential)	Yes	?	No
s43	Mengikuti perkembangan (Up-to-date)	Yes	?	No
s44	Tidak baik hati (Unkind)	Yes	?	No
s45	Berat sebelah (Has favourites)	Yes	?	No
s46	Memberitahu perkembangan saya (Tells me where I stand)	Yes	?	No
s47	Tidak menyenangkan (Annoying)	Yes	?	No
s48	Degil (Stubborn)	Yes	?	No
s49	Arif tentang pekerjaannya (Knows job well)	Yes	?	No
s50	Tidak baik (Bad)	Yes	?	No
s51	Bijak (Intelligent)	Yes	?	No
s52	Perancang yang kurang cekap (Poor planner)	Yes	?	No
s53	Sentiasa ada apabila diperlukan (Around when needed)	Yes	?	No
s54	Pemalas (Lazy)	Yes	?	No
<b>Rakan sekerja (Colleagues)</b>				
c55	Bertanggungjawab (Responsible)	Yes	?	No
c56	Membosankan (Boring)	Yes	?	No
c57	Lambat (Slow)	Yes	?	No
c58	Memberangsangkan (Stimulating)	Yes	?	No
c59	Tidak cerdas (Unintelligent)	Yes	?	No

<b>Rakan sekerja - sambungan (Colleagues - continuation)</b>				
c60	Suka menolong (Helpful)	Yes	?	No
c61	Disukai (Likeable)	Yes	?	No
c62	Bijak (Intelligent)	Yes	?	No
c63	Bijak/kemas (Smart)	Yes	?	No
c64	Tidak sopan (Rude)	Yes	?	No
c65	Pemalas (Lazy)	Yes	?	No
c66	Mudah bermusuhan (Easy to make enemies)	Yes	?	No
c67	Kurang menyenangkan (Unpleasant)	Yes	?	No
c68	Memberi sokongan (Supportive)	Yes	?	No
c69	Aktif (Active)	Yes	?	No
c70	Kurang berminat (Narrow interest)	Yes	?	No
c71	Mengecewakan (Frustrating)	Yes	?	No
c72	Degil (Stubborn)	Yes	?	No

<b>Kerja Secara Keseluruhan (Job in General)</b>				
g73	Menarik (Pleasant)	Yes	?	No
g74	Amat baik (Great)	Yes	?	No
g75	Baik (Good)	Yes	?	No
g76	Usaha yang berbaloi (Worthwhile)	Yes	?	No
g77	Tidak baik (Bad)	Yes	?	No
g78	Bukan diidami (Undesirable)	Yes	?	No
g79	Membuang masa (Waste of time)	Yes	?	No
g80	Berstatus rendah daripada profesion lain (Lower than other professions)	Yes	?	No
g81	Unggul (Superior)	Yes	?	No
g82	Cemerlang (Excellent)	Yes	?	No

**Kerja Secara Keseluruhan - Sambungan  
(Job in General - Continuation)**

g83	Lebih baik daripada kebanyakan pekerjaan lain (Better than most)	Yes	?	No
g84	Tidak sesuai (Disagreeable)	Yes	?	No
g85	Membuat saya berpuas hati (Makes me content)	Yes	?	No
g86	Tidak mencukupi (Inadequate)	Yes	?	No
g87	Boleh diterima (Acceptable)	Yes	?	No
g88	Tidak memberi kemajuan kepada saya (Does not develop me)	Yes	?	No
g89	Menyeronokkan (Enjoyable)	Yes	?	No
g90	Buruk (Rotten)	Yes	?	No

**SECTION C: Sinisme terhadap perubahan / Cynicism toward change**

Terdapat perubahan-perubahan pendidikan dan aspirasi pendidikan yang dicadangkan dalam Pelan Pembangunan Pendidikan Malaysia 2013-2025. Sila beri pendapat umum tentang perubahan-perubahan ini dengan memilih SATU pilihan.

There are currently educational changes and aspirations proposed under the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025. Please give your general opinion about these changes with ONE option.

	Penyataan / Statement	Sangat tidak setuju Strongly Disagree	Tidak setuju Disagree	Tidak pasti Not sure	Setuju Agree	Sangat bersetuju Strongly Agree
1	Kebanyakan program yang diadakan adalah untuk menyelesaikan masalah tetapi gagal untuk menambahbaik. Most of the programs that are supposed to solve problems around here will not do much good.					
2	Percubaan untuk penambahbaikan tidak akan menghasilkan kesan yang baik. Attempts to make things better around here will not produce good results.					

3	Cadangan untuk menangani masalah tidak akan mendatangkan perubahan yang ketara. Suggestions on how to solve problems will not produce much real change.					
4	Rancangan untuk masa depan tidak akan mendatangkan kesan yang banyak. Plans for future improvement will not amount to much.					
5	Pihak yang bertanggungjawab untuk menyelesaikan masalah tidak berusaha secukupnya untuk menyelesaikan masalah. The people responsible for solving problems around here do not try hard enough to solve them.					
6	Pihak yang bertanggungjawab untuk memperbaiki keadaan bersikap tidak kepedulian. The people responsible for making things better around here do not care enough about their jobs.					
7	Pihak yang bertanggungjawab untuk memperbaiki keadaan tidak tahu secukupnya tindakan yang perlu diambil oleh mereka. The people responsible for making improvements do not know enough about what they are doing.					
8	Pihak yang bertanggungjawab untuk mendatangkan perubahan tidak mempunyai kemahiran untuk berbuat demikian. The people responsible for making changes around here do not have the skills needed to do their jobs.					

Terima kasih atas kerjasama puan/tuan.

Thank you for your co-operation.

