

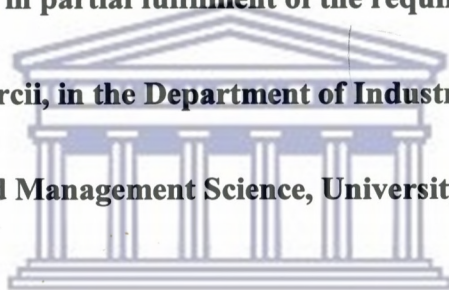
**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT,
STRESS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONGST TEACHERS IN THE
EASTERN CAPE**

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Mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Magister Commercii, in the Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of

Economic and Management Science, University of the Western Cape

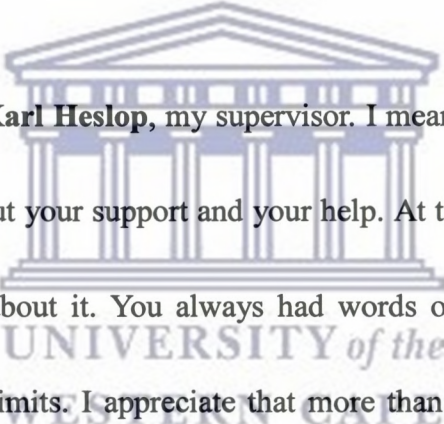


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**UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE**

NOVEMBER 2010

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This thesis is dedicated to my mother, **Nolonwabo Ngcebetsha** who has been a great inspiration to me and my rock, you mean the world to me and to my late Father **Sazi** who always told me there was nothing I could not do in this world. To my sister **Anele** you have been my rock, thank you for the support through it all, I cannot imagine how much I took out of you, your support has not gone unnoticed, thank you little sis.



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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Generally high employee commitment is a major characteristic of world class organisations (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). There is empirical evidence that the strength of organisational commitment helps predict employees' turnover intentions (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Boshoff & Arnolds, 1995; Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole & Owen, 2002). There are a plethora of factors that may influence organisational commitment (Broadfield & Edwards, 1998) and stress has been postulated to be one such factor which is purported to be associated with organisational commitment and withdrawal behaviour (Nieumann, 1993).

Job stress has become a concern to stakeholders of education including critics of education as well as teachers, the provincial administration, parents and governing bodies. Every year fewer tertiary students enroll for training in education, which exacerbates an already crippled teaching staff component within the Eastern Cape.

Adding to the shortage of teachers is the rapid exodus of teachers, which is starts to happen from the time that they graduate, as they are often made lucrative offers by international recruitment agencies (Samodien, 2008).

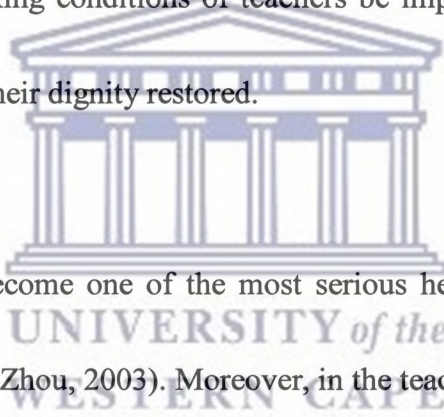
Samodien (2008) reports that the actions of international recruitment agencies, in an attempt to draw away new teaching graduates include lucrative financial offers, recruitment campaigns at university campuses, posted letters and e-mail, presentations on campus, guaranteed work, long term teaching contracts, tax-free salaries, a 13th cheque, fully-furnished rent-free accommodation, assistance in processing visa's, opening foreign bank accounts in host countries, and return tickets to South Africa.



Swartz (2008), the Head of Education in the Eastern Cape responded to the above report on the exodus by stating that teachers have always left the profession for “greener pastures”, describing the exodus of teachers as “normal”, that the international trend of open employment facilitates the poaching of teachers and that the problem is not unique to South Africa. However, of concern to him was the exodus of teachers trained in the fields of Mathematics, Science, and the Languages, and the smaller number of young people enrolling for teaching. He maintains that the Eastern Cape province has

sufficient teachers to fill the existing vacant positions and that with projected growth levels, the province should be able to meet the need for teachers in the future.

Swartz (2008) suggests that the Department of Education in the Eastern Cape needs to introduce retention strategies, market teaching as an attractive career to pursue, ensure that higher standards of teaching quality are set and met, that the workload of teachers be managed, that the working conditions of teachers be improved, that the salaries of teachers be reviewed and their dignity restored.

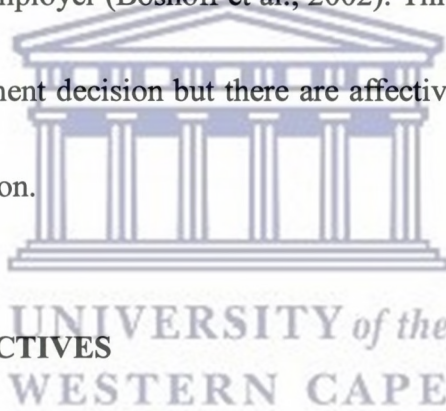


Occupational stress has become one of the most serious health issues in the modern world (Lu, Cooper, Kao & Zhou, 2003). Moreover, in the teaching profession (Feldman, 1998; Travers & Cooper, 1993; Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, Donald, Taylor & Miller, 2005) there are a number of factors that influence stress in the teaching profession in South Africa (Ngidi & Sibiyi, 2002).

One of the effects of stress is burnout and burnout has been found at particularly high levels in teachers (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). It results in the individual being incapable of performing tasks because of drained energy and at the same time they are no longer

willing to perform because of an increased intolerance for any effort (Mostert & Joubert, 2005). This may affect the person's decision to quit their current job as stress levels (perception of the degree of role strain) have been viewed as one of the predictors of an employee's intention to quit (Boshoff, et al., 2002).

Intention to quit is viewed as the strength of an individual's view that they do not want to stay with their current employer (Boshoff et al., 2002). This intention to quit does not come as a spur of the moment decision but there are affective responses to the job that may lead to the final decision.



1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES


The objectives for this study are as follows:

- To determine the relationship between stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape.
- To determine how biographical characteristics relate to organisational commitment, stress and turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape.

- To determine whether stress and organisational commitment explain the variance in turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape.

1.3 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

There is a statistically significant relationship between organisational commitment, stress and turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape

- 
- There is a statistically significant difference in stress amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape based on their biographical characteristics
 - There is a statistically significant relationship between organisational commitment and biographical details
 - There are statistically significant differences in turnover intentions based on biographical characteristics
 - Stress and organisational commitment will not statistically influence the variance in turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape

1.4 DEFINITIONS AND TERMS

Organisational commitment is a “psychological state that binds an individual to the organisation” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 25).

Stress is seen as a psychological concept with negative connotations which refers to the inability to cope with physical and/or mental demands; real or perceived, made on teachers as the result of their profession (Venter & Oliver, 2003).

Burnout refers to a syndrome of exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996, cited in Hanekom, Bakker & Schaufeli, 1996).

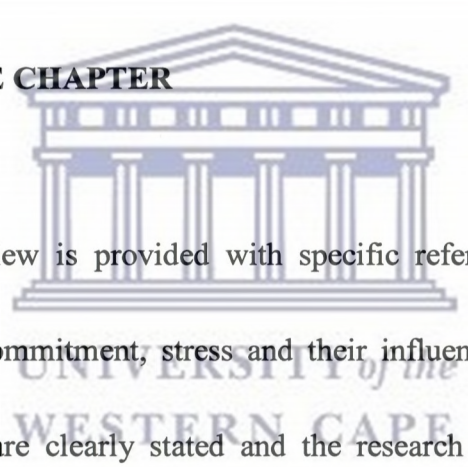
An intention to quit is defined as the strength of an individual’s view that they do not want to stay with their current employer (Boshoff et al., 2002).

1.5 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape. The primary limitation of the study relates to the use of a non-probability research design. This implies that the

results emanating from the research cannot be confidently extrapolated to the population of teachers, as circumstances in other environments may differ from the sample that was selected. The limitations of the study also include the relatively small sample size, unmatched gender ratio and the fact that the sample was not randomly selected. Hence the results of the study cannot be compared to teachers in a different environment and therefore the external validity of the study would be compromised.

1.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER



In this chapter an overview is provided with specific reference to the relationship between organisational commitment, stress and their influence on intentions to quit. The research objectives are clearly stated and the research hypotheses and the key concepts of the study are defined. The chapter concludes with the delimitations of the study. An overview of the rest of the study is provided below.

1.7 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter one introduces information about the variables organisational commitment, stress and turnover intentions. A theoretical framework and significance of the study is

presented to contextualize the research and provides a heuristic framework within which to understand the variables under consideration.

Chapter two provides a detailed literature review on organisational commitment, stress and turnover intention. A comprehensive discussion of these research variables is provided and their relevance to the teaching profession is discussed.

Chapter three follows with a detailed outline of the research methodology to investigate the research problem. In particular the research design, sampling method, the manner in which the data was gathered and the statistical techniques that were employed to test the research hypotheses are delineated. The rationale for using the relevant instruments in the study is also discussed.

Chapter four addresses the results arising from the empirical analysis of the data obtained and testing the hypotheses proposed for this study.

Chapter five discusses the most salient results emanating from the empirical investigation. Conclusions are drawn based on the obtained results and juxtaposed

against previous research findings within the teaching profession. Moreover, practical implications of the research findings are highlighted and recommendations for future research are outlined.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades there has been a proliferation in interest and subsequent research conducted in the area of organisational commitment processes. Aryee and Heng (1990) contend that commitment has become more important than job satisfaction in understanding employee work-related behaviour because it is more stable and less subject to daily fluctuations than is the case with satisfaction.



One of the main reasons why commitment has been one of the most popular research subjects in industrial psychology and organisational behaviour is its assumed positive correlation with performance (Benkhoff, 1997). Committed employees are viewed as more consistent, productive, and more likely to accomplish organisational goals (Gaffoor & Cloete, 2010). Ferreira, Basson and Coetzee (2010) further indicate that a weakening in organisational commitment may come in the form of greater absenteeism and turnover. If it is considered that the subsequent recruitment, training and

development costs will increase directly with increases in the rates of turnover and absenteeism, the importance of organisational commitment cannot be taken lightly.

Furthermore, it is not just the organisation that is likely to be affected negatively by reduced organizational commitment, but the individual employee as well. A reduced feeling of attachment to an organisation may, in certain cases, have some degree of adverse impact on the individual's psychological well-being (Mowday, et al., 1982; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). In light of the above, it becomes necessary that commitment processes be examined with the aim of gaining a better understanding thereof. Through such an understanding conclusions may be arrived at as to how an organisation will be able to stimulate greater commitment amongst its employees.

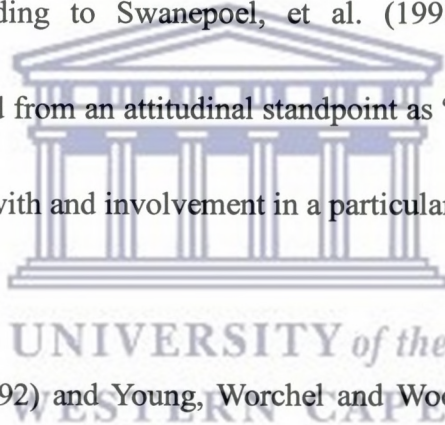
Researchers (Brick, 1987; Brown, 1996; Scholl, 1981) suggest that the concept of commitment influences behaviour independently of other motives or attitudes, and may lead to persistence even when conflicting motives or attitudes exist. According to Boshoff et al. (2002) the measure of organisational commitment should be by means of multidimensional rather than unidirectional. As a result of its relationship with work

constructs such as turnover, job involvement; organisational commitment has become an important construct in organisational research. (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Buck & Watson, 2002; Eby, et al., 1999; Ferreira et al., 2010; Gaffoor & Cloete, 2010).

Organisational commitment has emerged as an important construct in organisational research owing to its relationship with work-related constructs such as absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, job-involvement and leader-subordinate relations (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Buck & Watson, 2002; Eby, et al., 1999; Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Lance, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Wasti, 2003). According to Mowday, et al. (1982), people who are committed are more likely to stay in an organisation and work towards the organisation's goals. Steers (1975) indicates that organisational commitment is a useful tool to measure organisational effectiveness.

2.1.1 DEFINING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Morrow (1993 in Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 12) “organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct that has the potential to predict outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure and organisational goals”. It has generally been defined in terms of the employee’s attachment to or identification with the organisation. According to Swanepoel, et al. (1998, p. 83), organisational commitment can be defined from an attitudinal standpoint as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation.”



Moorhead and Griffen (1992) and Young, Worchel and Woehr (1998) are also of the opinion that organisational commitment entails a feeling of identification with the employing organisation, but elaborate by stating that commitment further involves a sense of dedication to the organisation and an interest in the overall effectiveness thereof.

Other researchers have suggested that commitment is demonstrated through congruence between personal and organisational goals and values. Ting (1997), who defines

commitment as the individual's belief and trust in the organisational goals and values, employs one such definition. Similarly, Camp (1994, p.281) defines organisational commitment as "a congruence between the goals of the individual and the organisation whereby the individual identifies with and expends effort on behalf of the general goals of the organisation." Kreitner and Kinicki (1992) also consider organisational commitment to reflect the extent to which the employee identifies with and is committed to organisational goals.



Researchers have also viewed commitment as involving an exchange of behaviour in return for valued rewards. According to Scarpello and Ledvinka (1987), for example, organisational commitment is the outcome of a matching process between the individual's job-related and vocational needs on the one hand and the organisation's ability to satisfy these needs on the other. Robbins (2001, p. 69) also identifies organisational commitment as an attitude, but employs a slightly broader definition. This author defines it as "a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation". Luthans (1992), on the other hand, considers organisational commitment to be an


attitude which involves an ongoing process through which employees express concern for the continued success and well-being of the organisation.

Mowday, et al. (1982) have, however, presented the most expansive, and generally all-inclusive, definition of organisational commitment. According to these authors organisational commitment can be conceptually characterized by at least three factors: “(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation” (p.27). In this sense, organisational commitment is viewed as an affective response that results from an evaluation of the work situation which links the individual to the organisation (Aryee & Heng, 1990; Mowday, et al., 1982).

Buchanan (cited in Reyes, 2001, p. 328) defines commitment as “a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one’s role in relation to goals and values of an organisation, and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth.”

Levy (2003) defines organisational commitment as the strength of the individual's identification with and the involvement in the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1984) and Allen and Meyer (1990) identified three dimensions on organisational commitment, namely continuance, affective and normative commitment. Most researchers agree that even though there are a number of organisational commitment models Meyer and Allen (1984) is the one that is accepted on the broad spectrum of organisational commitment research. However, Bragg (2003) identified four types of employee commitment to the organisation.

2.1.2 TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT



According to Bussing (2002) the three sources of commitment are instrumental, affective and normative sources. Affective commitment places an emphasis on attachment to the organisation; this means that employees put all their energy into their work, even if it is not expected of them. Instrumental commitment focuses on the idea of exchange and continuance while normative commitment focuses on an employee's feelings of obligation to stay with an organisation due to a number of reasons. Bagraim (2003) states that although various multidimensional models of organisational commitment exist, the three models, which are proposed by Allen and Meyer (1997) are widely accepted in organisational research.

Penly and Gould (1988) maintain that commitment may be perceived in terms of three facets namely: moral, calculative, and alternative commitment. Moral and alternative

commitment represent affective commitment, while calculative commitment can be associated with instrumental commitment. Contrary to popular research and agreement amongst researchers on the basic model and dimensions of employee commitment Bragg (2002) derived his own model for employee/organisational commitment. The four types of employee commitment are as follows:

- A. “Want to” commitment is the first type: He argues that these are people who are devoted and loyal to the employer, they would even go an extra mile without expecting extra compensation for their efforts. They accept more responsibility with gladness. These are the employees who look forward to going to work. When they come in they are enthusiastic and full of energy and willingness to go the extra mile for the organisation.
- B. The second type is the “have to” commitment: Bragg (2002) extrapolates that these employees are only with the organisation because to circumstances beyond their control. One of the reasons may be the fact that they cannot find employment elsewhere. These employees generally have a negative attitude, have bad habits and may occasionally disobey orders from superiors.
- C. The third type is the “need to” commitment: Bragg (2002) believes that these employees feel obliged to stay in the organisation as they have a value system that tells them it is not yet time to leave the organisation.

D. The fourth type is the “uncommitted and disconnect” type: These are the employees who are always on the lookout for something “else”. They have no intention of staying in the organisation long term or they are just not committed and have no loyalty to the organisation. According to Bragg (2002) in every organisation there is 20-30 percent of employees in this situation.

2.1.3 THE THREE COMPONENT MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT



This model consists of three components namely; Affective commitment, Continuance commitment and Normative commitment. This will be explained in detail further in the chapter. But before we explain further Meyer and Herscovich (2001) caution that it is important to realise that three components of organisational commitment are not mutually exclusive. Each employee could have the commitment profile of all three components of commitment but they vary in levels of intensity.

2.1.3.1 CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Continuance commitment is defined by Hartmann and Bambacas (2000) as the relation to perceived costs of leaving, both financial and non financial and a perceived lack of alternatives. According to Meyer and Allen (1984) continuance commitment may refer to any thing of value that an employee has invested in the organisation that would be lost or deemed worthless if the employee leaves the organisation. Continuance commitment can also be seen as the propensity for employees to feel obligation to their organisations because of the associated costs of leaving (Buitendach & deWitt, 2005).

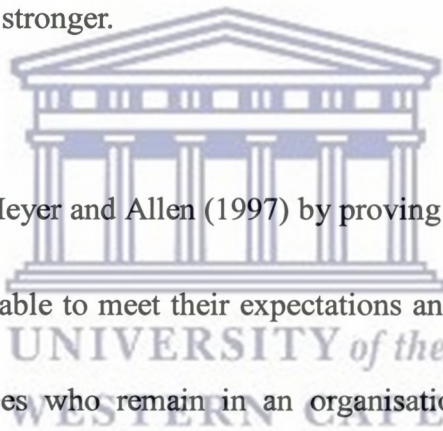


2.1.3.2 AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Affective organisational commitment is conceptualised as “an individual’s attitude towards the organisation, consisting of a strong belief in, and acceptance of, an organisation’s goals, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation” (Mowday et al., 1982 cited in Eby et al., 1999, p. 464; Stander & Rothmann, 2008).

Meyer and Allen (1991) say in short affective commitment can be seen as the desire to

remain in the organisation. They also define affective commitment as the employee's feelings and attachment to the organisation as well as the work they do. Bagraim and Sader (2007) claim it is an emotion -based sense of involvement and identification with the organisation. Affective commitment is mainly developed through working experience and Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that if the work environment and actual job are consistent with the employee's expectations the bond between the organisation and the employee becomes stronger.



Bagraim (2003) supports Meyer and Allen (1997) by proving that affective commitment develops if employees are able to meet their expectations and fulfill their needs within the organisation. Employees who remain in an organisation because they want to, generally act in the organisation's interest and are less likely to leave the organisation. (Bagraim & Sader, 2007; Stander & Rothmann, 2008).

2.1.3.3 NORMATIVE COMMITMENT

Normative commitment denotes a socialised sense of moral obligation to the organisation or a felt need to reciprocate to the organisation for the benefits received (Bagraim & Sader, 2007). Bagraim (2003) conceptualises normative commitment as the

belief that employees have an obligation to their organisations. Sparrow and Cooper (2003) suggest that normative commitment encompasses an employee's felt obligation and responsibility towards an organisation and is based on feelings of loyalty and obligation. This commitment is developed over time through socialised beliefs about the importance of loyalty and a growing sense obligation to reciprocate for what is provided by the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.2 ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

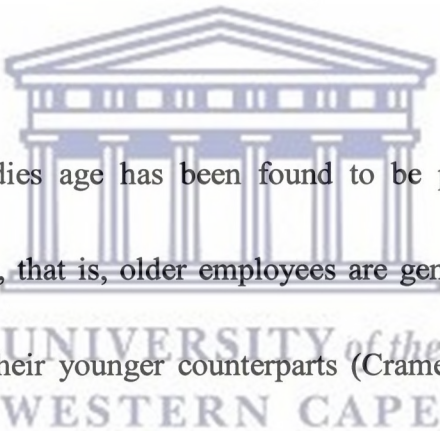


According to Mowday, et al. (1982) the major determinants of organisational commitment can be divided into four distinct categories: personal determinants, role-related determinants, work-experience determinants, and structural determinants. The research pertaining to each of these antecedent categories is outlined below.

2.2.1 PERSONAL DETERMINANTS

Numerous studies have been undertaken to investigate the personal correlates of organisational commitment. Consequently, personal characteristics such as age, tenure, educational level, gender, and various personality factors have been found to exert an influence on organisational commitment.

2.2.1.1 Age



Across organisational, studies age has been found to be positively correlated with organisational commitment, that is, older employees are generally more committed to the organisation than are their younger counterparts (Cramer, 1993; Loscocco, 1990; Luthans, 1992; Luthans, et al., 1987; Mowday, et al, 1982; Sekaran; 1992). Some researchers, however, maintain that this relationship is weak (Kacmar, Carlson & Brymer, 1999), while others claim that no significant relationship exists (Billingsley & Cross, 1992).

The literature identifies primarily two reasons for the positive association between commitment and age. Firstly, as individuals age, alternative employment opportunities

tend to decrease, making their current jobs more attractive (Kacmar, et al., 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, et al, 1982). Secondly, older individuals may be more committed to their organisations because they have a stronger investment and a greater history with the organisation than do younger employees (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Kacmar, et al., 1999; Stander & Rothmann, 2008).

It has be found that the older the employees the more committed they are to the organisation. Research (Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994) indicates a significant relationship between organisational commitment and age. Meyer & Allen, 1997; Cramer, 1993 and Lok & Crawford, 1999) support the findings that the relationship between organisational commitment and age is significant. Specifically research proved that Affective commitment is positively correlated with age. Allen and Meyer (1993) suggest three reasonable explanations as to why there is a significant relationship between age and commitment.

- A. The maturity explanation suggests that aging predisposes older employees to be more committed to their organisations.
- B. The better experience explanation denotes that the older employees perceive that their experience with the organisation is better than that of new and younger employees.
- C. The cohort explanations suggest that there are generational differences

in organisation commitment.

Therefore, younger employees are generally likely to be more mobile and to have lower psychological investments in the organisation. The older employees become, the less willing they are to sacrifice the benefits and idiosyncratic credits that are associated with seniority in the organisation (Hellman, 1997).

2.2.1.2 Tenure



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Research overwhelmingly indicates that tenure has a positive influence on organisational commitment (Gaffoor & Cloete, 2010). Moreover, Loscocco (1990) found tenure to be a particularly strong predictor of commitment in female employees. The reason for the positive relationship between tenure and commitment may be sought in the reduction of employment opportunities and the increase in the personal investments that the individual has in the organisation. This is likely to lead to an increase in the individual's psychological attachment to the organisation (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Lim, et al., 1998; Luthans, 1992; Mowday, et al., 1982). It is further

held by Sekaran (1992) that tenure generally carries with it some status and prestige, and that this induces greater commitment and loyalty to the employing organisation.

However, researchers such as Luthans, McCaul and Dodd (1985), cited in Vorster (1992), failed to find support for the relationship between tenure and organisational commitment. This is further substantiated by Cramer (1993) who contends that longer tenure is not associated with greater commitment when age, rather than age at joining the organisation, is controlled.



Tenure or the length of service of employees contributes towards increasing the employees' levels of commitment towards the organisation. The relationship between organisational commitment and tenure has been shown to be positive (Allen & Meyer, 1993). It has been reasoned that more experienced employees tend to get more attractive positions in the organisation and over the time the less committed employees leave the organisation (Xu & Bassham, 2010).

One possible reason for the positive relationship between tenure and commitment may be sought in the reduction of employment opportunities and the increase in the personal investments that the individual has in the organisation. This is likely to lead to an increase in the individual's psychological attachment to the organisation (Harrison &

Hubbard, 1998). Sekaran (1992) maintains that tenure is associated with some status and prestige, and that this induces greater commitment and loyalty to the employing organisation. Kinnear and Sutherland's (2000) research did not find support for the relationship between organisational commitment and tenure.

2.2.1.3 Level of education

Research generally indicates an inverse relationship between organisational commitment and an individual's level of education, however, the results are not entirely consistent (Martin & Roodt, 2008). A number of researchers maintain that the higher an employee's level of education, the lower that individual's level of organisational commitment (Luthans, et al., 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, et al., 1982).

The negative relationship may result from the fact that highly qualified employees have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to fulfil.

More educated individuals may also be more committed to their profession or trade.

As a result, it would become difficult for an organisation to compete successfully for the psychological involvement of these employees (Ferreira et al., 2010). It is also suggested by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) that more highly qualified individuals have a

greater number of alternative work opportunities. However, Billingsley and Cross (1992) failed to find support for a relationship between education and commitment. Still other studies, such as that by Loscocco (1990), revealed a negative association between commitment and education among male employees, but failed to find a link between these two variables among females.

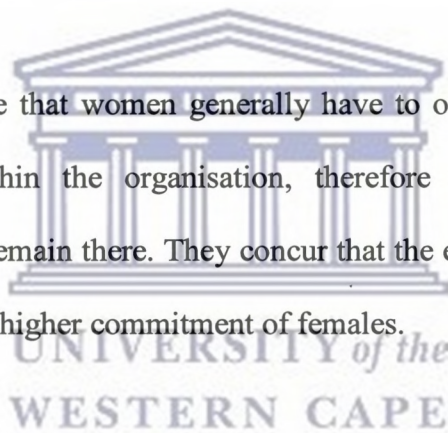
Chusmir (1982), cited in Vorster (1992), on the other hand, maintains that there is a positive relationship between educational qualifications and commitment, and that education may serve as a predictor of organisational commitment, particularly amongst working women. Clearly, additional research is needed if definitive conclusions are to be drawn regarding the relationship between organisational commitment and education.

2.2.1.4 Gender

The influence of gender on organisational commitment remains unclear. The general contention appears to be that women as a group tend to be more committed to their employing organisation than are their male counterparts (Cramer, 1993; Harrison &

Hubbard, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, et al., 1982). More specifically, a study by Loscocco (1990), in which commitment was measured with the aid of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), revealed that women were more likely to report that they are proud to work for their organisation, that their values and the company's values are similar, and that they would accept almost any job offered to them in order to remain with their current employer.

Ferriera et al. (2010) argue that women generally have to overcome more barriers to attain their positions within the organisation, therefore when they enter in an organisation they want to remain there. They concur that the effort required to enter the organisation translates into higher commitment of females.



Several explanations have been offered to account for the greater commitment of female employees. Mowday, et al. (1982) hold that women generally have to overcome more barriers to attain their positions within the organisation. The extra effort required to enter the organisation is, consequently, reflected in the higher commitment of female employees. Harrison and Hubbard (1998) are further of the opinion that women display greater commitment because they encounter fewer options for employment. Sekaran (1992), on the other hand, suggests that the situation may be explained by the

fact that women are generally dual-income family members who would not be unduly concerned with making more money, but are inclined to derive satisfaction by doing the best job where they are.

However, Blau and Boal (1989), cited in Vorster (1992), hold that men demonstrate greater organisational commitment than women do. This contention may be explained by two factors (Ngo & Tsang, 1998). Firstly, the sexual divisions of labour may constrain and reduce a woman's involvement and commitment at work. Secondly, men and women may develop different career strategies and may have different perceptions and responses to the same employment situation. In this sense, gender acts as a moderating variable between organisational commitment and some employment practices.

Numerous other researchers have, however, failed to find support for a relationship between gender and organisational commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Ngo & Tsang, 1998; Wahn, 1998). It may, thus, be concluded that a growing body of evidence

appears to support either no gender differences in organisational commitment or the greater commitment of women (Wahn, 1998).

2.2.1.5 Personality factors

Various personality factors have been found to be related to organisational commitment.


According to Mowday, et al. (1982) commitment is linked to achievement motivation, sense of competence, and other higher-order needs. These authors further state that employees with a work-oriented central life interest and a strong personal work ethic tend to more committed to the organisation. Moreover, Vorster (1992) points out that a positive self-esteem has been found to be a predictor of organisational commitment.

Morrison (1997), on the other hand, found neuroticism to be significantly and inversely correlated with organisational commitment.

Furthermore, a study by Lim, et al. (1998) revealed significant differences in the commitment of employees with an internal and external locus of control. The individuals labelled as “internals” were found to exhibit substantially higher levels of

organisational commitment. It is likely that employees with an internal locus of control feel that they have greater command over their work environment, and consequently experience higher levels of organisational commitment (Lim, et al., 1998). Luthans, et al. (1987) and Kinicki and Vecchio (1994) reported similar findings.

2.2.2 ROLE-RELATED DETERMINANTS



The second group of correlates of organisational commitment identified in the literature pertains to the employee's roles and job characteristics (Mowday, et al., 1982). Role-related determinants of organisational commitment include job scope, job level, role conflict, role ambiguity, compensation, and performance feedback.

2.2.2.1 Job scope

Research examining the relationship between job scope and organisational commitment supports the hypothesis that increased job scope increases the challenge that employees experience, thereby raising their level of organisational commitment (Brewer, 1996; Mowday, et al., 1982; Vorster, 1992). Mowday, et al. (1982) further point out that

implicit in this hypothesis is the notion of exchange, that is, employees are believed to respond positively when provided with greater challenge in their jobs.

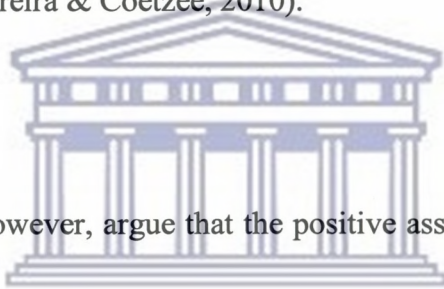
While little further research appears to have been conducted concerning the relationship between job challenge and organisational commitment, certain studies have indicated a positive and significant association between commitment and skill variety. In other words, the wider the variety of skills that the job enables the employee to utilize, the higher the employee's level of commitment (Eby, et al., 1999; Ferreira et al, 2010).



2.2.2.2 Job level

An individual's level within the organisational hierarchy has been found to be correlated with organisational commitment. Researchers such as Luthans, et al. (1987), maintain that individuals who hold higher positions within the organisation express greater levels of commitment. A further study by Dutta Roy and Ghose (1997) lent some support to this position.

The latter authors postulate that higher-ranking employees are more interested in organisational goals and objectives, while lower-level employees concern themselves more with the daily operations of the organisation. Furthermore, because the organisation's goals may be affected by conditions in the external environment, and because employees at a higher level are more inclined to be apprised of these conditions, it is likely that they would feel more committed to the organisation than lower-level employees (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010).



Aryee and Heng (1990), however, argue that the positive association between job level and commitment may be due to the fact that higher-level employees are more likely to receive larger economic rewards and are more likely to perceive the system of authority as legitimate. However, Mowday, et al. (1982, p. 33) hold that occupational level is unrelated to organisational commitment, and that “although different organisations manifest different overall levels of employee commitment, this commitment is equally strong up and down the organisational hierarchy”.

2.2.2.3 Role conflict

According to Mondy, Noe, and Premeaux (1999, p.476) role conflict is “a condition that occurs when an individual is placed in the position of having to pursue opposing goals.”

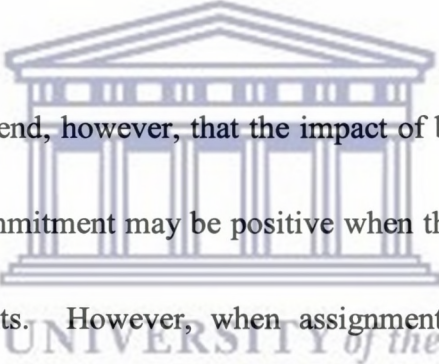
While few studies have investigated the relationship between organisational commitment and role conflict, an inverse relationship has generally been found between these two variables (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Mowday, et al., 1982; Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989).

Researchers such as Boshoff and Mels (1995) and MacKenzie, et al. (1998) report a direct negative relationship between role conflict and organisational commitment.

Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell, and Black (1990), on the other hand, detected only an indirect influence, with the relationship between role conflict and commitment being mediated by job satisfaction as well as by role ambiguity. However, Vorster (1992), in a study involving women employed in a high-technology manufacturing organisation, failed to establish a relationship between commitment and role conflict.

2.2.2.4 Role ambiguity

Role ambiguity exists when employees lack a clear understanding concerning the content of their jobs (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). The majority of commitment research indicates that role ambiguity, like role conflict, exerts a direct and negative influence on organisational commitment (Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Ferreira et al., 2010). Johnston, et al. (1990) support these findings and further argue that role ambiguity is a direct determinant of organisational commitment during the early stages of employment.



Mowday, et al. (1982) contend, however, that the impact of both role conflict and role stress on organisational commitment may be positive when the employee has clear and challenging job assignments. However, when assignments become ambiguous or place the employee in conflict, the impact on commitment is likely to be adverse.

2.2.2.5 Pay

According to Vorster (1992) little empirical evidence exists to suggest that there is a positive relationship between the amount of pay that an employee receives and

organisational commitment. Indeed, Young, et al. (1998) argue that satisfaction with pay does not correlate significantly with commitment.

However, Darden, Hampton and Howell (1989), cited in Vorster (1992), maintain that the greater the amount of pay received, the greater the degree of commitment. Both Brewer (1996) and Cramer (1993), who found pay dissatisfaction to be a significant predictor of low organisational commitment, support this position.




Several other researchers, however, argue that it is not the absolute amount of pay that fosters commitment, but that commitment is influenced rather by distributive and procedural justice. Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness or equity in the type and amount of rewards that organisational members receive, while procedural justice is the perceived fairness of the methods used to arrive at these decisions (Aamodt, 1999; Kacmar, et al., 1999).

Support for this contention is provided by a number of studies that have revealed distributive justice to be a consistent predictor of commitment (Hendrix, et al., 1998;

Kacmar, et al., 1999; Taylor & Pierce, 1999). Hendrix, et al. (1998) further found procedural justice perceptions to be associated with organisational commitment. Organisations may thus be able to increase the commitment shown by their employees by providing fair and equitable rewards.

2.2.2.6 Opportunities for promotion



Certain researchers maintain that organisational commitment is strongly related to opportunities for promotion, that is, the better the chances of promotion, the higher the levels of commitment demonstrated by employees (Brewer, 1996; Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989).

In a study by Young, et al. (1998) satisfaction with promotional opportunities was indeed found to be positively and significantly correlated with organisational commitment. Vorster (1992) further states that managers experiencing maximum career mobility are more committed to their employing organisations.

As is the case with pay, however, it is likely that the impact of promotional opportunities on organisational commitment is determined more by the perceived equity thereof than by the actual opportunities themselves (Kacmar, et al., 1999).

2.2.3 WORK EXPERIENCE DETERMINANTS

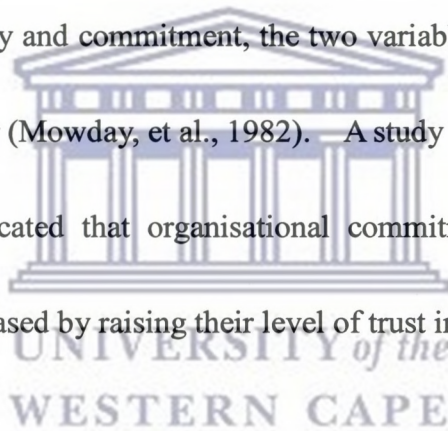
Work-experience correlates of organisational commitment represent those experiences to which employees are exposed during their tenure with the organisation. These experiences are viewed as a major socializing force and, as such, they exercise an important influence on the degree to which psychological attachments are formed with the organisation (Mowday, et al., 1982).

Work-experience determinants of organisational commitment include organisational dependability, personal importance to the organisation, fulfilment of expectations, leadership style, social involvement, and the influence of co-workers.

2.2.3.1 Organisational dependability

Organisational dependability refers to the extent to which employees feel the organisation can be counted on to look after their interests (Mowday, et al., 1982).

While little research has been undertaken to investigate the relationship between organisational dependability and commitment, the two variables appear to be positively correlated with one another (Mowday, et al., 1982). A study by Pasewark and Strawser (1996), for example, indicated that organisational commitment among professional accountants might be increased by raising their level of trust in the organisation.



2.2.3.2 Personal importance to the organisation

While researchers appear to have paid little attention to this determinant of organisational commitment, Mowday, et al. (1982), nevertheless, point out that employees' feelings of personal importance to the organisation are related to their level of commitment. That is, when employees feel that they are needed or important to the

organisation's mission and objectives, their commitment attitudes tend to increase.

2.2.3.3 Fulfillment of expectations

Research on organisational commitment has established that a direct positive relationship exists between the extent to which an individual's expectations are met within the organisation and the employee's level of commitment to that organisation (Maharaj & Schlechter, 2008).



Holton and Russell (1999) argue that early expectations lead to perceptions and cognitions, which then influence the employees' assessment of the extent to which their expectations have been met, which will in turn have an impact on organisational commitment. Unmet expectations will result either in the individual leaving the organisation or in a reduction in the employee's level of organisational commitment (Vorster, 1992).

2.2.3.4 Leadership style

Literature is consistent concerning the association between the supervisor-subordinate relationship and organisational commitment. More specifically, the greater employees' satisfaction with supervision, the higher their level of commitment (Aamodt, 1999; Kacmar, et al., 1999; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Luthans, 1992; Ting, 1997).

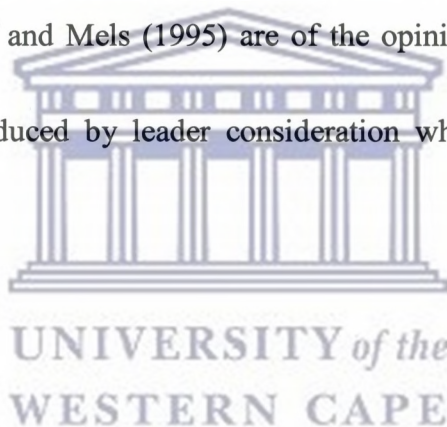
Particularly three aspects of leader behaviour have been shown to impact on the organisational commitment of employees. These are leader initiating structure, leader consideration, and performance feedback.



Initiating structure involves behaviours that are concerned with productivity, planning, co-ordinating, disciplining, clarifying, and problem solving (Yukl, 1981). The literature generally indicates that a positive correlation is found between initiating structure and employee commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Luthans, et al., 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, et al., 1982). Boshoff and Mels (1995), however, suggest that the relationship between leader initiating structure and commitment is largely indirect, that is, initiating structure serves to lower

role ambiguity, which will in turn facilitate greater commitment amongst employees.

Leader consideration includes behaviours that are concerned with supportiveness, consultation, representation, and recognition (Yukl, 1981). Like initiating structure, consideration shows a positive association with organisational commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, et al., 1982). However, Boshoff and Mels (1995) are of the opinion that both role conflict and role ambiguity are reduced by leader consideration which, consequently, raises employee commitment.



Finally, organisational commitment is enhanced under conditions of high performance feedback (Eby, et al., 1999; Tziner & Latham, 1989). According to Eby, et al. (1999) feedback plays an important role in fostering perceptions among employees that they are valuable contributors to the organisation's goals. Without such feedback, "even the most challenging and meaningful jobs may fail to foster commitment because an individual's role in the overall functioning of the organisation is unclear." (Eby, et al., 1999, p.468)

Furthermore, as noted by Tziner and Latham (1989), people are basically feedback seekers as this enables them to assess how well they are meeting organisational expectations and work requirements. Boshoff and Mels (1995) support this view, but maintain that the relationship between performance feedback and organisational commitment is largely mediated by role conflict and job satisfaction. Therefore, the literature advocates that organisational commitment is likely to be enhanced by a leadership style that is characterized by high initiating structure, high consideration, and high levels of performance feedback.

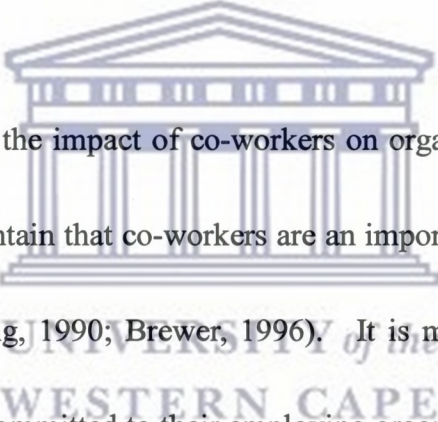


2.2.3.5 Social involvement

According to Mowday, et al. (1982) an employee's degree of social involvement within the organisation facilitates commitment. The greater the social interaction within the organisation, the more social ties the individual develops. Consequently, the link between the individual and the employer becomes stronger (Mowday, et al., 1982).

The above position found some support in a study by Wech, Mossholder, Steel, and Bennett (1998) who found that cohesiveness among group members led them to perceive greater social involvement in the organisation, which in turn stimulated greater organisational commitment.

2.2.3.6 Co-workers



While literature concerning the impact of co-workers on organisational commitment is limited, certain authors maintain that co-workers are an important variable in predicting commitment (Aryee & Heng, 1990; Brewer, 1996). It is maintained that employees are more likely to become committed to their employing organisations when they derive respect, friendliness and trust from their work relationships, and when they have faith in the ability of their co-workers. However, in a study involving blue-collar employees, Loscocco (1990) found co-worker relations to enhance only the organisational commitment of male employees.

2.3.4 STRUCTURAL DETERMINANTS

The structural correlates of organisational commitment constitute a relatively new area of investigation. While significant attention has been paid to the way in which structure affects other job-related attitudes, little has been done with respect to commitment (Mowday, et al., 1982).

Mowday et al. (1982) maintain that formalization, functional dependence and decentralization are related to commitment. That is, employees experiencing greater decentralization, greater dependence on the work of others, and greater formality of written rules and procedures feel more committed to the organisation than employees who experience these factors to a lesser extent (Mowday, et al., 1982). The positive association between decentralized authority and commitment was substantiated in a study by Brewer (1996). Employees who were assigned tasks and provided with the freedom to implement them without interruption demonstrated higher levels of organisational commitment.

Furthermore, studies focusing on the effects of worker ownership found that employees are significantly more committed when they have a vested financial interest in the

organisation (Mowday, et al., 1982). Mowday, et al. (1982) also indicate that participation in decision-making has an impact on organisational commitment. A number of studies supported this argument (Brewer, 1996; Chieffo, 1991; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998). Boshoff and Mels (1995), however, established that only an indirect positive relationship exists between participation in decision-making and organisational commitment, with the relationship between these variables being moderated by both job satisfaction and role conflict.

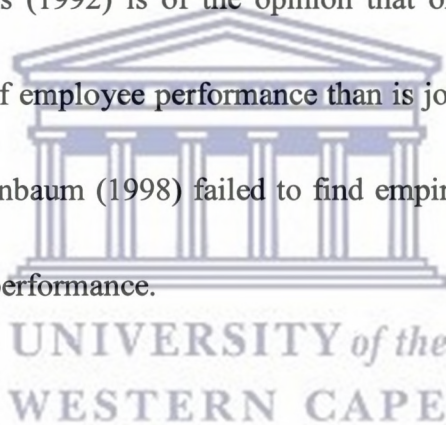
2.4 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT



The consequences of organisational commitment have been a contentious issue in research, with studies yielding inconsistent results. Nevertheless, a number of outcomes can generally be identified. These include job performance, tenure, tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover.

2.4.1 Job performance

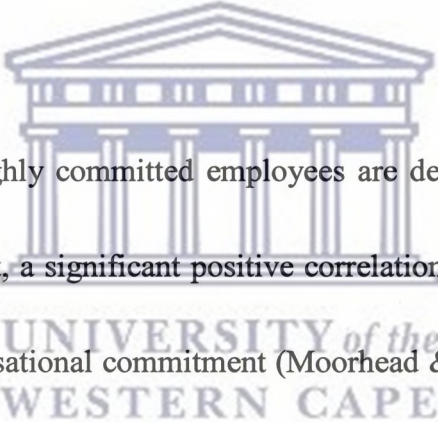
Evidence concerning the impact of organisational commitment on job performance is mixed. Several authors maintain that the relationship between organisational commitment and performance is positive, that is, greater organisational commitment fosters higher levels of productivity (Aryee & Heng, 1990; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). Benkhoff (1997) supports such an association and found employee commitment to be significantly related to the financial success of bank branches. In fact, Luthans (1992) is of the opinion that organisational commitment may be a better predictor of employee performance than is job satisfaction. However, a study by Somers and Birnbaum (1998) failed to find empirical evidence for any link between commitment and performance.



According to Mowday, et al. (1982) there is a weak positive correlation between commitment and performance. These authors maintain that factors, such as the employee's motivational level, role clarity, and ability, also have an impact on performance, and that these may account for the weak correlation. "Even so, we would expect commitment to influence the amount of effort an employee puts forth on the job and this effort should have some influence on actual performance." (Mowday, et al., 1982, p.36). A recent study by Testa (2001) substantiated this claim by revealing

that organisational commitment moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and employee effort in a service environment.

2.4.2 Tenure



Literature indicates that highly committed employees are desirous to remain with the organisation, and as a result, a significant positive correlation exists between increased tenure and increased organisational commitment (Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Mowday, et al., 1982). Arnold and Feldman (1982) and Miller and Wheeler (1992), both cited in Lim, et al. (1998), support this view and found employees' tenure to be related to their intention to leave the organisation.

As indicated by Mowday, et al. (1982), however, the direction of the causal arrow is unclear. In other words, it is likely that longer tenure in the organisation raises the commitment of employees.

2.4.3 Tardiness

In a study by Angle and Perry (1981), referred to in Vorster (1992), organisational commitment was found to be strongly and inversely related to employee tardiness. Luthans (1992) and Mowday, et al. (1982) support this view, and maintain that highly committed employees are likely to engage in behaviours that are consistent with their attitudes towards the organisation, which would include refraining from being tardy.

2.4.4 Absenteeism



Theory would predict that highly committed individuals would be more motivated to attend so that they could facilitate organisational goal attainment (Mowday et al., 1982).

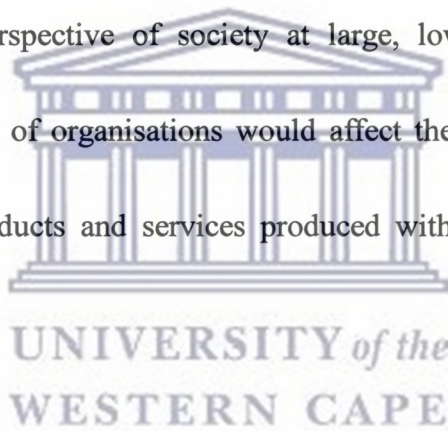
Studies to date have yielded evidence in support of this, and indicate that a negative relationship exists between organisational commitment and absenteeism (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead and Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 2001).

2.5 SUMMARY OF SECTION

Both the extent and the quality of the link between the organisation and the employee are of central importance to the individual, the organisation, and to society as a whole (Mowday, et al., 1982).

From the perspective of the individual, joining and staying with an organisation provides a continuing source of rewards, both economic and psychological.

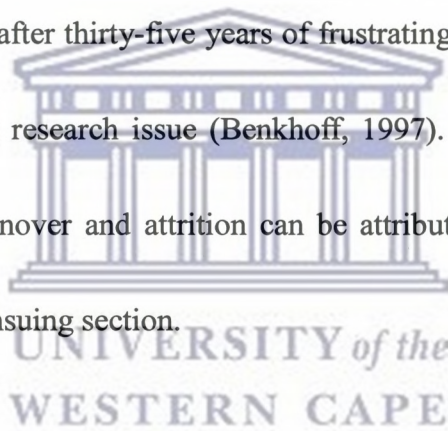
Furthermore, from the perspective of society at large, low levels of commitment throughout a large number of organisations would affect the level of productivity, as well as the quality of products and services produced within that particular society (Ferreira & Cloete, 2010).



However, it is probably the organisation itself that stands to benefit most from having a committed workforce. Organisations need to avoid the excessive costs associated with high rates of absenteeism and turnover. One way to avoid such behaviour, but certainly not the only way, is to develop among employees strong feelings of psychological attachment to the organisation. Furthermore, although research has produced mixed results concerning the impact of organisational commitment on

productivity, it nevertheless appears as though such a relationship does exist. If this is indeed the case, it may be said that no organisation can afford to ignore the commitment of its workforce (Ferreira et al. 2010).

In sum, therefore, it is necessary that the processes involved in organisational commitment be understood so as to optimize the benefits for all parties concerned. It is for this reason that even after thirty-five years of frustrating results, commitment still promises to be an exciting research issue (Benkhoff, 1997). One of the other factors associated with teacher turnover and attrition can be attributed to occupational stress which is addressed in the ensuing section.

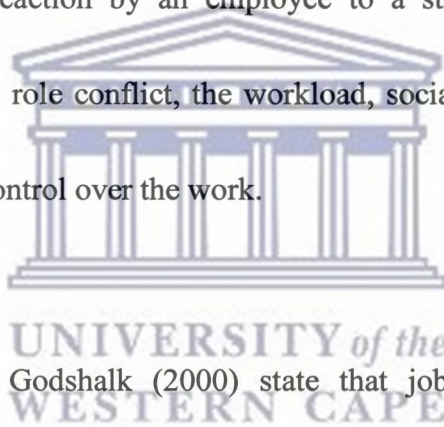


2.6 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS IN TEACHERS

There are a plethora of research studies documenting various aspects of educators stress, including its prevalence, effects and the strategies that educators use to cope with stressful situations (Steyn & Kamper, 2006). While some research suggests that educators are committed to their profession, the literature indicates that some aspects of teachers' work is becoming progressively more stressful (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Olivier

& Venter, 2003).

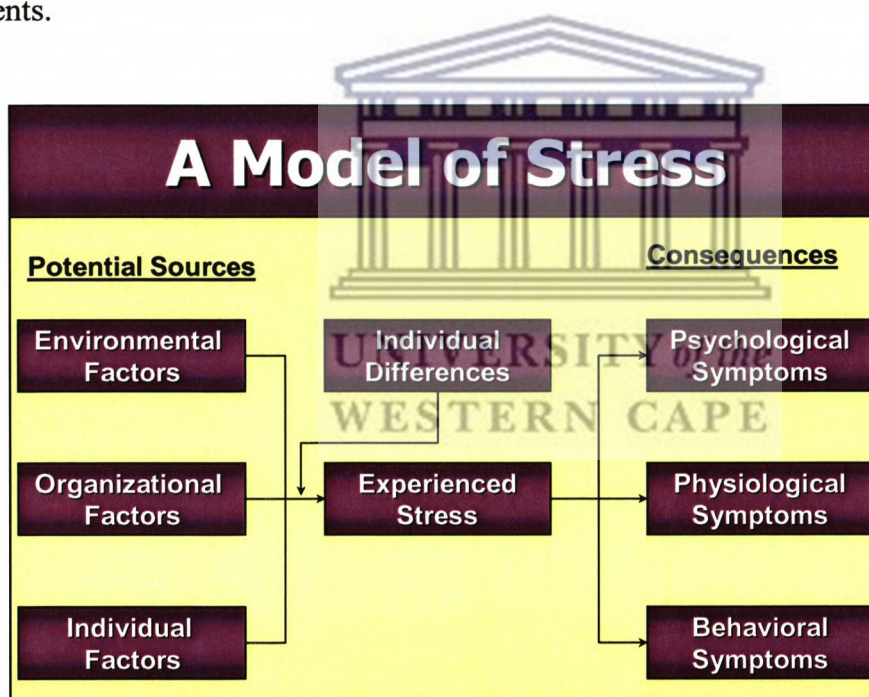
Warr (2002) describes workplace stress as the process that links the environmental stimulus, called a stressor, to that of job strain, which is the individual's response to the stimulus or event and the antecedent of stress. Spector (2006) defines job stress as a condition or situation at work that needs an adaptive response from the employee, and job strain as a negative reaction by an employee to a stressor. Spector lists job stressors as role ambiguity, role conflict, the workload, social stressors, organisational politics and the degree of control over the work.



Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2000) state that job stress results when an individual is confronted by an opportunity, a constraint, or a demand, of which the outcome is uncertain, but for which a particular reaction is required, and hence, aroused only if the outcome of the stimulus is deemed important to the individual. Greenhaus et al. explain that job stress can be produced by work situations that are ambiguous, that overloads or under-loads the capacity of the individual, that require extraordinary time constraints, organisational policy and characteristics, job demands, role characteristics, interpersonal relationships, working conditions and career concerns like obsolescence,

discrimination and threatened job loss, and career transitional issues.

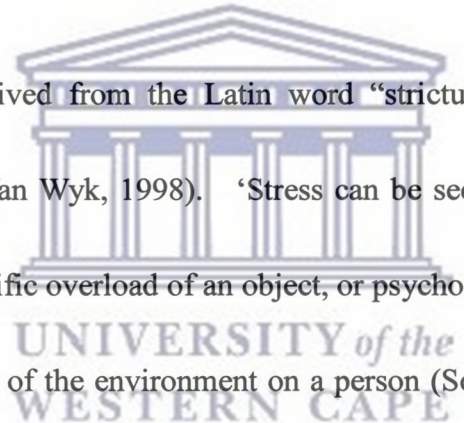
Greenberg and Baron (2000) surmise that stress is the complex pattern of emotional states, physiological reactions and related thoughts in response to external demands referred to as stressors, and to strain as the accumulated effect of stress, which results primarily in deviations from the normal states or performance and exposure to stressful events.



Arnold, Cooper and Robertson (1998) refer to stress as any force that pushes a psychological or physical factor beyond its range of stability and produces a strain within the individual, and when the knowledge that a stress is likely to occur represents a threat to the individual, or causes a strain on the individual. Certain employees,

especially those representing minority groups, also experience stress if they face bias and discrimination (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

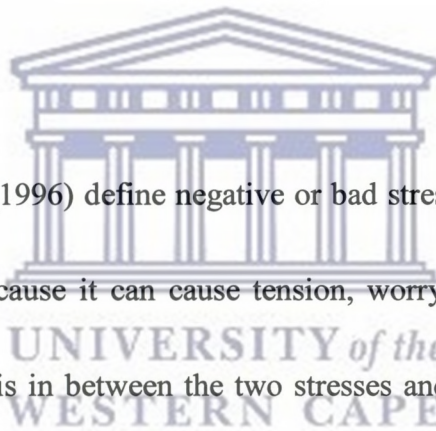
2.7 DEFINITIONS OF STRESS



The concept stress is derived from the Latin word “strictus” which when literally translated means “taut” (Van Wyk, 1998). ‘Stress can be seen as a physical force or pressure, or extreme scientific overload of an object, or psychological condition brought about by specific demands of the environment on a person (Selye, 1974) in Oliver and Venter (2003). For the purpose of this research stress is seen as a psychological concept with negative connotations which refers to the response or results from the inability to cope with physical and/or mental demands, real or perceived, made on teachers as a result of their profession which in turn may cause an unpleasant emotional state (Venter & Oliver, 2003).

Everley and Rosenfeld (1991) in Oliver and Venter (2003) relayed that complete

freedom from stress as death because there is stress that acts as behavioural motivation and without that stress we might not be as motivated and they suggest that this stress is necessary and it contributes to a person's adequate functioning in life. Too much or too little stress can reduce a person's productivity. Positive or good stress; like an opportunity or a challenge is called "eustress" by Fisher (1994) Arslan, Dilmac and Hamarta (2009) state that positive stress may lead to physical and mental growth and maturation changes.



While Kieper and Buselle (1996) define negative or bad stress, like tension, worry and frustration as "distress" because it can cause tension, worry and frustration. There is another kind of stress that is in between the two stresses and it can be manifested by change, noise and discomfort and this is known as "neutral" stress. The critical difference between positive and negative stress depends on how a person perceives stress generating event or environment and how he copes with it (Arslan, et.al., 2009). Coping with stress is discussed at a later stage in the chapter.

2.8 MODELS OF STRESS

There are several models of stress which have been proposed in the literature.

2.8.1 THE PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT MODEL OF STRESS

Harden (1999) explains that in the person-environment fit model of stress, stress is seen as a result of a mismatch between the requirements and the demands of the job and the individual's real or perceived ability to meet the required demands, for example an imbalance of staff, poor discipline amongst learners, changes in educational approaches, and curriculum changes. Harden also highlights other sources of stress namely, quantitative work overloading, role conflict and role ambiguity, which results when teachers are unclear about their responsibilities.

2.8.2 THE DEMAND-CONTROL MODEL:

This model states that the effects of job stressors are a complex interplay of demands and employee control, wherein demands are stressors that need adaptation, and that they

only lead to strain if there is insufficient control, and that the act of controlling the demand is the stress buffer (Warr, 2002). In Harden (1999) the demand-control model decision latitude and job demands are the two main factors that determine job strain, and it is said that individuals who have a sense of control over their work when confronted with a stressor, are less affected by stress at work and perceive change and problems as challenges and not threats. From this model one can conclude that greater stress will be experienced by the types of work with high demands and low decision latitude (Harden, 1999).



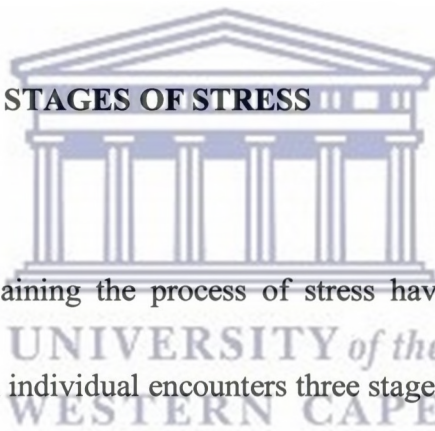
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Warr (2002) supports a model of stress which concludes that job strain results when there is a mismatch between the person and their environment, especially on the dimensions deemed important for the well-being of the individual. In the stress model, the relationship between person-environment misfit and strain is illustrated as a U-shaped curve, and for each individual's capabilities there are optimal levels of environmental demands, and, when optimal levels are reached, the strain will be minimal, and likewise, with too little or too much demand, strain increases (Warr, 2002).

2.8.3 THE CYBERNETIC THEORY OF STRESS

Warr (2002) describes that in the cybernetic theory, stress is depicted to not only affect the well-being of the individual, but that it also stimulates coping responses that have a direct effect on the cause of the strain, in that through confronting the stressor, the issue has a higher potential for being resolved.

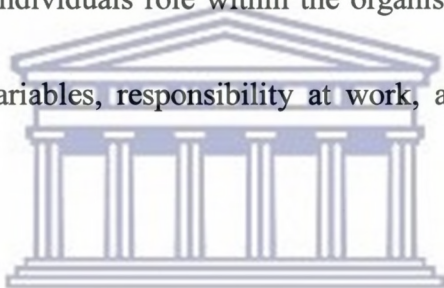
2.8.4 SELEYE'S THREE STAGES OF STRESS



Scientific attempts at explaining the process of stress have included that of Seleye (1946), which states that an individual encounters three stages in stressful situations, the first being the alarm reaction, in which the initial phase of low resistance is followed by counter-shock, wherein an individuals' defense mechanisms become active; the second stage is that of resistance, here there is either maximum adaptation or a return to equilibrium, however, if the stress agent continues, the individual moves on to the third stage called exhaustion, and here adaptive mechanisms collapse (Arnold et al., 1998).

2.9 THE SOURCES OF JOB STRESS

Arnold et al. (1998) argue that factorial contributions to job stress are factors intrinsic to the job, like working conditions, shift work, working long hours, the risk and danger involved with the work, new technology, work overload, work under-load, and the factors that stem from the individuals role within the organisation like role ambiguity, role conflict, personality variables, responsibility at work, and finally the quality of relationships at work.




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According to Nel et al. (2001), the two main sources of job stress are environmental and personal. Environmental sources of job stress are external and include revised work procedures, new workplace facilities, the pace of work, job security, the route to and from work, and the number and nature of customers or clients, change, work-underload or overload, the changing mix of the workforce, and organisational requirements (Nel et al., 2001).

Greenberg and Baron (2000) list work-related causes of stress to be the occupational

demands inherent to the type of work, conflict between work and non-work demands (called role conflict), uncertainty about what is expected (referred to as role ambiguity), being overloaded with work, being under-loaded with work, the lack of social support and sexual harassment. Miner (1992) suggests that external sources of stress are role conflict, role ambiguity, role conflict, rotating shift work and sick organisations (which are organisations with high stress levels) and with individuals that experience high frequencies of headaches, faintness, nausea and illness.

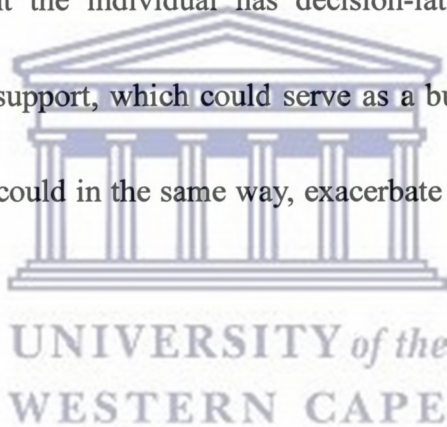


Sources of job strain among employees have been found to be the intrinsic job characteristics, organisational roles, work relationships, career development, organisational structure, organisational climate and the home-work interface (Warr, 2002).

2.10 JOB STRESS, THE INDIVIDUAL, AND THE MODERATORS OF JOB STRESS

Personal factors that vary the extent of stress experienced by individuals are personality type, tolerance for ambiguity, patience, self-esteem, health and exercise, work and sleep

patterns, financial trouble, divorce and sickness (Nel et al., 2001). Similarly, Warr (2002) identifies moderators of stress to be personal characteristics of which the personality type, negative affectivity and self-efficacy are argued to predispose the individual to displaying particular behaviour, job-related moderators namely situational control, which is the extent to which individuals believe that they can have control over tasks, the pace of the work, procedures for task completion, task scheduling, or more specifically, to what extent the individual has decision-latitude, and organisational moderators namely, social support, which could serve as a buffer against severe stress and eventual burnout, or it could in the same way, exacerbate the stress situation (Warr, 2002).



Greenhaus et al. (2000) add that the personal characteristics of the individual like high anxiety and individuals with personality Type A, have been found to affect levels of job stress and even potentially predispose individuals to experience stress. According to Warr (2002), when an individual perceives his resources or capabilities to exceed that of what the environment demands, then the result is stress, and this process is called cognitive appraisal, which comprises both primary cognitive appraisal, and where in the primary phase the strain is evaluated as a source of strain or a potential threat, and in the

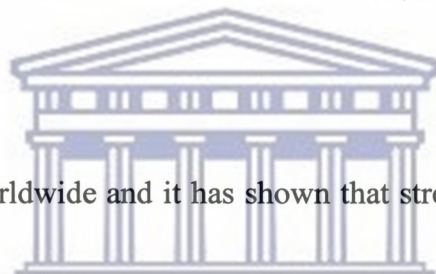
secondary cognitive appraisal phase the individual assesses his ability to cope with the situation if it be deemed threatening in the primary evaluation. In re-appraisal, the specific evaluation of whether or not attempts at coping have been successful, occurs (Warr, 2002).

Warr (2002) lists two types of behavioural indicators, of which the first category is significant to the organisation, and examples of these are job performance, turnover, and absenteeism, and the second category has greater salience for the individual, examples of which are substance abuse and destructive behaviour. In Warr (2002), the five categories of behavioural indicators have been labeled as work disruptions, job flight, aggressive behaviour, disruptions to non-work, self-damaging behaviours, and that sufficient caution needs to be taken when assessing whether the behavioural indicator is related to job stressors or whether it is a response triggered by off-the job factors or dispositional tendencies.

Greenhaus (2000) explains that career transitions also serve as a source of stress when the change is undesirable, when it involves extensive changes, when it is unexpected, when it is accompanied by other life transitions, when it is forced on an individual,

when the individual lacks the personal resources like self-esteem and tolerance for ambiguity to deal with the transition, when the individual lacks support from family, friends or the organisation, and when the individual lacks the ability to cope with the transition.

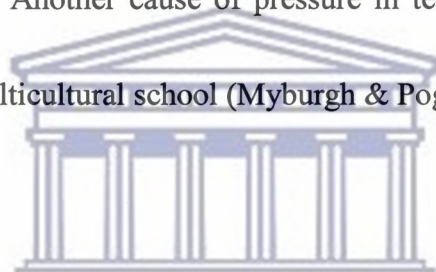
2.11 SOURCES OF STRESS AND OCCUPATIONAL COPING FOR TEACHERS



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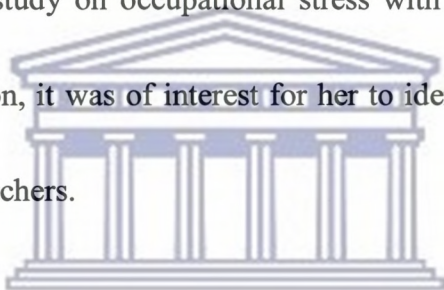
Research has been done worldwide and it has shown that stress in teacher is becoming an epidemic. A study done by Tang (2001) indicated that inadequate self efficacy and negative attitude amongst Chinese teachers resulted in burn out and was negatively linked to their mental health. Work demands, negative feedback and pupil bad behaviour were one of the factors that contributed to stress in Switzerland (Jacobsson, Pousette & Thylefors, 2001). Van dick, Phillips, Marburg and Wagner (2001) discovered that stress was the main cause of job dissatisfaction, job related illnesses and early retirement of teachers in England. When Pithers (1998) found that the same applies to teachers in Scotland and Australia he commented that more stress similarities that differences are found in comparison to teachers all over the world.

A number of factors have been proven to cause stress in South African teachers, amongst these are the government policies such as banning of corporal punishment, re-deployment of teachers, early retirement and retrenchments (Ngidi & Sibiya, 2002). Amongst black teachers poor working conditions may be a source of stress, poor physical working conditions such as over crowding also turn in to exacerbate problems for teachers (Ngidi, 1995). Another cause of pressure in teachers is the change from monocultural schools to multicultural school (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2002).



The South African education has also been in transition and change has been what is talked about for a while now. In Marais (1992) in Oliver and Venter (2003) found that the school system changing from traditional teaching to the Outcomes Based Education also contributed to the stress in teachers in South Africa. Amongst the stress factors he further found that the new approach of governing bodies in the schools, high crime rate in the country and coping with political change in the country put a great amount of stress in teachers. As discussed earlier stress can lead to burnout and when this happens there are noticeable behaviour changes, and teachers may lose the ability to function effectively at work (Berg, 1994).

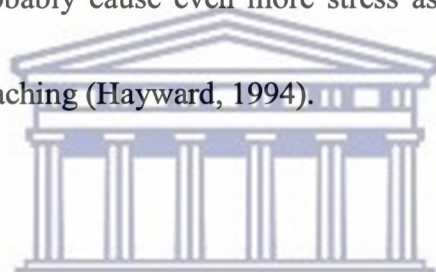
Paulse (2005) states that the role of teachers in mainstream schools have become more varied and challenging, that the growing number of learners needing special educational services is forcing schools to hire more educators, that the high teacher attrition rate affects the quality of education received by pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders whose behaviour demands more skilled and reliable support, and that in the context of her study on occupational stress with specific reference to the inclusive model of education, it was of interest for her to identify the factors that may influence stress levels of teachers.



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Oliver and Venter (2003) posit the view that stress is an occurrence that must be recognized and addressed within various professions and that the teaching profession is no exception. Paulse (2005) found that there has been an increase in the variation and challenges faced by teachers in mainstream schools, and that research indicates that the casual factors of stress include role overload, poor learner behaviour, lack of resources (Kyriacou, 1998); the number of individuals for whom teachers are responsible, diversity in individuals with whom they have to work, resistance and the lack of motivation of co-workers (Smylie, 1999).

Williams and Gersch (2004) found that there is an increasing recognition of the link between mental and physical health and occupational stress, and that mechanisms need to be put in place to improve the working lives of teachers. Van Zyl and Pietersen (1999) found that South African education is undergoing significant evolution because of political changes in the country, and that teachers have to adapt to the new reality. In addition, these changes probably cause even more stress as they impact on the basic occupational structure of teaching (Hayward, 1994).

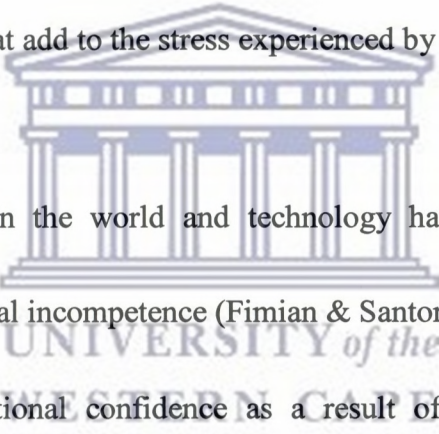


Research by Marais (1992) indicates that teachers experience a wide range of multi-dimensional stressors within the work situation namely inadequate working conditions, role conflict and ambiguity, pupil problems, time pressures, the threat of redundancy, work pressure, low participation in decision-making and distribution of tasks, the experience of being stereotyped, discrimination against minority groups, as well as inadequate salaries.

Other factors that add to stress experienced by teachers are that they have to contend with taking responsibility for the high drop-out rate in high schools, they have a high

work load, they have poor status and receive poor salaries (Travers & Cooper, 1997), they have to deal with role overload (Pithers & Soden, 1998), they have to maintain discipline (Lewis, 1999), and have to deal with a lack of resources, they experience a lack of time in which to complete expected work, they have to attend excessive meetings, they have large class sizes, they lack assistance, they lack support, and they are exposed hostile parents (Krause, in Carter, 1994).

The following are factors that add to the stress experienced by teachers namely:

- 
- the rapid changes in the world and technology have exacerbated teacher's perceived professional incompetence (Fimian & Santoro, 1983),
 - the lack of occupational confidence as a result of the difficulty that they experience in keeping up to date in their areas of expertise (Fimian & Santoro, 1983; Terry, 1997),
 - events such as marriage, divorce, pregnancy, the death of a loved one and change of residence are related to teachers' life satisfaction that could affect their stress and performance at work (Hittner, 1981).

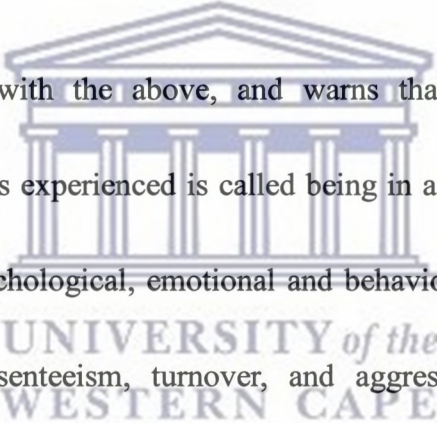
- In addition, it has been found that job satisfaction and teacher stress are strongly correlated, in that the amount of stress and the degree of satisfaction experienced by teachers influence the quality of life of teachers (Pelsma & Richard, 1988).

Chorney (1998) investigated, and found that the cognitive factors which affect individual susceptibility to stress amongst teachers were that teachers' responses to being a "good teacher" were couched in absolute terms, such as "must" and "need". Bibou-Nakou, Stogiannidou and Kiosseoglou (1999) suggested that teachers who blame themselves for difficulties are more prone to experiencing stress. Fisher (2001) states that in addition to systemic stresses, teachers are also exposed to traumatic stress, which include primary stress and secondary stress, and examples of primary stressors include physical assault, threats of violence and intimidation, and that secondary stress include the news of violent and distressing events and the witnessing of how others are subjected to trauma. Internal and external factors have shaped the teaching environment in South Africa and have contributed to increased stress for teachers in recent years (Paulse, 2005).

2.12 THE EFFECTS OF JOB STRESS

It has been found that a modest amount of stress can increase performance at tasks, but when the levels of stress reach unmanageable levels (referred to as distress), it could

lead to negative consequences for the individual like anxiety, depression, anger as well as the physiological manifestations of cardiovascular disease, headaches, accidents, drug abuse, eating disorders and poor interpersonal relations, and the negative consequences that the organisation could experience are a reduction in the quality and quantity of job performance, increased absenteeism, higher turnover, increased disciplinary offences, and grievances (Nel et al., 2001).



Greenhaus (2000) agrees with the above, and warns that a state of severe and unmanageable level of stress experienced is called being in a state of distress, and that this results in physical, psychological, emotional and behavioural suffering (or strain), poor job performance, absenteeism, turnover, and aggressive behaviour, whereas optimal levels of stress results in what is known as eustress, and that in this latter state, individuals and organisations function optimally. Greenhaus (2002) states further that people with personality Type A behaviour have been found to be more prone to experience stress due to being highly competitive, being impatient, being fast-paced, preferring to perform multiple tasks simultaneously and striving for perfection, but they have also proven to be highly productive, they have high self-confidence, they handle high work volumes and they develop high performance goals.

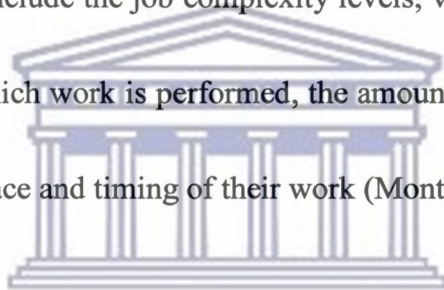
2.12.1 BURNOUT

Greenhaus (2000) describes burnout as a psychological stress reaction that is characteristic of people doing the kind of work that involves a high degree of emotionally charged interaction with other people and that it consists of three interrelated components namely emotional exhaustion, de-personalization of relationships with whom they serve and a sense of low personal accomplishment at work, and that the consequences of burnout are negative emotions, interpersonal friction, poor health, declining performance, substance abuse and feelings of meaninglessness.

Tilakdharee, Ramdial and Parumasur (2010) define burnout as a distressed psychological state that an employee experiences after a prolonged period of time at the same job, and that the condition of burnout shows the symptoms of low motivation, emotional exhaustion, low energy and low enthusiasm for the job. The negative experience of burnout involves a degree of emotional exhaustion, the loss of feeling and concern, the loss of trust, the loss of interest, and the loss of spirit, irritability, reduced

idealism, feelings of helplessness, a negative reaction to the self, and withdrawal (Miner, 1992).

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) burnout develops as a reaction to particular job characteristics and job characteristics are stressors that are associated with performance of a particular task that makes up an individual's job (Kahn & Byosiere, 1990). These factors may include the job complexity levels, variety of tasks performed, physical environment in which work is performed, the amount of control and discretion individuals have over the pace and timing of their work (Montgomery et al., 2005).



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Koekse (1989) maintains that the changes in the perception of other people and changes in the self-perception of the individual are both seen as central to the process of burnout.

Cherniss (1980a) provided a broader definition of burnout by including by including motivational. Affective, attitudinal and behavioural changes as a result of job stress.

2.12.1.1 THREE DIMENTIONS OF BURNOUT

Hanekom, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006, p 498) use Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996)

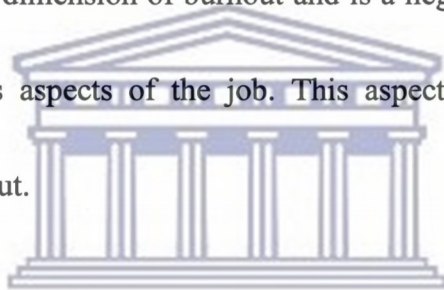
definition of burnout which states that burnout is as “a syndrome of exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy”. This is broken into three dimensions (Hanekom et al., 2006). These are as follows:

- Exhaustion which refers to the feelings of strain predominantly chronic fatigue resulting from a heavy workload. Rothman, Jackson and Kruger have a slightly different explanation for exhaustion, they refer to it as feeling of being over extended and depleted of one’s emotional and physical resources. Maslach (1998) argues that exhaustion is a necessary but not sufficient criterion for burnout. The notion of exhaustion presupposes a prior state of high arousal and overload rather than of low arousal or under load, which implies that burnout is not a result of tedious, boring or monotonous work (Rothman, Jackson & Kruger, 2003). Therefore exhaustion fails to capture the critical aspect of the relationship people have with their work.

However Koeske and Koeske (1989) believe that exhaustion is the essence of burnout. They believe that burnout is an indicator of strain resulting from the demands of work and resulting stress. It has been indicated that organisational demands relate only to exhaustion (Wiese et.al. 2003). From this it can be

expected that job demands will be more strongly associated with exhaustion while lack of resources may be strongly associated with lower profession efficacy.

- Cynicism/depersonalisation refers to an indifferent attitude toward the work as well as the people with whom one works with. (Rothman et.al (2003) refers to it as the interpersonal dimension of burnout and is a negative, callous or detached response to various aspects of the job. This aspect is consistently found in researches on burnout.



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- Professional efficacy refers to reduced feelings of competence and negative self-evaluation in relation to his/her job performance. It can be argued that this dimension of burn out comes for the first two dimensions. With a workplace that is full of negativity and cynicism and exhaustion it is likely that employees sense of accomplishments and effectiveness may be eroded (Rothman et.al (2003). Professional efficacy may be strongly associated with lack of resources.

Theoretically it could be argued that exhaustion and cynicism are the two major

characteristics of burn out. While exhaustion implies that the employee is incapable of doing his work because all energy has been drained and cynicism on the other hand indicates that the employee is no longer willing to perform because of increased intolerance for any effort (Mostert & Joubert, 2005). Research points to the crucial role of exhaustion and cynicism as opposed to lack of professional efficacy (Schaufeli, 2003).

2.12.1.2 COMMON ELEMENTS OF BURNOUT



After viewing literature on the definitions of burnout and its explanations Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) concluded that most definitions had 5 major elements in common

- Firstly it is the predominance of fatigue symptoms such as mental or emotional exhaustion, tiredness and depression.
- Secondly various atypical physical symptoms of distress may occur.
- Thirdly these symptoms are always work related.
- The fourth is that all these symptoms seem to manifest in “normal” people who did not suffer from psychology before.
- Finally decreased effectiveness and impaired work performance occurs because

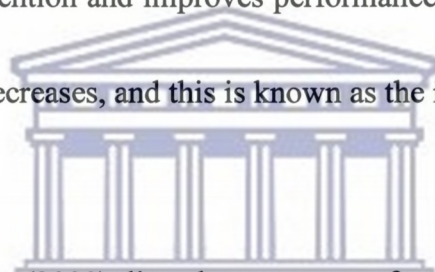
of negative attitudes and behaviour.

2.12.1.3 COPING WITH BURNOUT

One of the most important strategies to deal with burnout is to strive to attempt to deal with organisational stressors to avoid aversive strain, this strategy is known as coping (Wiese, Rothman, and Storm, 2003). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) (in Wise et.al. 2003) define coping as “constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific internal and/ or external demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person.” If a correct coping strategy is employed goals are achieved, professional efficacy is enhanced and a sense of significance is regained (Wise et.al, 2003). The opposite applies if a coping strategy is not utilised properly burnout is most likely to develop. High levels of burnout are associated with passive or withdrawal coping. Violanti (1992) discovered that coping strategies of distancing and planful problem solving reduced distress, while escape avoidance and self-maladaptation coping strategies are not recommended.

2.12.2 THE OUTCOMES OF STRESS

The results of stress are an increase in performance but only up to a point, beyond which further increments of stress reduce performance and results in burnout and feelings of being trapped and of which the end result is poor health, which manifests itself in life threatening ailments like diabetes, heart disease, strokes and degenerative and infectious diseases (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Similarly Miner (1992) finds that stress arouses individual attention and improves performance at tasks up to a point, but beyond that, performance decreases, and this is known as the inverted-U hypothesis.

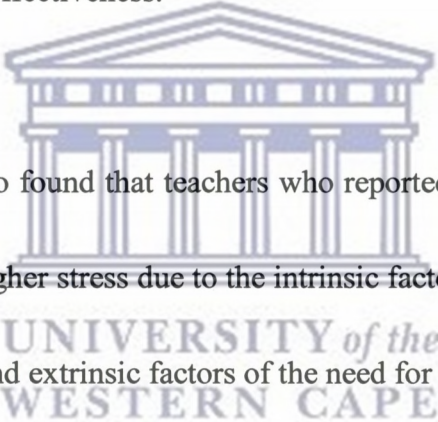


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Miner (1992) like Greenhaus (2000), lists the outcomes of stress to be physical, namely increased blood pressure, ulcers, elevated serum cholesterol and a rapid heart rate, psychological factors as job dissatisfaction, moodiness, a low self-esteem, low trust, temper tantrums and organisational factors as being absenteeism, sabotage, tardiness, low performance and accident proneness. Nel et al. (2001), associate high absenteeism, labour turnover, low commitment, and low organisational citizenship behaviour to high stress levels.

2.12.3 THE EFFECTS OF STRESS ON TEACHERS

In a study by Borg and Riding (1991) it was found that teachers who reported higher stress were less satisfied in teaching work reported higher absenteeism, and were more intent on leaving teaching, they also found that lower levels of stress are related to improved teaching method effectiveness.

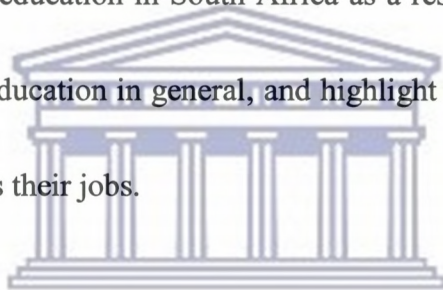


Borg and Riding (1991) also found that teachers who reported higher overall job stress were also likely to report higher stress due to the intrinsic factors of pupil misbehaviour, time-resource difficulties, and extrinsic factors of the need for professional recognition.

Other dimensions investigated by Borg and Riding (1991) were school ethos, and this includes aspects of discipline and school policy, working conditions, the quality of school facilities, professional development programmes, staff relationships, teacher support programmes, and curriculum demands. Ngidi and Sibaya's (2002) research add that the lack of discipline in schools, the abolishment of corporal punishment, unmotivated learners, redeployment, retrenchments and retirement packages for

teachers.

Marais (1992) states that the new education approach of outcomes based education, the management style of principals, new governing bodies for schools, the high crime rate in the country, having to cope with current political change and the corruption in state departments are causing stress for teachers. Steyn and van Wyk (1999) maintain that media attention focuses on education in South Africa as a result of poor school results and the inferior quality of education in general, and highlight the concern regarding the attitudes of teachers towards their jobs.



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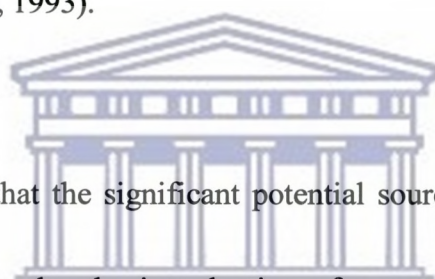
From a nationally representative sample of 17 088 educators (a response-rate of 84%) agreed to participate in the HIV (Human Immuno-Deficiency) testing campaign, of which 12.7% were positive. From the study conducted in 2001 it was found that more than one third (1/3) of educators suffer from high blood-pressure, an ulcer or diabetes (illness which are all stress-related). The proportion of educators which were absent from work for longer than 10 days was the highest among those diagnosed with Tuberculosis (TB) in the last five years, high-risk drinkers, and those with heart and lung diseases or breathing problems, diabetes, cancer and anaemia (National

Department of Education, 2001).

The study shows that the high level of absenteeism was mainly experienced due to high blood-pressure, followed by smoking, being HIV positive, suffering from arthritis, rheumatism and/or indulging in high-risk drinking. The low morale experienced at educational institutions and the intentions to leave the teaching profession, low job satisfaction and high job stress are strongly associated with a high number of self-rated absenteeism and/or being unproductive and/or unwell at work. The study also revealed that the health status of educators is said to be poorer than that of the general population, as 10% of educators had been hospitalized in the last 12 months prior to the survey, and this was higher than the 7% observed in the general population. The most frequently reported diagnoses in the last study were stress-related illnesses like high blood-pressure (15.60%) and stomach ulcers (9.1%). Two thirds (2/3) of educators who were considering leaving the teaching profession were in the scarce fields of technology, and cite job stress and violence in schools as the major factors that contribute to teacher stress levels (National Department of Education, 2001).

The debate about the new outcomes based curriculum has been raging among educators,

some view that it has increased the workload and increased the job strain experienced by teachers, but yet others have argued that the outcomes based education has improved the classroom environment in the following ways namely that (1) the learning areas are clearly defined (2) learner progress is based on demonstrated achievement (3) learners needs are accommodated through multiple instructional strategies and assessment tools (4) each learner is provided with the time and assistance to realise his or her own potential (Boschee & Baron, 1993).



In Italy, it was found that that the significant potential sources of stress are linked to changes in the last 10 years by the introduction of new tasks concerning the local management of the school, changes in the curriculum and the appraisal of teaching and that the implementation these structural changes brought about increased demands on teachers time, the need for new skills to be developed to increase competency in managerial and relationship skills and the evaluation of educational process efficacy (Zurlo, Pes & Cooper, 2007).

Studies carried out in numerous countries indicate that a large quantity of teachers report moderate levels of stress (Borg, 1990; Kyriacou, 1987; Turk, Meeks & Turk,

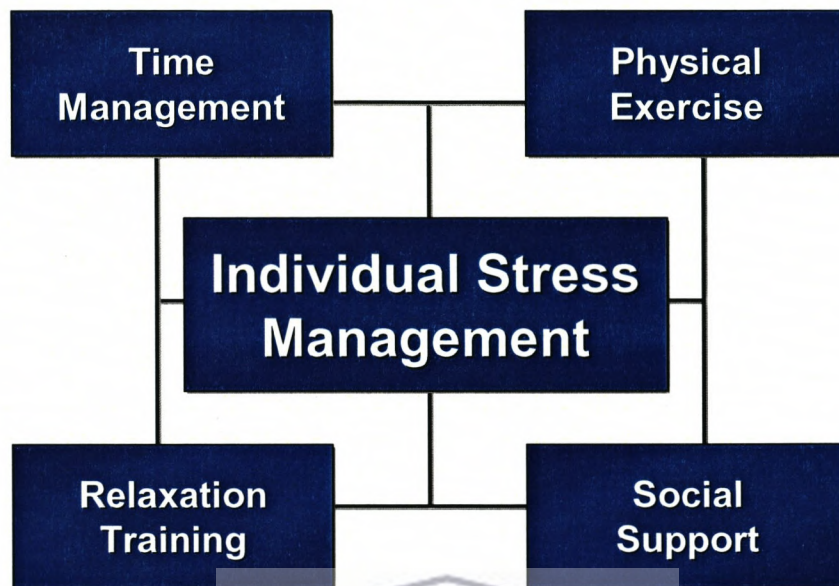
1982). It is not as of old days where teachers used to complain about being overworked but rather they complain about work related stress they experience (Saptoe, 2000). Cordes and Dougherty (1993) state that such work-related stress may cause “job compassion fatigue”. Research indicates that teacher’s stress is becoming endemic (Van Wyk, 1998) and this may have severe implications for the physical and mental health of teachers (Oliver & Venter, 2003).

Wrobel (1993) contends that a significant number of teachers perceive the educational workplace as stressful and will ultimately experience failure in their careers. Oliver and Venter (2003) suggest that because of stressful situations teachers may reach a level of burnout. Teaching has been viewed as a profession with high levels of stress (Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, Donald, Taylor & Millet, 2005) as well as high levels of burnout (Bouwers & Tomic, 2000). Educator burnout has been a most talked about phenomenon because the teaching profession is generally regarded as the most stressful occupation (Pines, 2002; Whitehead, Ryba & O’Driscoll, 2000). Negative factors that are in a job may lead to burnout ((Maslach, 2000; Mestry, 1999). In the rest of this section Stress and burnout will be elucidated in detail and how they relate to turn over intentions.

2.13 COPING WITH STRESS

The methods that are used in occupational coping was studied by Schonfeld (1990) in his research that involved 67 New York City teachers, and which indicated that advice-seeking and direct action were consistently related to lower stress symptom levels, and that positive comparisons and direct action were most consistently related to higher morale, job satisfaction, motivation, and selective ignoring all appeared to buffer the individual from the impact of poor work environments on symptoms of stress.



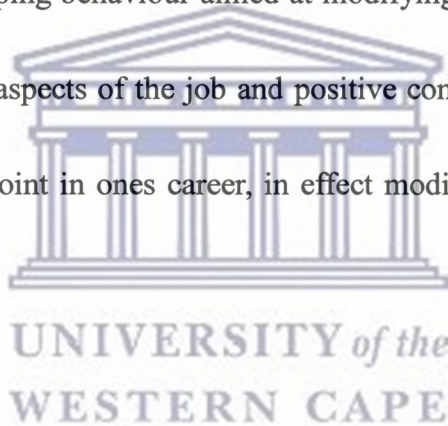


According to Schonfeld (1990), the impact of occupational coping in response to stressors have been investigated by Pearlin and his colleagues (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Pearlin, Lieberman, Menaghan & MuUan, 1981), by which they identified three general types of coping namely (a) the modification of the circumstances from which stressors issue (b) the modification of the threat-arousing meaning of stressors (c) the management of emotional distress which results from an encounter with stressors.

In Schonfeld's study the coping behaviours identified were consistent with Pearlin's typology. Pearson however, found that many coping strategies fail to affect distress, and it is possible that a coping strategy could exacerbate distress, and in addition, a

workplace coping strategy which included restricting individual expectations were associated with emotional distress (Schonfeld, 1990).

Schonfeld (1990) lists the coping behaviours that were reflected in Pearlin and Schooler's (1978) conceptual distinctions, and these include (a) the use of discipline in response to serious student misbehaviour and direct positive action to improve student performance, which is a coping behaviour aimed at modifying the stressor (b) selective ignoring of the unpleasant aspects of the job and positive comparisons with others and with oneself at an earlier point in ones career, in effect modifying the stressor and (c) advice seeking.



It was found that teachers who employ identifiable occupational coping behaviours are less likely to experience the psychological symptoms and low morale that is brought about by stress, and that such behaviour included attempts at modifying the stressor for example by helping students, and reducing the distress experience by seeking advice, actions like these have been shown to reduce the impact of the stressor and enhance job satisfaction.

Pearlin and Schooler (1978) in Oliver and Venter (2003) refer to coping with stress as prevention, avoidance or control of emotional stress. It could refer to a reaction to reduce the stress using effective management of it like modification techniques, lifestyle changes or alteration of the environment a person is in (Louw & Edwards, 1995) this should involve reducing and managing stress in a way that bring relief to a person.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) in Brown, Howcroft and Jacobs (2000) define the concept of coping as constantly changing behavioural and cognitive efforts to manage internal or external demands that are seen as exceeding the resources of a person. Schafer (2000) points out that although these behavioural and cognitive efforts are aimed at correcting and mastering the problem they can also help with altering perceptions, tolerating or accepting the harm or threat and escaping from or avoiding the situation. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) proposed that the cognitive process of coping consists of two phases which they named appraisal and coping.

The appraisal stage is further broken down into primary and secondary appraisal. In the primary appraisal stage even if it is evaluated and being relevant or irrelevant but not threatening or stressful (Brown et al., 2000). If the problem has been deemed as

stressful secondary appraisal commences. This is when the individual makes an assessment on the impression of his/her ability to control or cope with the stressor including the coping resources at their disposal Lazarus and Folkman (1984). When this secondary appraisal is over the coping stage commences. During the coping stage the individual acts on the stressor and the activities and efforts chosen are dependant on the variety of personal and environmental resources available at their disposal (Schafer, 2000).

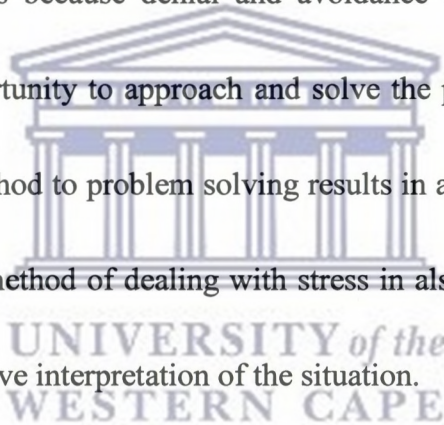


According to Arslan et al, (2009) facing any difficulty big or small can create a coping environment if the individual assesses the problem and in the process stimulates skills for coping. If the problem needs readjustments, or a change in the type of solution used the person will try to overcome the challenging event to obtain relief and this is the point how they cope with stress becomes pivotal (Basut, 2006). Arslan et al, (2009) suggest that there are a two ways a person can cope with stress. The problem focused coping or emotional focused coping

- Problem focused coping with stress is seen when a person tries to cope by trying to change the individual- environment relationship which in turn makes the individual feel better when dealing with stress. Problem solving is aimed at

the source of the stress and includes utilizing information to eliminate the stress generating situation and rationalise analysis leading to a plan of action Arslan et al, (2009). The use of problem focused methods results in changing external conditions.

- Emotional focused coping with stress change is performed by the individual's interpretation of the environment instead of by direct behaviours. These can be effective techniques because denial and avoidance of the problem give an individual an opportunity to approach and solve the problem in a calmer way. The use of this method to problem solving results in an internal change (Arslan et al. 2009). This method of dealing with stress also involves seeking social support and a positive interpretation of the situation.



2.14. SUMMARY OF SECTION

In a survey commissioned by the Education Labour Relations Council in 2001, 21358 educators from 1714 randomly selected schools participated and highlighted the reasons for teachers leaving the profession, and the results of the study showed that 5.5% of educators considered leaving the profession, citing reasons such as: inadequate

remuneration, the lack of career development, the lack of professional recognition, an increased workload, dissatisfaction with work policies, or job insecurities. The data from the study conducted in 2001 also showed that the average number of educators in the system has declined over the period 1997-2004 from 386 735 to 368 548. The teacher attrition (total loss) rate was 9.3% in 1997/1998, 5.5% in 200/2001 and then 5.9% in 2002/2003. Teacher attrition due to mortality increased 7% in 1997/1998 and by the period 2003/2004 it was 7.7%. Teacher attrition due to medical reasons grew from 4.6% in 1997/1998 to 8.7% in the period 2003/2004. Large class sizes, the average of which was found to be 46 learners, affect the teaching environment. The school fee average amount paid was also found to contribute to the dilemma namely an average of R800.00 for the Eastern Cape, Guateng and the Northern Cape and R150.00 for the Eastern Cape, Kwa-Zulu Natal and Mpumalanga. In accordance with this, the next section addresses turnover intentions amongst teachers.

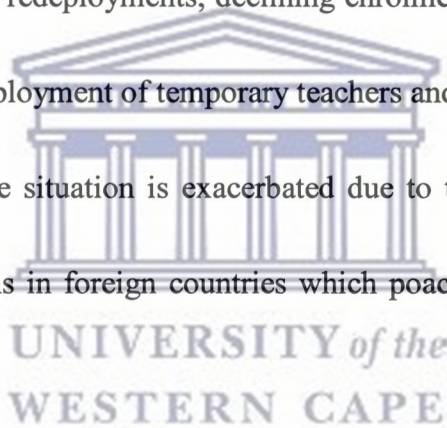
2.15 TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONGST TEACHERS

There is widespread concern regarding turnover and attrition rates amongst teachers.

This phenomenon is not unique to South Africa and international research indicates that

in Sweden, Germany and New Zealand, teacher turnover is regarded as a national crisis (Santiago, 2001). In most African countries, Coombe (2002) reports that this turnover and attrition can be attributed to, inter alia, the HIV/AIDS epidemic, especially in sub-Saharan countries such as Kenya, Zambia and South Africa.

The situation regarding turnover amongst teachers appears to be multifactorial and complex with restructuring, redeployments, declining enrolments of teachers in teacher training institutions, the employment of temporary teachers and the non-filling of vacant positions (Xaba, 2003). The situation is exacerbated due to the large-scale exodus of teachers to assume positions in foreign countries which poach teachers with lucrative incentives.



2.15.1 DEFINITIONS OF TURNOVER

According to Sager, Griffeth and Hom (1998, p. 255), turnover intentions “represent an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioural decision to leave”.

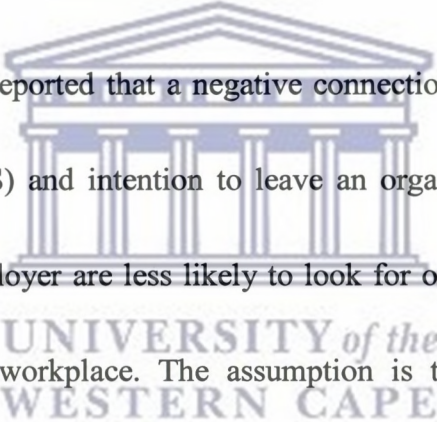
Turnover is described as the movement of employees out of the organisation or any permanent departure beyond organisational boundaries (Xaba, 2003).

2.2.1 TURNOVER INTENTION THEORIES

Turnover behaviour is a multistage process that includes attitudinal, decisional and behavioural components. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that behavioural intention is a good predictor of actual behaviour. Studies (such as that of Fox & Fallon, 2003; Hom and Hulin, 1981; Mobley, 1982; Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Newman, 1974; Shields & Ward, 2001; Tett and Meyer, 1993) have effectively demonstrated that behavioural turnover intentions are constantly seen with moderate to strong correlations with turnover, substantiating the view of Ajzen (1991). There is extensive support for the idea that intention to quit-stay is almost certainly the most important and direct individual-level antecedent and predictor of turnover decisions (Chiu & Francesco, 2003; Fox & Fallon, 2003; Mobley, 1982; Slate & Vogel, 1997; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Mobley (1977) suggests that there are several other possible turnover cognition types of interest to add in the withdrawal decision (the decision to quit a job), highlighting notions such as thinking of quitting, followed by the intention to search for alternatives.

Furthermore, many studies have been based on the belief that turnover is an individual choice behavioural pattern based on the conceptualization that it is a psychological response (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979).



In previous literature, it is reported that a negative connection exists between positive organisational support (POS) and intention to leave an organisation. Employees who feel supported by their employer are less likely to look for outside work opportunities and lack diligence in the workplace. The assumption is thus that an organisation encourages an employee to remain in its employ when the organisation shows concern for their material and psychological well-being by seeking to establish a serene social context and a positive working climate (Paillé, Bourdeau & Galois, 2010).

According to McCarthy, Tyrrell and Lehane (2007), intentions are the most direct determinants of actual behaviour. They are therefore precise indicators of ensuing behaviour, however the reasons for these intentions are often unidentified (Firth, et. al.,

2004). Van Dick, Christ, Stellmacher, Wagner, Ahlswede, Grubba, Hauptmeier, Höhfeld, Moltzen and Tissington, (2004) agree that the observable fact is far from being fully understood, especially because some of the psychological processes underlying the withdrawal from the organisation are still unclear.

Firth, et. al., (2004) highlight the following variables that are found to relate to intention to quit:

- The experience of job-related stress
- The range of factors that lead to job-related stress
- Lack of commitment to the organisation; and
- Job dissatisfaction.

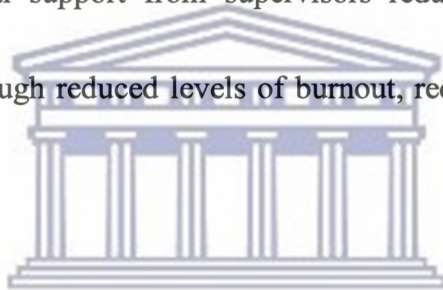


These variables can be mediated by personal or dispositional factors and by environmental or organisational factors. Generally, the focus will be on the personal factors that mediate between stressors and intention to quit, namely aspects of personal agency, self-esteem and social support.

Personal agency refers to concepts such as a sense of powerlessness, locus of control

and personal control. Research findings strongly suggest that a greater sense of personal agency is associated with a reduced risk of negative outcomes following major negative life events and role-related stress (Firth, et. al., 2004).

Firth, et. al., (2004) postulate that social support has played an important role in mitigating intention to quit, although findings are unequivocal. A study conducted with nurses indicated that social support from supervisors reduced the level of nurses' burnout and indirectly, through reduced levels of burnout, reduced nurses' intention to quit.



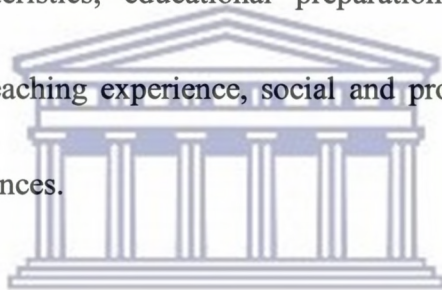
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Birt, et. al., (2004) highlight that with continuance commitment; an employee bases their choice to remain with the organisation on perceptions of other existing opportunities as well as the cost of leaving the organisation rather than on a more emotional attachment to the organisation as is found in affective commitment. Furthermore, Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993) postulate that continuance commitment reflects the extent to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving. This idea stems from the fact that the employee invests in an organisation, such as time, job effort, and the development of

work friendships, organisation-specific skills, and political deals, all which constitute sunk costs that reduce the magnetism of outside employment alternatives.

2.15.3 CAUSES OF TEACHER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Ruhland (2001) maintains that teacher retention or attrition/turnover is related to teachers' personal characteristics, educational preparation, initial commitment to teaching, quality of first teaching experience, social and professional integration into teaching and external influences.

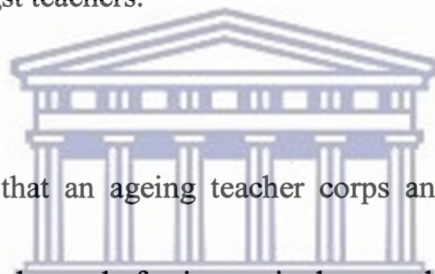


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Khatri, Budhwar and Fern (1999) postulate that three groups of factors impact on employee turnover, namely demographic, uncontrollable and controllable factors.

Demographic factors refer to the personal details relative to the individual and include aspects such as age, gender, educational level, tenure, income, managerial and non-managerial positions. Uncontrollable factors relate to perceived alternative employment opportunities and job-hopping. Controllable factors include pay, supervision, organisational commitment, distributive and procedural justice and the nature of work (Khatri et al., 1999).

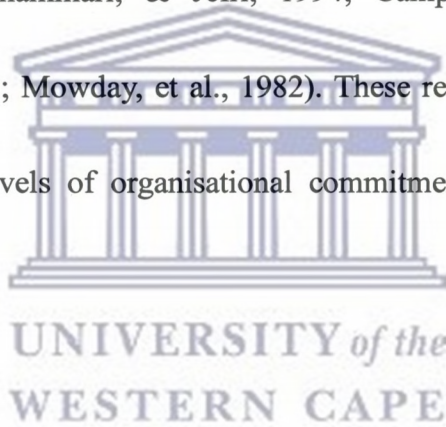
Ingersoll (2001) posits the view that teacher turnover represents a function of ageing and increasing student numbers. He maintains that improvements in organisational conditions such as remuneration and benefits, improved support from educational leaders and school administration processes, a reduction in student discipline problems and enhanced decision making latitude for teachers could significantly alter the rate of attrition and turnover amongst teachers.



Santiago (2001) maintains that an ageing teacher corps and the possibility of early retirement, low salaries and demands for increasingly complex teaching abilities serve as an impetus for teachers exiting the system. Duffrin (1999) argues that working conditions as a primary reason for teachers that leave within the first five years of assuming positions as teachers. Chaika (2002) argues that the lack of career development opportunities, inadequate induction programmes, poor working conditions and a growing salary gap between teachers and other graduates as potential reasons for teacher turnover. Moreover, Wilkinson (2001) maintains that HIV/AIDS has significantly contributed to the attrition of teachers. When they become ill, they are apt to abandon their positions in order to cope.

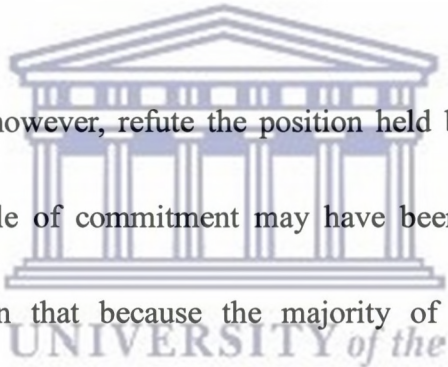
2.15.4 THE EFFECTS OF TURNOVER

Among the behavioural outcomes of organisational commitment, turnover has received the greatest attention (Johnston, et al., 1990; Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). Furthermore, literature points convincingly to an inverse relationship between commitment and turnover (Ben-Bakr, Al-Shammari, & Jefri, 1994; Camp, 1994; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Mowday, et al., 1982). These researchers are therefore of the opinion that higher levels of organisational commitment will result in reduced turnover.



Moreover, although commitment has been found to be related to turnover, current theory and empirical research suggest that the direct antecedent to actual turnover is propensity to leave or turnover intent (Johnston, et al., 1990). Indeed, a number of studies have lent support to the notion that organisational commitment is inversely related to turnover intent which, in turn, is positively related to actual turnover (Aryee & Heng, 1990; Kacmar, et al., 1999; Pasewark & Strawser, 1996).

Furthermore, research has revealed organisational commitment to be a better predictor of turnover than the more frequently used job satisfaction predictor, explaining as much as 34 percent of the variance (Ben-Bakr, et al., 1994; Robbins, 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Other researchers, however, are of the opinion that organisational commitment is a mediating variable between job satisfaction and turnover intent (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008).



MacKenzie, et al. (1998), however, refute the position held by the latter authors and state that the mediating role of commitment may have been overestimated. These authors are of the opinion that because the majority of previous research used propensity to leave as a surrogate for actual turnover, the relationship between commitment and turnover intent may have been inflated due to the conceptual overlap between them.

Turnover is purported to have a large influence on costs to the organisation by virtue of replacement, recruitment, selection, induction and training costs as well as loss of productivity since new incumbents require an adjustment period during which they are expected to understand expectations and deliverables (Xaba, 2003). Ingersoll (2001) is

of the opinion that turnover disrupts the quality of school cohesion and performance. This, Ingersoll (2001) maintains can be attributed to the fact that interaction between various stakeholders and processes is prone to suffer when subjected to high rates of turnover.

According to Diko and Letseka (2008, p. 228), “most research studies indicate an impending shortage of teachers in the country, although its exact magnitude is a matter of debate”. They maintain further that the following areas need urgent review: (1) policies, practices and processes used to attract new entrants to teaching and to appoint new teachers and (2) teacher retention policies and practices in the schooling system. These policies ought to have as their basis the fact that (a) teachers are properly equipped to undertake their essential and demanding tasks, (b) teachers are able to continually enhance their professional competences and performance, (c) appropriately qualified teachers fill all vacancies in schools, and there is a dynamic balance between demand and supply of teachers, (d) there is a community of competent teachers dedicated to providing education of high quality, with high levels of performance as well as ethical and professional standards of conduct (Diko & Letseka, 2008).

2.16 SUMMARY OF SECTION

This section has provided an overview of turnover amongst teachers and provides insights into the various reasons that education authorities may need to take note of the rate of attrition amongst teachers.

2.17 CONCLUSION

This chapter has served to introduce the variables under investigation in the current research study, that is, stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

Reference to previous research amongst teachers is provided in order to contextualise the research study.

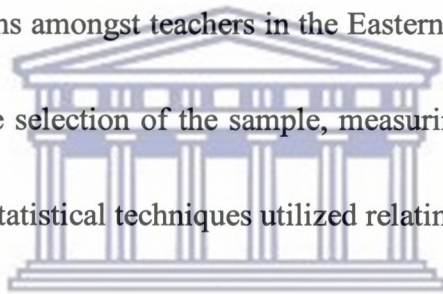


CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter provides an outline on the research methodology employed in the investigation of the proposed research problem relating to organisational commitment, stress and turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape. The specific topics that will be covered are the selection of the sample, measuring instruments, procedure for data collection and the statistical techniques utilized relating to the research.



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3.2 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

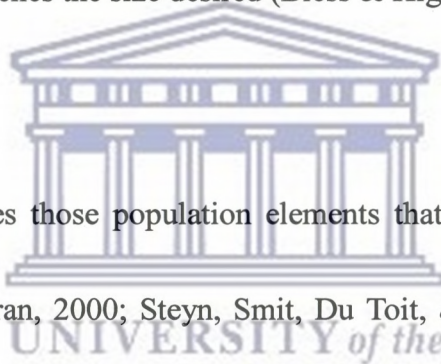
Huysamen (1994) defines a population as encompassing the total collection of all members, cases or elements about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions.

According to Sekaran (2003, p. 266), sampling is “the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for us to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements. The sample

consisted of all the teachers in the participating schools, all of which were selected based on a non probability, convenience approach.

Nonprobability sampling implies that the elements in the population have no probabilities attached to their being selected as sample subjects (Sekaran, 2000).

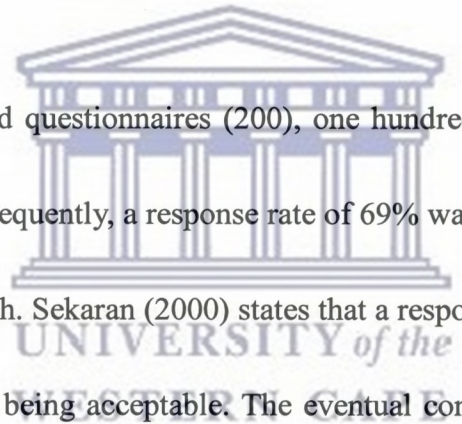
Convenience sampling, as a form of non-probability sampling, involves taking all cases on hand until the sample reaches the size desired (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995).



The sample, thus, comprises those population elements that can be studied with the greatest convenience (Sekaran, 2000; Steyn, Smit, Du Toit, & Strasheim, 1994). This design was primarily selected due to the advantages attached to its use. Convenience sampling is relatively uncomplicated, inexpensive, not time-consuming, and is free of the statistical complexity inherent in probability sampling methods (Bailey, 1987; Huysamen, 1994; Sekaran, 2000).

In deciding on the size of the sample to be drawn, the following issues were borne in mind. Firstly, the sample had to be representative of the population of interest, and had

to be large enough to allow for precision, confidence and generalizability in the research findings. Furthermore, since multivariate data analysis, in the form of multiple regression analysis, was to be implemented in the study, it was necessary that the sample be several times as large as the number of variables involved (Sekaran, 2000). It is further pointed out by Sekaran (2000) that sample sizes of between thirty and five hundred subjects are appropriate for most research.



Of the total of two hundred questionnaires (200), one hundred and thirty-seven (137) were received back. Consequently, a response rate of 69% was achieved, which may be considered relatively high. Sekaran (2000) states that a response rate of thirty percent (30%) may be regarded as being acceptable. The eventual convenience sample of one hundred and thirty-seven (137) subjects meets the previously stated requirements.

3.3 PROCEDURE

Permission was requested from the Eastern Cape Department of Education to conduct the study in the participating schools. Upon approval, the questionnaires were administered. Confidentiality and anonymity was stressed in the study and the decision

of the respondents who did not want to participate in the study was respected. The purpose of the research was explained and contextualised for the participants and two-hundred self administered questionnaires were administered. The questionnaire contained a cover letter inviting respondents to participate, as well instructions on how to complete the questionnaires.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

A biographical questionnaire, turnover intentions questionnaire, stress and organisational commitment questionnaires were administered, each of which is addressed in the ensuing section.



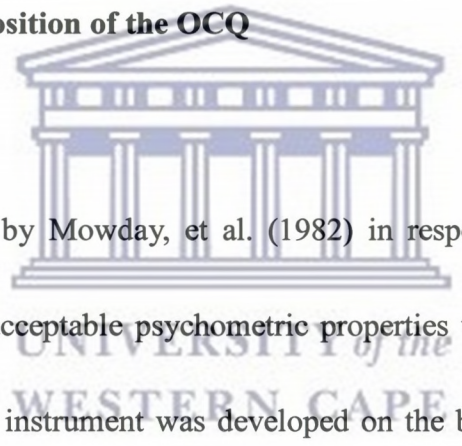
3.4.1 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

A biographical questionnaire soliciting information on respondent's gender, race, age income level as well as position and educational level was distributed. The data was graphically presented and discussed to provide an indication of the most salient findings with respect to these variables.

3.4.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Data on organisational commitment was gathered through responses to the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday, et al., 1982).

3.4.2.1 Nature and composition of the OCQ



The OCQ was developed by Mowday, et al. (1982) in response to the need for an instrument that exhibited acceptable psychometric properties within the constraints of attitude measurement. The instrument was developed on the basis of the definition of organisational commitment offered by Mowday, et al. (1982, p. 27). That is, “(a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation”. While these three theoretical components underlie the OCQ, it was the authors’ intention for the scale to be unidimensional.

Consequently, the OCQ consists of fifteen items that tap the three aspects of the above definition. Respondents are required to indicate their agreement with the fifteen different Likert-type statements on a seven-point scale with the following anchors:

(1) strongly disagree;

(2) moderately disagree;

(3) slightly disagree;

(4) neither agree nor disagree;

(5) slightly agree;

(6) moderately agree; and

(7) strongly agree.



In scoring the responses to the questionnaire the results are summed and then divided by fifteen to arrive at a summary indicator of organisational commitment. In an attempt to reduce response bias six of the fifteen items are negatively phrased and reverse scored (Mowday, et al., 1982).

3.4.2.2 Reliability of the OCQ

In order to examine the psychometric properties of the instrument, the OCQ was administered to 2563 employees in a wide variety of jobs. It was believed by Mowday, et al. (1982) that obtaining reliability data from various types of employees in different work environments was a necessary precondition for obtaining an acceptable, general measure of commitment.



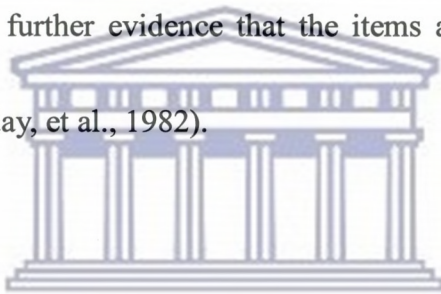
3.4.2.3 Internal consistency reliability

Mowday, et al. (1982) calculated estimates for the internal consistency of the OCQ in three different ways: by conducting item analysis and factor analysis, and by determining coefficient alpha. Firstly, coefficient alpha for the OCQ was found to be consistently high across all the samples, ranging from 0.82 to 0.93, with a median correlation of 0.90 (Mowday, et al., 1982).

Secondly, the results of item analyses indicated that each item had a positive correlation

with the total score on the OCQ, with the average correlations ranging between 0.36 and 0.72. The results thus suggest that the fifteen items of the OCQ are relatively homogeneous with respect to the underlying attitude that they measure (Mowday, et al., 1982).

Finally, factor analyses were carried out. These analyses generally resulted in a single-factor solution and yielded further evidence that the items are measuring a common underlying construct (Mowday, et al., 1982).



3.4.2.4 Test-retest reliability

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In order to examine the stability of the OCQ, test-retest reliabilities were computed. According to Mowday, et al. (1982) these test-retest reliabilities demonstrated acceptable levels (from $r = .53$ to $r = .75$) over periods ranging from two months to four months.

3.4.3 Validity of the OCQ

With respect to the validity of the OCQ, Mowday, et al. (1982) reported evidence of three different types: convergent validity, discriminant validity and predictive validity.

The evidence provided by Mowday, et al. (1982) suggests that the OCQ possesses convergent validity. Firstly, the OCQ was correlated with the Organisational Attachment Questionnaire. In this case, convergent validities across six diverse samples ranged from 0.63 to 0.70, thereby yielding evidence of the convergent validity of the OCQ (Mowday, et al., 1982).



Secondly, in four separate studies, significant correlations were found between the OCQ and intent to remain. Intent to remain forms a significant part of the conceptualization of organisational commitment held by Mowday, et al. (1982). Furthermore, based on four studies, evidence emerged that a modest relationship (with correlations ranging between .35 and .45) exists between the OCQ and employees' motivation to exert high levels of energy on behalf of the organisation (Mowday, et al., 1982).

Finally, Mowday, et al. (1982) demonstrated further convergent validity by showing that OCQ scores were positively correlated with work-oriented life interest and supervisor ratings of subordinates' commitment. Mowday, et al. (1982) provided further support for the validity of the OCQ by reporting evidence of discriminant validity. Low correlations were found between scores on the OCQ and measures of job involvement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction.



Mowday, et al. (1982) addressed the predictive validity of the OCQ by examining and demonstrating relationships between scores on the OCQ and voluntary turnover, absenteeism, and job performance. Research, therefore, generally supports the validity of the OCQ as a measure of organisational commitment.

3.4.4 Rationale for inclusion

The rationale for the use of the OCQ in this study is that it is a reliable and valid instrument for the measurement of organisational commitment, and it is standardized for the South African situation (Kacmar, et al., 1999; Mowday, et al., 1982).

Furthermore, the OCQ most closely operationalizes the definition of organisational commitment employed in this study, making it the logical instrument to use.

3.5 EXPERIENCE OF WORK AND LIFE CIRCUMSTANCES QUESTIONNAIRE (WLQ)

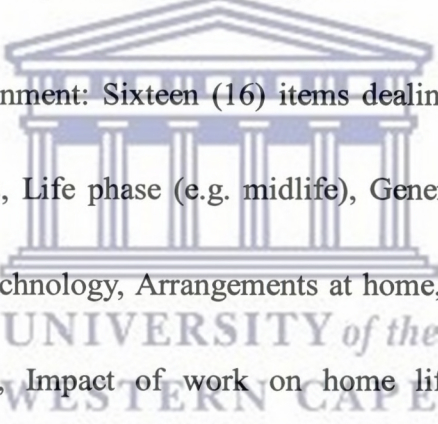
3.5.1. Nature and Composition



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The WLQ is a stress questionnaire that has been standardised for South African conditions. The WLQ was developed to measure the level and causes of stress of an individual whose reading and writing ability is at least at Std. 8 level (Grade 10). A person who experiences high levels of stress will score a high score on the items in the questionnaire. This is the rationale that the questionnaire is based on. The questionnaire comprises of two sections namely experience of work and circumstances and expectations (Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991).

The experience of work section is utilised to establish the respondent's level of stress, which is categorised as normal, high or very high and it comprises of 40 items. To determine the frequency of certain feelings a five-point scale is employed. The circumstances and expectations section aims to examine the causes for a respondent's level of stress. This section of the questionnaire comprises of 76 items and a five-point scale is used to determine the frequency of certain aspects of stress. The circumstances part (23 items), deals specifically with the following areas:

- 
- ◆ Outside work environment: Sixteen (16) items dealing with Family problems, Financial obligations, Life phase (e.g. midlife), General economic state of the country, Changing technology, Arrangements at home, Social situations, Status, Health, Background, Impact of work on home life, Travel arrangements, Religious life, Political ideology, Availability of accommodation and Availability of recreational facilities
 - ◆ Inside the work environment: Seven (7) items pertaining to characteristics of task(s) to be performed, physical working conditions and job equipment, career opportunities, social matters and remuneration, fringe benefits and personnel policy

The expectation part (53 items) deals with Organisational functioning, Task aspects, Physical working conditions and work equipment, Career prospects, Social aspects and Salary, benefits and personnel policies (Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991).

3.5.2 Correlations between the different fields of the WLQ

According to Van Zyl and van der Walt (1991) by examining the circumstance in which individual's function and their expectations the most crucial causes of stress can be identified. See Table 3.1.



Table 3.1: Correlations between Scale B (Circumstances within the job) and

Scale C (Expectations) (n=731)

Scale	Scale C (subdivisions)						Scale B (items)						
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6	B7
C1	-												
C2	.59	-											
C3	.52	.57	-										
C4	.69	.59	.55	-									
C5	.72	.67	.57	.68	-								
C6	.64	.65	.63	.67	.68	-							
B1	-.33	-.05	-.13	-.24	-.18	-.22	-						
B2	-.23	-.14	-.17	-.34	-.27	-.23	.35	-					
B3	-.11	-.11	-.29	-.15	-.10	-.20	.22	.18	-				
B4	-.25	-.14	-.15	-.32	-.24	-.26	.35	.36	.21	-			
B5	-.18	-.14	-.15	-.22	-.30	-.19	.19	.28	.19	.36	-		
B6	-.24	-.16	-.27	-.21	-.27	-.36	.22	.26	.21	.29	.17	-	
B7	-.27	-.18	-.25	-.25	-.28	-.33	.36	.31	.20	.31	.22	.40	-
\bar{x}	22.71	48.54	24.42	27.57	25.76	32.32	2.36	1.9	2.25	1.96	1.7	2.14	2.12
S	5.69	9.44	6.03	6.42	5.36	7.86	1.14	.99	1.22	1.09	.92	1.19	1.17

¹ Note that the items of Scale C measure in the opposite direction to items of Scale B,

since low scores represent negative and high scores positive trends.

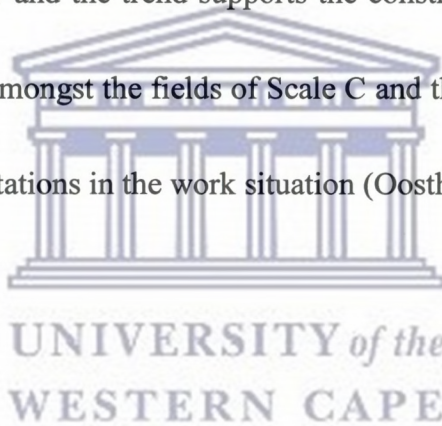
Source: Van Zyl & Van der Walt (1991): Manual for the Experience of Work and Life

Questionnaire (WLQ): p. 20

The items that measure circumstances in the workplace (B1-B7) and the items measuring expectations (Fields of Scale C) have a correlation of approximately 0.3. The items of Scale B (except item 2) and the fields of Scale C yielded the highest correlation.

This was expected in theory and the trend supports the construct validity of the WLQ.

There is a high correlation amongst the fields of Scale C and this indicates that all these fields jointly measure expectations in the work situation (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009).



3.5.3 Reliability

Anastasi (1982, p.103) says "reliability refers to the consistency of scores obtained by the same persons when re-examined with the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under variable examining conditions." Murphy and Davidshofer (1988, p.77) says "to determine the influence of variability in true scores and to what extent errors of measurement results in variability in test score, is the chief goal of estimating reliability". When determining reliability two major components are important:

- i) Internal consistency - How accurate is the test at a given time? Are all the items measuring the same thing?
- ii) Time consistency - How dependable is the test for predictive purposes? Does it yield consistent results over time?



There are three major methods (Test-Retest Method, Parallel- Form Method and Split-half Method) of measuring test reliability. All use the Pearson product - moment correlation coefficient and a positive correlation is expected. Other methods include Alternate Form and Internal consistency or Kuder-Richardson Theory. The Kuder-Richardson formulae measures internal consistency and the Test-retest methods focus on correspondence between the first and second measurement (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009). According to Maloney and Ward (1976) it is very difficult to determine how high the reliability index should be.



Table 3.2 gives an indication of the reliability levels of the different fields of the WLQ. The calculation that was used is based on the Kuder-Richardson formula 8 (as modified by Ferguson). The Test-retest scores are based on two test administrations that were done with a four-week interval.

Table 3.2. Kuder-Richardson 8 and Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients

Scale	KR 8	Test-retest
Levels of stress	,92	,79
Causes arising outside the work situation	,85	,80
Causes originating within the work situation:		
Organisational functioning	,83	,72
Task Characteristics	,83	,65
Physical working conditions and job equipment	,84	,62
Career matters	,84	,72
Social matters	,84	,69
Remuneration, fringe benefits and personnel policy	,86	,65
N	731	178

Source: Van Zyl & Van der Walt (1991): Manual for the Experience of Work and Life Questionnaire (WLQ): p.21

The reliability coefficients of the Kuder-Richardson 8 range from 0.83 to 0.92. The test-retest reliability coefficients vary from 0.62 to 0.80. The reliability of the WLQ is regarded as satisfactory. When measured against reliability coefficients for the 16PF it compares favourably (Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991).

3.5.4 Validity

3.5.4.1 Content Validity

It is regarded that face validity and logical validity are indicators of content validity (Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991). According to Aamodt (1996) face validity indicates the degree to which a test appears to be valid. He adds that tests takers and test administrators will not have confidence in the results if a test or its items do not appear valid. Smith (1981 cited in Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991, p. 22) maintains that “Face validity does not refer to what the questionnaire actually measures, but to what the items apparently measure”. The questionnaire is assumed to have face validity as the items in the questionnaire was developed according to a theoretical model and evaluated by a panel of experts (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009).

According to Smith (1981, cited in Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991, p. 22) logical validity has three requirements:

- “A careful definition in behavioural terms of the traits or aspect of behaviour dealt with in the questionnaire.
- Analysis of that behaviour aspect in the parts which it represents..

- An evaluation of the question whether the items have adequate discrimination value”.

Van Zyl and van der Walt (1991) maintain that during the development of the WLQ the questionnaire was subjected to the above logical validity requirements. The obtained results resulted in the assumption that the questionnaire has logical validity.

3.5.4.2 Construct Validity



According to Smith (1981, cited in Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991, p.22) “Construct validity concerns the extent to which a test/questionnaire measures a theoretical construct or trait”. The intra-test and inter-test methods were used to obtain information regarding the construct validity. Intra-test methods places focus on the internal structure of the questionnaire and inter-test methods refers to the simultaneous measurement of the correlations amongst a large number of tests or questionnaires (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009).

The various fields or scales of the WLQ indicated a fairly significant relation between

them supporting the construct validity of the questionnaire. Correlations between the WLQ and the 16PF Questionnaire, the PHSF Relations Questionnaire and the Reaction to Demands and Life Questionnaire were obtained. The results supported the construct validity of the WLQ (Van Zyl & van der Walt, 1991).

3.5.5 Rationale for Inclusion

The questionnaire has been standardised for South African circumstances and it has satisfactory validity and reliability. The questionnaire has been utilised in several research undertakings and its psychometric properties have been consistently proven. Oosthuizen and Koortzen (2009) investigated the psychometric properties of the WLCQ and report satisfactory reliability coefficients. Their confirmatory factor analyses also attests to the validity of the questionnaire in determining stress experienced in a broad spectrum of professions.

3.6 TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Turnover intentions was measured based on the questionnaire developed by Martin and Roodt (2008). Martin and Roodt (2008) maintain that a longer questionnaire constitutes a better means to collect data on turnover intentions as opposed to single item scales which have metric limitations.

3.6.1 Nature and Composition of the Turnover Intention Questionnaire

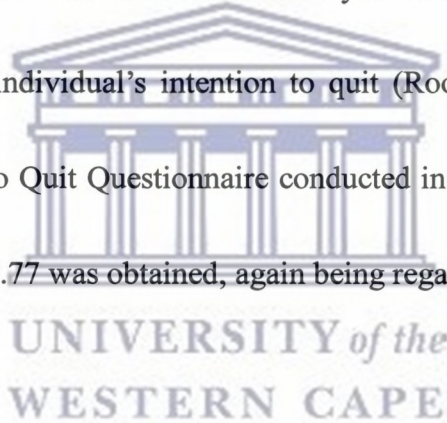


The questionnaire consists of 14 items which assesses intensity anchored at extreme poles, with low scores indicating a low intensity and higher scores being indicative of higher intensity, and hence higher turnover intentions. It is based on a seven-point intensity response scale anchored at extreme poles, (for example, “never” 1 – low intensity, to “always” 7 – high intensity) (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008).

3.6.2 Reliability of the Turnover Intention Questionnaire

The result obtained from the iterative reliability analysis of the Intention to Quit

questionnaire, yielded a Cronbach Alpha of 0.913 which was obtained in a study conducted by Jacobs and Roodt (2008), indicating an acceptable reliability. According to Cortina (1993), a Cronbach Alpha of 0.70 or higher is considered acceptable. Various researchers make a distinction between intention to search and intention to quit (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Sager, Griffeth & Hom, 1998). A question such as “How frequently have you been searching for job vacancies in newspapers” will measure intention to search, whereas a question such as “How often have you considered leaving your job” will probably measure an individual’s intention to quit (Roodt, 2004). To assess the reliability of the Intention to Quit Questionnaire conducted in a recent study by Sadien (2010), Cronbach alpha of 0.77 was obtained, again being regarded as acceptable.



3.6.3 Validity of the Intention to Quit Questionnaire

The turnover literature lacks formally validated scales to represent turnover cognitions (Jacobs & Roodt, 2008). The authors posit that the motivation to develop this questionnaire was that most instruments in the literature measure turnover intentions on only a relatively small number of items. The researchers’ further mention that the approach to use single-item indicators to measure turnover intentions is criticized as

construct validity is unknown.

3.6.4 Rationale for Inclusion

Although the turnover literature lacks formal validated scales to represent turnover cognitions (Sager, et. al., 1998 cited in Roodt, 2004), the reliability results were considered acceptable. The above mentioned questionnaire was developed and conducted in a South African context, hence is suitable for use as it has been tried and tested.



3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The research data were statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS is an appropriate mathematical tool as it allows the researcher to draw objective conclusions. For the purpose of testing the research hypotheses a various number of statistical methods was employed. These included descriptive and inferential statistical techniques.

The data analysis techniques employed in analyzing the results of the study are the Pearson Correlation technique, the T-Test, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique and Multiple Regression Analysis.

For the purposes of testing the research hypotheses, a number of statistical techniques were employed. These included the product moment correlation coefficient, multiple regression analysis, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis. These methods are discussed in the sections that follow.



3.7.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to present data in a structured, accurate and summarized way (Huysamen, 1990) and the descriptive data employed in the presentation of the data collected in the survey includes frequencies, percentages, means and deviations. Descriptive statistics look at how frequently certain phenomena occur (frequencies), the mean (average) score of a set of data collected, and the extent of the variability in the set, namely the central tendencies and the dispersions of the dependent and the independent variables (Sekaran, 2003).

Descriptive statistics allows the researcher to display the obtained data in a structured, accurate and summarized manner. It describes the phenomena of interest and is used to analyse data for classifying and summarizing numerical data (Sekaran, 2003). It includes the analysis of data using frequencies, dispersion of independent and dependent variables and measures of central tendency and variability and to obtain a feel for data (Sekaran, 2003).

3.7.2 INFERENCE STATISTICS



Inferential statistics enable the researcher to infer from the data through analysis, the relationship between two variables, the differences in a variable among different subgroups, and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2000). Inferential statistics enable researchers to know how variables relate to one another, and whether or not there are any significant differences between two groups, and in inferential statistics the researcher is able to infer from the data through analysis that (1) the relationship between two variables (2) the differences in a variable among different subgroups (3) how several independent

variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2003).

The two categories of inferential statistics are parametric statistics, which is based on the assumption that the population from which the sample is drawn is normally distributed and that the data is collected at interval or ratio scale, whereas non-parametric data makes the assumption regarding the normality of the distribution, and is used when the data is collected on a nominal or ordinal scale (Sekaran, 2003).



This allows the researcher to present the data obtained from the research in a statistical format to facilitate the identification of important patterns and to make data analysis more meaningful. Sekaran (2003) states that inferential statistics is to be used when generalizing from a sample to the population.

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3.7.2.1 PEARSON'S PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

For the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exists between organisational commitment, stress and turnover intentions, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used. The product moment correlation coefficient

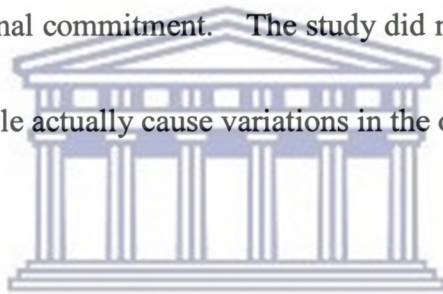
was the appropriate technique for use in this study since it is an index that is used to detect the linear relationship that exists between two variables (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989; Mason & Bramble, 1989; Sekaran, 2000). Two important pieces of information can be derived from the coefficient.

The first is the direction of the relationship between the variables. A positive coefficient indicates that the two variables vary in the same direction, that is, the higher the scores in the one variable, the higher the scores in the other variable. When a perfect positive correlation exists between the variables, the value of the coefficient is +1.00. A negative coefficient, on the other hand, indicates that the two variables vary in opposite directions. As the one variable increases, so the other decreases. A perfect negative relationship between the variables will, thus, be indicated by a correlation coefficient of -1.00 (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989; Mason & Bramble, 1989).

The second piece of information that can be gained from the Pearson correlation coefficient is the strength of the relationship between the two variables. Values near zero indicate a weak linear relationship. The strength of the relationship increases as

the value of the coefficient (r) moves toward either -1.00 or $+1.00$. If r is close to $+1.00$, it indicates a strong, positive linear correlation and if r is close to -1.00 , it is indicative of a strong, negative linear correlation (Viljoen & Van der Merwe, 2000).

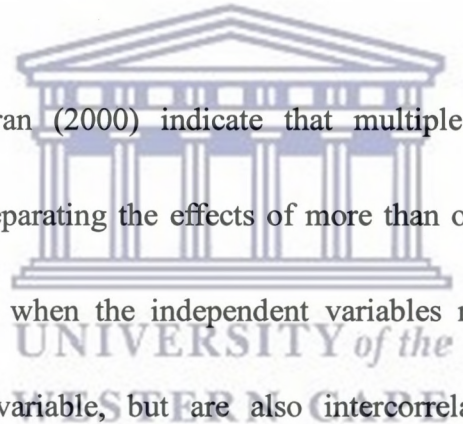
The product moment correlation coefficient is, therefore, suitable for the purposes of the present study since the study attempted to describe the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The study did not attempt to demonstrate that variations in one variable actually cause variations in the other.



3.7.2.2 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple regression, also known as general linear modelling, is a multivariate statistical technique that is used for studying the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables (Allison, 1999; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1995). More specifically, Hair, et al. (1995) point out that the objective of multiple regression analysis is to predict the changes in the dependent variable in response to changes in more than one independent variable. In this manner, multiple regression

provides a means of objectively analysing the magnitude and direction of each independent variable's relationship to the dependent variable. Consequently, the relative importance of each predictor is determined. However, in addition to their individual contribution to the variance in the dependent variable, multiple regression also allows for the determination of the collective contribution of the independent variables (Hair, et al., 1995).

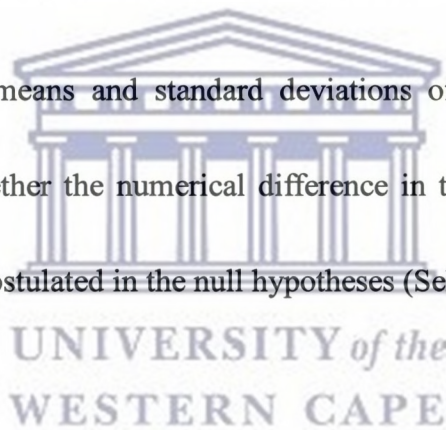


Allison (1999) and Sekaran (2000) indicate that multiple regression analysis is specifically designed for separating the effects of more than one independent variable on the dependent variable when the independent variables not only simultaneously influence the dependent variable, but are also intercorrelated with one another. Therefore, in determining the extent to which the independent variables explain the variance in the dependent variable, the independent variables are jointly regressed against the dependent variable (Sekaran, 2000).

3.7.2.3 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TWO GROUPS USING THE T-TEST

A t-test measures whether there are significant differences in the means for two groups in the variables being investigated, and this is done by splitting the nominal variable into two subgroups and the data is tested to see if there is a significant mean difference between the two split groups on a dependent variable measure on an interval or ratio scale (Sekaran, 2003).

The t-test takes uses the means and standard deviations of the two groups on the variable and examines whether the numerical difference in the means is significantly different from 0 (zero) as postulated in the null hypotheses (Sekaran, 2003).



3.7.2.4 DIFFERENCES AMONGST MORE THAN TWO GROUPS USING ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) examines the significant mean differences among more than two groups on an interval or ratio scaled dependent variable. The ANOVA provides statistical estimates of the variability in test scores associated with systematic differences in the rating assigned and differences in the ratings obtained and add that the

generalization of ANOVA scores can be achieved over time (Murphy & Davidshofer, 2001). Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (1982) state that the hypothesis in the ANOVA is that the mean performance in the population is the same across all groups.

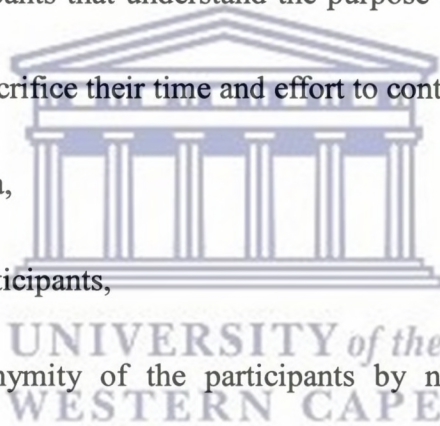
3.8. ETHICAL ISSUES TO CONSIDER

When addressing ethical issues it is imperative that the evaluation or criticism of behaviours, acts or conduct be rooted firmly in a healthy value system that understands what the ideals of fairness, justice, truth, and integrity represent and its application in society at large. Without a fundamental grasp of the difference between 'right' and 'wrong' kinds of behaviour, the concept of ethics will not be correctly understood or applied. Sekaran (2003) maintains that for social science research to make positive contributions to the human condition and society at large, organisations who involved in research projects endeavour:

- to conduct research that benefit society as well as specific disciplines,
- to behave responsibly in the pursuit of knowledge and the improvement of life,
- to respect the rights of participating individuals, by dispensing the needed

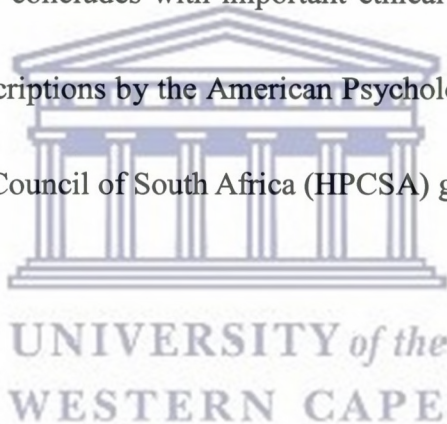
information from which individuals can make an educated decision about whether to participate in the research or not,

- to protect participants from physical, mental or emotional harm, the loss of dignity, self-esteem, privacy or freedom.
- to persuade or force selected participants to participate when they refuse to,
- respect the rights of consenting participants,
- to have only participants that understand the purpose of the project clearly, and that are willing to sacrifice their time and effort to contribute to a particular body of knowledge or data,
- to do no harm to participants,
- to respect the anonymity of the participants by not divulging any details transferred and to keep the promise of confidentiality by not naming them in reporting,
- to not deceive people, and
- to make the short-comings of the research known to the reader.
-



3.9 CONCLUSION

This section has served to orientate the reader to the research methodology that was employed to undertake the research. In particular, attention was placed on the selection of the respondents to participate in the study, the data collection methods and procedure followed to gather the information. In addition, a description of the psychometric properties of the selected measuring instruments is presented as well as the rationale for their inclusion. The chapter concludes with important ethical considerations that were adhered to in line with prescriptions by the American Psychological Association (APA) and the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) guidelines.



CHAPTER 4

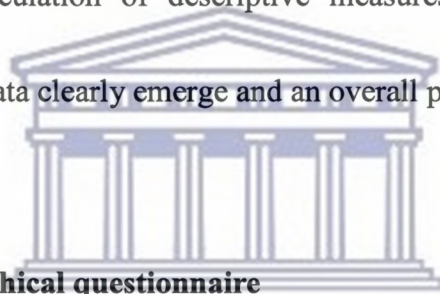
RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

After the data was collected by means of questionnaires, it was coded and quantitatively analysed using the Statistical Programme for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 18. The current chapter outlines the results obtained in the study and provides a discussion of these results. The descriptive statistics computed for the study are presented first in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables included in the study. Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, that is, stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. The information provided and discussed in the previous chapters will serve as a background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the four measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of graphic representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.



4.2.1 Results of the biographical questionnaire

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This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that received attention are as follows:

- Age distribution of the respondents
- Gender distribution of the respondents
- Race of the respondents

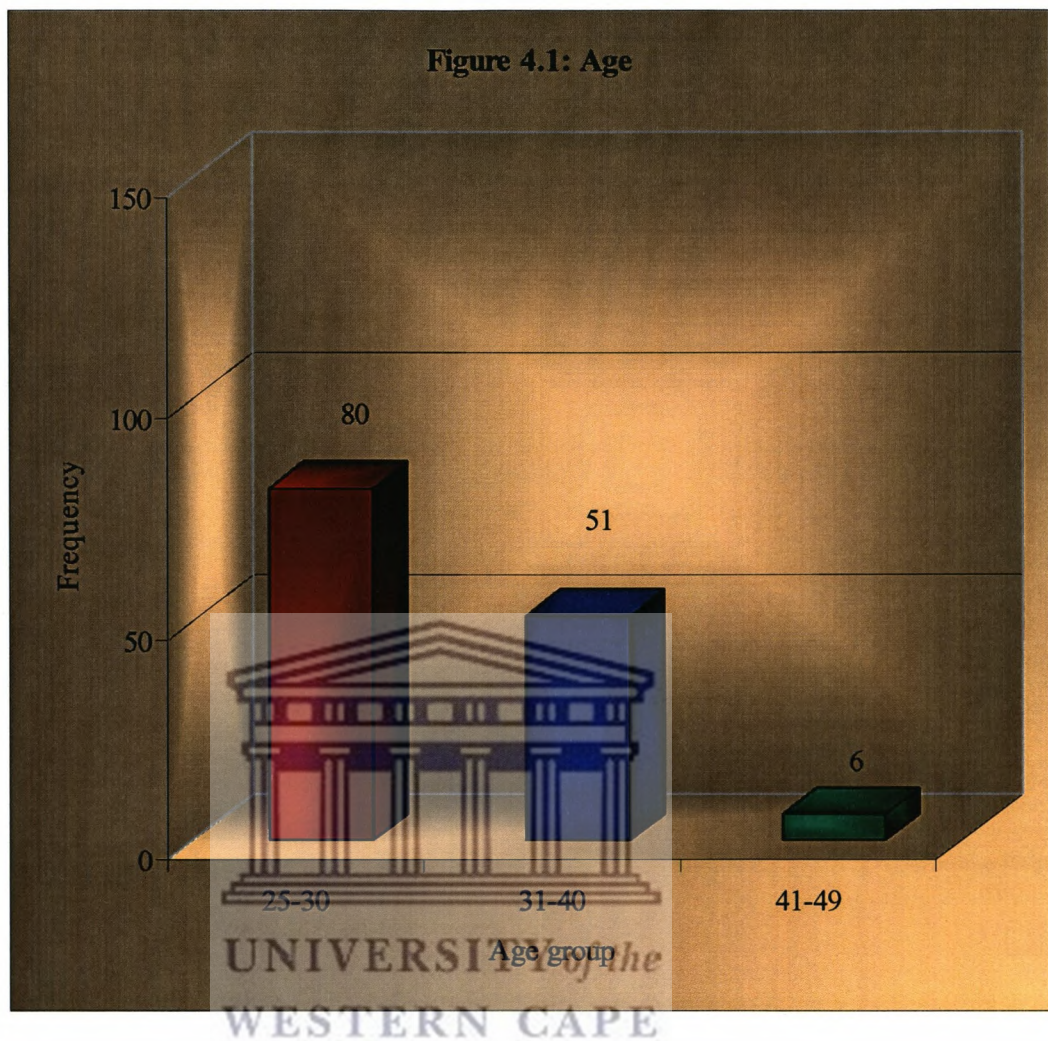
- Marital status
- Tenure of the respondents

Descriptive statistics, in the form of frequencies and percentages, are subsequently presented graphically for each of the above-mentioned variables.

4.2.1.1 Age distribution of respondents

The subjects' responses as regards their age are presented graphically in Figure 4.1.





From the frequency distribution presented in Figure 4.1 it may be deduced that a total of 80 of the 137 cases in the sample are between the ages of 31 and 40 years. It can thus be seen that the majority of the individuals in the sample (58.4%) fall into this category. This is followed by the 41 to 49 year age category into which 37.2% (n=51) of the respondents fall, while only 4.4 % (n=6) of the respondents indicated that they are older than 50 years.

4.2.1.2 Gender distribution of the respondents

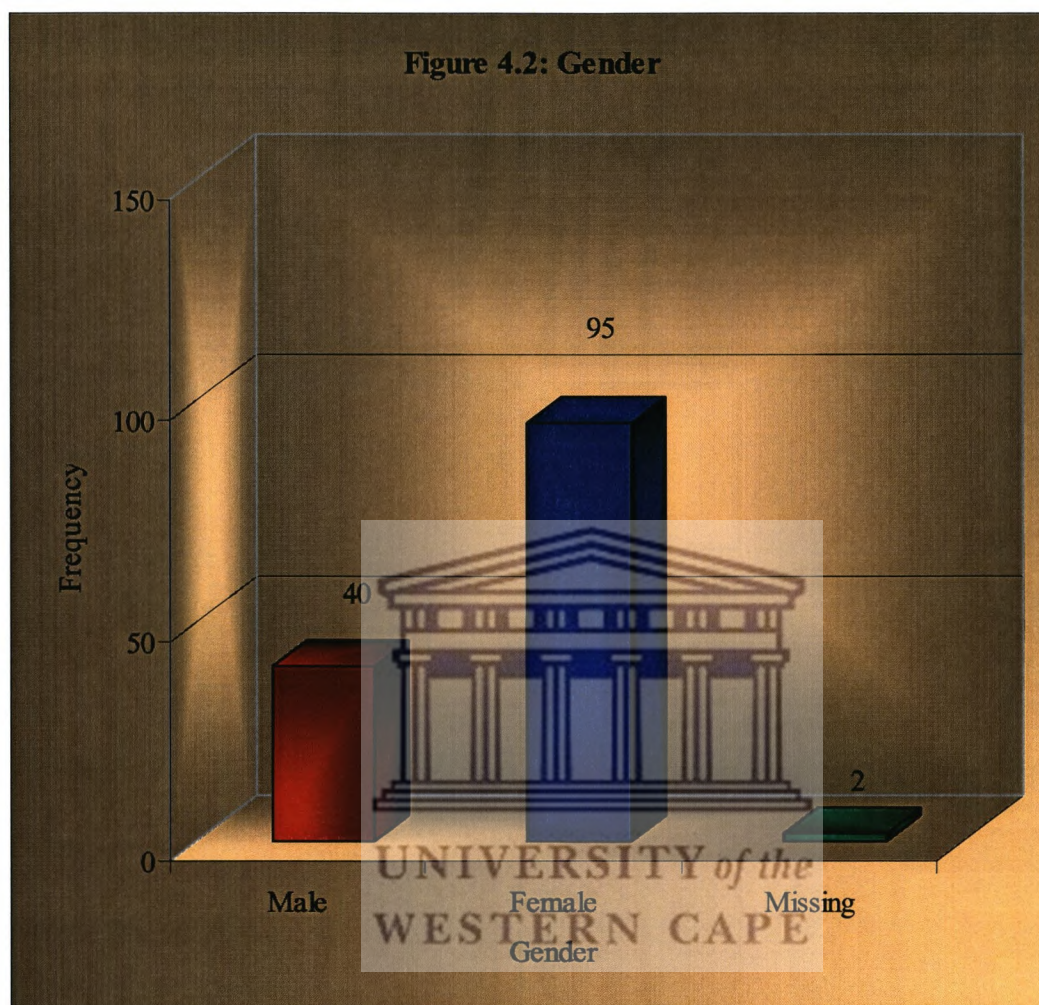
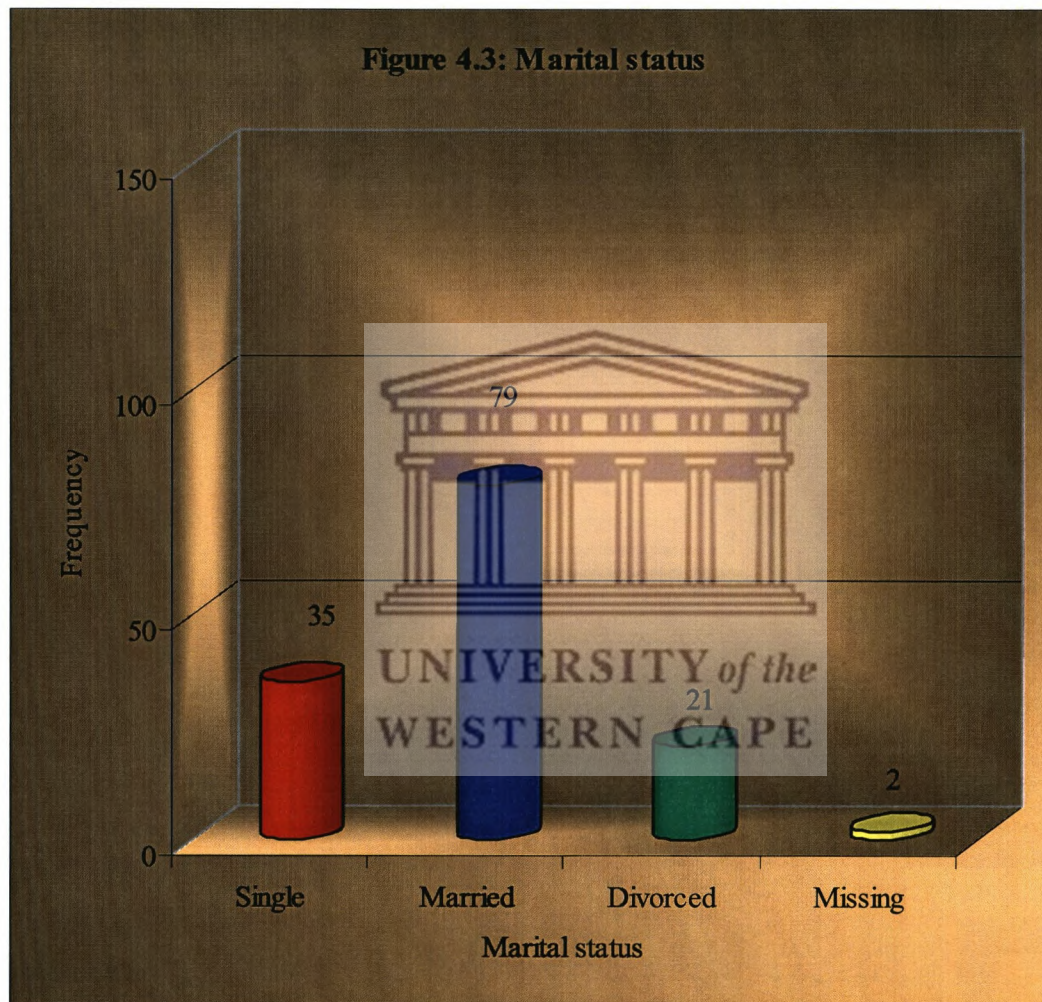


Figure 4.2 presents a graphical representation of the gender distribution of the selected sample. As can be seen from Figure 4.2, the majority of the respondents are female. More specifically, 70% ($n=95$) of the subjects are women, while only 29% ($n=40$) are male. Furthermore, two of the participants (1%) did not specify their gender.

4.2.1.3 Marital status of the respondents

The marital status of the respondents is presented graphically in Figure 4.3.



From Figure 4.3 the following may be deduced: The majority of the sample, 57.6% (n=79), are married. A total of 35 respondents (25.5%) indicated that they are single and 21 respondents indicated that they were divorced (15.3%). Two respondents (1%) did

not provide an indication of their marital status.

4.2.1.4 Race of the respondents

The distribution of the sample with regards to race is presented graphically in Figure 4.4.

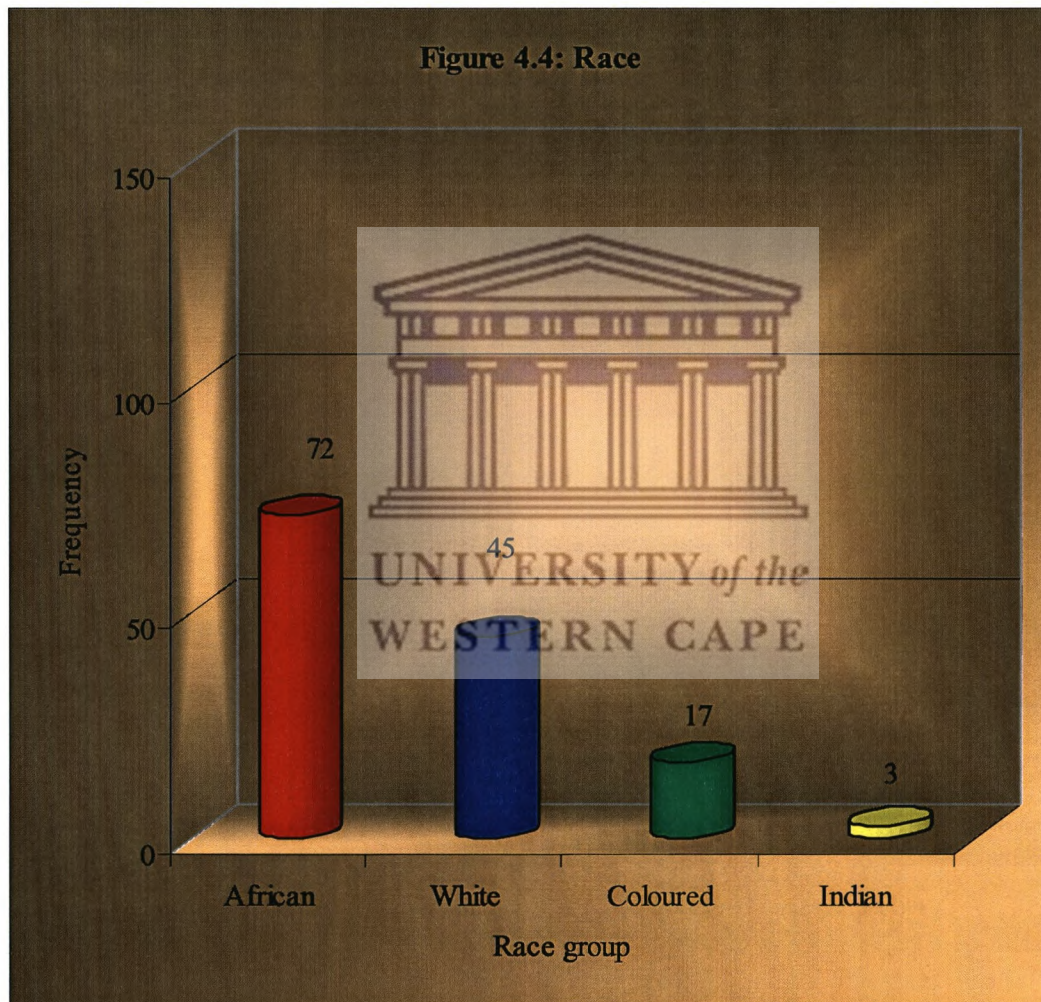


Figure 4.4 indicates that 52.6% (n=72) of the sample are African, 32.8% (n=45) are Coloured, while 12.4% (n=17) of the participants were White. Furthermore, 3

respondents (2.2%) were Indian.

4.2.1.5 Tenure of the respondents

The respondents' years of service in the organisation under investigation are presented in Figure 4.5.

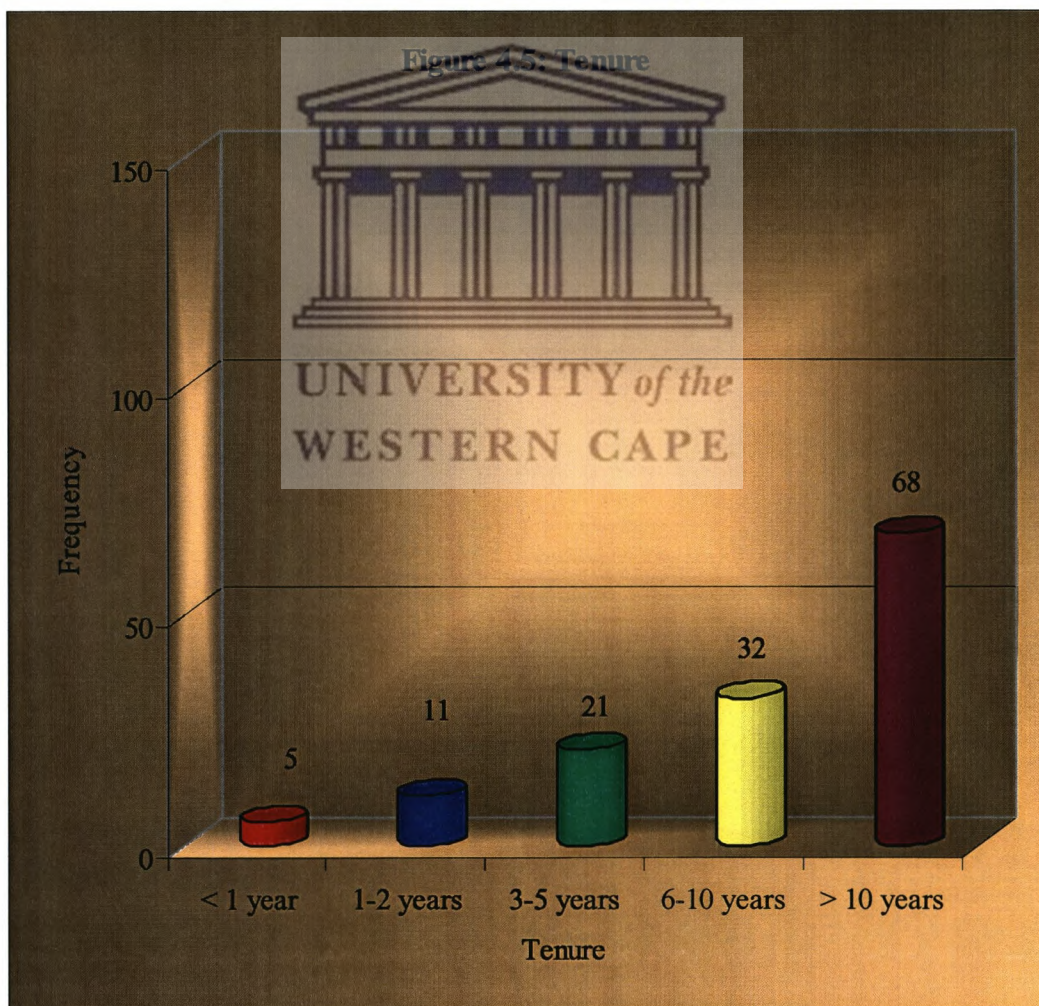
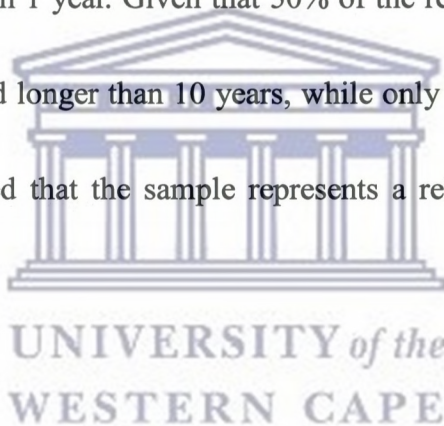


Figure 4.5 indicates that: Sixty-eight of the sample subjects (50%) have served more than 10 years in the organisation in question. Thirty-two respondents (23%) have worked for the organisation for between 6 and 10 years. Twenty-one of the participants (15%) indicated that they have been employed in the organisation for between 3 and 5 years. Eleven (8%) of the employees in the sample have served between 1 and 2 years in the organisation. Only 5 of the respondents (3.6%) indicated that they have worked in the organisation for less than 1 year. Given that 50% of the respondents have served in the organisation for a period longer than 10 years, while only 4% have served less than 1 year, it may be concluded that the sample represents a relatively tenured group of employees.



4.3 RESULTS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations were Computed for the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire. The results are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1**Descriptive statistics for organisational commitment**

Variable	Cases (n)	Mean	Standard deviation
Organisational commitment	137	48.445	8.932

Table 4.1 further shows that the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the organisational commitment of the sample are 48.445 and 8.932, respectively. Given that a mean score of approximately 60 would constitute an average level of organisational commitment, it may be concluded that the sample in question demonstrates below average levels of organisational commitment as assessed by the OCQ. The obtained standard deviation of 8.932 is also not particularly high, which would suggest that most responses are distributed relatively close to the mean with regards to this construct.

4.4 RESULTS OF THE EXPERIENCE OF WORK AND LIFE CIRCUMSTANCES QUESTIONNAIRE (STRESS)

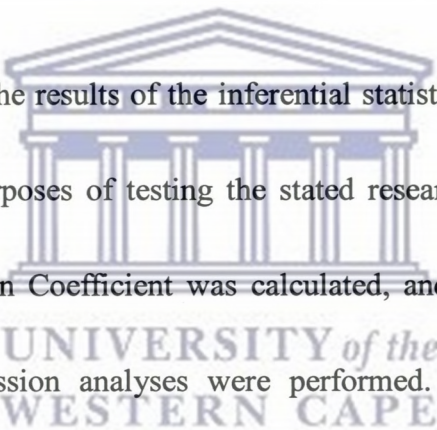
Table 4.2: Levels and sources of stress

Scale	Mean	Sd	Interpretation
Stress level	93.1	17.18	High
Extra-organisational causes	27.89	4.32	Normal
Organisational functioning	15.03	4.97	High
Task characteristics	38.57	8.51	High
Physical work conditions and job equipment	14.12	5.94	Very high
Career development	24.03	7.17	High
Social matters	22.03	6.82	Normal
Remuneration, fringe benefits and personnel policy	17.93	9.13	Vey high

Table 4.1 indicates that as a group, teachers experience high stress. Teachers report the highest stress as emanating from physical work conditions and job equipment (Mean = 14.12, s = 5.94), as well as remuneration, fringe benefits and personnel policy (Mean =

17.93, $s = 9.13$). In addition, they report their stress levels to be high (mean = 93.1, $s = 17.18$), rating organisational functioning to be stressful (Mean = 15.03, $s = 4.97$), task characteristics (Mean = 38.57, $s = 8.51$) and career development also resulting in high stress levels (Mean = 24.03, $s = 7.17$).

4.5 INFERENCE STATISTICS



In the sections that follow the results of the inferential statistics employed in the study are presented. For the purposes of testing the stated research hypotheses, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated, and multiple regression and hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed. With the aid of these statistical techniques conclusion are drawn with regards to the population from which the sample was taken and decisions are made with respect to the research hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 :Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

The Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed for the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exists between job stress,

organisational commitment and turnover intentions amongst teachers. The Pearson correlation matrix obtained is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Pearson correlation matrix depicting stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions

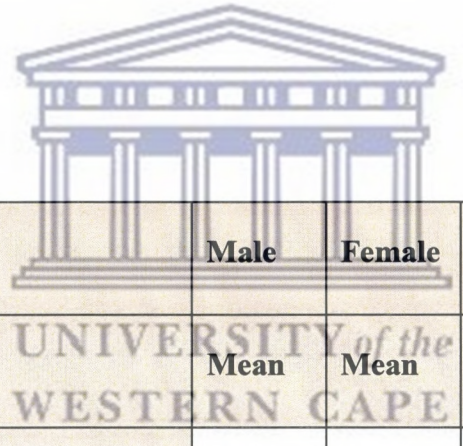
	Turnover intention
Stress	0.7479 P = 0.004**
Organisational Commitment	- 0.5394 P = 0.006**

** p < 0.01

Table 4.3 indicates the relationship between stress, organisational commitment and turnover intention amongst educators. The results indicate that there is a strong, direct relationship between stress and turnover intention amongst the sample of employees ($r = 0.7479, p < 0.01$). Moreover, there was a significant inverse relationship between

organisational commitment and turnover intention ($r = -0.5394$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that higher levels of stress are strongly associated with turnover intention amongst educators, while low organisational commitment is likely to translate into higher turnover intentions. **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.**

Table 4.4: t-test Job stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions by gender



	Male	Female		
	Mean	Mean	t	P
Stress	87.6	102.3	-1.387	0.000**
Organisational commitment	39.63	52.41	-.276	0.000**
Turnover intention	93.28	71.29	-.766	0.000**

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4 depicts the t-test with respect to job stress based on the gender of respondents.

The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, $t (-1.387, p < 0.01)$, in the stress levels of educators based on their gender. The results furthermore indicate that female teachers experience significantly higher levels of stress (Mean = 102.3).

Male teachers are statistically significantly less committed to their organisations than are their female counterparts (Mean = 39.63, $p < 0.01$). Even though females indicate low commitment, they are more committed to the organisation (Mean = 52.41). Moreover, male teachers indicated they had a greater intention to leave (Mean = 93.28) in comparison to female teachers (Mean = 71.29). These results were statistically significant indicating significant differences in turnover intentions. **Hence, the null hypothesis, is rejected with respect to differences in stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions based on gender.**

Table 4.5: ANOVA: Job stress by Age

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	1645.898	4	411.474	0.456	0.001**
Within groups	41931.645	89	471.142		
Total	43577.543	93			

** $p < 0.01$



Table 4.5 depicts the ANOVA with respect to job stress based on the ages of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, $F=0.456$; $p < 0.01$, in the stress levels of educators based on their ages. **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected with respect to differences in stress levels of educators based on age category.** Scheffe's post hoc multiple comparison method was used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between the stress levels of educators based on their age categories.

Table 4.6: Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the age of respondents in relation to job stress

	Mean	Std error	P
25-30	63.72	11.46	0.000**
31-40	72.18	13.25	
41-49	103.34	27.94	
50+	76.34	12.96	

** $p < 0.01$



The results indicate that educators in the age group 41-49 differ significantly from the other groups, with respondents in the age category 25-30 years and younger experiencing lower stress levels relative to the other age categories.

Table 4.7 ANOVA: Job stress by Race

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	1965.864	4	491.466	1.273	0.001**
Within groups	34363.757	89	386.110		
Total	36239.621	93			

** $p < 0.01$



The results with respect to job stress based on race are shown in Table 4.7. The results clearly indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in the stress levels of educators based on their race group ($F=1.273$, $p < 0.01$). **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected with respect to differences in stress levels of educators based on their race group.**

Table 4.8: Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the race of respondents in relation to job stress

	Mean	Std error	P
African	102.63	8.24	0.000**
Coloured	84.68	11.53	
Indian	63.84	17.84	
White	86.14	10.76	

** p < 0.01



In terms of Table 4.8, Scheffe's post hoc multiple comparison revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between educators' stress levels on the basis of their race group. Respondents from the African group evidenced significantly higher stress levels ($p < 0.01$) relative to the other three race groups. African respondents' mean stress levels were the highest (102.63), followed by White respondents (Mean = 86.14, s

= 10.76), Coloured respondents (Mean = 84.68) and Indian respondents (Mean = 63.84).

Table 4.9: ANOVA: Job stress by Marital Status

	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	1546.924	4	386.731	0.810	0.001**
Within groups	42501.552	89	477.546		
Total	44048.476	93			

** p < 0.01

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Table 4.9 shows the ANOVA with respect to job stress based on the marital status of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, F (0.810; p < 0.01), in the stress levels of educators based on their marital status.

Table 4.10 Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the marital status of respondents in relation to job stress

	Mean	Std error	P
Single	74.34	12.46	0.000**
Married	78.26	17.35	
Divorced	108.28	15.32	
Widowed	89.64	10.02	

** $p < 0.01$

The results indicate that there are significant differences in stress based on marital status, with divorced educators reporting significantly higher stress levels relative to the other categories of respondents ($p < 0.01$). The mean stress levels for those that are divorced (Mean = 108.28, $s = 15.32$) are significantly higher than who are widowed

(Mean = 89.64, s = 10.02), those who are married (Mean = 78.26, s 17.35) and those who are single (Mean = 74.34, s = 12.46).

Table 4.11 ANOVA: Job stress by tenure

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	P
Between groups	1324.934	3	220.822	0.574	0.000**
Within groups	34231.354	86	384.622		
Total	35556.288	89			

** p < 0.01



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Table 4.11 depicts the ANOVA with respect to job stress based on the tenure of the respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences, (F = 0.574; p < 0.01), in the stress levels of educators based on their tenure.

Table 4.12 Scheffe's Post hoc comparison of the tenure of respondents

	Mean	Std error	P
3-7 years	93.34	11.29	0.000**
8-20 years	95.36	16.32	
21-30 years	107.28	10.65	
> 30 years	92.26	16.73	



** $p < 0.01$

The results indicate that educators with more 21-30 years tenure experience the highest stress (Mean = 107.28, followed by those with 8-20 years' tenure.

Table 4.13 Pearson correlation between organisational commitment and biographical variables

		Organisational commitment	
Pearson correlation		Sig (2-tailed)	
Gender	0.665	0.00**	
Age	0.572	0.00**	
Educational level	0.413	0.04*	
Tenure	0.514	0.00**	
Job level	0.539	0.00**	

Table 4.13 indicates the relationship between the respondents' biographical characteristics and organisational commitment. The results indicate that the strongest

relationship exists between gender and organisational commitment ($r = 0.665, p < 0.01$).

There was also a significant correlation between the age of respondents and organisational commitment ($r = 0.572, p < 0.01$).

There was also a significant relationship between tenure and organisational commitment ($r = 0.514, p < 0.01$), and job level and organisational commitment ($r = 0.539, p < 0.01$).

Moreover, there was a significant relationship between the educational level of teachers and their organisational commitment ($r = 0.413, p < 0.05$). Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

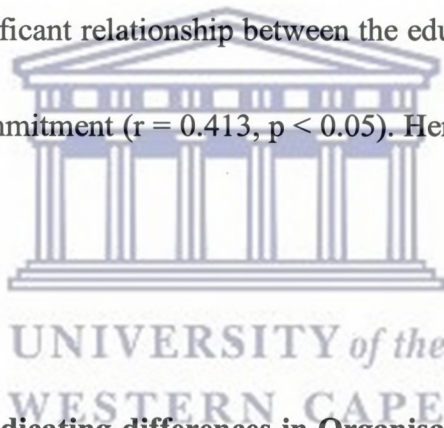


Table 4.14 ANOVA indicating differences in Organisational Commitment and Turnover intentions based on biographical characteristics

	Organisational Commitment		Turnover intention	
	F	P	F	P
Age	1.223	0.022*	1.224	0.036*
Race	1.653	0.004**	0.208	0.254
Marital status	1.438	0.043*	1.633	0.014*
Tenure	1.685	0.000**	1.922	0.000**

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.14 indicates the differences in turnover intentions and organisational commitment on the basis of the respondents' biographical characteristics. There was a statistically significant difference in organisational commitment based on age ($F = 1.223$, $p < 0.05$), as well as marital status ($F = 1.438$, $p < 0.05$). In addition, there was a statistically significant difference in organisational commitment based on race ($F = 1.653$, $p < 0.01$) as well as based on tenure ($F = 1.7685$, $p < 0.01$).

There was no statistically significant difference in turnover intentions based on race ($F = 0.208$, $p > 0.05$). However, there was a statistically significant difference in turnover intentions based on age ($F = 1.224$, $p < 0.05$) as well as marital status ($F = 1.633$, $p < 0.05$).

There was also a statistically significant difference in turnover intentions based on tenure ($F = 1.922$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4.15 Multiple regression: Stress, Organisational Commitment and Turnover intention

		TURNOVER INTENTION	
Multiple R	0.614235		
R Square	0.377284		
Adjusted R Square	- 0.01956		
Standard error	8.97585		
Degrees of freedom			
Regression	5		
Residual	123		
F	3.50881		
Sign F	0.046*		
Variable	Beta		Sig T
Stress	-0.079274	- 0.777	0.043*
Organisational Commitment	- 0.105214	- 1.120	0.026*

In terms of Table 4.15 , it can be seen that the correlation of the three variables, is 0.14235, as represented by Multiple R. Furthermore, the R Square value of 0.377284 suggests that only 37.7% of the variance in turnover intention can be attributed to stress and organisational commitment. Table 4.15 further shows that the F-statistic of 3.50881 at 5 and 123 degrees of freedom is statistically significance at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.16 Reliability of the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire, Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and the Turnover Intention Questionnaire

Dimension	Number of items	N	Cronbach
WLCQ	116	137	0.822
Organisational Commitment	20	137	0.904
Turnover Intentions Questionnaire	14	137	0.813

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The reliability Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the scale. Table 4.15 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the various constructs which were assessed. The results indicate that the coefficient were all in excess of 0.7, thereby indicating consistency, stability and freedom from error (Sekaran, 2003).

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the most salient findings which emerged from the study investigating stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions amongst a sample of teachers. The results were graphically presented and descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were tabulated and discussed. The next chapter provides a discussion of the results, and presents the findings in relation to previous research. Conclusions which can be drawn are presented and recommendations to individuals and organisations are highlighted.



CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of this study was to determine the relationship between stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape. This chapter presents an overview of the most important findings of the research performed. In order to contextualize the research, comparisons are drawn with available literature on stress amongst teachers in various settings. The remainder of the chapter provides the conclusions that can be drawn from the research as well as recommendations to address the problem of teacher stress.

5.2 SOURCES OF STRESS

Results in the study indicate that teachers in the Eastern Cape experience relatively high levels of stress. An analysis of the sources of stress indicates that physical working conditions and work equipment, as well as remuneration, benefits and personnel

policies are regarded as the most highly stressful. This is followed by task characteristics, organisational functioning and career prospects.

Research (Cole & Walker, 1989; Travers & Cooper, 1996) indicates a definite connection between the physical environment and work-related stress experienced by teachers.

Researchers are of the opinion that educators are faced with working conditions that force them to perform their jobs poorly due to, inter alia, a lack of adequate resources, large class

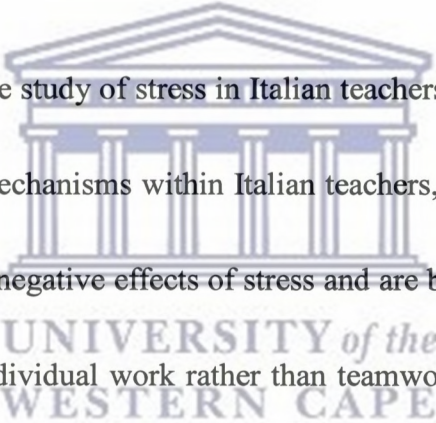
sizes, poor staffroom facilities, vandalism by learners, poor lighting, broken windows and furniture, high noise levels and absent parents (Olivier & Venter, 2003). Research done

after 1994 brought to light that there is a difference in the available materials, equipment and resources in schools in townships and Ex-model C schools (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002).

The shortage of materials or means to prepare and present a well-planned lesson seems to be a great source of frustration and disillusionment for teachers and concomitantly contributes to stress (Travers & Cooper, 1996).

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1987) asked their sample of 257 teachers in 16-medium sized schools to indicate the most significant stressors. They indicated pupil misbehaviour, poor working conditions, time pressures and poor school ethos as stressful. These

factors were also identified by researchers in other countries (Borg et al.,1991; Laughlin, 1984; Okebukola & Jegede, 1989; Payne & Furnham, 1987). In a study that examined stress in Italian teachers it was found that the teachers reported most pressure with some aspects of their work related to the perceived lack of status and professional support, to the job of teaching itself, to the workload in the form of overcrowded classes and the lack of support from pupils and parents (Zurlo, Pes & Cooper, 2007).

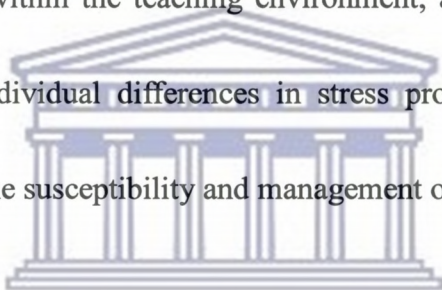


An important influence of the study of stress in Italian teachers revealed the presence of particularly strong coping mechanisms within Italian teachers, these moderating factors buffer the teachers from the negative effects of stress and are based on their tendency to centre their behaviour on individual work rather than teamwork, and this could impact on the quality of teaching, the lack of job commitment and job disengagement in the long term (Zurlo, et al., 2007). It would be critical for researchers to explore the impact of moderating variables or buffering factors that may reduce the negative effect of stress in teaching.

In a study of stress in teachers in the George region of the Eastern Cape it was found that stress manifested itself in teachers mainly on the emotional level, to a lesser degree

but still significant level on physical, psychological and behavioural levels (Olivier & Venter, 2003). In fact the stress that the teachers in the George region experienced is called “job compassion fatigue” and the findings of Olivier and Venter (2003) were confirmed by other research done by Van Wyk (1998) and Marais (1992)

Sutton and Huberty (2001) found that significant determinants of teacher stress are related to stressors found within the teaching environment, and that more research is needed in the study of individual differences in stress proneness, coping methods, personality variables, and the susceptibility and management of stress.



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Olivier and Venter (2003) found teachers indicated that what caused stress for them were inadequate salaries when considering time at work tasks and work input, the poor discipline of learners which explain their poor performance at tasks and this couples with bad behaviour, high teacher-learner ratios in the classroom, a lack of space, infrastructure and resources with which to complete tasks, little time for recreational activity and after-hours meetings, a lack of their suggestions being heard and acted on, feelings of being depressed, and cardio-vascular and gastronomical symptoms.

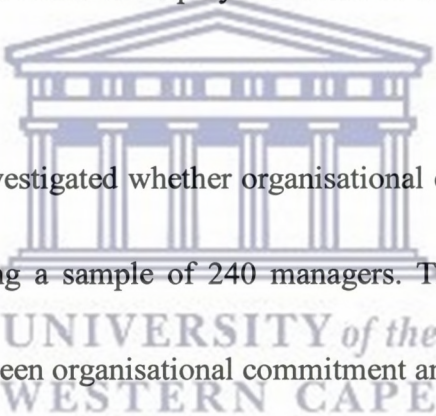
5.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, STRESS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

HYPOTHESIS 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between organisational commitment, stress and turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape

The results emanating from the current study indicated that there are statistically significant relationships amongst stress, organisational commitment and turnover intentions amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape. **Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.**

Arnolds (2005) conducted a study on the perceptions of higher education restructuring in South Africa. Based on a sample of 1124 academic and non- academic staff in a South African university, they found that low organisational commitment had negative implications for intentions to resign. A total of 75 employees (27.6%) reported that they were planning on quitting their jobs and 51 (18.8%) of these employees revealed that they wanted to leave their jobs because of stress (Arnold, 2005).

Kakhumuza and Schleiter (2008) investigated the direct and mediated relationships between perceived support and intention to quit. One of the goals was to find as relationship between intention to quit and perceived support where affective commitment was a factor. This study was done with bank employees where a sample of 187 employees was used. They found that the component of organisational commitment, affective commitment had an effect on employee's intention to leave the organisation.



Similarly, Popola (2009) investigated whether organisational commitment had an effect on turnover intentions, using a sample of 240 managers. They found that there is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.

Mostert et.al (2008) indicated that occupational stress has a negative influence on organisational commitment and according to Pierce and Dunham (1987) there is a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions. In their study Coetzee and Rothman (2005) report that employees perceive characteristics of their jobs and control as a big source of stress and therefore perceive

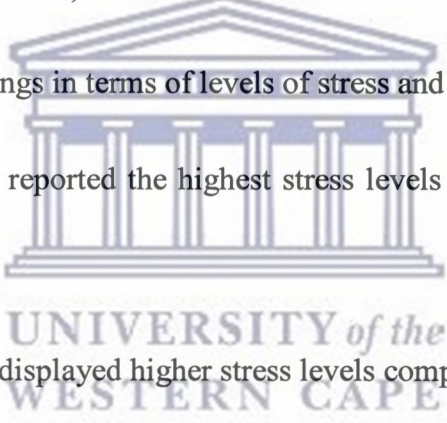
the organisation as less committed to them, and in turn, they also become less committed to the organisation. Jackson and Rothman (2006) reported that secondary school teachers generally experienced more stress because of work load and therefore showed signs of lower organisational commitment and showed symptoms of stress.

In their study to research the outcomes of occupational stress in a higher education institution, Mostert et.al (2008) hypothesized that stress may lead to low commitment to the organisation and concomitantly that low organisational commitment may lead to turnover intentions. Mostert et.al (2008) found that the relationship between occupational stressors and perceived commitment from the organisation was significant. When employees found that the job stressors, like job overload, and lack of resources, were too much to handle, they perceived that the organisation was less committed to them and their well being. As a consequence employees are likely to become less committed to the organisation and their ultimate response would be to consider resignation from their current jobs. They conclude that “the results showed that occupational stress and organisational commitment significantly predicted turnover intentions” (Mostert et al., 2008, p. 117).

5.4 STRESS AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

HYPOTHESIS 2: There is a statistically significant difference in stress amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape based on their biographical characteristics

The results in the study indicate that there are statistically significant differences in stress based on age, race, gender, tenure and marital status. In addition, Scheffe's Test reflected the following findings in terms of levels of stress and biographical variables:

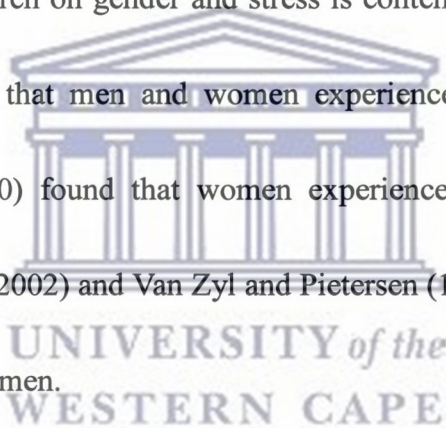
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- African respondents reported the highest stress levels relative to the other race groups.
 - Female respondents displayed higher stress levels compared to males
 - Educators in the age group 41-49 reported significantly higher stress levels.
 - Divorced respondents displayed the highest stress levels relative to the other marital status categories.
 - Those with between 21 and 30 years' tenure reported higher levels of stress.

Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.4.1 GENDER

The results comparing job stress based on the gender of the respondents indicates that there are statistically significant differences ($t = -1.387$; $p < 0.01$), in the stress levels of teachers based on their gender.

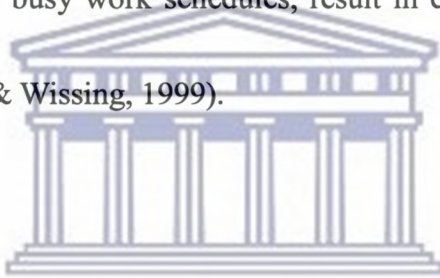
Although much of the research on gender and stress is contentious, empirical evidence exists attesting to the fact that men and women experience stress differently. For example, while Tung (1980) found that women experienced lower levels of stress compared to men, Van Zyl (2002) and Van Zyl and Pietersen (1999) suggest that women experience more stress than men.



Much of the research on gender and stress is contentious. Many researchers suggest that women have more stress than men and that women are more prone to depression (Aamodt, 2004; Van Zyl, 2002). Van den Bergh (2001) as cited by Van Zyl (2002) postulates that “many black women suddenly find themselves in managerial positions, sometimes without the necessary skills, experience and support” which result in high levels of stress for these women. The reason why female employees experience more

stress than men may be due to the fact that they are more committed to their jobs and they have more barriers to overcome to attain their positions (Van Zyl, 2002). This commitment of female teachers result in high stress levels.

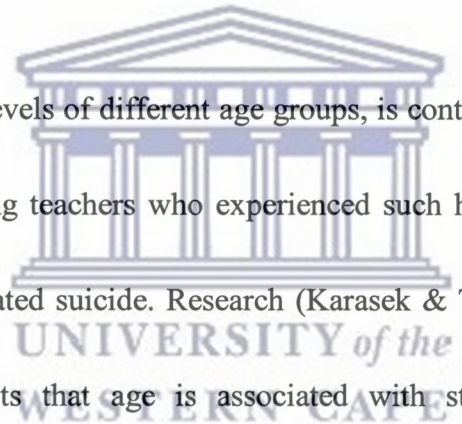
Many female teachers experience the changes in the South African educational system as traumatic. The adjustments associated with these changes, together with the female teachers' normal duties and busy work schedules, result in continuous stress (van der Linde, van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999).



Van Zyl (2002) maintains that the reason why female employees experience more stress than men may be due to the fact that they are more committed to their jobs and they have more barriers to overcome to attain their positions. He maintains that this commitment of female teachers result in high stress levels. In conjunction with this, Pearlin (1989, in Long, 1998, p.65) posits the view that “greater vulnerability to stress may be attributed to social roles that reflect the unequal distribution of resources, opportunities and self-regard”. Nevertheless, female teachers' normal duties and busy work schedules combined with other roles that need to be fulfilled results in continuous stress (van der Linde, van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999).

5.4.2 AGE

The results of research to compare job stress based on the ages of the respondents indicate that there are statistically significant differences ($F = 0456$; $p < 0.01$), in the stress levels based on age.

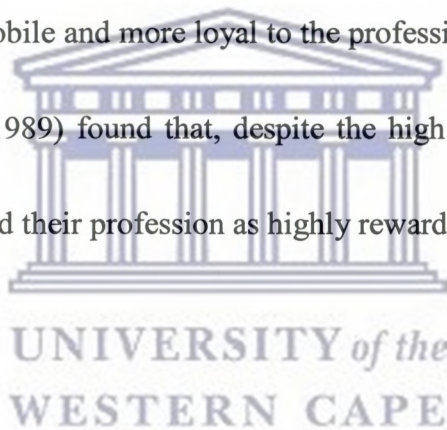


Research regarding stress levels of different age groups, is contradictory. Naylor (2001) reported on relatively young teachers who experienced such high levels of stress and anxiety that they contemplated suicide. Research (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Theorell & Karasek, 1996) suggests that age is associated with stress amongst teachers. However, research by Pisanti, Gagliardi, Razzino and Bertini (2003) amongst a sample of secondary school teachers in Italy did not find evidence of a relationship between the age of teachers and the level of stress experienced. Results, are hence, unequivocal.

Literature suggests that younger teachers experience lower levels of stress due to the absence of family responsibilities. Older respondents are probably more likely to experience higher levels of stress due to the fact that they are less mobile as an

employee and more loyal to the profession that they have chosen (Van Zyl, 2002; Van Zyl & Pietersen, 2003).

Literature suggests that younger teachers experience lower levels of stress due to the absence of family responsibilities. Van Zyl (2002) and Van Zyl and Pietersen (1999) maintain that it is likely that older respondents experience higher levels of stress due to the fact that they are less mobile and more loyal to the profession that they have chosen. Indeed, Borg and Falzon (1989) found that, despite the high prevalence of stress, the majority of teachers regarded their profession as highly rewarding.



5.4.3 RACE

The results in the current study indicate that there are statistically significant differences in stress based on race ($F = 1.273, p < 0.01$). Research on race and stress is unequivocal. Aamodt (2004) believes that there are only minor differences in reactions to stressful situations among ethnic groups. A study done by Van Zyl and Bester (2001) indicates that Black illiterate or semi-skilled employees' levels of stress were significantly higher than the literate or skilled group.

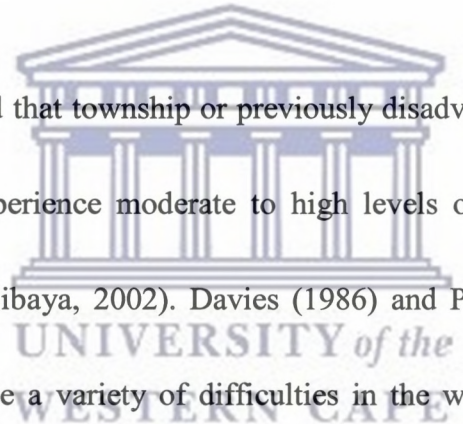
Wynne-Potts (1996) investigated the relationship between township life stressors, role overload at work, coping at work and levels of distress in township teachers on the East Rand. Based on a sample of 97 teachers, Wynne-Potts (1996) found teachers from townships experienced high levels of stress. Results from Kutame's (1998) research in which stress amongst teachers in rural secondary schools in the Northern Province of South Africa was investigated, indicated that these teachers experience high levels of stress.



Furthermore, Jonas (2001) investigated the relationship between perceived social support, stress and general health of 81 Black teachers from seven schools in the Northern Province. Jonas (2001) reported that among the factors contributing to stress experienced by teachers was age, gender, family size, family income, level of education, marital status and the support network and resources available to teachers.

Ngidi and Sibaya (2002) found in their study among black teachers that the conditions under which those teachers work in schools are frustrating and demoralising and cause high levels of stress in those teachers due to poorer physical conditions such as

overcrowding, inadequate equipment and lack of adequate facilities (Ngidi, 1995). This is a consequence of disparities in financial provisions during the apartheid era in South Africa. Poor working conditions may therefore be a major source of stress among teachers. Poor physical conditions such as overcrowding may in turn exacerbate problems such as teachers having to cover the syllabus in little time available, as well as a lack of time for marking and less preparation (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002).

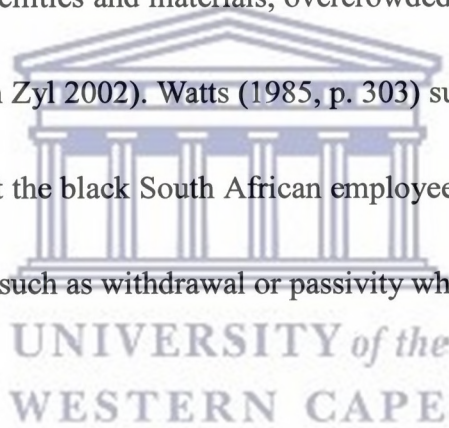


Empirical research revealed that township or previously disadvantaged school teachers, who are mostly black, experience moderate to high levels of stress (Dooley, 1997; Motseke, 1999; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Davies (1986) and Prins (1995) believe that black employees experience a variety of difficulties in the work situation: inter alia: work overload, time pressures, inadequate training opportunities, poor communication, little participation in decision-making and stereotypical prejudice.

Smallegan (1989) and Dressler (1989) and van Zyl (1991) indicate that high levels of stress in senior black employees are linked to the broad social context within which the individual functions. The following are typical examples: personal home life affected by the extra time devoted to work, physical threats in the townships, inadequate housing

and facilities, family problems, poor health, social problems with family and friends, financial problems, insufficient recreation facilities and changes.

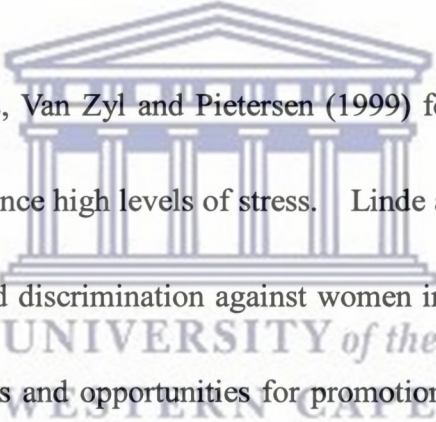
Many studies support these findings that black teachers experience more stress in suburb schools as a result of the physical conditions under which they have to perform their duties. Other possible reasons for the higher levels of stress in black teachers are lack of skills, inadequate facilities and materials, overcrowded classes and poor training (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Van Zyl 2002). Watts (1985, p. 303) summarises the situation as follows: “It is worrying that the black South African employee tends to adopt emotional defensive coping strategies such as withdrawal or passivity when faced with stress.”



5.4.4 MARITAL STATUS

The results revealed there are significant differences ($F = .810, p < 0.01$) in stress levels based on the marital status of respondents. The mean stress levels for those that are divorced (Mean = 89.64, $s = 10.02$) are significantly higher than who are widowed (Mean = 82.63, $s.15.56$).

Married female teachers in particular experience high levels of stress (van Zyl & Pietersen, 1999). Linde and Marx (1995) are of the opinion that stereotypes and discrimination against women in general has a negative effect on their income, status and opportunities for promotion. Possible reasons why the teachers in the divorced and widowed groups experience high levels of stress, could be due to the extra family and financial responsibilities that they have as single parents.



In their study of 55 teachers, Van Zyl and Pietersen (1999) found that married female teachers in particular experience high levels of stress. Linde and Marx (1995) advance the view that stereotypes and discrimination against women in general have a negative effect on their income, status and opportunities for promotion. Possible reasons why the teachers in the divorced and widowed groups experience high levels of stress, could be due to the extra family and financial responsibilities that they have as single parents.

It has come to be apparent that stress is not experienced equally by teachers but it varies from individual to individual for example locus of control and type – A personality play a substantial role in occupational stress As well as other factors like age and qualification (Jackson & Roman, 2006). Arslan et, al (2009) did a study to investigate

coping with stress and anxiety in terms of locus of control. This study was conducted among university students with a sample of 514 (286 male and 228 female). The measuring instruments they used were the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, the Coping with Stress Scale and the Rotter Locus of Control Scale. They found that students with external locus of control have a significantly higher anxiety and stress than student with internal locus of control. This is because generally people with internal locus of control believe that they are responsible for their own loves and fate and do whatever it takes to keep things in control. People with external locus of control on the other hand believe that they can change significantly fewer things with their efforts and they make less effort to improve their situations (Arslan et, al 2009). If this is a general phenomenon as Arslan et.al (2009) suggest it can therefore also apply with teaches too. Teachers would be able to deal with stress differently depending on their locus of control.

There is has been contradicting findings as to whether there is a significant difference in the way that males and females experience stress. Martocchio and O'leary (1989) conducted a Meta analytic study to find the sex differences in occupational stress. This Meta analysis was done on 15 studies and they found that there is no significant difference in the way the men handle stress from their female counterparts. This could

have been because there is no variation in occupational stress among biographically differentiated groups of educators (Jackson & Rothman, 2006). To try and find more Jackson and Rothman (2006) conducted a study on stress, commitment and ill health amongst educators in the Northern Province This study was done on a stratified random sample of (N=11470) was taken of educators. The result was that there is a slight difference in the way different genders handle stress but it was not a significant relationship.



When Olivier and Venter (2003) conducted research on stress in teacher in the George area, the study was conducted to a sample of 132 teachers and amongst the questionnaires used the Fimian Teacher's Inventory was administered. They found out that teacher experienced high levels of stress with regard to incidence and intensity. As far a stress related factors and gender and biological variables the analysis they used was the ANOVA. They reported that gender was significantly related to stress factors such as time management and professional distress and the way men dealt with these factors was different.

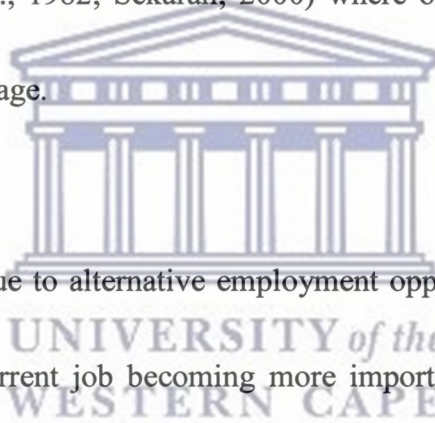
5.5 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

HYPOTHESIS 3: There is a statistically significant relationship between organisational commitment and biographical details

Table 4.13 indicates the relationship between the respondents' biographical characteristics and organisational commitment. The results indicate that the strongest relationship exists between gender and organisational commitment. There was also a significant correlation between the age of respondents and organisational commitment. There was also a significant relationship between tenure and organisational commitment, and job level and organisational commitment. However, there was no significant relationship between the educational level of teachers and their organisational commitment.

5.5.1 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND AGE

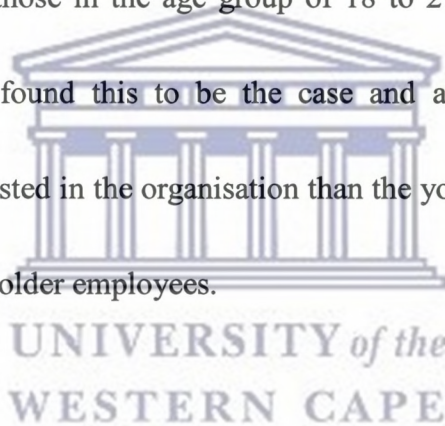
The results of this study indicate higher levels of organisational commitment for the older respondents and lower levels of commitment for the younger respondents. This is consistent with international research findings (Cramer, 1993; Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Luthans, 1992; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982; Sekaran; 2000) where organisational commitment increases significantly with age.



This relationship may be due to alternative employment opportunities decreasing with age, and an employee's current job becoming more important (Kacmar et al., 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Older respondents are probably more committed to their organisation's because they have made greater investments with their organisation's over time, than younger employees would have made. (Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Kacmar et al, 1999). Therefore, younger employees generally have lower psychological investments in an organisation and are likely to be more mobile.

Jackson and Rothman(2006) conducted and study on occupational stress, organisational

commitment and ill-health of educators in the North West Province. They used a stratified random sample (N = 1170) of teachers in the North West Province. An Organisational Stress Screening Tool (ASSET), developed by Cartwright and Cooper (2002) was used as a measuring instrument. In the study done by Jackson and Rothman (2006) amongst teachers in the Northern Province they found that educators in the age group of 28 to 32 achieved a significantly higher score on organisational commitment compared to those in the age group of 18 to 27. Miller et.al (2002) and Mostert et.al (2008) also found this to be the case and attribute this to the older employees being more invested in the organisation than the younger employees and due to limited opportunities for older employees.



5.5.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND TENURE

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between tenure and organisational commitment amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape. Robson (2000) compared the levels of organisational commitment amongst contract and permanent staff in an information technology arena and found a weak level of commitment for both contractors and permanent staff. Reyes (2001) conducted research

on 133 teachers to establish the relationship between individual work orientations and teacher outcomes. The results emanating from the research indicate that there was a statistically significant, albeit inverse relationship, between tenure and organisational commitment. Reyes (2001) reports that the longer teachers have been working in a school setting, the less committed they become.

The relationship between organisational commitment and tenure has been shown to be positive (Allen & Meyer, 1993). Its been reasoned that more experienced employees tend to get more attractive positions in the organisation and over the time the less committed employees leave the organisation (Xu & Bassham, 2010). When Reyes (2001) conducted research to establish a relationship between individual work orientation and teacher outcomes on a sample of 133 teachers he found out that there is an inverse relationship between organisational commitment and the amount of time a teacher has been teaching. Reyes (2001) commented that the longer a teacher has been in a school teaching setting the less committed they are.

5.5.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND GENDER

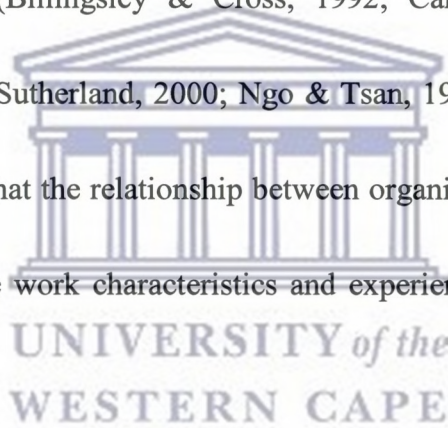
As far as gender is concerned the general argument appears to be that women as a group tend to be more committed to their employing organisation than their male counterparts even though their commitment is only moderately different from those of men (Hartmann & Bambacas, 2000). Mowday et al. (1982) argues that women generally have to overcome more barriers to attain their positions within the organisation, therefore when they enter in an organisation they want to remain there. However some conflicting studies are present when it comes to gender and organisational commitment. Mathieu and Zayja (1990) in their study found that women are more committed than men. While other studies conflicted the discovery for example Cohen and Lowernberg (1990) found that men are more committed to the organisation than their female counterparts. Kacmar and Carlson (1999) found that gender was not related to commitment.

Research (Cramer, 1993; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mowday et al., 1982) indicates that women as a group are more committed than men in their employing organisation.

Loscocco (1990) conducted research amongst 3 559 blue-collar workers in the

manufacturing industry and reports that female employees are more committed than male employees. Mowday et al. (1982) ascribe this to women having more barriers to overcome to attain their positions within an organisation and will more likely have to overcome similar barriers should they leave the organisation.

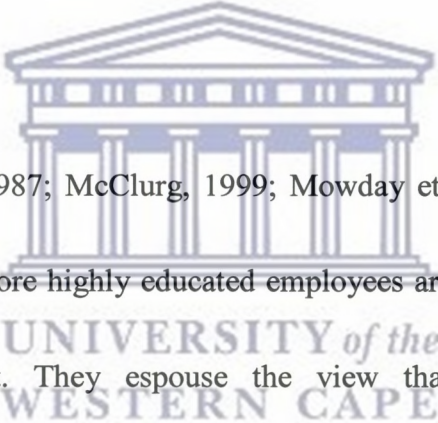
A number of studies have failed to find support for the relationship between commitment and gender (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Caruana & Calleya, 1998; Kinnear, 1999, Kinnear & Sutherland, 2000; Ngo & Tsan, 1998; Wahn, 1998). Meyer and Allen (1997) contend that the relationship between organisational commitment and gender is dependent on the work characteristics and experiences of the employees in question.



Reyes (2001) conducted research on 133 teachers to establish the relationship between individual work orientations and teacher outcomes. The results emanating from the research indicate that there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and organisational commitment, with female teachers in general being happier in their jobs. They attribute this, however, to the greater number of female teachers who participated in their research.

5.5.4 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The results of the current research indicate there is no statistically significant relationship between education and organisational commitment amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape.



Research (Luthans et al., 1987; McClurg, 1999; Mowday et al., 1982; Voster, 1992) however, reveals that the more highly educated employees are, the lower their level of organisational commitment. They espouse the view that these differences are attributable to the fact that highly educated employees have higher levels of expectations that are more difficult for an organisation to fulfil. These employees may also be more committed to their professions and are often more marketable in terms of having a large number of alternative work opportunities available (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Higher levels of education are purported to provide greater latitude for employees to seek alternative employment which may reduce their levels of commitment. McClurg's (1999) research into organisational commitment amongst 200

temporary workers from 24 different agencies found that highly educated employees had lower levels of organisational commitment.

5.5.5 JOB LEVEL AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The results of the current research indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between job level and organisational commitment amongst teachers in the Eastern Cape.

Research findings are not equivocal with regard to the impact that an employee's position within an organisation has on the level of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Circumstances within the organisation may play a large role in the level of commitment of supervisors within the organisation. Mowday et al.'s (1982) research provides

evidence that occupational level is not related to organisational commitment. However, researchers such as Luthans et al. (1987) maintain that individuals employed in higher positions within an organisation are more committed towards the organisation.

Aryee and Heng (1990) and Luthans et al. (1987) concur with this view and proffer the view that the association between job level and commitment is due to higher level employees being more likely receiving larger economic rewards and being more likely

to perceive the system of authority as legitimate and therefore support it. Mowday et al. (1982, p. 33) maintain that “although different organisations manifest different overall levels of employee commitment, this commitment is equally strong up and down the organisational hierarchy.”

5.6 TURNOVER INTENTIONS AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

HYPOTHESIS 5: There are statistically significant differences in turnover intentions based on biographical characteristics



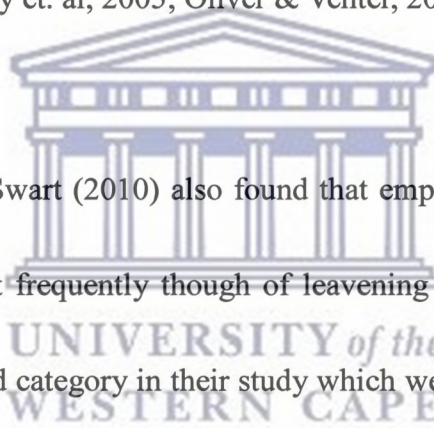
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The results in the current study indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in turnover intentions based on biographical characteristics.

5.6.1 TURNOVER INTENTIONS AND AGE

Kukla-Acevedo (2009) did a study on the teachers determine the “Leavers,” “Movers” and “Stayers” and the role of the workplace conditions that put them in those three

categories. She used the School and Staffing Survey provided by the national education department a sample of 3.505 had completed the survey. According to the results teacher age was strongly correlated with intentions to leave the organisation, teachers under the age of 30years old were more than 3 times likely to leave the teaching profession and 4 times more likely to switch schools than teachers who were 50years and older (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). These finding are supported by a variety of research (Arnolds, 2005; Montgomery et. al, 2005; Oliver & Venter, 2003).

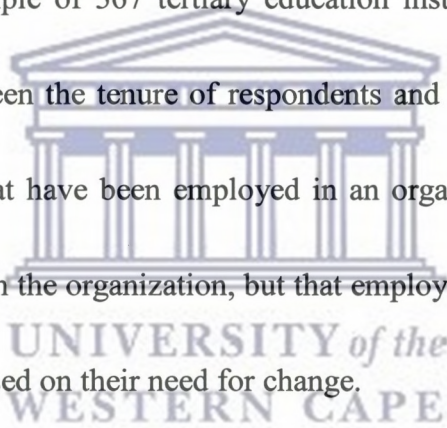


In their study Kgomo and Swart (2010) also found that employees between the age of 30 and 39 showed that they frequently thought of leaving the organisation and they were followed by the second category in their study which were employees between the ages of 40 to 49. Popoola (2010) also found similar results when he investigated turnover and organisational commitment. A sample of 240 from a population of managers was taken; he used the Organisation Commitment Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions as a measuring instrument. The results revealed that there is a significant negative relationship between age and intention to quit. Martin and Roodt (2008) report that as age increased, the intentions to stay in an organization improved. They maintain that an older employee may place more investment within an

organization and is hence more likely to stay.

5.6.2 TURNOVER INTENTIONS AND TENURE

Martin and Roodt (2008) investigated perceptions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger educational institution in South Africa. Based on their sample of 367 tertiary education institution participants, their results suggest a link between the tenure of respondents and their turnover intentions. They surmise that those that have been employed in an organization for an extensive period are likely to stay with the organization, but that employees typically leave within a period six to ten years, based on their need for change.

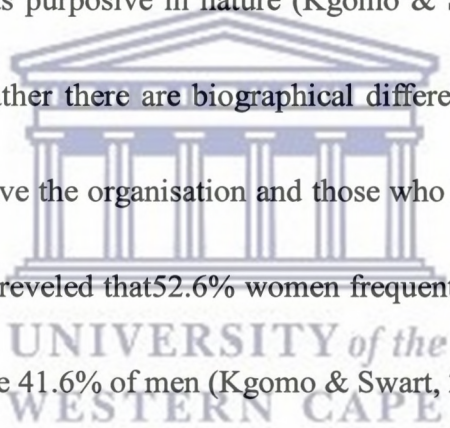


5.6.3 TURNOVER INTENTIONS AND GENDER

In the same study (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009) the results showed that men tend to remain in their current post at a higher rate than women do. Even though men and women exited the organisation at the same time men seemed to do it exceedingly (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). This was unexpected because previous research has shown the opposite where

women tend to leave teaching to raise children (Murnane, Sunger & Willett, 1989) or family issues and other factors (Xaba, 2003; Rothman & Nell, 2008).

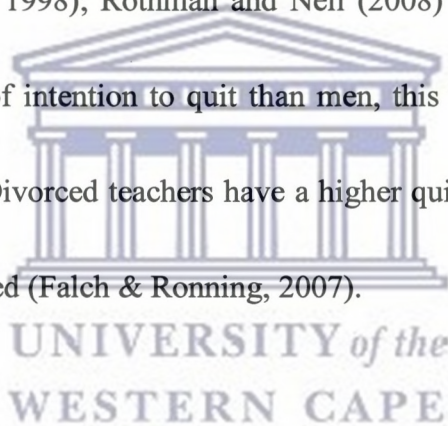
Kgomo and Swarts (2010) conducted a study on staff retention factors affecting the contact centre industry. The questionnaires were administered to 12 contact centre employees in the eight provinces and although the sample was a convenient sample their sampling approach was purposive in nature (Kgomo & Swart, 2010). One of the research questions was whether there are biographical differences between employees that have an intention to leave the organisation and those who had no intention to leave the organisation. The study revealed that 52.6% women frequently thought of leaving the organisation compared to the 41.6% of men (Kgomo & Swart, 2010).



Falch and Ronning (2007) conducted a study on the Influence of Student Achievement on Teacher Turnover in Norway. They used data collected from various sources, including the employer register data collected from the Ministry of Labour, and Government Administration covering all Norwegian teachers in public school (Falch & Ronning, 2007). The data was merged with individual information from Statistics Norway including family characteristics such as fertility, marital status. Data to measure teacher

turnover was on how the teachers quit their jobs to move to another school or leave the teaching profession. According to Falch and Ronning (2007) their data collection was rich as it had all the records of teachers in Norway from all the different sources hence their study can be generalized to the Norwegian teacher population and some aspects may apply to other countries.

Xaba (2003); Stinebricker(1998); Rothman and Nell (2008) in their study found that women had a higher rate of intention to quit than men, this was the same finding by Falch & Ronning (2007). Divorced teachers have a higher quit propensity that teachers who have never been married (Falch & Ronning, 2007).



5.6.4 TURNOVER INTENTIONS AND RACE

In their research, Martin and Roodt (2008) report an interaction effect was found between race and gender. Using a sample of 367 participants, they found that white males and black females had higher turnover intentions than did black males and white females. This finding is corroborated in research by Jacobs (2005). A plausible explanation for this is that black females are very sought after in the workplace. White

males who were previously the dominant role players in the workplace are less likely to leave due to their restricted alternative employment opportunities (Martin & Roddt, 2008).

5.7 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research findings of this study should be interpreted carefully and with caution, since there were limitations in the present research study. Although the response rate of 69% is considered fairly acceptable for this kind of research, the uneven distribution of male and female teachers could have biased implications. The sample size ($n = 137$) was relatively small. Consequently clear limitations in comparing with potentially different groups and in generalizing the findings of the localized study exist.

A quantitative design was deemed more practical by the researcher, however using qualitative data could have increased the value of the research, since more subjective inputs from respondents could have provided a better conceptualization of the stress experienced by teachers at primary schools in the Eastern Cape. According to Kamper and Steyn (2006), when future studies on teacher stress are considered, it is important to

take into account possible focuses of research that could lead to a deeper understanding of the teacher stress phenomenon.

Considering the extensive research on stress, suggesting areas for future research in South Africa is a challenge. Olivier and Venter (2003) recommended the following ideas to alleviate the stress condition of teachers in the George region of the Eastern Cape namely (1) that salaries be reviewed and that the after-hours work that teachers do be given special consideration (2) that forms of punishment other than the corporal method be used to solve for the problem with misbehaving and ill-disciplined learners especially ways that will gain their cooperation and willingness to learn through topics of interest and relevance to their world (3) that the state and the school governing bodies make the effort to right-size the teacher-learner ratio's and solve the problem with the lack of space, the lack of infrastructure and the lack of resources with which to do the work, and that the work environment of teachers be invested in (4) that the time that teachers spend at school and extra-curricular activities be controlled and that recreational activity, sport and exercise be encouraged (5) that the views, opinions and ideas of teachers be acted on and reinforced in a positive way and that the participation of teachers in school policy be encouraged (6) that feelings of depression and

helplessness be addressed through the availability of professional counseling within the structure of the Education Department or even through the initiative of support groups being formed around the town or province (7) that physical well-being be managed and healthy lifestyles be encouraged (8) that additional teachers be employed in cases that have the demand and finally (9) that the Education Department take the responsibility to ensure that proper communication channels are in place within schools and allow that teachers are take leave days when the situation becomes such that it is needed.

5.7.1 STRESS- COPING RESEARCH



Research on coping should examine why teachers do not follow coping strategies, when they are aware of their existence (Ahrendse, 2008). Stress-coping research should adopt a holistic approach that considers the totality of the teacher's life space, rather than simply assessing one domain in isolation from others (Cooper, et al., 2001). It is always important to continue exploring the occurrence of teacher stress, the sources and coping mechanisms employed by teachers (Kyriacou, 2001). Research is required into the role of successful coping mechanisms in teachers' careers (Kyriacou, 2001). Studies should assess the effectiveness of intervention strategies to assist teachers and

schools to alleviate stress (Kyriacou, 2001).

Research should examine stress management systems that would yield benefits for teachers, schools and education as a whole (Cooper, Dewe & Driscoll, 2001). Stress-coping research should adopt a holistic approach, considering the totality of the teacher's life span, rather than just assessing one domain in isolation (Cooper et al., 2001).



Further research into job stress amongst teachers will assist human resource development officers and organisational strategists to be more proactive in the design of the school organisation structure, the management of the school curriculum, the setting of clear targets and goals for teachers, the creation and maintenance of an effective classroom environment, the promotion of team-work, the building of a team ethos at school, the maintenance of an effective and transparent performance measurement tool, the provision of assistance and guidance of teachers in good time-management practice, the development of the leadership competence of staff within the school organisation efficiently and effectively, the engagement in and the reward of sound decision-making, the development of conflict-handling skills, the reduction of barriers that limit teacher

effectiveness within the classroom setting, the enhancement of communication within the school structure and manage and encourage the wellness of staff (Smith, 2002).

5.7.2 DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE SKILLS FOR PROMOTION THROUGH SELECTION AND TRAINING: HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES

It is imperative for human resource management at the Eastern Cape Education Department to realise that in order to increase the quality of education in the province, the selection and recruitment of teachers must be improved, the development of staff must take place, conflict within schools must be managed, the strain upon teachers must be controlled, leaders must be developed and trained within the school governing body and the curriculum must be managed (Smith, 2002). Robbins (2001) depicts this in Figure 5.1. This also includes redesigning jobs to increase motivation and the provision of better career planning information (Steyn & Kamper, 2006).



Source: Robbins (2001).



Studies need to assess the effectiveness of interventions to assist teachers and schools with the alleviation of stress (Kariacou, 2001). Investigating the impact of teacher-learner relationships and classroom climate on teacher stress is considered crucial (Kariacou, 2001).

5.7.3 DESIGNING INTERVENTIONS

Investigating the impact of teacher-learner relationships and classroom climate on educator stress is crucial (Kyriacou, 2001). Primary interventions, which are directed at

the workplace or coping capacity of teachers, are required to prevent or reduce their stress. Secondary-level interventions could prevent employees who are already showing signs of stress, from getting sick and to increase their coping capacity. Tertiary-level interventions should deal with the rehabilitation of individuals who have suffered ill- health as a result of strain or stress (Jackson & Rothman, 2006; Matoti, 2010). Studies in South Africa should determine the suicide tendencies, teacher victimization and the relationship to teacher stress, since statistics with regard to this is lacking (Oosthuizen & Van der Bijl, 2007).



In order to generalize findings in the multi-cultural South African context, findings should be validated through equal comparison of the perceived strain/stress construct across cultural groups. In order to motivate teachers and to build credibility and co-operation at schools, interventions should be aimed at maximizing group effectiveness, increasing a sense of belonging, shared vision and rebuilding trust relationships as well as organisational commitment to fairness and equity (Mohammed & Naude, 2006). Possible future interventions could include the provision of a more supportive climate,

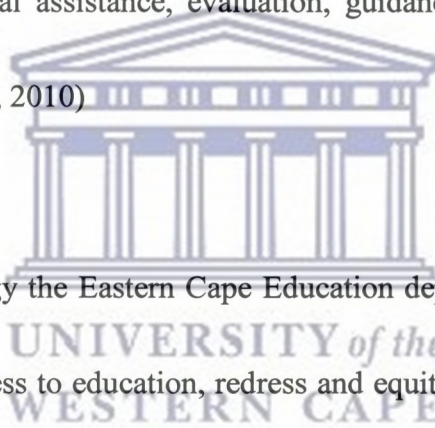
the creation of flexible working conditions, improving personal relationships in the workplace and the implementation of career and personal development programmes (Mahomed & Naudé, 2006).

5.7.4 PROMOTION AND BENEFITS

Furthermore, to reduce teacher attrition, Weiqi (2007) warns that the intrinsic rewards of the teaching work such as work achievements and work pressure have not been able to increase the morale of teachers or increased the retention of teachers so is has become important for the designers of human resource policy be aware that the hygiene factors in the work should be reviewed, amended and consistently monitored. In a comparison between poor and wealthy countries, Weiqi found that in economically backward countries, the external rewards of the work such as fringe benefits, physical working conditions, remuneration and good interpersonal relationships were given higher importance than what individuals in wealthy countries valued, namely the intrinsic factors of the work such as opportunities for advancement, acknowledgement, interest and the challenges of the work. These are additional facts that human resource developers must bear in mind when constructing change (Olivier & Venter, 2003).

In the light of the present South African context the Occupational Specific Dispensation (OSD) for School Based Educators was initiated with specific focus to:

- Provide specific assistance and guidance to teachers;
- Exert effective monitoring and training which ensure an effective education system
- Provide professional assistance, evaluation, guidance as required by the job descriptions (Matoti, 2010)




As key principles of strategy the Eastern Cape Education department is addressing the transformation agenda, access to education, redress and equity, targeting every stage of education to meet the needs of the poorest learners. (Eastern Cape Education Department, Annual Report, 2004)

5.7.5 EMPLOYEE ASSISTANCE PROGRAMMES

Relevant coping programmes that are built into the teachers programme should be considered as a means of assisting teachers at high risk secondary schools in coping

with stress. Setting up trauma room with professional trauma counselors at schools, could assist traumatized learners and teachers (Becker & Reckson, 2005). Professional training and development could be provided to assist teachers in providing quality education. HIV/AIDS, First Aid and other training could be provided to assist teachers in dealing with learners and staff. Valid and reliable procedures to monitor the stress of teachers could also be provided (Van Wyk, 1998).

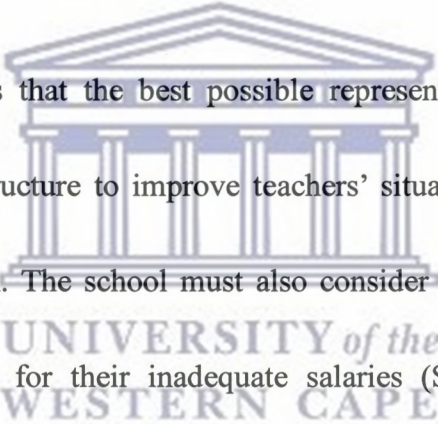
5.7.6 HUMAN RESOURCES COSTING

The logo of the University of the Western Cape, featuring a classical building with columns and a pediment, with the text 'UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE' overlaid.

Future research should be conducted to develop a human resources costing and accounting model for the South African environment, to effectively determine the financial implications of absenteeism, presenteeism and turnover intentions based on schools due to occupational stress (Mostert, et al., 2008). Future studies in South Africa should determine the suicide tendencies, teacher victimization and the relationship to teacher stress, since statistics with regard to this is limited (Oosthuizen & Van der Bijl, 2007).

5.7.7 SALARIES

The best possible representatives of teachers unions could negotiate a better salary structure to improve teachers' situation and to curb the exiting of teachers from the profession. Incentives for teachers to supplement their income as well as reward for extra effort and responsibilities should be provided. School governing bodies could review these incentives on a regular basis (Saptoe, 2000).



Saptoe (2000) recommends that the best possible representatives of teachers union negotiate a better salary structure to improve teachers' situation and to prevent them from leaving the profession. The school must also consider incentives for teachers to supplement or compensate for their inadequate salaries (Saptoe, 2000, Travers & Cooper, 1996), and reward extra effort and responsibilities appropriately. The school governing bodies can review these incentives annually. The Government must realise its responsibility in this regard and design better conditions of service, remuneration scales and promotion opportunities for teachers (Saptoe, 2000).

5.7.8 LEADERSHIP SUPPORT

Abbey and Esposito (1985) report that teachers who perceive greater social support from their principals report less stress than those who do not. Setting up shared decision-making processes in schools, such as governance councils, allows teachers to participate in school processes rather than feel subordinate to their principals and coerced into participating in school and teacher responsibilities (Nagel & Brown, 2003). Teachers must be kept up-to-date with new teaching innovations through in-service training and strategies.



5.7.9 TEACHER RETENTION

In order to reduce teacher attrition, Weiqi (2007) warns that the intrinsic rewards of the teaching work such as work achievements and work pressure have not been able to increase the morale of teachers or increased the retention of teachers so is has become important for the designers of human resource policy be aware that the hygiene factors in the work should be reviewed, amended and consistently monitored. In a comparison between poor and wealthy countries, Weiqi found that in economically backward countries, the external rewards of the work such as fringe benefits, physical

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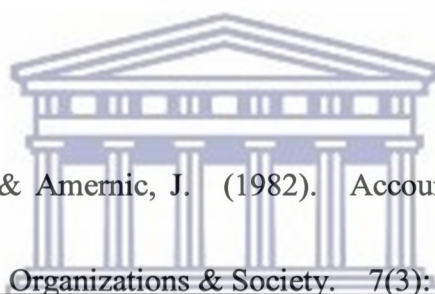
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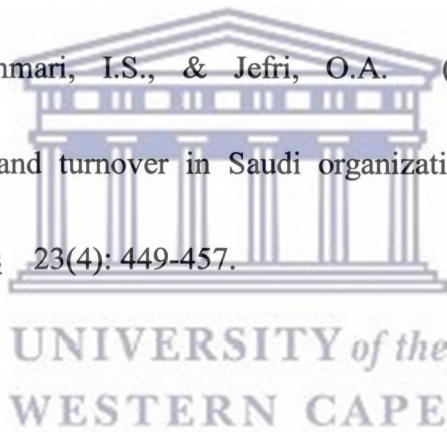
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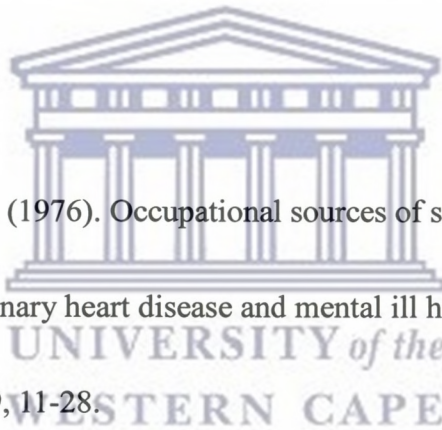
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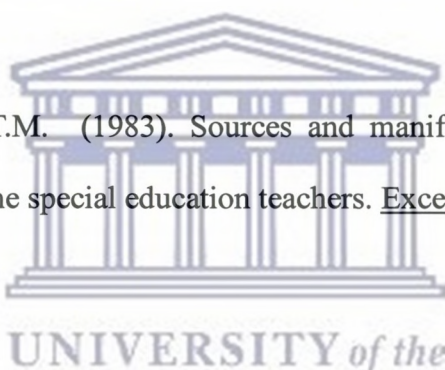
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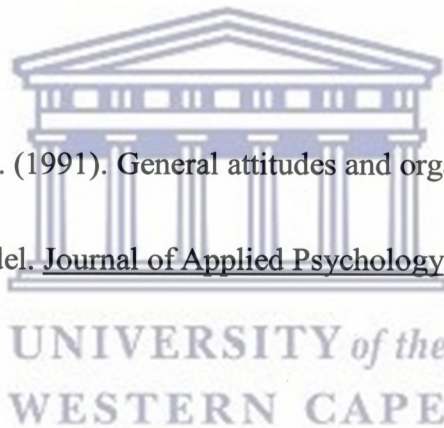
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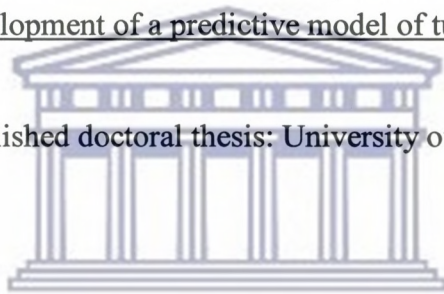
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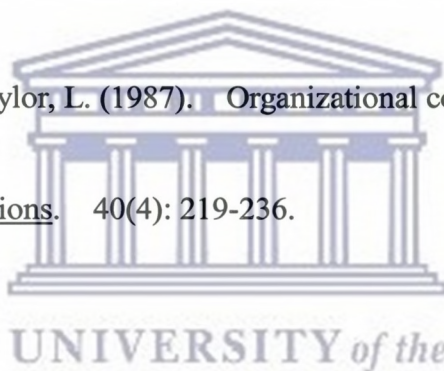
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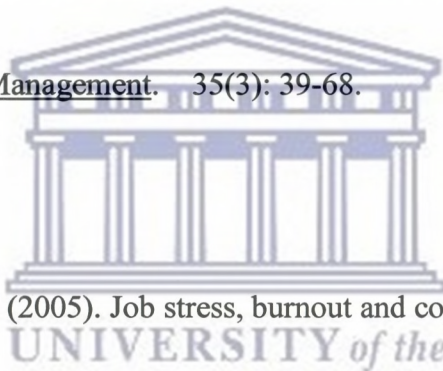
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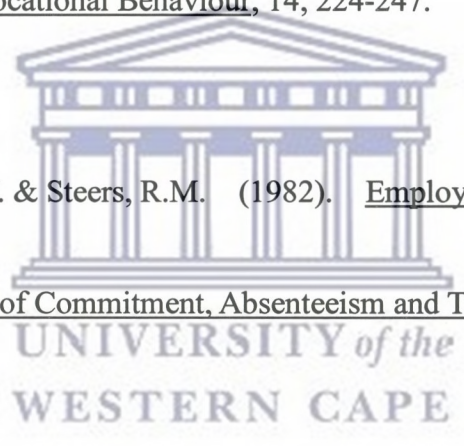
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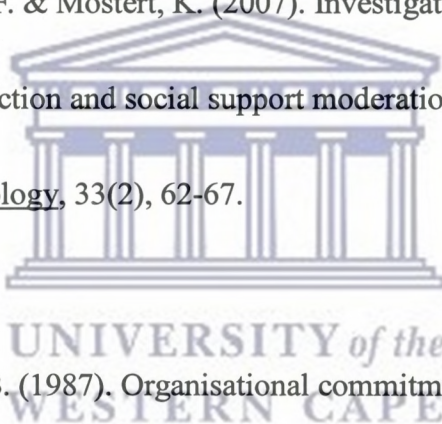
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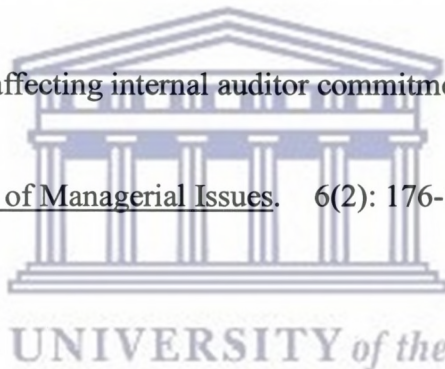
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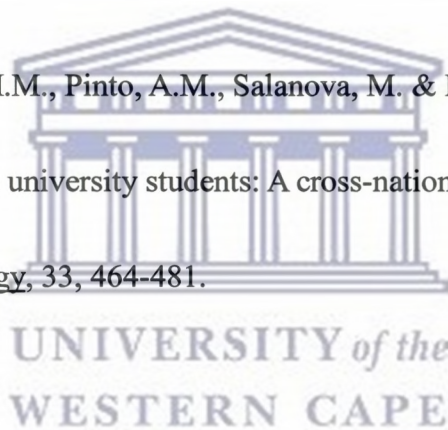
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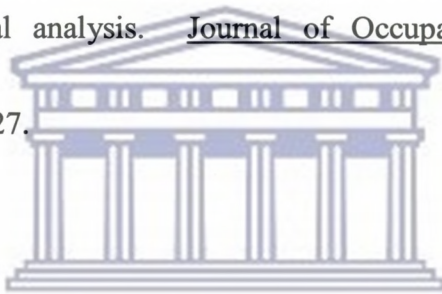
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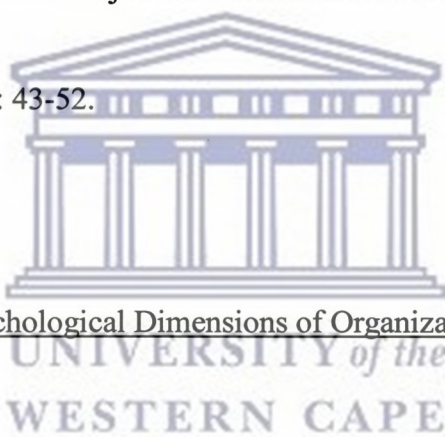
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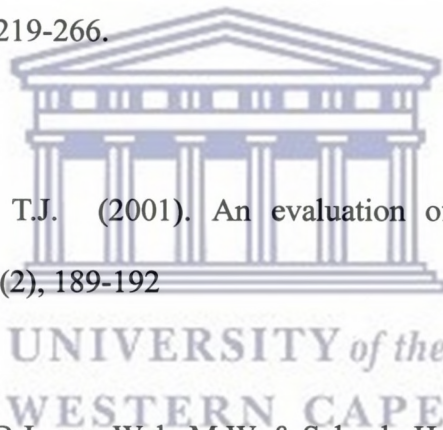
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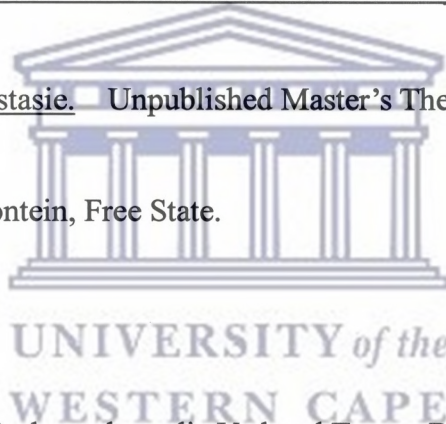
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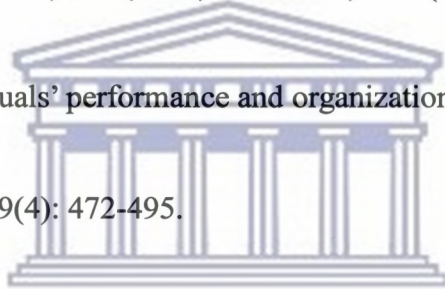
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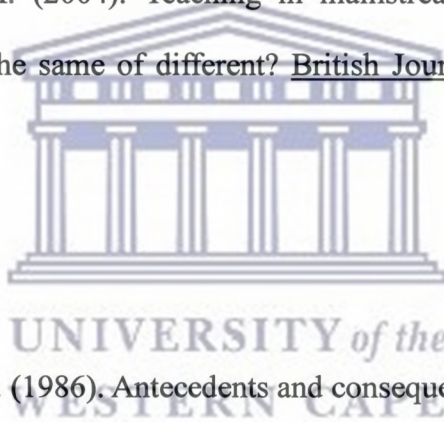
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