THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRESS LEVELS AND JOB

SATISFACTION AMONGST HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATORS IN DE AAR

(NORTHERN CAPE)

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that "The relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar (Northern Cape)" is my own work, that has not been submitted before for any degree or any other examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete reference.

Name: Monique Lamberts

Date: May 2011

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I would like to thank my sister, Janine for all the support and for being there every step of the way. To my brother Vernon, thank you for believing in me and for keeping me in your prayers.
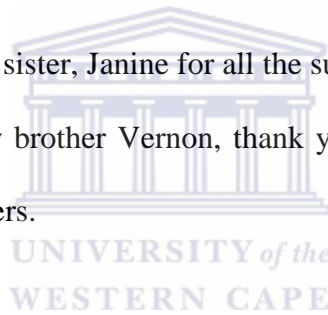
To all my friends, especially Anthony, Vernon, Nathan, JP and Razeeah, I will never be able to start expressing my thanks to you for believing in me and motivating me through this journey of my life.

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ABSTRACT

A large number of studies show that educators are exposed to workloads that result particularly in stress. According to Olivier and Venter (2003), stress is considered to be the main factor contributing to job-related illnesses, early retirement, job dissatisfaction and absenteeism.

Teaching, has without a doubt become a more demanding and stressful job. The lack of discipline in schools, abolishment of corporal punishment, large pupil-teacher ratios and a new curriculum approach all contribute to raising the stress levels of teachers (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Stanton, Bachiochi, Robie, Perez and Smith (2002 cited in Brewer & McMahan-Landers, 2003) is of the view that job stress is an antecedent of job satisfaction but the two constructs have been treated as related, yet they are different.

The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar as well as to determine whether biographical variables (namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of children) have an impact on job satisfaction and stress levels. The researcher hopes that the findings would give the Department of Education in the Northern Cape an idea of the stress levels and job satisfaction experienced by high school educators in De Aar so that interventions can be implemented to issues proactively.

The sample consisted of 86 educators employed at four high schools in De Aar. A biographical questionnaire, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Stress Diagnostic Survey (SDS) were administered to assess respondents' stress and job satisfaction levels. Informed consent was obtained from the various participants and anonymity of participation was ensured.

Statistical analyses included inferential (Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, Analysis of Variance & T-Tests) as well as descriptive statistics.

The results of the study indicate that there is a statistically significant, inverse relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar. Furthermore, the results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in stress levels as well as job satisfaction of high school educators on the basis of their biographical characteristics. The chapter concludes with presenting limitations of the study and putting forth recommendations for future research.

KEY WORDS: Stress, models, causes, effects, coping, job satisfaction, theories, intrinsic, extrinsic, consequences.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1   INTRODUCTION

As the demands on educators and schools increase, so does the incidence of stress in the teaching profession. Although some pressure is necessary for people to perform effectively, excessive pressure may lead to distress, poor teaching, poor decision-making, lowered self-esteem, low job satisfaction and lack of commitment in terms of remaining in the profession (Champoux, 2000; Grobler, Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2002; Schroeder, Akotia & Apekey, 2001 in Schulze & Steyn, 2007). Teacher job satisfaction and teacher stress has become a major concern of teachers (Green-Reese, Johnson & Campbell, 2001). What has happened to make teaching so unattractive?
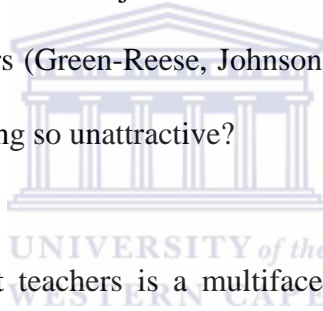
Job satisfaction amongst teachers is a multifaceted construct that is critical to teacher retention and has been shown to be a significant determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness.   It has been defined as the extent to which a staff member has favourable or positive feelings about work or the work environment. It refers to the positive attitudes or emotional dispositions people may gain from work or through aspects of work. Conversely, job dissatisfaction refers to unhappy or negative feelings about work or the work environment (De Nobile, McCormick, 2005). Job dissatisfaction leads to stress if allowed to continue unabated (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Fletcher and Payne (1980 cited in Ahsan, Abdullah, Gun Fie & Alam, 2009) agree

that a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, while high satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress.

Stress is currently a phenomenon that must be recognised and addressed in various professions, because of the complexity of present-day society, and the teaching profession is no exception (Steyn & Kamper, 2006). According to Moomaw and Pearson (2005), teacher stress refers to the experience by teachers of unpleasant emotions such as anger, tension, frustration, anxiety, depression and nervousness, resulting from the aspect of their work as teachers. Various researchers (Kyriacou, 1987; Cooper, 1995; Travers & Cooper, 1996) are of the opinion that teachers experience occupational stress on a daily basis and sources of stress include amongst others, workload, pupil attitudes and behaviour, lack of promotional prospects, unsatisfactory working conditions, poor relationships with colleagues and superiors, changes in the working environment, and the organisational climate.

1.2   PROBLEM FORMULATION

Studies carried out in a number of countries have drawn attention to the degree of job satisfaction amongst educators and have shown that educators' work intensification mirrors societal trends towards overwork (Naylor, 2001). Imposed and centralized system accountability, lack of professional autonomy, relentlessly imposed changes, constant media criticism, reduced resources, and moderate pay all related to low teacher satisfaction (Van den Berghe & Huberman, 1999). The

effects of these trends include declining job satisfaction, reduced ability to meet students' needs, significant incidences of psychological disorders leading to increased absenteeism, and high level of claims for stress-related disability (Farber, 1991; Troman & Woods, 2000).

It is widely acknowledged that the provision of quality education in South African schools is one of the greatest challenges facing South Africa in the twenty-first century. A skilled, sophisticated workforce is a prerequisite to competing in today's global, technology driven economic environment and education is key to developing such a workforce. However, as a result of the apartheid era's grossly inequitable allocation of resources in relation to education, and the espoused policy of apartheid to provide sub-standard education to Black South Africans, many South African schools are ill-equipped to meet this challenge (Milner & Khoza, 2008).
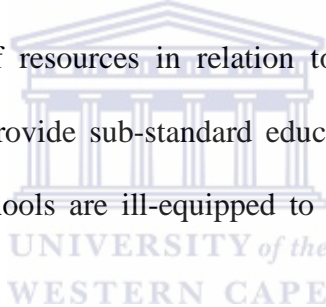
Steyn and van Wyk (1999) contend there is a perception that teachers are lazy, unprofessional, uncommitted who only come to school to receive their salaries at the end the month. Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1989, p. 59) maintain that "if teacher performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances teachers' sense of professionalism and decreases their job dissatisfaction."

The teaching profession is known as one of the most stressful professions in the United Kingdom (Rose, 2000). The Health and Safety Executive suggests that

organisations lose approximately 400 million pound annually from the 6.5 million workdays lost to stress-related absences. The major sources of stress reported by teachers are workload and student misbehaviour (Griffith, Steptoe & Cropley, 1999).

On the contrary, research in Canada (Ball & Stenlund, 1990) reveals that teachers indicate that success in their work was a major reason for being satisfied in their choice of profession. Canadian teachers also expressed satisfaction with their salaries, colleagues who were said to be helpful and cooperative, and the respect accorded to teachers. Among Albanian teachers, job satisfaction was associated with job security and respect accorded teachers (Kloep & Tarifa, 1994). In both Albania and South Africa, teachers experience job satisfaction despite some of the unfavourable working conditions that prevail, such as shortage of learning resources (Kloep & Tarifa, 1994). Sim (1990) reports that teacher-pupil relations served as a source of job satisfaction amongst teachers in Singapore.

Similar to research on educator job satisfaction and stress in other countries, studies in South Africa reveal that educators face a variety of stressors in their work (Steyn & Kamper, 2006). The South African educational system is in a transitional stage. Challenges facing educators have changed drastically with the passing of the South African Schools Act, 1996. The lack of discipline in schools, abolishment of corporal punishment, unmotivated learners, redeployment, retrenchments and retirement packages for teachers (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002), large pupil-teacher ratios and a new curriculum approach all contribute to raising the

stress levels of teachers. Furthermore, the education approach of outcomes – based eductation (OBE), the management style of principals, new governing bodies for schools, the high crime rate in the country, coping with current political change and corruption in state departments are causing stress to teachers (Marais, 1992). Coetzee, Jansen and Muller (2009) postulate that some of the factors that have a significant impact on the stress levels of teachers are size of classes, workloads, the physical layout of classrooms, learning support materials, equipment and additional administrative duties resulting from OBE.

South African research (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002) indicate that conditions under which Black teachers work are demoralizing, as the Black teacher in particular has to cope with poor physical conditions such as overcrowding, inadequate equipment and lack of adequate facilities. This, they maintain, is a consequence of disparities in financial provisions during the apartheid era in South Africa. Poor physical conditions such as overcrowding may 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).

The present study aims to investigate the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar (Northern Cape).

1.3   RESEARCH AIMS

The objectives of this research are the following:

- To determine the level of stress amongst high school educators in De Aar.

- To measure the level of job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar.

- To investigate the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar.

- To provide insight to various stakeholders with respect to stress levels and job satisfaction.

- To formulate recommendations based on the literature and findings of this study for future research.

1.4   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were developed with regard to the relationship between job satisfaction and stress levels.

- To what extent does a relationship exist between job satisfaction and stress levels amongst high school educators in De Aar?

- To what extent is there a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of children.

- To what extent is there a statistically significant difference in stress levels of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of dependents.

1.5   RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

Hypothesis 1:

There is a statistically significant relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar.

Hypothesis 2:

There is a statistically significant difference in stress levels of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of dependents.

Hypothesis 3:

There is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of children.

1.6   LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The following delimitations should be taken into account:

- The study is conducted in one geographical area. Therefore, generalisation of the results should be approached with caution.

- Educators might not be honest about the fact that they are experiencing stress.

- Educators might not be honest about their reasons for experiencing stress.

- Educators might not be honest regarding job satisfaction.

- Literature that focuses on job satisfaction and stress levels in high school education in particular, in South Africa.

1.7   SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER
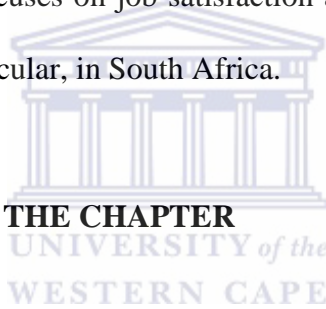
This chapter provided a rationale and background for the study, focussing on stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators. The purpose, as well as the research aims were highlighted. Furthermore, the research questions and hypotheses were formulated and a few limitations of the study were put forth. Research indicates that stress is a growing phenomenon and that more organisations recognise the need to monitor the satisfaction levels of their employees, because employee dissatisfaction affects productivity.

1.8   OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter two will be divided into two sections.   The first part provides a comprehensive discussion of job satisfaction. Specific attention will be devoted to the definition of job satisfaction, the various theories pertaining to job satisfaction, factors influencing job satisfaction and the consequences thereof. The second section provides a comprehensive discussion of stress.   Specific attention will be given to the definition of stress, addressing the causes and consequences of stress as well as looking at coping mechanisms.   The chapter concludes with research that has been conducted between job satisfaction and stress.
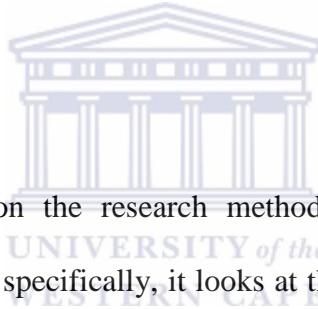
Chapter three focuses on the research methodology used to investigate the research problem. More specifically, it looks at the target population, the sample selection and size, the procedure, data collection method, measuring instruments used, as well as the statistical techniques that were utilised to test the hypotheses.

In chapter four, the results of the study as well as the interpretation thereof are presented.

Chapter five presents a discussion of the results that were evident in the research and makes comparisons to other studies / research conducted on the topic. Conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made based on the evidence of the research results.

The ensuing chapter provides an overview of relevant literature relating to the variables being investigated namely, job satisfaction and stress.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This literature review endeavours to provide a synopsis of the theoretical body of knowledge related to stress and job satisfaction. The first part of the literature review defines job satisfaction, addresses the different models of job satisfaction, and highlights factors contributing to job satisfaction. The second part defines stress, presents models, causes, effects and coping strategies for stress.

2.2   JOB SATISFACTION
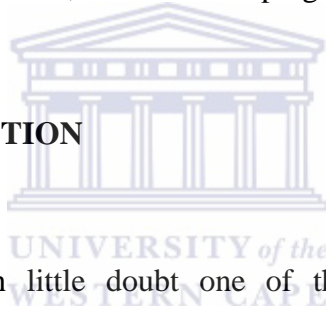
Job satisfaction is with little doubt one of the most researched topics in psychology. The interest in job satisfaction can generally be attributed to the physical and mental well-being of employees (Hoole & Vermeulen, 2003 cited in Visser & Coetzee, 2005), because current studies suggest that the well-being of employees is in the best interest of the employer (Harter, Schmidt & Keyes, 2003 cited in Visser & Coetzee, 2005).

Work plays a prominent role in individuals' lives. It occupies more time than any other single activity and it provides the economic basis for peoples' lifestyle. Job satisfaction is therefore a key research area for numerous specialists and is one of the most frequently studied work attributes (Koustelios, 2001). Wilson and

Rosenfeld (1990) point out that one of the major reasons for the continuing interest in job satisfaction is that positive and negative attitudes toward work may exert powerful effects on many forms of organisational behaviour. Another reason for the interest in job satisfaction is because a strong correlation exists between job satisfaction and withdrawal behaviours such as turnover, absenteeism, psychological distress and tardiness (Clay-Warner, Reynolds & Roman, 2005).

Similar to professionals in other occupations, job satisfaction in educators has been related to a number of factors. Researchers have linked job satisfaction to teacher attrition (Bobbitt, Leich, Whitener & Lynch, 1994; Russ, Chiang, Rylance & Bongers, 2001). Secondly, it has been linked to demographic variables including age, education and gender (Castillo, Conklin & Cano, 1999; Eichinger, 2000; Ganser & Wham, 1998), and lastly to practice related variables such as salaries, credentialing, opportunities for promotion, supervision, recognition, student behaviour, working conditions, and sense of autonomy (Evans, 1998; Prelip, 2001).

No organisation can afford to ignore the importance of job satisfaction. The key to an organisation's sustainability depends primarily on the effective use of its human resources (Boshoff & Mels, 1995). According to Wisniewski and Gargiulo (1997), high attrition rates amongst teachers can be attributed to job dissatisfaction. They concluded that a lack of recognition, few opportunities for promotion, excessive paperwork, loss of autonomy, lack of supplies, low pay, and

stressful interpersonal interactions all contributed to teachers' decisions to leave schools.

Mwamwenda's (1995) research indicates that nearly 50% of rural teachers are dissatisfied with their working conditions. The findings revealed that teachers in these areas indicated that they would not choose teaching again as a career if given a second chance. According to Shan (1998), teacher job satisfaction is a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness. Kim and Loadman (1994) list seven predictors of job satisfaction, namely: interaction with students, interaction with colleagues, professional challenges, and professional autonomy, working conditions, salary and opportunity for advancement. However, there are also other factors that need to be considered, for example, class sizes, workload of teachers, changes in the school curriculum and labour policies which teachers have little or no control over.

The first part of this chapter will address various definitions of how job satisfaction is viewed, followed by various theories of job satisfaction and will conclude with determinants and consequences.

2.3   DEFINING JOB SATISFACTION

As job satisfaction is a widely researched and complex phenomenon it follows that there are numerous definitions for the construct. However, according to Hall

(1986 cited in Pietersen 2005), there is a lack of consensus as to what job satisfaction is and how the job satisfaction of employees should be assessed. Job satisfaction is generally regarded as an employee's attitude toward the job and job situation. Job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which people like their jobs. Some people therefore enjoy work and consider it a central part of their lives while others do so only because they have to (Spector, 1997).

Munchinsky (1993) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which a person derives pleasure from a job or one can say it is the difference between a desired outcome a person receives and the desired outcome the person believes he or she ought to receive (Grobler et al., 2002).

Bassett (2004 cited in Pietersen, 2005) defines job satisfaction as a multidimensional, enduring and important concept where it is seen as an outgrowth of human relations. Buitenbach and de Witte (2005) state that job satisfaction relates to an individual's perceptions of a job, which in turn, are influenced by their circumstances, including needs, values and expectations. According to Rothmann and Agathagelou (2000 cited in Labuschangne, Bosman & Buitendach, 2005), job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job environment, as well as dispositional characteristics of an individual. "Job satisfaction can be described as an effective or emotional reaction to the job, resulting from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with the required outcomes" (Hirschfeld, 2000; Locke, 1976 cited in Labuschangne et al., 2005, p. 27).

Hirschfeld (2000) delineates that job satisfaction relates to the extent to which people like their jobs. Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967 cited in Labuschangne et al., 2005) posit that employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. "Job satisfaction thus relates to individual's perceptions and evaluations of their job, while these perceptions are influenced by unique circumstances such as needs, values and expectations" (Labuschangne, 2005, p. 27).

Locke and Sweiger (1979) define job satisfaction as the positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of and individual's job or job experience. Larwood (1984) and Milkovich and Boudreau (1991) support this by defining job satisfaction in terms of an affective reaction to the job, and further elaborate that job satisfaction can be regarded as the cause of the extent to which employees find pleasure in their job experiences.

Attention has been drawn to the degree of job satisfaction amongst educators and it has been discovered that teacher dissatisfaction appears to be a main factor in teachers leaving the profession. Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2003) define teacher job satisfaction as the notion that teachers are most satisfied by matters intrinsic to the role of teaching, student achievement, helping students, positive relationships with students and others.

According to Neuman, Reichel and Saad (1988), job satisfaction amongst teachers can be expressed as their willingness to remain in the teaching profession regardless of the discomfort and the desire to leave teaching for a better job.

2.4   JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES

It is vital to understand what motivates people at work. Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weik (1970 cited in Gruneberg, 1979) categorised job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories. Content theories focus on the needs of the individual in order to motivate them and influence job satisfaction. In contrast, process theories try to give an account of the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values interact with the characteristics of the job to produce job satisfaction.
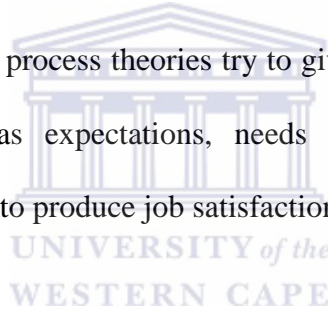
There are numerous theories but only a few will be highlighted to contextualize the current study.

2.4.1   CONTENT THEORIES

2.4.1.1 Maslow's needs hierarchy theory

The most popular account of job satisfaction at present is that job satisfaction involves fulfilling the individual's needs. Maslow's (1970) theory, which is one of the best known theories, holds that employees would be motivated by and satisfied with their jobs only if certain needs are met (Aamodt, 2004). It is based

on two assumptions, that is, people always want more and people arrange their needs in order of importance (Smith & Cronje, 1992).

Maslow (1970) postulated a needs hierarchy with needs divided into those of a lower order and those of a higher order. He envisioned human needs as falling into a hierarchy from the most basic psychological needs to needs for self-actualisation.

The five major needs are identified as follows:

Basic physiological needs - This is a basic need (also known as biological needs) for water and food to survive. An unemployed individual who is homeless will be satisfied with any job as long as it provides for these basic needs (Aamodt, 2004).

Safety and security needs - Once the basic physiological needs are satisfied then the security needs becomes important. This level of needs include the need for job security, insurance, medial aid, the need to be protected against physical and emotional harm, salary increases and other benefits (Grobler et al., 2002).

Social (affection) needs – The social level of need is activated once the need for safety and security has been adequately met. People have a need for love, friendship, acceptance and understanding from other people. In the work context this would involve working with others and feeling needed in the organisation. Organisations attempt to satisfy their employees' social needs by providing things like cafeterias, organising sport programmes and family events (Aamodt, 2004).

Esteem needs - The fourth level of needs is the need for self-respect, recognition by others, confidence and achievement. Supervisors can play an active role in satisfying the needs of their employees through awards, promotions and salary increases (Aamodt, 2004).

Self-actualisation needs - This is the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and leads to the full development of a person's potential. Self-actualisation needs include the need for growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfilment. According to Aamodt (2004), an employee striving for self-actualisation wants to reach their full potential in every task. Therefore, if they have been doing the same job for a long time, they might become dissatisfied and unmotivated in search of a new challenge.
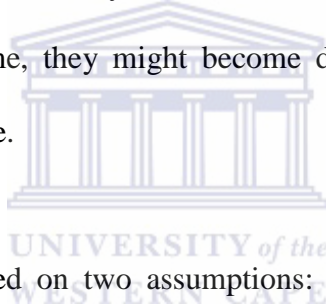
Maslow's theory is based on two assumptions: people always want more and people arranged their needs in order of importance (Grobler et al., 2002). It is vital to realize that only once the basic needs are fulfilled is it possible to pay attention to the higher order needs of self-fulfillment, establishing individual worth as a human being. In the work context, this theory would predict that only after the lower order needs for security and pay have been satisfied, will the employee seek satisfaction and achievement from the work itself (Gruneberg, 1979).

Figure 2.1
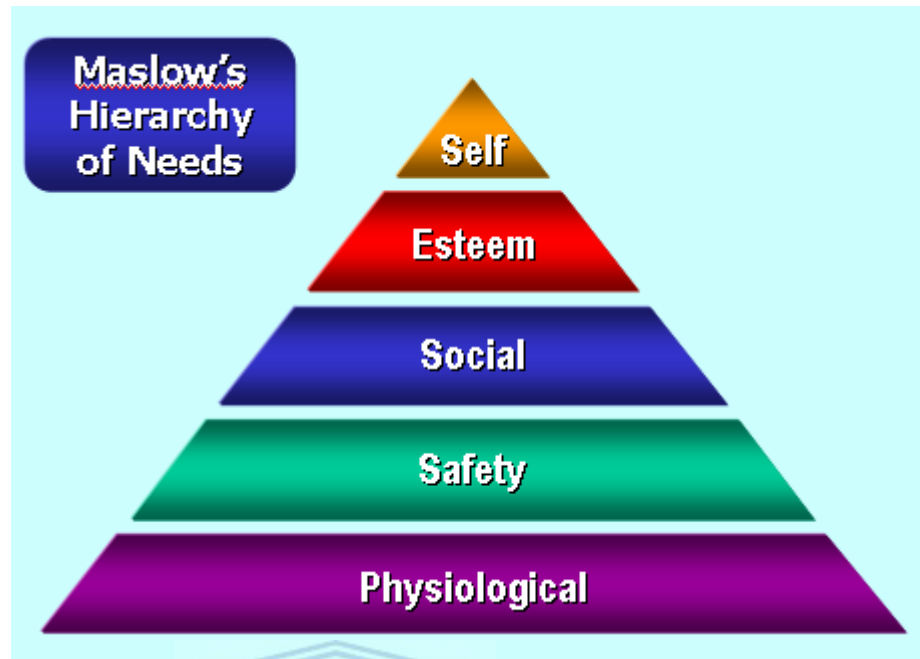
Source: Robbins (2001)

2.4.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg's two-factor theory is accepted as a key motivation theory even though

it is contentious. Herzberg (1966) proposes that job satisfaction is dependant

upon a certain set of conditions while job dissatisfaction results from an entirely

different set of conditions (Grobler et al., 2002). Herzberg therefore distinguishes

two classes of factors involved in job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979).

Employees who are satisfied at work attribute their satisfaction to internal factors,

while dissatisfied employees ascribe their behaviour to external factors (Herzberg,

1968 cited in Schulz, 2006). Factors that play a role in contributing to the

satisfaction of employees are called motivators, since they are effective in

motivating the individual to superior performance and effort. On the other hand, other specific job-related factors are incapable of creating job satisfaction; these are referred to as hygiene factors. These two factors are also called the intrinsic (internal) and extrinsic (external) factors.

Hygiene factors refer to those elements that result from but do not involve the job itself (Aamondt, 1999). Hertzberg (1996) identified the following as hygiene factors:

- Supervision;

- Physical working conditions;

- Salary;

- Interpersonal relations;

- Company policies and administrative practices;

- Job security; and

- Benefits.
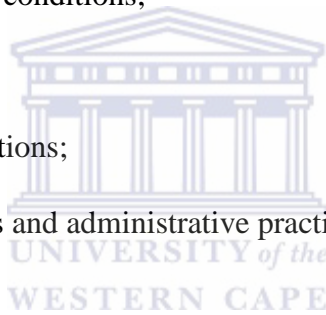
Motivators on the other hand refer to job elements that do concern the actual job tasks and duties (Aamodt, 1999). Hertzberg (1996) identified the following as motivators:

- Achievement;

- Recognition;

- Work itself;

- Responsibility; and

- Advancement.

Herberg (1966) maintains that hygiene factors are necessary but not sufficient for job satisfaction. Grobler et al. (2002) mentions that the more resources are invested, the more are required, as with hygiene factors, increased amounts are needed to produce the same effect. He affirms this when he mentions that salary issues will never be resolved, as workers will still be discontented over wages after concluding salary negotiations. On the other hand, motivators are intrinsic in nature and they suggest that no one can give another person the satisfaction that comes from accomplishing a challenging job (Grobler et al., 2002).

Figure 2.2

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory	
Hygiene Factors	**Motivational Factors**
• Quality of supervision • Rate of pay • Company policies • Working conditions • Relations with others • Job security	• Career Advancement • Personal growth • Recognition • Responsibility • Achievement

High   Job Dissatisfaction   0   Job Satisfaction   High
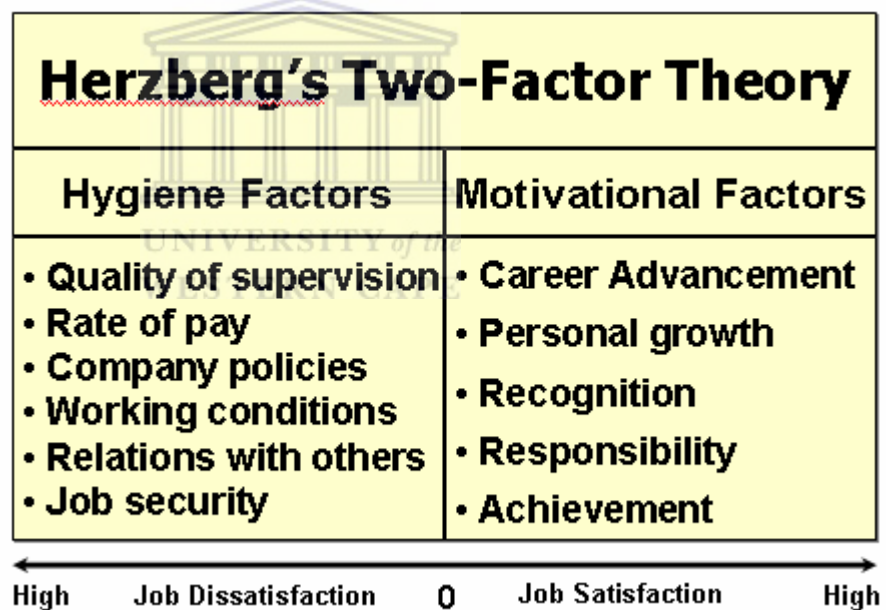
Source: Robbins (2001)

2.4.1.3 Alderfer's EFG Theory

Alderfer (1972) developed a theory based on Maslow's needs hierarchy. Alderfer's theory is however, more specific to an organisational setting than Maslow's, and its categorisation of needs is different. Alderfer's theory is referred to as ERG theory and is based on the following three needs: existence, relatedness and growth. **Existence** involves providing individuals with basic existence requirements and it subsumes the individual's physiological and safety needs. **Relatedness** refers to the desire to keep good interpersonal relationships, which Maslow labeled social and esteem needs. **Growth** needs refer to an intrinsic desire for personal development based on the self-actualisation needs of Maslow (Evans, 1998).

The EFG theory is hierarchical in the sense that it posits that the tendency is to progress from existence, to relatedness, to growth needs. When the aspiration to satisfy a higher need is subdued, the desire to satisfy a lower order level need increases. The model recognises that satisfaction of more than one category of need may be sought simultaneously. The first one is referred to as satisfaction-progression and the second one is the frustration-regression, which provides additional insight about motivation and human behaviour (Evans, 1998). According to Alderfer (1972), when a person's needs are frustrated at a higher level, it leads to movement down the hierarchy.

Figure 2.3
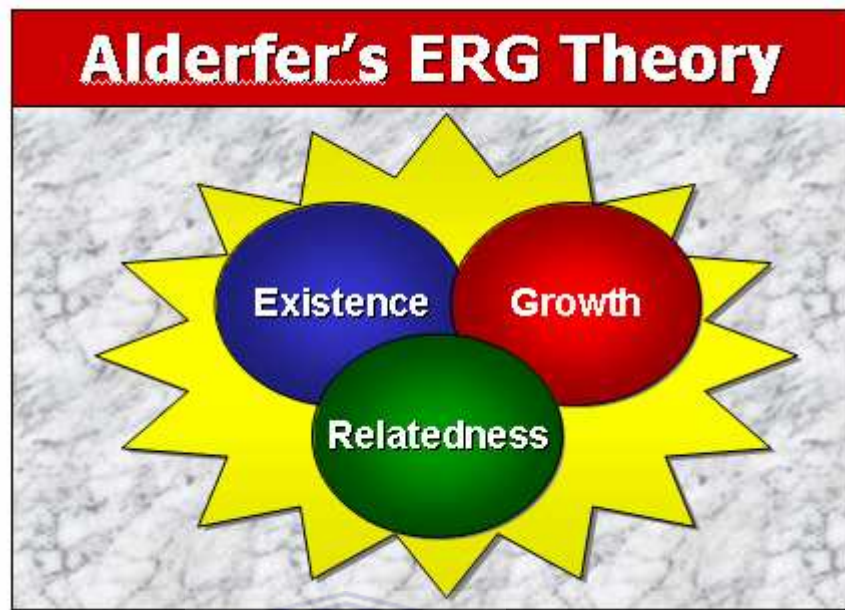
Source: Robbins (2001)
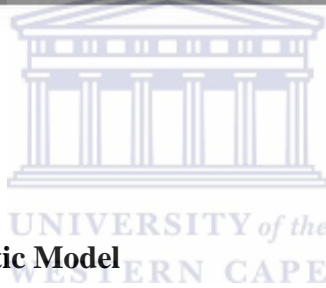
2.4.1.4 Job Characteristic Model

The most influential theory of how job characteristics affect people is Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics theory (Wall & Martin, 1987 cited in Spector, 1997). The basis of the job characteristics theory is that people can be motivated by the intrinsic satisfaction they find in performing job tasks. When people find their work to be enjoyable and meaningful, they will like their jobs and will be motivated to perform to the best of their ability (Spector, 1997).

The five core job characteristics are defined in the following terms (Spector, 1997):
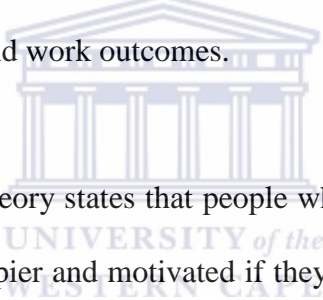
Skills Variety refers to the number of different skills necessary to do a job.

Task identity refers to whether or not an employee does an entire job or a piece of a job. Employees can complete a task from beginning to end with an identifiable outcome.

Task significance refers to the impact a job has on other people.

Autonomy refers to the freedom employees have to do their jobs as they see fit.

Feedback refers to the degree to which the job offers information to employees regarding performance and work outcomes.

The job characteristics theory states that people who prefer challenge and interest in their work will be happier and motivated if they have complex jobs, as defined by the five core characteristics.

2.4.1.5 McClelland's Needs Theory

According to McClelland (1961), employees differ in terms of their needs for achievement, affiliation and power. Employees who have a strong need for achievement desire jobs that are challenging and over which they can exert control. These employees are most likely to be satisfied when they are solving problems and accomplishing tasks successfully (Aamondt, 1999; McClelland, 1961; Saal & Knight, 1988).

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Needs, as focused on by McClelland's theory, are briefly described as follows (Evans, 1998):

Need for achievement – a strong desire to assume personal responsibility for finding solutions to a problem or for performing a task.

Need for power – involves needing to exert control and influence.

Need for affiliation – incorporates a wish to establish, and maintain good interpersonal relationships.

Need for autonomy – autonomy is one facet of teacher motivation and stems from a desire for independence and is characterised by working alone.

Figure 2.4
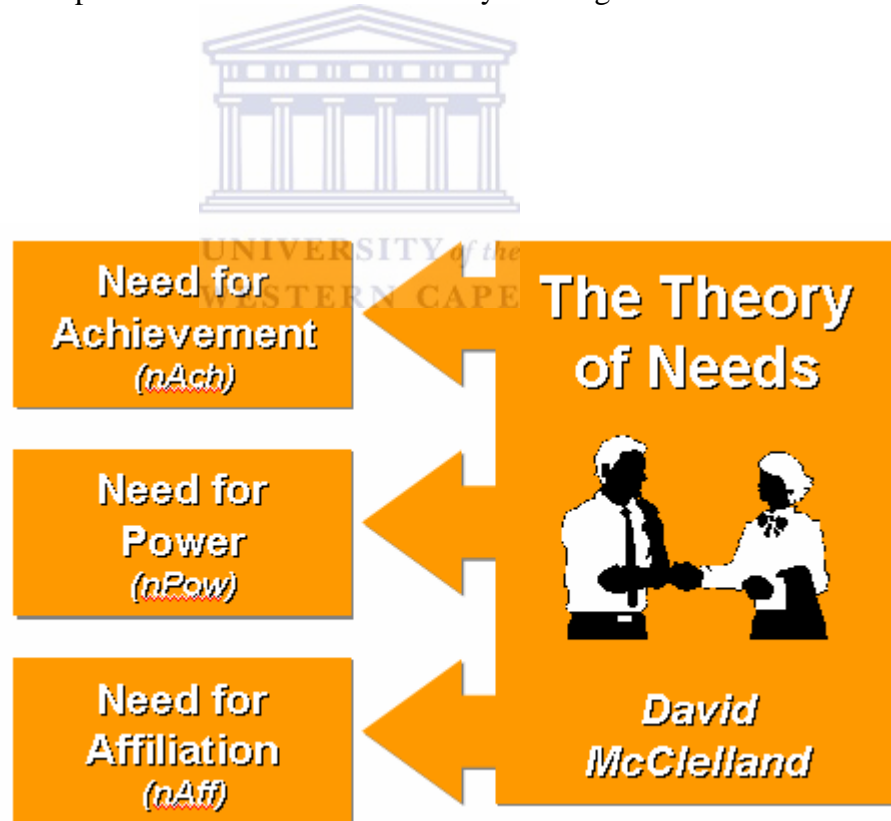
Source: Robbins (2001)

2.4.2 PROCESS THEORIES

2.4.2.1 Expectancy Theory

Vroom's (1964) theory of job satisfaction looked at the interaction between personal and workplace variables. However, he also incorporated the element of workers' expectations into his theory. The essence of this theory is that if workers apply more effort and perform better at their work, then they will be compensated accordingly (Greenberg & Baron, 2008).

Discrepancies between expected compensation and actual outcome may occur and can however lead to dissatisfaction. If an employee receives less than what they expected or otherwise feel as if they have been treaded unfairly, then dissatisfaction may occur. Equally, overcompensation may also lead to dissatisfaction and the employee may experience feelings of guilt. Pay is typically the most visible and most easily modified element of compensation, but does not always have to be in monetary terms (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Salary also has significance beyond monetary value and the potential to acquire material items, and furthermore it is also an indication of personal achievement, organisational status, and recognition (Gruneberg, 1979).

Vroom's theory also goes one step further to incorporate an individual's personal decision making within the work-place. Vroom (1982) explained that employees would choose to either perform or not perform tasks based on their perceived ability to carry out the task and earn fair compensation. To illustrate his ideas,

Vroom generated a three-variable equation for scientifically determining job satisfaction. **Expectancy** is the first variable, which is an individual's perception of how well he or she can carry out the given task. **Instrumentality** is the second variable of the equation, which refers to an individual's confidence that he or she will be compensated fairly for performing the task. **Valence** is the third variable, which considers the value of the expected reward to the employee. In Vroom's formula each variable is given a probability value, and when all three factors are high, workers will be more satisfied and have more motivation. Similarly, if any of the factors are low, work performance and employee motivation will decline.

Figure 2.5
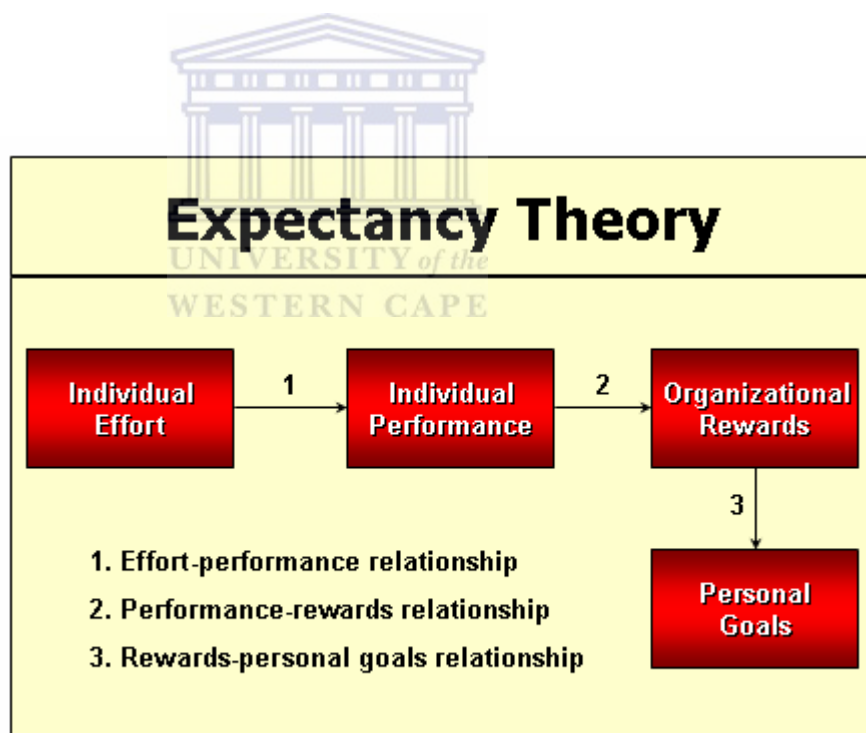
Source: Robbins (2001)

2.4.2.2 Equity Theory

The Equity Theory developed by Adam in 1963 is based on the idea that employees basically expects a fair balance between their inputs and outputs. Like many of the more prevalent theories of motivation, the Adams' Equity Theory acknowledges that subtle and variable factors affect an employee's assessment and perception of their relationship with their work and their employer (Fowler, 2006).

The theory is based on the belief that employees become demotivated if they feel as though their inputs are greater than the outputs, both in relation to their job and their employer. Employees can be expected to respond to this in different ways, including demotivation (generally to the extent the employee perceives that disparity between the inputs and the outputs exist), reduced effort, becoming disgruntled, or, in more extreme cases, perhaps even disruptive (Fowler, 2006).

Employees usually compare themselves with the colleagues who are likely to put in similar inputs as they do and the outputs they receive. This means that an employee will basically compare him or herself with another employee in order to determine whether or not they have been treated fairly. This does not however, mean that all employees have to be treated the same way and given exactly what is being given to the other employees, as all employees are not motivated by the same outputs expected by that of any other employee (Silva, 2009).

Figure 2.6

2.4.2.3 Goal-setting Theory

The Goal Setting Theory was developed by Locke in 1968. It was developed to explain human actions in specific work situations, and argues that goals and intentions are cognitive and willful, which serve as mediators of human actions. It also argues that individuals' needs and their goals are mediated by their values, which determine what is beneficial for them (Goal Setting, 2011).

According to this theory, the performance will depend on the level of goal difficulty, goal of detail, and an individual's commitment to the goal. The harder the goal, the more a person will work to reach it. Goals have two characteristics, namely, the goal's content and the goal's intensity. The content refers to what the individual actually wants to achieve whereas the intensity refers to the amount of

physical and mental resources needed to create and achieve the content (Goal Setting, 2011).

Figure 2.7

Source: Robbins (2001)

2.5   DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Literature on the dimensions of job satisfaction have increased over the years (Groot, 1999). Staw (1995) argues that organisations can only increase job satisfaction and reap the subsequent benefits thereof if the factors causing and influencing this attitude can be identified. Research indicate that satisfaction is a function of both the person and the environment in which the individual operates. Research has also shown that employees are more productive when they are satisfied with their jobs and their environments in which they work, thus dimensions other than economic ones become major factors encouraging

productivity and efficiency for educators (Kushu, 2003). The determinants of job satisfaction can be divided primarily into extrinsic and intrinsic sources of satisfaction (Buitendach & de Witte, 2005).

2.5.1   EXTRINSIC SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Extrinsic sources of job satisfaction originate from the individual's environment. The frequency and magnitude of extrinsic sources of satisfaction are predominantly determined by conditions and forces that are beyond the control of employees (Vecchio, 1988). The following factors constitute external sources of satisfaction:

2.5.1.1 The Work Itself

According to Luthans (1992), the nature of the work performed by employees has a significant impact on their level of job satisfaction. He maintains that employees derive satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging and a job that provides them with status.

Landy (1989) advocates that work that is personally interesting to employees is likely to contribute to job satisfaction. Similarly, research suggests that task variety may facilitate job satisfaction (Eby, Freeman, Rush & Lance, 1999). This is based on the view that skill variety has strong effects on job satisfaction,

implying that the greater the variety of skills that employees are able to utilize in their jobs, the higher their level of satisfaction (Ting, 1997).

A study by Jinnett and Alexander (1999) suggest that challenging work may actually produce satisfied employees. This finding is supported by Gunter and Furnham (1996) who argue that challenge is likely to be a more important determinant of job satisfaction than gender, age, salary or work history. Aamodt (1999) supports view that job satisfaction is influenced by opportunities for challenge and growth as well as by the opportunity to accept responsibility. Mentally challenging work that the individual can successfully accomplish is satisfying and employees prefer jobs that provide them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities that offer a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback regarding performance, is valued by most employees (Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Robbins, 1998, Tziner & Latham, 1989).

2.5.1.2 Working Conditions

Working conditions is another factor that has a moderate impact on the employee's job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992).
Landy (1989) is of the opinion that the match between the working conditions of employees and their physical needs determine in part their job satisfaction. This view is refuted by Luthans (1992) who argues that workers do not give much consideration to their working conditions and often take them for granted and complaints regarding working conditions are usually manifestations of other

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underlying problems. Luthans (1998) does concede if people work in a clean, friendly environment they will find it easier to come to work. If the opposite should happen, they will find it difficult to accomplish tasks.

Teacher workload, changes in the education system and a lack of discipline amongst some of the learners may be some of the reasons why teachers want to exit the profession. The working environment of teachers also determines the attitude and behaviour of teachers towards their work (Bishay, 1996).

A large scale study conducted by the US Department of Education in 1993 highlighted that 40 percent of educators were strongly dissatisfied with their workload, the resources available to them and procedures used to evaluate their work (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2003).
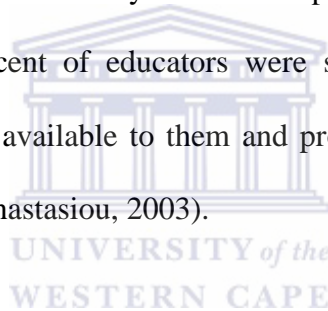
Bishay (1996) indicates that research has shown that improvement in teacher motivation has a positive effect on both teachers and learners. Moreover, within the teaching profession, for example, there are different working conditions based on the past allocation of resources to schools. In disadvantaged schools working conditions are often not conducive to teaching and learning (Mwamwenda, 1995; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Steyn & van Wyk, 1999).

A study conducted in South Africa found that conditions under which Black teachers work in schools are demoralising, as the Black teacher has to cope with poor physical conditions such as overcrowding, inadequate equipment and lack of

adequate facilities (Ngidi, 1995). Poor working conditions may therefore be a major source of job dissatisfaction amongst teachers (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002).

A study conducted by the US Department of Education concur that favorable workplace conditions were positively related to teachers' job satisfaction regardless of whether teachers were employed by a public or private school (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2003).

2.5.1.3 Pay

The old adage "you get what you pay for" tends to be true when it comes to staff members. Salary is not a motivator for employees, but they do want to be paid fairly. If individuals believe they are not compensated well, they will be unhappy working for the organisation (Syptak, Marsland & Ulmar, 1999). Research by Cramer (1993) and Money and Graham (1999) revealed salary to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction.

Similarly Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) found financial rewards to have a significant impact on job satisfaction. These findings are largely consistent with the idea that most employees are socialised in a society where money, benefits, and security are sought after and often used to gauge the importance or worth of a person. Thus, the greater the financial reward, the less worry the employee has concerning their financial state.

Gunter and Furnham (1996) found employee perceptions concerning the equity with which the organisation rewards its employees, to be better predictors of job satisfaction than is the case with gender, age, or actual salary. Miceli, Jung, Near and Greenberger (1991 cited in Hendrix, Robbins, Miller & Summers, 1998) validated that fairness of the pay system improved job satisfaction. Sousa-Poza's (2000) research indicates that perceived income, whether the respondent considered his income high or not, was found to have the third largest effect on the job satisfaction of male employees.

According to Robbins (1998), employees seek pay systems that are perceived as just, unambiguous, and in line with their expectations. Several other authors, however, maintain that the key in linking pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid, but rather the perception of fairness (Aamodt, 1999; Landy, 1989; Robbins, 1998).
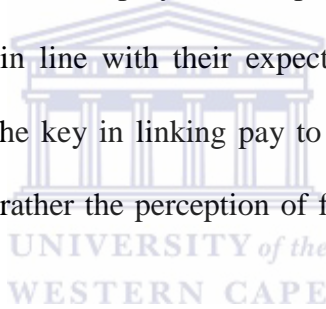
Evans (1998b) identifies that the low salaries of teachers, their low status, growing class sizes and changes in the education system all contribute to the causes of what has been interpreted as endemic of dissatisfaction within the teaching profession.

2.5.1.4 Fringe Benefits

Another aspect of compensation that is important is fringe benefits. Benefits do not have a strong influence on job satisfaction for most employees (Landy, 1989;

Luthans, 1992). According to Luthans (1992), the reason for the weak link between fringe benefits and satisfaction may be sought primarily in the fact that the majority of employees are unaware of how much they are receiving in the form of benefits.

A study conducted by the US Department of Education found a weak relationship between teacher satisfaction and salary and benefits (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2003).

According to Cockcroft (2001), the safest generalisation that can be made with regards to pay is that it represents different things for different employees, and is certainly not the most important motivator for many individuals. Smither (1988) states that whilst a few individuals are in a position to ignore the financial aspect of a job, most individuals appear to select their occupations based on the work itself, rather than the financial rewards thereof.

2.5.1.5 Supervision

Studies have shown that employees are likely to have high levels of job satisfaction if supervisors provide them with support and co-operation in completing tasks (Ting, 1997). Similar results were reported by Billingsley and Cross (1992) as well as Cramer (1993). Setting up shared decision-making processes in schools, such as governance councils, allows teachers to participate

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in school processes rather than feel subordinate to their principals and coerced into participating in school and teacher responsibilities (Nagel & Brown, 2003).

Morris (2004) postulates that teacher job satisfaction is affected by the work environment and strong principal leadership. It is vital to be aware that not all good employees make good supervisors. The role of a supervisor is difficult, as it requires leadership skills and the ability to treat all employees fairly.

Similarly, researchers (Knoll, 1987; Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982; Rettig, 2000) have reported about the importance of supervision in schools. It indicates that supervisory activities foster motivation, inspiration, and trust and thus help to improve teaching performance. Their research indicates that principals play a vital role in the care for the personal welfare and emotional support of teachers.

Corroborating this, Nelson (1980) found that leadership styles of school administrators are related to job satisfaction. He maintains that the quality of teacher-administrator relationship generates higher teacher job satisfaction, and greater teacher participation in decision making contributes to job satisfaction (Mohrman, Cooke & Mohrman, 1978).

2.5.1.6 Co-worker relations

Numerous studies indicate that individuals who perceive that they have better interpersonal friendships with their co-workers and immediate supervisors report higher job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2001). The social context of work is also likely to have a significant impact on a worker's attitude and behaviour (Marks, 1994). Relationships with both co-workers and supervisors are important. Some studies have shown that the better the relationship, the greater the level of job satisfaction (Wharton & Baron, 1991).

Luthans (1992), however, contends that satisfactory co-worker relations are not essential to job satisfaction, but that in the presence of extremely strained relationships, job satisfaction is more than likely to suffer. Nevertheless, the growing body of literature on the subject seems to indicate that co-worker relations are taking on an ever-increasing role, not just in the realms of productivity, but also in determining the experience of work and its meaning (Hodson, 1997).

Hillebrand (1989) found that the greatest need of educators centred around interpersonal needs. He maintains that healthy relationships with colleagues and school principals increase educational concerns and goal attainment. These findings strengthen the argument that organisations should engage in the integration of employees so as to create group cohesion among employees and departments within the organisation (Lambert et al., 2001).

2.5.1.7 Responsibility

Autonomy is a fact of teacher motivation (Khmelkov, 2000; Losos, 2000; Whitel 1992 cited in Pearson & Moomaw, 2005) as employees will be more motivated to do their jobs well if they have ownership of their work. As individuals mature in their jobs, giving employees more freedom and power to carry out their tasks will result in job satisfaction (Syptak et al., 1999). A 1997 study by the National Centre for Education Statistics and several other studies have demonstrated that the degree of autonomy perceived by teachers is indicative of current job satisfaction (Charters, 1976; Franklin, 1988; Gnecco, 1983; Hall, Villerme, & Phillippy, 1989; Pearson & Hall, 1993 all cited in Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

Successful transformation in education has strongly increased teacher involvement in school decision making and this has resulted in increased job satisfaction (Rice & Schneider, 1994). 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).

2.5.2   INTRINSIC SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Vecchio (1988) maintains that intrinsic sources of job satisfaction originate from within the individual and have intrinsic and psychological value because of what they symbolise. According to Vecchio (1998), intrinsic sources of job satisfaction

include opportunities for promotion and feelings of recognition since these factors have symbolic or psychological meaning for the individual.

2.5.2.1 Opportunities for Promotion

Perceived opportunities for promotion is the perception of the degree of potential occupational mobility within an organisation. The belief is that promotional chances decrease turnover indirectly by means of a positive influence of job satisfaction (Price, 2001).
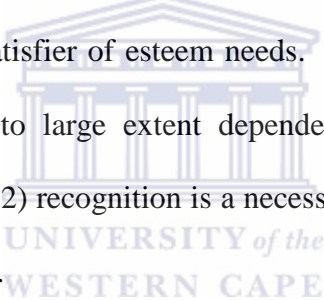
Furthermore, as is the case with pay, employees seek promotion policies that are equitable. If promotion decisions are perceived as being fair, employees are likely to derive satisfaction from their jobs (Robbins, 1998).
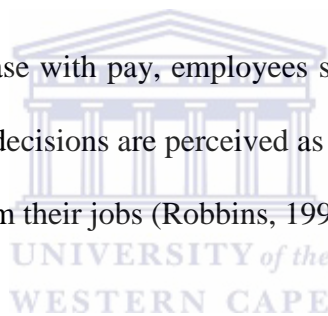
Opportunities for promotion appear to have a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction (Tolbert & Meon, 1998). Promotions may take a variety of different forms and are generally accompanied by different rewards. Employees who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction, but less so than is the case with employees promoted on the basis of performance (Luthans, 1992).

2.5.2.2 Recognition

Recognition pertains to an expression of acknowledged appreciation and approval of services, deeds and achievement (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2000). It can be given in tangible ways, such as promotions and salary increase, or by verbal comments, such as praise (Gruneberg, 1979). Individuals at all levels want to be recognised for their achievements on the job. Their successes do not have to be monumental before they deserve recognition, but praise should be sincere (Syptak et al., 1999). Visser (1990) and Arnolds and Boshoff (2000) are of the opinion that a positive relationship between satisfaction and recognition can be attributed to the fact that recognition is a strong satisfier of esteem needs. Visser (1990) elaborates that a positive self-concept is to large extent dependent on the approval of others. According to Voster (1992) recognition is a necessary precondition for raising job satisfaction of employees.

2.6 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON JOB SATISFACTION

Research findings have indicated that many personal characteristics affect job satisfaction in different and complex ways. Amongst others, these personal characteristics are gender, age, marital, parental status and working experience (Koustelios, 2001). As there are many, only the biographical variables being investigated in the current research will be discussed.

2.6.1   Gender

Considering the increase in the number of women in the workplace, gender differences in job satisfaction warrants attention. This conclusion has particular bearing on the service industry where a high percentage of women have shown to be particularly affected by job satisfaction (Soursa-Poza, 2000b).

However, relations between gender and job satisfaction have been extremely inconsistent across studies. Results of different studies were combined with meta-analysis and mean correlations tend to be almost zero across a number of studies and thousands of people. This implies that men and women have the same levels of job satisfaction (Witt & Nye, 1992 cited in Spector, 1997).

Clark (1993 cited in Groot & Maassen van den Brink, 1999) analysed differences in job satisfaction between men and women. His main findings were that women reported higher levels of overall job satisfaction than men. The finding of the study does not delineate that women have more freedom of choice as to whether or not to work and those women who are not satisfied with their job prefer to leave the labour market, instead it concluded that women appear to be happier in their jobs than men.

Coward, Hogan, Duncan, Horne, Hiker and Felsen (1995 cited in Jinnett & Alexander, 1999) concur with the above findings that female employees demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts across

most work settings. A number of studies involving several different populations also support this argument (Lambert et al., 2001; Loscocco, 1990; Ma & Macmillan, 1999).

In contrast to the above view, researchers such as Miller and Wheeler (1992 cited in Lim, Teo & Thayer, 1998) maintain that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs because they tend to hold positions at a lower level in the organisational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive.

Findings of research conducted by Al-Mashaan (2003) also reported that male employees in comparison to female employees report higher levels of job satisfaction. This he attributes to the better chances of employment men are argued to have, and opportunities to advance in their jobs at a more rapid pace than females.
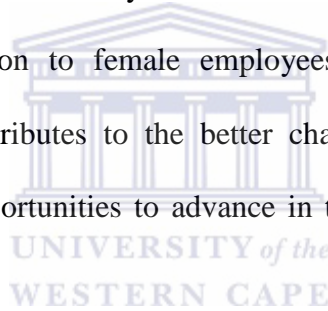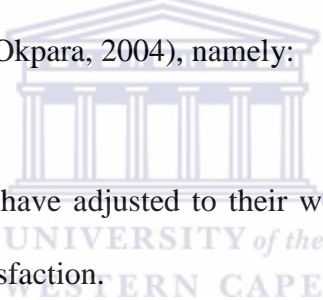
2.6.2 Age

Research has shown that there is a relationship between age and job satisfaction. However, the exact nature of the relation is not clear as some studies have found a curvilinear, whereas others have found a linear relation. Whether the relation is curvilinear or linear, it is important to understand the reason age relates to job satisfaction. Older workers are found to be more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers because they are more accepting of authority and expect less from their jobs (Spector, 1997).

Various researchers (Belcastro & Koeske, 1996; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Blood, Ridenour, Thomas, Qualls and Hammer, 2002; Cramer, 1993; Jones-Johnson & Johnson, 2000) agree that older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction. They postulate that this difference may be attributed to better adjustment at work, better conditions and greater rewards at work (Birdi, Warr & Oswald, 1995).

Siu, Spector, Cooper and Donald (2001) found that age was positively related to job satisfaction and mental well-being in a sample of managers. Numerous explanations have also been presented to explain the positive correlation between age and job satisfaction (Okpara, 2004), namely:

- Older employees have adjusted to their work over the years, which may lead to higher satisfaction.
- Prestige and confidence are likely to increase with age and this could result in older employees being more satisfied.
- Younger employees may consider themselves more mobile and seek greener pastures, which could lead to lower satisfaction levels.
- Younger employees are more likely to hold high expectations of their jobs and if these expectations are not met, they may experience lower satisfaction levels.

The above findings are consistent with numerous studies related to school personnel, health care and business workers, which indicate that older workers are

more satisfied than younger workers with their jobs (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2000; Begley & Czajka, 1993; Brush, Moch & Pooyan, 1987; Hodson, 1996; Lowther, Gill & Coppard, 1985; Schabracq, Winnubst & Cooper, 1998; Spector, 1996 all cited in Blood et al., 2002).

2.6.3   Tenure

Tenure refers to the length of time the individual has worked for the organisation (Lim et al., 1998).   Research (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999; Jones-Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988) indicate that employees with longer tenure have a greater propensity to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter tenure.
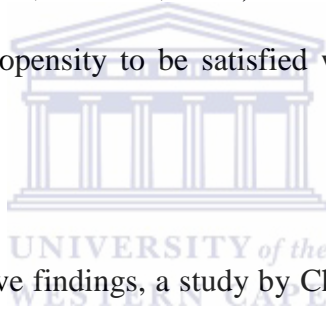
Concurring with the above findings, a study by Chambers (1999) established that employees with longer tenure were more satisfied with their level of pay and the work itself.   It was concluded that satisfaction increases with time and that those benefits that increase in time are likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction.

In contrast, Groot (1999) found no significant relationship between length of service and job satisfaction and research findings by Lambert et al. (2001) and Gibson and Klei (1970) showed a decrease in satisfaction with increased length of service.

It is evident from the above that the literature is inconsistent and this can be due to the fact that the relationship between job satisfaction and length of service depend on a specific organisation, and how length of service is viewed (Gibson & Klein, 1970).

2.6.4   Marital status

Loscocco (1990) suggests that married men and women are more satisfied with their jobs than their single counterparts, presumably because marriage increases responsibilities and limits alternatives. More specifically, Chambers (1999) found being married to be significantly correlated with increased satisfaction in pay, work, supervision, and co-worker subscales of the JDI.

Voster (1992) argues that an employee's personal life is integrated with his/her work life and an employee's dissatisfaction at work may therefore, at times, be more due to personal problems than the characteristics of the job itself.

2.6.5   Number of dependents

A study by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) amongst employees in government organisations reported no statistically significant relationship between the number of dependents and job satisfaction.

Gwavuya (2010) concurs the number of dependents is not statistically significant in its contribution to job satisfaction. According to research conducted by Gwavuya (2010), employees with larger number of dependants are less likely to be satisfied with their current jobs. On the other hand, employees with smaller number of dependants are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

However, Robbins (1989) reported that there is strong evidence suggesting a positive relationship between the number of dependents and job satisfaction. This implies that the higher the number of dependents an employee has, the higher job satisfaction is likely to be.

The reasons behind these inconsistencies in the results may be as a result of differences in working conditions, work culture and organisational structure (Randhawa, 2007).
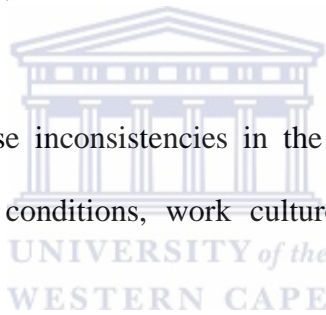
2.7   CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

2.7.1   Absenteeism

Absenteeism is "any failure of an employee to report for or to remain at work as scheduled, regardless of the reason" (Cascio, 2003, p. 45). Milkovich and Boudreau (1994, p. 10) define absenteeism from an organisation's perspective as "the frequency and or/duration of work time lost when employees do not come to work."

It is a logical conclusion to make that dissatisfied employees are more likely to be absent from work (Gruneberg, 1979). Research by the World Bank reports that poor motivation and lack of accountability is widely reported to result in high levels of teacher absenteeism in many schools. It is however difficult to measure teacher absenteeism that can be directly attributed to poor motivation and opportunistic behaviour. The World Bank sponsored research reported that high levels of teacher absence generally exist in African and Asian countries. However, most teacher absenteeism is for legitimate reasons, namely, personal illness, official duty, and leave (Bennell, 2004).

Luthans (1992) found that there is a relatively strong relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism and found that conditions that influence absenteeism influence satisfaction and moderating variables such as the degree to which people feel that their jobs are important.

Teacher absenteeism is often reported to be worst in rural schools than in private schools. This can be due to the fact that teachers often go home at weekends and can be absent up to one day a week, traveling to and from school. Furthermore, research by the World Bank found that absenteeism amongst multi-grade teachers is noticeably higher than amongst ordinary class teachers. One of the most important findings of this research is that absenteeism rates among contractual teachers are much higher than for teachers with permanent status (Bennell, 2004).

2.7.2 Turnover

According to Elangoven (2001), satisfaction and commitment are the most frequently investigated components of effect with regards to turnover. If an individual is dissatisfied with components of their jobs they might decide to seek alternative employment. According to Gruneberg (1979) and Spector (2000), dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs than satisfied employees.

According to Xaba (2008), teacher turnover manifests itself in many ways and is attributed to many causes. It therefore is crucial that the education system takes note of this and takes steps to address this situation proactively. The need for rationalisation and restructuring in schools has resulted in offers of severance packages, redeployment of teachers in schools and widespread resignations from the profession (Anon., 1998 cited in Xaba, 2008). It is also reported that many vacant teaching posts are not filled and that the employment of temporary teachers and the non-filling of permanent posts also point to teacher shortages in South Africa (Carlisle, 2001 cited in Xaba, 2008). Concerns about teacher shortages in South Africa are beginning to be expressed strongly as there seems to be a decrease in the number of permanent educators in schools (Xaba, 2008).

2.7.3 Productivity

One of the biggest controversies is the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity (Saari & Judge, 2004). According to Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt

*(*2003), managers' interest in job satisfaction tends to centre on its effect on employees performance and productivity. It cannot be assumed that satisfied workers will be productive, nor can it be assumed that job satisfaction is the result of good performance (Bassett, 1994). Research postulate that job satisfaction has a positive effect on productivity, however, this correlation is rather modest (Cranny, Cain-Smith & Stone, 1992; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001; Robbins, 2005; Spector, 1997). Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1997) surmised that some employees who are satisfied with work are poor performers, conversely, there might be employees who are not satisfied, but who are excellent performers.

According to Robbins (2005), productivity is more likely to lead to satisfaction than the other way around. He mentions that if employees do a good job, they would intrinsically feel good about it. Robbins (2005) concluded that higher productivity could lead to an increase in rewards, pay level and promotion, which are all sources of job satisfaction.

This section provided an overview of job satisfaction. The next section introduces stress.

2.8   STRESS

2.8.1   INTRODUCTION

Any form of change in an individual's life constitutes stress, whether positive or negative.   Even the experience of imagining future change, which can be understood as worry, is stress (Burns, 1997). According to Burns (1997), stress causes problems with the brain's positive messages. When life is smooth, the happy messages keep up with demand. However, when too much strain is present, the positive messages struggle to be delivered to the brain.

It is expected of educators to execute various and diverse activities while facing enormous volumes of individual, social and professional responsibilities in today's fast-paced world, which could lead them to experience stress. According to Engelbrecht and Eloff (2001), stress levels of educators are dependent on the stressors that educators experience at work, their appraisal of the stressor and their perceived ability in coping with it.

2.8.2   DEFINING STRESS

Stress has been defined in various ways such as: a response to challenging events, as an event that places demands on the individual, as an environmental characteristic posing a threat to the individual, and as a realization by individuals that they are unable to adequately deal with the demands placed upon them (Dua, 1994).

Occupational stress, also known as job stress, has been defined as the experience of negative emotional states such as frustration, worry, anxiety and depression attributed to work related factors (Kyriacou, 2001 cited in De Nobile & McCormick, 2005). 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.
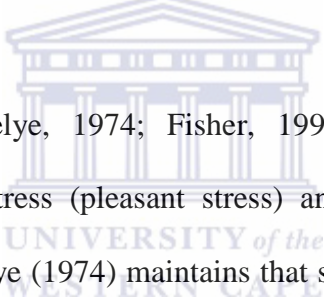
Stress is derived from the Latin word stringere, meaning to draw tight, and was used in the 17th century to describe hardships or affliction. During the late 18th century, stress denoted force, pressure, strain or strong effort, referring primarily to individuals' organs or mental powers (Hinkle, 1973 cited in Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).
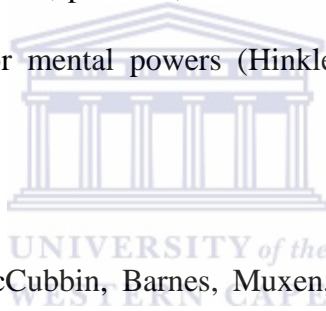
According to Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Muxen, Larsen and Wilson (1989, p. 119) stress is "a state of tension that arises from an actual or perceived demand that calls for an adjustment or adaptive behaviour". Teacher stress has been viewed as an interactive process which occurs between teachers and their teaching environment which leads to excessive demands being placed on them and resulting in physiological and psychological distress (Forlin & Hattie, 1996). Kyriacou defines teacher stress as "the experience by educators of unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration, depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as teacher" (Wilson, 2002, p. 17). Dua (1994) posits that the nature and effects of stress might be best understood by

proposing that some environmental variables (stressors), when interpreted by the individual, may lead to stress.

Stress can thus be viewed as a psychological phenomenon with a clear physical component and is defined by Jordan (2002) as an unpleasant reaction the individual has towards excessive pressure, which exceeds the individual's ability to cope. Stress, according to Quick, Quick, Nelson and Hurrell (1997), is a creatively ambiguous word with little agreed-on scientific definition. It is therefore important to define the scientific terms within the domain of stress to give it a more precise and clear meaning.

Various researchers (Selye, 1974; Fisher, 1994; Keiper & Buselle, 1996) distinguish between eustress (pleasant stress) and distress (unpleasant stress). Concerning *eustress*, Selye (1974) maintains that stress, which finds its origins in successful activities, bring about a feeling of contentment and youthful vigour. The response to stress is functional when it is managed properly, which can lead to eustress. "Eustress is good stress, from the Greek word for good (Selye, 1976b cited in Quick et al., 1997, p. 4). According to Quick et al. (1997), eustress may be defined as the healthy positive, constructive outcome of stressful events and the stress response. On the other hand, when stress loads become too big the individual's performance decreases. This can lead to individual distress or strain, which can be defined as "the degree of physiological, psychological, and behavioural deviation from an individual's healthy functioning" (Quick et al., 1997, p. 5). Keiper and Buselle (1996) concurred that *distress* (unpleasant stress)

(for example, tension, worry, frustration) can cause serious ailments or discomforts and are likely to become "the disease of our time" (Selye, 1974, p. 12). Quick and Quick (1984) add that the consequences of stress include heath problems and reduction in work performance.

It can be deduced that there are two distinct types of stressors, namely, those which are found within the individual, which include personal values, attitudes and self-concepts, and those that originate outside the individual, which include environmental and work-related stressors (Goodall & Brown, 1980).

For the purpose of this research, Seyle's definition is focused on, as it encompasses the notion that stress is caused by physiological, psychological and environmental demands. Seyle (1974) indicated that when confronted with stressors, the body creates extra energy and it is when all the energy available is not utilised, that stress is a consequence.

Kruger (1992) posits that stress as a phenomenon manifests in the individual person as a result of various stressors that arise from the self and the environment, and affect the individual person in accordance with the way in which he or she attributes meaning to the events, stimuli or demands affecting him or her, and in accordance with the way in which he or she experiences and enters into or handles such events, stimuli or demands. Stress in the modern usage has come to imply the subjection of a person to force or compulsion, especially mental pressure or by overwork, which leads to strain and mental fatigue (Wilson, 2002).

Seyle's curiosities into the general syndrome of being sick motivated him to investigate the effects of environmental stress on humans and other animals in 1932. Seyle's framework (1976b cited in Quick et al., 1997) is summarised in the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS).

Figure 2.8
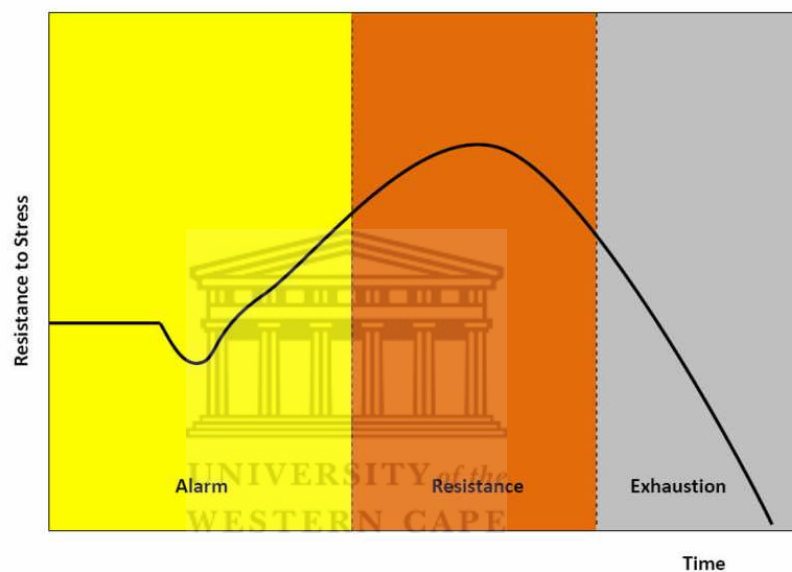
Source: Brown and Blakeman (1983)

The GAS consists of three stages, namely:

i) *The alarm stage*

The alarm reaction involves a process of a psycho-physiological response where at the time of the initial shock, resistance to stress is lowered. This process includes the emission of hormones from the endocrine glands, causing increased

heart rate and blood pressure, muscle tension and a decrease in maintenance functions. In cases where the stressor is continuous, the resistance phase starts where the body triggers the needed bodily system to deal with the stressor (Steenkamp, 2003). The body is alerted and activated, and stress levels are at its highest during this stage (Hubert, 1984).

ii)   *Resistance stage*

The resistance stage is characterised by an adaptation response of the body that is manifested with "fight or flight" responses (Goldberger & Breznitz, 1982 cited in Steenkamp, 2003). If the stressor persists, it becomes necessary to attempt coping with the stress. Although the body begins to try and adapt to the demands of the environment, the body cannot keep this up indefinitely. This can lead to the gradual depletion of resources and results in anxiety, memory loss or depression (Stress, 2011).

iii)   *Exhaustion stage*

In the exhaustion phase, the activity levels of the adrenal and thyroid glands diminish, cholesterol rises, toxic metals accumulate in the body and chronic diseases such as diabetes, cancer and cardiovascular disease may eventually manifest. Furthermore, metabolism is slowed, glandular depletion occurs, and profound exhaustion ultimately develops. The body no longer has the energy to deal with the stress and begins to break down (Copson, 1997). If the alarm reaction is too intense or frequent over an extended period, the energy required for

adaption becomes exhausted, and the final stage of exhaustion (that is, collapse or death) occurs (Hubert, 1984).

2.9   MODELS OF STRESS

According to LeFeure, Matteny and Kolt (2003), stress is the response to stressors in the environment, and stress by definition, is either eustress or distress or a combination of the two. Whether a stressor would result in eustress or distress would depend on the individual's interpretation.

There are several models and theories of occupational stress (LeFeure et al., 2003) but the Pearson-Environment Fit Theory, Cybernetic Theory and Control Theory are three models central to the literature on occupational stress and they are representative of the range of theories in that they tend to emphasize different sources and interaction models for the induction of stress, and different outcome measures for the management of stressors (LeFeure et al., 2003).

The abovementioned models as well as two other theories are briefly discussed to provide a context for the study.

2.9.1   Person-Environment Fit Theory

The Person-Environment Fit Theory is an important aspect in organisational psychology. The theory offers a framework for assessing and predicting how

characteristics of the employee and the work environment jointly determine worker well-being. It can be noticed on a constant basis in any workplace environment, but is commonly not considered as a cause or effect of conflicts in business environments (Ganley, 2010).

In the Person-Environment Fit Theory, stress and stressors are not defined in terms of either the individual or the environment but rather in terms of the degree to which there is a "misfit" between the two (LeFeure et al., 2003).

There are two types of fit between the environment and the individual. The first, also known as demand-abilities, is the extent to which an individual's skills and abilities match the requirements and demands of the job. The second, also known as needs-supplies, is the extent to which the job environment provides supplies to meet the individual's needs. A misfit between either of these types will result in health strain (Van Harrison, 1978).

2.9.2 Cybernetic Theory of Occupational Stress

Cybernetic theory provides a comprehensive portrayal of the person-environment interaction. It emphasizes time, information, and feedback. The focus on information underscores the key notion that information mediates the person-environment relationship. The idea of feedback recognises that coping behaviour is purposeful, and directed by knowledge of its previous effects. These factors are central to an understanding of stress (Shibutani, 1968 cited in Cooper, 1998).

Cybernetic theory deals with the response of systems to information, using feedback. It is based on the idea that individuals seek to maintain some equilibrium state, and will act to re-establish it when external forces disturb it (Sadri, 1997).

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 determined.

2.9.3   Homeostatic and Transactional Models

Homeostatic and Transactional models defined stress as the perception of imbalance between coping capacity and the environment (McGarth, 1970; Lazarus, 1966 cited in DiClemente, Croxby & Kegler, 2009). These theories emphasised individuals' perceptions of imbalance to be significant (DiClemente et al., 2009).

The Transactional Model of Stress evaluates the processes of coping with stressful events. Stressful experiences are construed as person-environment transactions which depend on the impact of the external stressor. This is mediated by firstly the person's appraisal of the stressor and secondly, on the social and cultural resources at his or her disposal (Lazarus & Cohen, 1977; Antonovsky & Kats, 1967; Cohen 1984 cited in Transactional model of stress and coping, 2010).

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The Homeostatic model of bodily function with coping processes viewed as efforts to maintain internal stability. It is a commonly adopted model of stress and an important organizing construct in both physiology and psychophysiology (Cacioppo, Tassinary & Berntson, 2007). The processes involved in coping are seen as having effects independent of the harmful impact of the stressors (Cannon, 1963 cited in Evans, 1998).

2.9.4 Control Theory of Occupational Stress

The Control Theory of Occupational Stress posits an interaction between job demands and job control predicting psychological strain (Beehr, Glaser, Canali & Wallwey, 2001). According to Sadri (1997), the degree to which individuals perceive that they have control over the variables that have a potential to cause stress in their environment, affects the possibility that they will experience stress.

LeFeure et al. (2003) suggest that this model of occupational stress places individuals in the role as interpreters of stress and provides adequate scope for characterising stressors, and identifying stress as a construct divided into 'eustress' and 'distress'.

2.9.5 The Conservation of Resources: A New Stress Model

The Conservation of Resources (COR) Model (Hobfoll, 1989) is an integrated model of stress that encompasses several stress theories. According to the model,

individuals seek to acquire and maintain resources, including objects (for example, homes, clothes, food), personal characteristics (for example, self-esteem), conditions (for example, being married or living with someone provides social support, more financial security), and energies (for example, time, money, and knowledge). Stress occurs when there is a loss of resources, or a threat of loss. For example, the model proposes that work-family conflict leads to stress because resources (for example, time, energy) "are lost in the process of juggling both work and family roles" (Thompson, 2001, p. 352), which in turn leads to job dissatisfaction, anxiety, and thoughts about quitting one's job. Individual difference variables, such as self-esteem, are treated as resources that may moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and stress (Thompson, 2001).
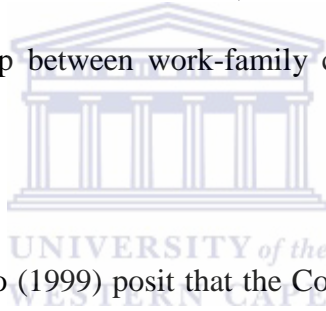
Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) posit that the Conservation of Resources Model is an improvement over the use of role theory. Role theory is limited in its ability to explain work-family relationships because it focuses on work roles rather than family roles, and fails to specify moderating variables that might affect the relationship between work-family stressors and stress outcomes. They proposed the Conservation of Resources Model, an integrated stress model, as an alternative framework for understanding work-family relationships. Based on the findings of Grandey and Cropanzano (1999), the Conservation of Resources Model appears to be a promising perspective for advancing individuals' understanding of work-family relationships.

The Model of Conservation of Resource also identifies what individuals do when they are not faced by stressors. This enhances their self-esteem, status or possession and functions as protection from future losses. It also states that if the investment in their resources does not provide good return, the individual experiences this as a loss of expected gain (Hobfoll, 1989).

2.10 CAUSES OF STRESS
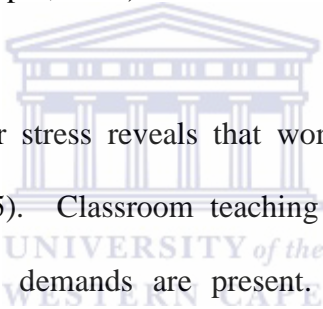
Stress is a fact of life and if it is not dealt with it will increase costs for both the organisation as well as the individual (Morris, 2004). According to Morris (2004), stress and its impact on the organisation's bottom line is increasing and employers are urgently seeking the causes. He identifies the four most common sources of stress as economy, family, war/terrorism and the job. Employers need to distinguish between the sources of stress they can control in order to implement interventions to reduce the causes.

There is a fair degree of agreement on the variables that act as organisational stressors. According to Dua (1994), intrinsic job factors, role in the organisations, career development, poor relationships at work and organisational culture can be identified as organisational stressors. Aspects that happen outside the work environment also have an impact on the individual employee.

2.10.1 INTRINSIC JOB FACTORS

2.10.1.1   Work overload

Work overload can be expressed in two ways. The first one is quantitative overload where an individual is exposed to too many tasks or has too many deadlines with insufficient time, and this could be as a result of downsizing within an organisation. Many educators have to stand in for other educators if they are absent. The second one is qualitative overload, where individuals feel they are too inexperienced to perform certain duties within their jobs (French & Caplan, 1972 cited in Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).

The literature on teacher stress reveals that workload is a major stress factor (Miller & Travers, 2005). Classroom teaching has been characterised as an occupation where many demands are present. Heavy workloads and time pressures are well documented in studies (Cohen, 1997; Motseke, 1998; Kinman & Jones, 2003; Wilson & Hall, 2002). Teachers often do not have enough time to achieve the standards of teaching and learning they would like to, or to meet the needs of their learners (Harris & Hartman, 2002).

Curriculum-related problems were also identified as a major source of educator stress. These include lack of resources, teaching material, text books and desks. The amount of paperwork educators are required to do is a major cause of stress (Benmansour, 1998).

2.10.1.2   Self efficacy

According to Chaplain (2001), self-efficacy refers to peoples' ability to produce certain actions and beliefs that they are able to peform it and cope with stress. These beliefs are based on evaluations of their performance and will result in decreased self-efficacy if there is decreased performance (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). If educators lack in self-confidence they will probably give up easily when confronted with classroom disruptions and this will consequently lead to feelings of ineffectiveness in maintaining classroom order (Motseke, 1998). According to a study conducted by Tang (2001), insufficient self-efficacy amongst educators contributes to burnout and negatively influences their mental wellbeing.

Individuals with low self- efficacy tend to react more to external events because they experience more uncertainty about the accuracy of their perceptions and emotional reactions. These individuals often conform to others' expectations, as social approval is important to them. Furthermore, they tend to allow negative feedback on one area of their behaviour to generalise to other dimensions of their self-concept (Brockner, 1988).

2.10.2 ROLE IN THE ORGANISATION

2.10.2.1   Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity results where there is inadequate, unclear or confusing information about expected role behaviours, which may lead to a lack of

information needed to perform a role (Cooper, Dewe & O'Driscoll, 2001). This can also occur where on the one hand educators are expected to fulfil more than one role, such as a counsellor, examiner and secretary, and on the other hand, they are expected to be concerned about the performance of learners (Motseke, 1998).

Stress indicators related to role ambiguity are depressed mood, low motivation to work, low self-esteem and the intention to leave the job (Quick & Quick, 1984 cited in Cartwrigh & Cooper, 1997).

2.10.2.2 Role Conflict

Role conflict occurs when the school provides information about the roles and responsibilities of the educator which is in conflict with the reality of their daily professional life (Moseke, 1998; Wisniewski & Gargiulo, 1997).

Teachers may experience different expectations of what their role should be, for example, language teachers are confronted with markedly distinct interpretations of their job and the tension between these demands causes stress (Burke & Dunham, 1982 cited in Dunham, 1992). Furthermore, having to do tasks that are not perceived to be part of an individual's job role can potentially lead to stress associated with role conflict (Cooper & Sutherland, 2000).

People with high anxiety levels suffer more from role conflict than those who are flexible in their approach to life (Quick & Quick, 1984 cited in Cartwrigh & Cooper, 1997).

2.10.2.3   Responsibility

Responsibility has been identified as another role stressor. In an organisation there is the responsibility for people and for things - things include budgets, equipment and buildings. The responsibility for people has been found to be extremely stressful. Being accountable for people usually requires spending more time interacting with them. The stressful nature of having responsibility for others has grown in the economic climate of the 1990s with many industries facing cost-cutting constraints (Pincherle, 1972 cited in Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).
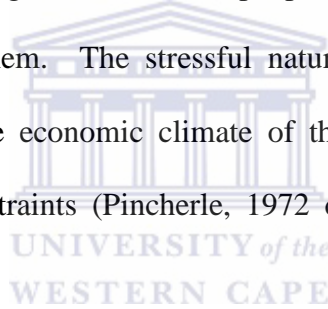
The role and responsibility of a teacher was different a few years ago and is multitasked in the present day school system. With the change in the type of teaching, culture added managerial responsibilities for teachers include planning and executing instructional lessons, accountability for student performance, assessing students based on specific objectives derived from a set curriculum, and communicating with parents. An increase in the level of responsibility can increase the probability of stress being experienced by the individual (Siddigui, 2011).

2.10.2.4   Leadership

"Leadership styles are related to teacher satisfaction" (Sargent & Hannum, 2005, p. 183). Harris (1999) stated that leadership has emerged as a significant organisational factor. It is crucial to change the status quo and bring success to schools by creating a healthy and stress-free environment. A leader's role is recognised as key to ensure organisational effectiveness and similarly, a healthy school environment provided by a democratic leadership influences instructional effectiveness. The educational leader of the future must be a highly competent person who has the knowledge, insight, ability, and skills needed to bring change and create a healthy organisational culture for producing school effectiveness (Tahseen, 2010).

Teachers who obtain greater social support from their principals report less stress than those who do not receive any social support. Shared decision-making processes in schools allow teachers to participate in school processes, rather than feel subordinate to their principals (Nagel & Brown, 2003).

2.10.3 Career development

2.10.3.1   Job Security

Career progression is of overriding importance to many people. Those who are promoted do not only earn more money but gain increased status and experience new challenges. Job opportunities may become fewer, old knowledge may

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become outdated, and energy levels can flag while younger competition is threatening. The fear of being demoted or becoming obsolete can be overwhelming for those who believe they will suffer some erosion of status before retirement (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).

A part of peoples' careers is the possibility of loosing their jobs or being made redundant. The possibility of demotion or losing one's job is a potential source of stress (Olivier & Venter, 2003).

2.10.3.2 Job Performance

Being evaluated and appraised can be a stressful experience for both the person being evaluated, and the person conducting the evaluation or appraisal. The supervisor making the performance judgement faces the possibility of grievance procedures in some cases, as well as interpersonal strains and the responsibility of making decisions affecting a subordinate's livelihood. The way in which the evaluation is carried out can affect the degree of anxiety experienced (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).

Although literature on stress does not necessarily focus on the effects stress have on job performance, there is evidence that stress has an influence on individual performance within the workplace (Ganser, 2005). According to a study conducted by Ganser (2005), stress levels on the job lead to a decrease in teacher performance.

2.10.4 Relationships with colleagues

Colleagues are people individuals are expected to work with, whether they are in a similar or other positions in terms of level of responsibility. Working with people can be a source of support or stress (Kyriacou, 2001). Stress amongst coworkers can arise from competition and personality conflicts usually described as "office politics" (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997, p. 19).

Relationships with colleagues are vital as it can make going to work everyday enjoyable. It can have a huge impact on peoples' lives, as good workplace relationships can help you do their job better. Bad relationships with colleagues can cause distractions and can turn a job into a nightmare (McKay, 2011).
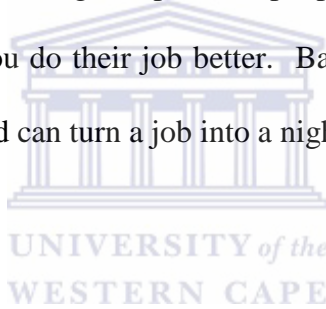
2.10.5 Social Support

According to Jarvis (2002), factors such as social support amongst colleagues and leadership style have an impact on levels of stress amongst educators. Adequate social support can be critical to the health and well-being of an individual and to the atmosphere and success of an organisation. Because most people spend so much time at work, relationships between co-workers can provide valuable support or, on the other hand, can be a significant source of stress (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).

A study conducted by Jacobsson, Pousette and Thylefors (2001) revealed that colleague and principal support were not among the more important stress buffers as expected. It was found that people who lack support from others also have more physical and psychological symptoms than those with support. Studies revealed that a lack in principal's support can cause educator stress (Jacobsson et al., 2001).

2.11   IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON STRESS

Individuals bring certain characteristics to work and these individual characteristics determine how the individual will respond to stress. Amongst others, these individual characteristics are gender, age, marital, personal status and working experience (Harris & Hartman, 2002 cited in Steyn & Kamper, 2006).
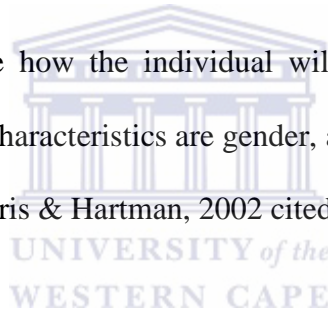
2.11.1 Gender

With the rapid change in society the role of women is changing, therefore various studies indicate that women reported significantly higher levels of stress (McEwen & Thompson, 1997; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Some research findings attest to the fact that women are more prone to stress than men (Popoola & Ilugbo, 2010). Arroba and James (2002) reported that the relationship between gender and stress is complex, varied and that women are more affected by stress than men.

Ahlberg, Kononen, Rantala, Sarna, Lindholm and Nissinen (2003) also allude to the fact that females are more exposed to stress than their male counterparts. According to Melhinsh (1998) and Philips and Segal (1996) cited in Popoola and Ilugbo (2010), since most women work longer hours than men and both do not share duties equally at home, women tend to experience more psychological symptoms of occupational stress than men. Abosede (2004 cited in Agbatogun, 2010) concurs that female workers are more stressed because they attempt to strike a balance between professional and home responsibilities.

2.11.2 Age

Age plays a role in peoples' perception of stress (Koslowski 1998; Harris & Hartman 2002). Rout and Rout (2002) state that the "mid-life crisis" has the potential to increase a person's sensitivity to stress regardless of occupation. A study conducted by Jonas (2001) reports educators younger than 30 years indicated higher levels of stress. The principle of 'last in and first out' tends to be applied in the process of employing younger educators, which explain why mostly younger educators are affected (Jonas 2001). On the contrary, a study conducted by Jacobsson et al. (2001 cited in Steyn & Kamper, 2006) found that increased age was related to increased work demands, which explains why experienced educators perceived higher work demands.

2.11.3 Tenure

According to a study conducted by Schulze and Steyn (2007) a significant relationship exists between years of experience and stress. Educators with teaching experience of between six and fifteen years experienced stress from changing conditions outside schools to improve children's lives, helping learners with their problems and finding time to accomplish personal goals. Educators with less than five years teaching experience indicated the least stress from these factors each time (Schulze & Steyn, 2007).

2.11.4 Marital status
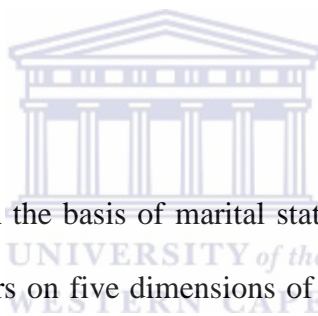
Comparison of scores on the basis of marital status revealed significantly higher scores of married teachers on five dimensions of coping. These five dimensions include logics, social support, task strategies, time management and home. Work relations as well as the total score indicated that married educators have a better coping ability than unmarried educators. The status of marriage brings considerable satisfaction to both men and women but delivers special bonus to women as married women are found to be happier than single women. On the other hand, studies reveal that an overall satisfaction with life and workplace is much lower among unmarried women (Chaturvedi & Purushothaman, 2009).

Better coping of job stress by married women can be explained with the 'Spillover Model' (Crouter, 1984), which suggests that the emotional states experienced in

one sphere get transferred to other areas of life (Chaturvedi & Purushothaman, 2009).

2.11.5 Number of dependents

According to research conducted by Thomas, Clarke and Lavery (2003), the demographic variable, number of dependent children, correlated positively and significantly with perceived family stress, which lends support to the finding that responsibility for child rearing is the main family concern for female teachers. These findings are consistent with work-family studies involving other occupations that have identified responsibility for child rearing and household chores as prominent family stressors (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lundberg & Frankenhaeuser, 1999).
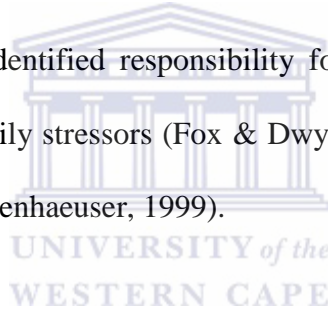
2.12   EFFECTS OF STRESS

According to Kyriacou (2001), the symptoms of stress in educators are manifested in anxiety and frustration, impaired performance, and ruptured interpersonal relationships at work and at home. Van Wyk (1998) states that statistics reveal that educators hand in more medical insurance claims than persons in other professions, have a four year shorter life expectancy than the national average and often blame stress as a reason for sick leave from school.

Wilson (2002) states that stress have an impact on an individual, on the area in which they work and on the pupils they teach. It is also estimated to have an

economic impact on the education system in terms of lost teaching time and additional costs of replacement educators. Many researchers argue that the effects of stress in teaching fall largely on individual educators and result in illness and absences. Travers and Cooper (1996) found that 23% of their sample of 1800 educators reported significant illness, which are described as stress related. Unmanaged stress can lead to stress related problems (Sanderlin, 2004). There are different categories of stress namely, physiological, psychological, behavioural and organisational (Harris and Hartman, 2002), which are discussed briefly below.

Figure 2.9
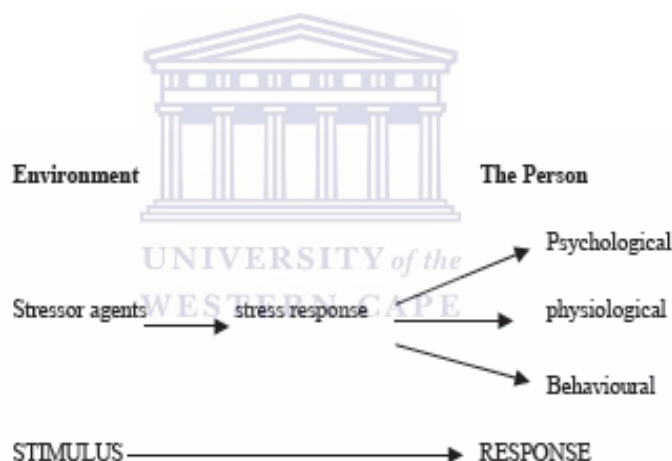
Source: Sutherland and Cooper (2000)

2.12.1 Physiological symptoms

The link between stress and physiological symptoms are unclear as it is difficult to measure (Robbins et al., 2003). However, symptoms that are linked with occupational stress include headaches, cardiovascular and gastro-intestinal

disorders, sleep disturbances, blood pressure and physiological fatigue (Sutherland & Cooper, 1990; Harris & Hartman, 2002; Robbins et al., 2003).

2.12.2 Psychological symptoms

Stress can cause job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction is seen and the "most obvious" psychological consequence of stress (Robbins et al., 2003, p. 19). Some psychological effects include moodiness, loneliness, anxiety, depression, fear, low self-esteem and inability to concentrate (Sanderlin, 2004; Harris & Hartman, 2002; Robbins et al., 2003).
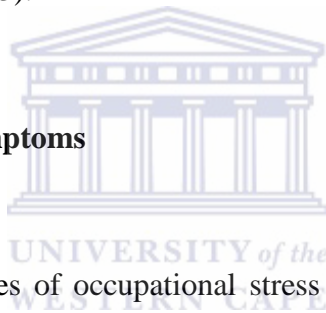
2.12.3 Behavioural symptoms

Behavioural consequences of occupational stress are the actions by individuals. These may arise directly from stress or as a result of psychological or physical reactions as described above. Behavioural effects include misuse of alcohol and/or drugs, withdrawal, increase/decrease in appetite, gaining/loosing weight, reduced performance and aggression (Spector, 2000; Robbins et al., 2003).

2.12.4 Organisational symptoms

Organisational effects include burnout and turnover which will be discussed briefly below.

2.12.4.1   Turnover

Turnover is described as the movement of employees out of the organisation or any permanent departure beyond organisational boundaries (Croasmun, Hampton & Herrmann, 2002).

Turnover and attrition in South Africa seems complex due to a variety of factors. For instance, the need for rationalisation and restructuring has resulted in the redeployment of 'excess' teachers in schools and widespread resignations from the profession (Anon., 1998 cited in Xaba, 2003).

Concerns about educator turnover and attrition are reported widely as a global phenomenon. Turnover translates into shortages in educator supply, costs in recruitment, training and mentoring, poor learner performance due to disruption of planning programmes and continuity, as well as overcrowded classes. This poses a challenge to the education system to manage turnover and retain teachers. The effects of teacher turnover need to be managed. A number of measures have been taken to address teacher turnover, among others, aggressive recruitment drives, lowering standards for entry into teaching, provision of allowances as incentives have been employed. However, these measures seem largely to address attracting

rather than retaining educators. A teacher turnover and retention strategy that addresses the sources thereof is therefore essential (Xaba, 2003).

2.12.4.2   Burnout

Intense and prolonged levels of stress may lead to a condition called burnout (Wisniewski & Gargiulo, 1997). It is regarded as a multidimensional phenomenon that includes physical, emotional and psychological exhaustion (Koslowski, 1998).

According to Spector (2000), burnout is a distressed psychological state; a person suffering from burnout is emotionally exhausted, has low work motivation, it involves being depressed about work and having little energy and enthusiasm for the job.
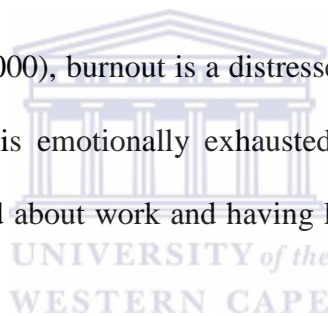
Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) posit that burnout is a negative affective response occurring as a result of chronic work stress. It is described as a tripartite syndrome that includes feelings of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and lack of personal accomplishment that is a response to chronic stress in jobs where individuals work with people. Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotional overextended and strong reduction of an individual's emotional resources. Depersonalisation refers to a negative, callous and detached attitude towards the person that an individual works with. Reduced personal

accomplishment is accessed through a person's negative self-evaluation in relation to his or her job performance (Shaufeli, Maslach & Marek, 1993).

Cano-Garcia, Padilla-Munoz and Carrasco-Ortiz (2005) found that the highest scores in burnout were obtained by teachers high in neuroticism and introversion.

2.13   COPING STRATEGIES

2.13.1 Role clarity

A role profile is developed based on the expectations of superiors, peers, subordinates and key people with whom the individual must work. Having a role profile in place is aimed at clarifying an individual's work role to reduce distress, confusion and conflict. This expected role is clarified by eliminating conflicts and confusion in expectations. It is also integrated with an enacted role, resulting in reduced role stress for the individual (French & Bell, 1978 cited in Quick & Quick, 1984).

2.13.2 Organisational Stress Prevention

Organisations could consider the provision of skilled support by employing a full-time counselor that could provide the needed counseling services or use Employee Assistance Programmes (EAPs). Counseling involves a set of techniques, skills and attitudes to help people manage their own problems using their own resources (Cooper & Bramwell, 1992). Other methods of stress prevention include: training

individuals in stress management techniques, managing morale and utilising teamwork. By understanding the stressors that prevail in the work place, appropriate steps can be undertaken to assist in the reduction of stress levels (Sutherland & Cooper, 2002).

2.13.3 Relaxation

Another way to cope with stress is for an individual to force him / herself to think about something other than work, something that needs active involvement. Recovering from a high alert position that individuals find themselves in for long periods during the day can be difficult. Researchers at Wisconsin University monitored the brain activity of 25 randomly selected individuals and found that Buddhist meditation causes a significant reduction in anxiety and correspondingly increased levels of positive emotions. It also causes an increase in levels of activity in the prefrontal cortex, the part of the brain associated with wellbeing and happiness (Marsh, 2004 cited in Bubb & Earley, 2004).

2.13.4 Teambuilding

Teambuilding is another intervention that could be used to cope with stress. This method aims to address and resolve interpersonal conflict that develops in groups. During a teambuilding session, feedback about the work climate and stressors can be communicated to employees. The feedback can then be used to address issues

that exist, set new goals and strengthen team functioning (Ayers, Baum &
McManus, 2007).

2.14   CONCLUSION

Stress in organisations is becoming a growing concern, for managers / principals
and organisations / schools, because of the costs associated with it. Research by
Winslow (1998) confirmed that those reporting high occupational stress and
depression had health costs that were 2.5 time higher than those who were not.

Educators' work is becoming more complex and demanding and the roles of
educators are not easily defined and the variables that come into play are growing
more complex. Occupational stress is associated with increases in negative work-
related outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Greenberg, 1982).

The consequences of job dissatisfaction are employee withdrawal, which
manifests itself in absenteeism and turnover (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).
Csikzentmihalyi and McCormack (1986) and Rosenholtz (1989) indicate that if
teachers are dissatisfied with their work lives and lack commitment to their
organisations, not only will teachers suffer, but their students will suffer as well.

Bergh and Theron (2003) list the teaching profession as one of the more stressful
kinds of occupations and mention that when role conflict, role ambiguity, role
under-load or overload, job performance, job security, social support,

relationships with colleagues and levels of responsibility are evident, intense feelings of job dissatisfaction may result.

Job satisfaction surfaces within the organisation where stress is experienced due to the intrinsic nature of the work itself, the relationships at work, whether or not career development happens within the organisation or due to leadership (Arnold, Cooper & Robertson, 1998). Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2000) concur that the job demands, the interpersonal relationships at work, the working conditions, and the career transitions that occur contribute to the perceived stress of the individual. When stress is perceived by the individual, the effects are physical, emotional and behavioral and the outcomes are measurable in the individual's absenteeism, turnover, and level of job satisfaction.
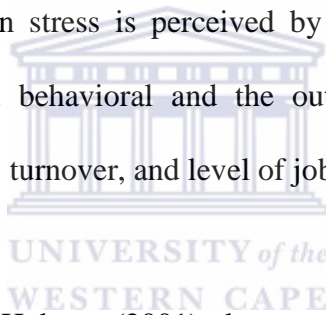
According to Sutton and Huberty (2001), the sources of stress are likely related to individual differences, the transitory nature of stressors in the environment and the coping methods that teachers use.

2.15   SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter has firstly provided an overview of various definitions of job satisfaction, the different models and factors contributing to job satisfaction. Secondly, it provided definitions of stress, an overview of various stress models, causes, effects and coping strategies for managing stress. Where corresponding

research based on the teaching profession was obtained, it was integrated into the literature review.

The next chapter focuses on the research methodology and design used to execute the research.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on how the research problem was investigated. More specifically, it addresses the research design in terms of the method used for selecting the respondents, the measuring instruments used to collect the data and their psychometric properties, and concludes with the statistical techniques applied to test the hypotheses.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.2.1 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

According to Sekaran (2003, p. 233) sampling is defined as "the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that the study of the sample and understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for one to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements."

For the selection of this sample, a non-probability sampling design was used, in the form of convenience sampling. Non-probability sampling implies that the elements in the population have no probabilities attached to their being selected as sample objects (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). Convenience sampling is the

most frequent and convenient type of non-probability sampling (Goodwin, 2002). Some of the advantages of utilising a non-probability sample are that it is cost-effective, less time consuming and every element of the population has a probability of being included in the sample (Sekaran, 2003; Lesser, n.d.). However, one disadvantage of non-probability sample is that not all elements of the population have a probability of being included in the sample (Lesser, n.d.).

3.2.2   POPULATION AND SAMPLE

"The population is the study object and consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events, or the conditions to which they are exposed" (Welman et al., 2005, p. 52). Any subgroup of a population is called a sample (Goodwin, 2002).
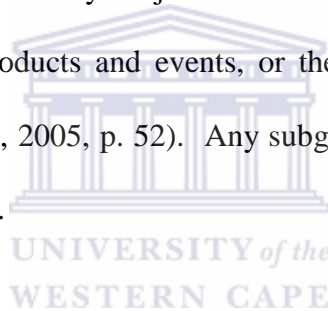
For the purpose of this study, the population comprised of educators from four high schools in De Aar in the Northern Cape, of which all were approached. The size of the total population was 99 educators who occupied various positions, such as Teachers, Departmental Heads, Deputy Principals and Principals at the various schools.

As the population was relatively small, all 99 educators were invited to participate in the study. Sekaran (2000) states that the ideal sample size of 30 (30%) is considered acceptable. Strydom (2002b cited in de Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport) states that sampling is the process of taking any portion of a population

or universe and considering it to be representative of that populations or universe. Of the 99 questionnaires which were administered, 86 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 87%. The sample group (N=86) consisted of contract and permanent staff.

3.2.3 PROCEDURE

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the District Director of the Northern Cape Education Department. Once permission was granted, the researcher contacted the principals of the high schools in De Aar, explained the purpose of the research and requested permission for administration of the questionnaires to the educators. The principals agreed to distribute and collect the questionnaires on behalf of the researcher. The questionnaires were handed to each principal with a cover letter indicating their role in the process and the due date for submission of the questionnaires (Annexure 5, 6 & 7). The research was conducted over a two week period.

Each educator who participated in the research received an envelope containing the three questionnaires (namely, the biographical questionnaire, Stress Diagnostic Survey and the Job Satisfaction Survey), and a cover letter (Annexure 4) informing them about the purpose for the study, permission being granted to conduct the study, that participation was voluntary and all information would be treated with confidentiality.

3.3   ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), ethics are defined as the norms and standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about individuals' behaviour and their relationships with others. The purpose of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed during research activities. The study was conducted with the voluntary participation of the employees and their informed consent was obtained. Furthermore, the measuring instruments that were used were investigated for evidence of reliability and validity. Confidentiality and anonymity remained the priority of the researcher. To accomplish this, educators were asked to return the completed questionnaires in a sealed envelope to their respective principals on or before the stipulated submission date. Furthermore, it was also highlighted that the results would be used for research purposes only and to put forth recommendations.
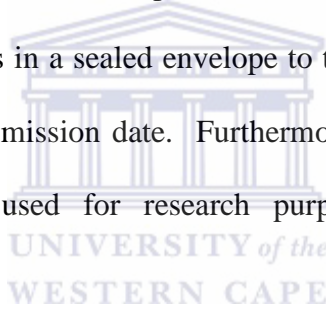
3.4   DATA COLLECTION METHOD

A quantitative assessment method was used for the study. The data was collected through the use of questionnaires. Breakwell, Hammond and Fife-Shawl (1998) identify the following benefits of utilising questionnaires:

- They can be administered to large numbers of individuals;
- The method also allows anonymity; and
- They are relatively more economical to use.

Milne (1995) however, identifies the following disadvantages of utilising questionnaires:

- Questionnaires, like many evaluation methods occur after the event, so participants may forget important issues.

- Questionnaires are standardised so it is not possible to explain any points in the questions that participants might misinterpret. This could however, be partially solved by piloting the questions on a small group of students or at least friends and colleagues. It is advisable to do this anyway.

- Respondents may answer superficially especially if the questionnaire takes a long time to complete. The common mistake of asking too many questions should be avoided.
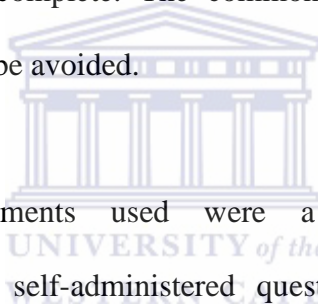
The measuring instruments used were a self-developed biographical questionnaire, and two self-administered questionnaires, namely, the Stress Diagnostic Survey (SDS) to measure stress and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to measure job satisfaction.

The three questionnaires are discussed in detail below.

3.4.1 BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The biographical questionnaire was used to obtain the following personal information from educators:

- Gender;

- Race;

- Marital status;

- Number of children;

- Current level in profession;

- Years of service in education;

- Qualification;

- Type of contract; and

- Grade currently teaching.

Some of the biographical information will also used to investigate if there are:

- A significant difference in job satisfaction levels of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables? and

- A significant difference in stress levels of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables?

3.4.2   STRESS DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY (SDS)

3.4.2.1 Nature and Composition

The Stress Diagnostic Survey was developed to measure job-related stress and with the aim of understanding stress in the workplace. According to Dhaniram (2003), the rationale of the SDS is that high total scores are related to high levels of job stress experienced by the individual.

The instrument consists of 30 items that are rated on a 7-point likert scale. According to Matteson and Ivancevich (1982), the respondent marks his / her response next to each of the statements which describes the frequency of the condition that causes stress. A score of 1 (never) indicates that the workplace is not a source of stress, whereas a high score of 7 (always) indicates that the workplace is indeed a source of stress. The SDS measures five individual level stressor dimensions, namely:

- Role conflict;

- Role ambiguity;

- Work overload;

- Responsibility for people opposed to things; and

- Career development stress.
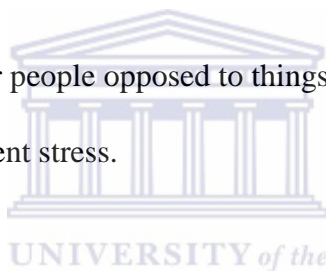
A scoring key is used to score the instrument where all individual level stressor dimensions are added to attain a total stress score. The five individual level stressor categories can be classified into low (score is less than 10), moderate (score is between 10 and 24) or high (greater than 24) stress, depending on the sum of the respondent's scores (Dhaniram, 2003).

3.4.2.2 Reliability

"Reliability is concerned with the findings of the research and relates to the credibility of the findings" (Welman et al., 2005, p. 145). There is a paucity of studies which have been conducted on the SDS. However, Boyd (cited in Dhaniram, 2003) found an internal consistency coefficient of 0.82.

3.4.2.3 Validity

"Validity is the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation" (Welman et al., 2005, p. 142). Similarly, limited evidence is available for this instrument. Dhaniram (2003) reports that studies of validity regarding the SDS are not available, but the questionnaire is recommended for its face validity.

3.4.2.4 Rationale for including questionnaire

A paucity of studies / literature exists with respect to the psychometric properties of the SDS. However, the literature consulted claims the instrument to be valid and reliable and there is evidence that is has been used in South Africa in studies.
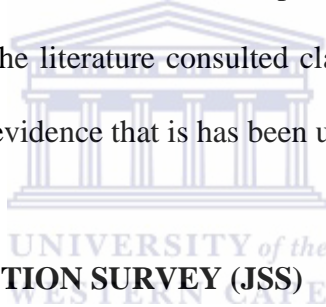
3.4.3   JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY (JSS)

3.4.3.1 Nature and Composition

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Spector and is a common measure of job satisfaction. It was used in the present study to obtain data on the job satisfaction levels of participants. The JSS is a 36 item, nine facet scale to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job (Spector, 1997). The nine facets of job satisfaction as well as overall satisfaction are listed in the table   below:

Facets of Job Satisfaction Survey

Facet	Description
1. Pay	Satisfaction with pay and pay raises
2. Promotion	Satisfaction with promotion opportunities
3. Supervision	Satisfaction with immediate supervisor
4. Fringe benefits	Satisfaction with fringe benefits
5. Contingent rewards	Satisfaction with rewards (not necessarily monetary) for good performance
6. Operating conditions	Satisfaction with rules and procedures
7. Co-Workers	Satisfaction with co-workers
8. Nature of work	Satisfaction with type of work done
9. Communication	Satisfaction with communication within the organisation

Source: (Spector, 1997, p. 8)

The JSS utilises a Likert-type scale with six response alternatives for each item, ranging from "Disagree very much" (weighted 1) to "Agree very much" (weighted 6). Each of the nine facets can produce a separate facet score, and the total of all items produces a total score.

3.4.3.2 Reliability

The reliability of the JSS was evaluated in terms of internal consistency reliability and test-retest reliability.

3.4.3.2.1 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency looks at how well items of a scale relate to one another (Goodwin, 2002). The JSS has been tested for internal consistency reliability and reported coefficient alphas ranging from 0.60 for the co-worker subscales to 0.91 for the total scale. According to Spector (1997), the accepted minimum standard is 0.70.

3.4.3.2.2 Test-retest reliability

Test –retest reliability reflects "the stability of a scale over time" (Spector, 1997, p. 12). This means that if the same test is being administered twice to the same subjects over a period of time, and it yields the same results, it is considered to have test-retest reliability. The JSS has reported test-retest reliability ranging from 0.37 to 0.74, which is relatively stable since the time span was eighteen months (Spector, 1997).

3.4.3.3 Validity

Validity was assessed in terms of content validity and criterion-related validity.

3.4.3.3.1 Content validity

Content validity of a measuring instrument reflects the extent to which the items measure the content they were intended to measure (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

It must therefore provide adequate coverage of the questions guiding the research. The JSS measures job satisfaction, using different subscales and it therefore is considered to have content validity (Spector, 1997).

3.4.3.3.2 *Criterion –related validity*

Criterion-related validity reflects the extent to which measures can successfully predict an outcome and how well they correlate with other instruments (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Five of the JSS scale (namely, co-workers, pay, promotion, the nature of work and supervision) correlate well with the corresponding subscales of the JDI. These correlations range from 0.61 for co-workers to 0.80 for supervision (Spector, 1997).
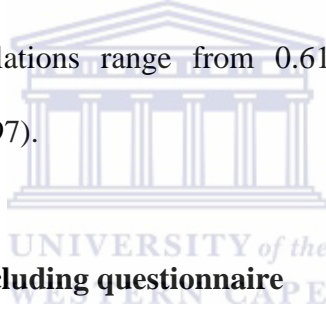
3.4.3.4 Rationale for including questionnaire

The items in the JSS are relatively easy to understand, and was used for the present study as it has been proven to be a reliable and valid instrument for measuring job satisfaction. Furthermore, it is standardized for use in the South African context (Spector, 1997).

3.5 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The statistical analysis was conducted by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer package. The analyses will include descriptive results, reviewing inter-correlations between the various scales and dimensions of the different questionnaires by means of performing factor analysis.

The statistical techniques used to test the hypotheses (namely, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, Analysis of Variance and T-test) are discussed below.
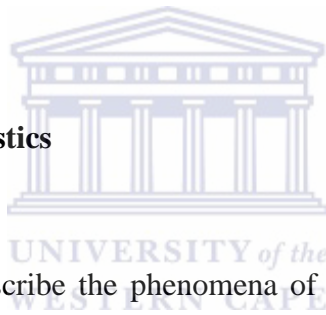
3.5.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics describe the phenomena of interest and is used to analyse data for classifying and summarising numerical data (Sekaran, 2003). The mean and standard deviation will primarily be used to describe the data obtained from the SDS and the JSS. Furthermore, the results derived from the biographical questionnaire will be presented in the form of means, standard deviations and percentages obtained.

3.5.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics allow the researcher to present the data obtained in research in a statistical format to make data analysis more meaningful (Sekaran, 2003). The

inferential statistics that will be conducted for the present study include the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and T-tests.

3.5.2.1 Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

According to Howell (1999), a correlation refers to the relationship between variables and the measure of the degree of strength of this relationship is represented by a correlation coefficient. This statistic varies from -1 (a perfect negative linear relationship) through a 0 (no linear relationship) to a +1 (a perfect positive linear relationship) (Field, 2000).

The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient is used for the purpose of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exist between job satisfaction and stress levels.

3.5.2.2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA deals with the differences between sample means and allows an individual to deal with two or more independent variables simultaneously. It focuses not only on the individual effects of each variable, but also on the interacting effects of two or more variables (Howell, 1999).

ANOVA produces an *F*-Statistic which compares the amount of systematic variance in the data to the amount of unsystematic variance (Field, 2000). Furthermore, it tests for an overall experimental effect and provides information about the general success of the experimental manipulation, but does not provide specific information about which groups were affected. As such it indicates an effect, but does not indicate where the effect was. The *F*-statistic merely states that the means of the samples are not equal (Field, 2000).

For the purpose of this study, ANOVA is used to determine the differences in job satisfaction and stress levels based on the biographical characteristics of respondents.

3.5.2.3 T-tests

T-tests involve comparing two means to determine if they are significantly different from each other (Urdan, 2005). The t-scores are calculated to assess whether the sample is experiencing significant levels of stress and job satisfaction or not. This is done in order to compare the means of the two groups.

This method will be used to determine if statistically significant differences in stress levels and job satisfaction exist between the different gender groups.

3.6   SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter the method of research adopted for the study was described. Specifically, the research methodology, measuring instruments and their psychometric properties, sample size and characteristics, and method of data collection were briefly discussed. The chapter concludes with an explanation of the descriptive and inferential statistics used to test the respective hypotheses.

In Chapter 4 the results and findings that were obtained from the statistical processing and analysis will be provided.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the results emanating from the statistical analysis are presented and salient features are discussed. 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, job satisfaction and stress, are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. The outcomes of the statistical analyses conducted to assess each of the hypotheses are sequentially presented.
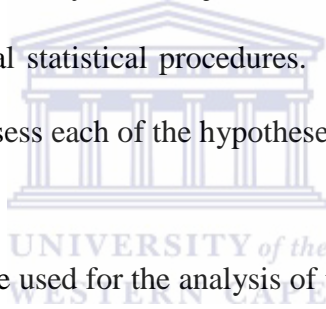
The statistical programme used for the analysis of the data in order to obtain a feel for the data in this research undertaking, was the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 18. The descriptive statistics utilised are based on frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables included in this study. This was achieved through summary statistics, which includes the means and standard deviations, minimum and maximum values which were computed for each of the variables in the study.

4.2   RESULTS OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

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 three 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.   Descriptive statistics, in the form of frequencies and percentages, are subsequently presented graphically for each of the biographical variables.

Figure 4.1 presents a graphical representation of the gender distribution of the selected sample
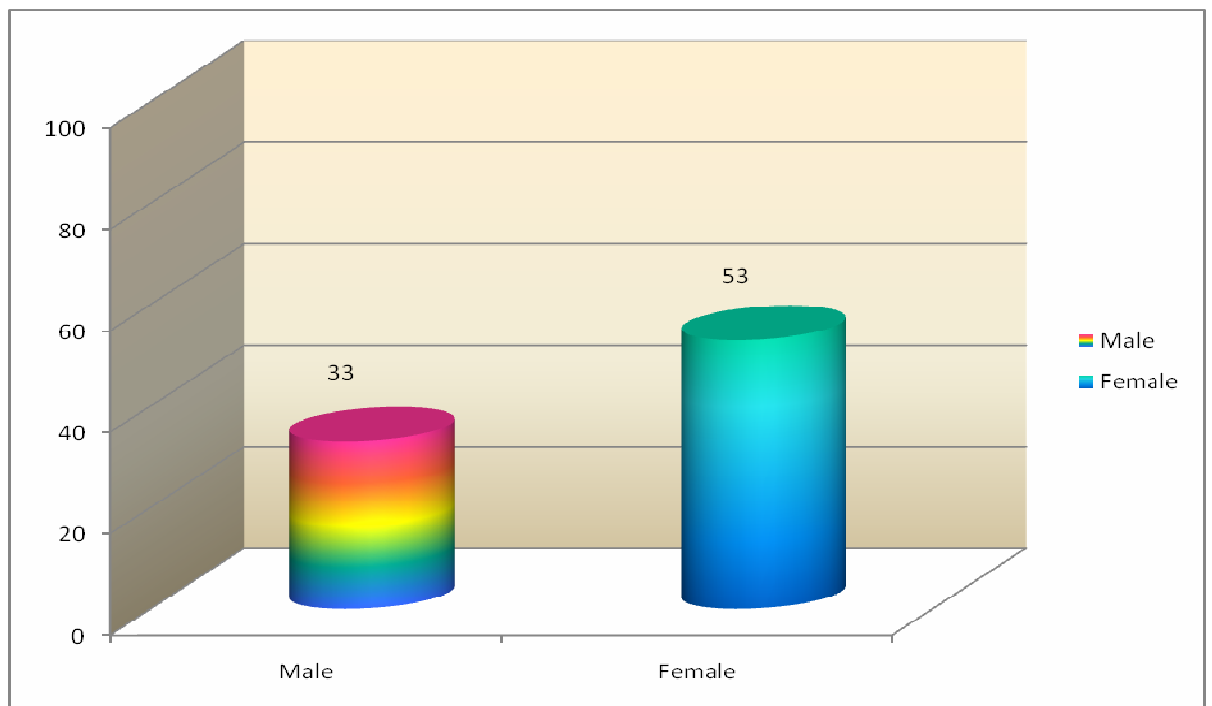
As can be seen from figure 4.1, the majority of the respondents are female. More specifically, 62% (n = 53) of the respondents are women, while only 38% (n = 33) are male.

Figure 4.2 depicts the race distribution of the sample
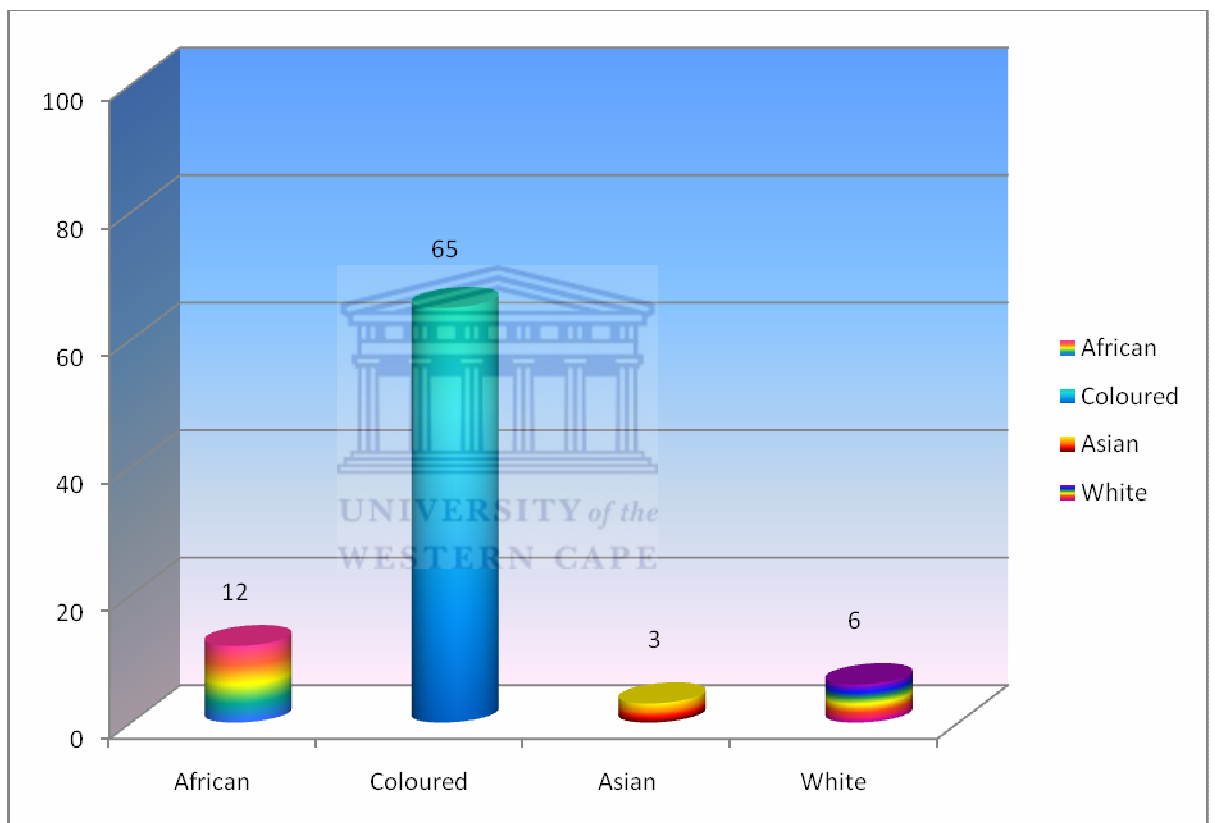
In terms of figure 4.2, it can be seen that the majority of the sample, that is 76% (n = 65) are Coloured, with a further 14% (n = 12) being African. While 7% of the respondents (n = 6) are White, only 3% (n = 3) are Asian.

Figure 4.3 illustrates the age group of the sample
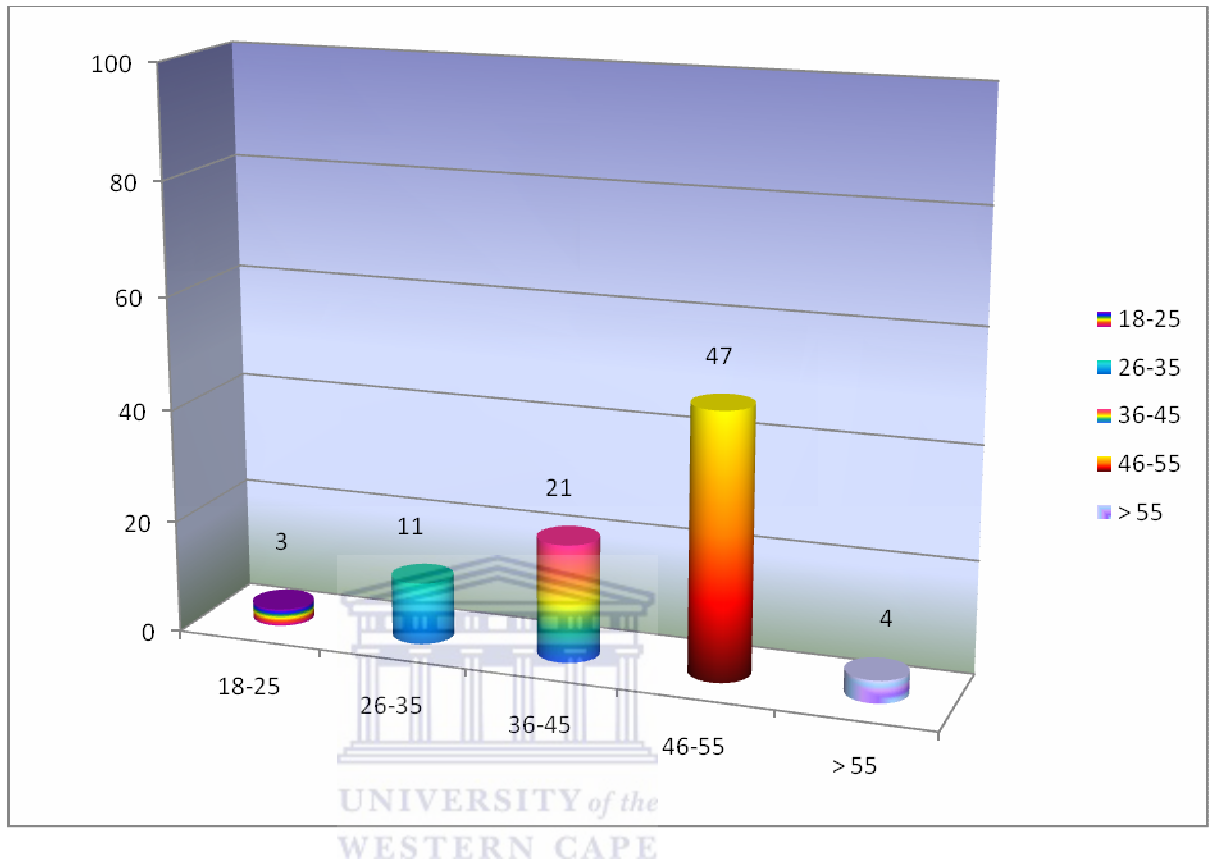
The majority of the respondents are in the age group between 46-55 years (n = 47, that is 55%), followed by those in the age group 36-45 (n = 21, that is 24%) and respondents between the ages of 26-35 (n = 11 or 13%). Those over 55 years of age comprised a further 5% (n = 40), and only 3 respondents, that is 3% of the sample are between the ages of 18-25.

Figure 4.4 presents the marital status of the sample
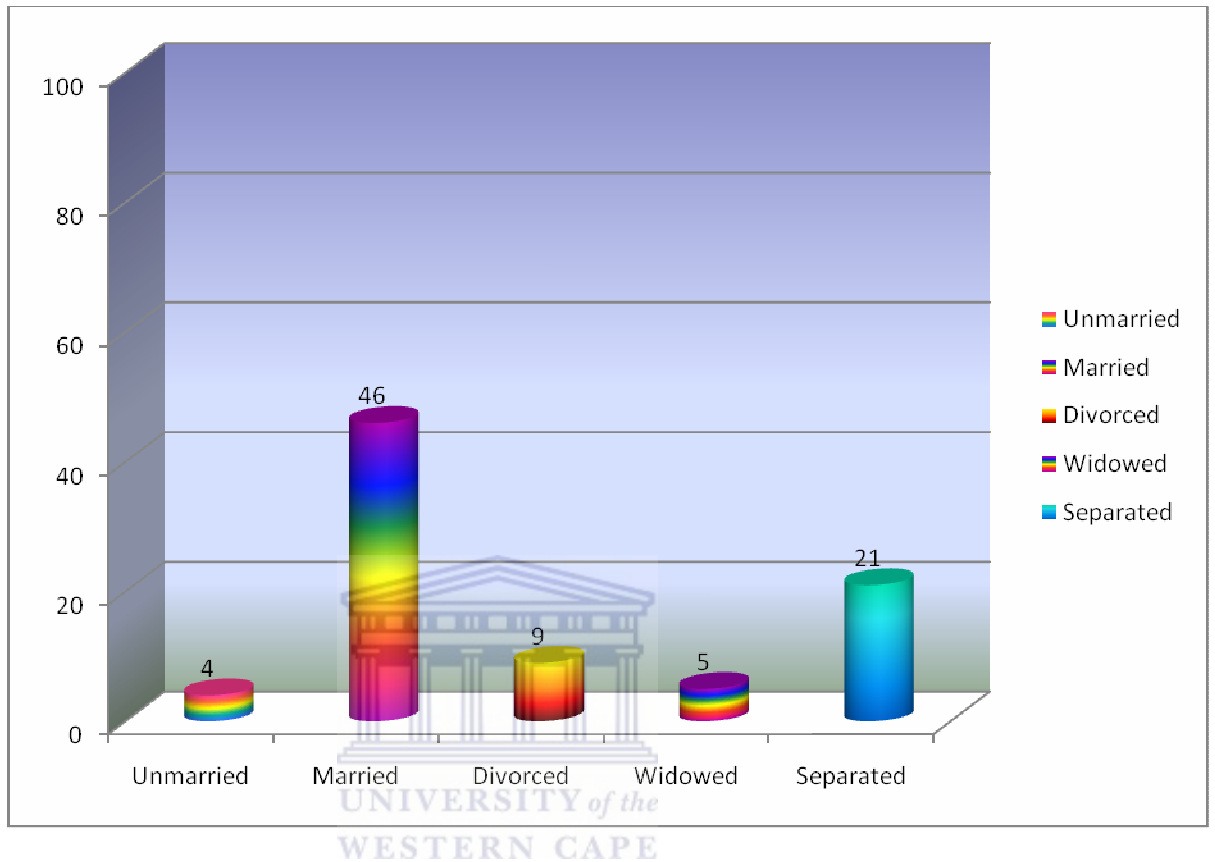
In terms of figure 4.4., 53.5% of the selected sample of respondents are married
(n = 46), with a further 24.4% being separated (n = 21). While nine respondents
(10.5%) are divorced, 5.8% (n = 5) of the respondents are widowed and 4.7%
(n = 4) are classified as unmarried. One respondent (1.1%) did not indicate their
marital status.

Figure 4.5 depicts the number of children respondents have
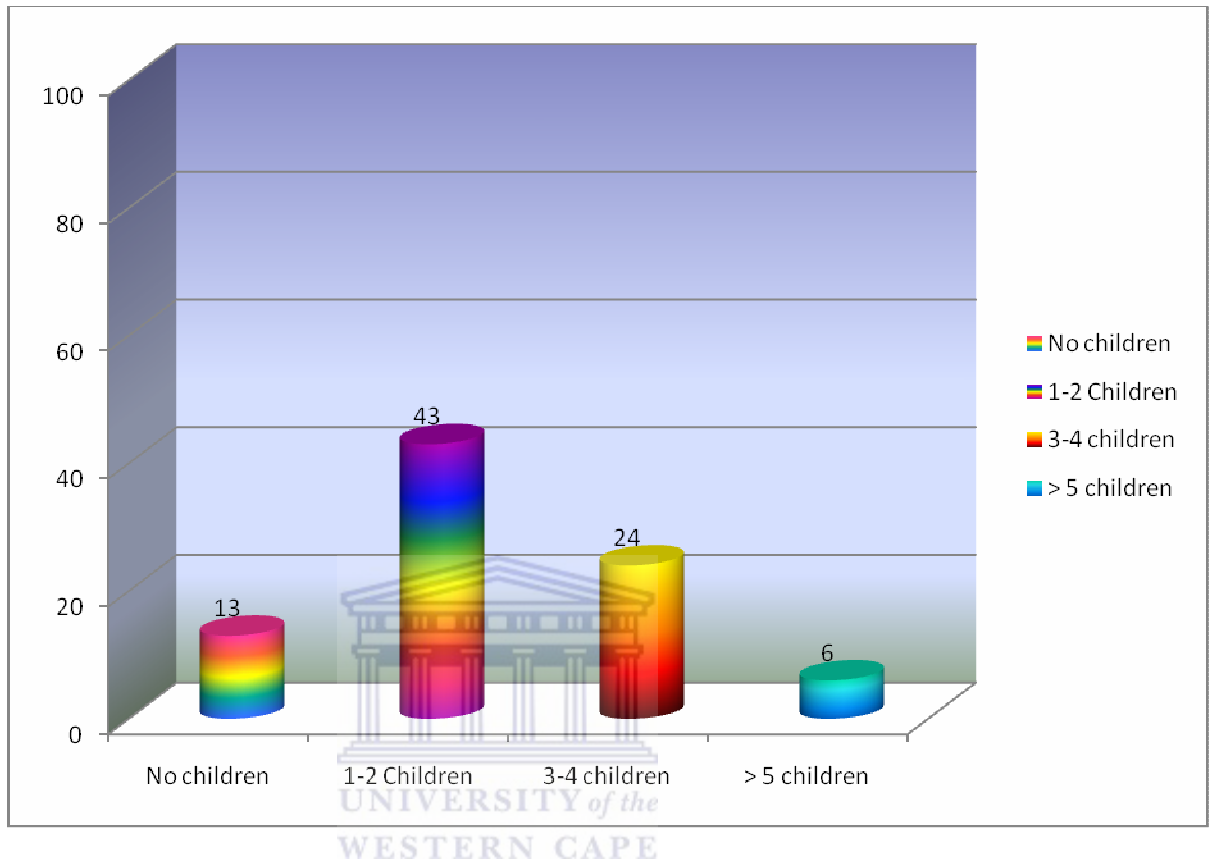
With respect to the number of children that educators have, figure 4.5 depicts that 50% (n = 43) have 1-2 children, and 28% (n = 24) have 3-4 children. Those that have no children (n = 13) comprised 15% of the sample, and 7% (n = 6) have more than 5 children.

Figure 4.6 illustrates the job level occupied by the sample
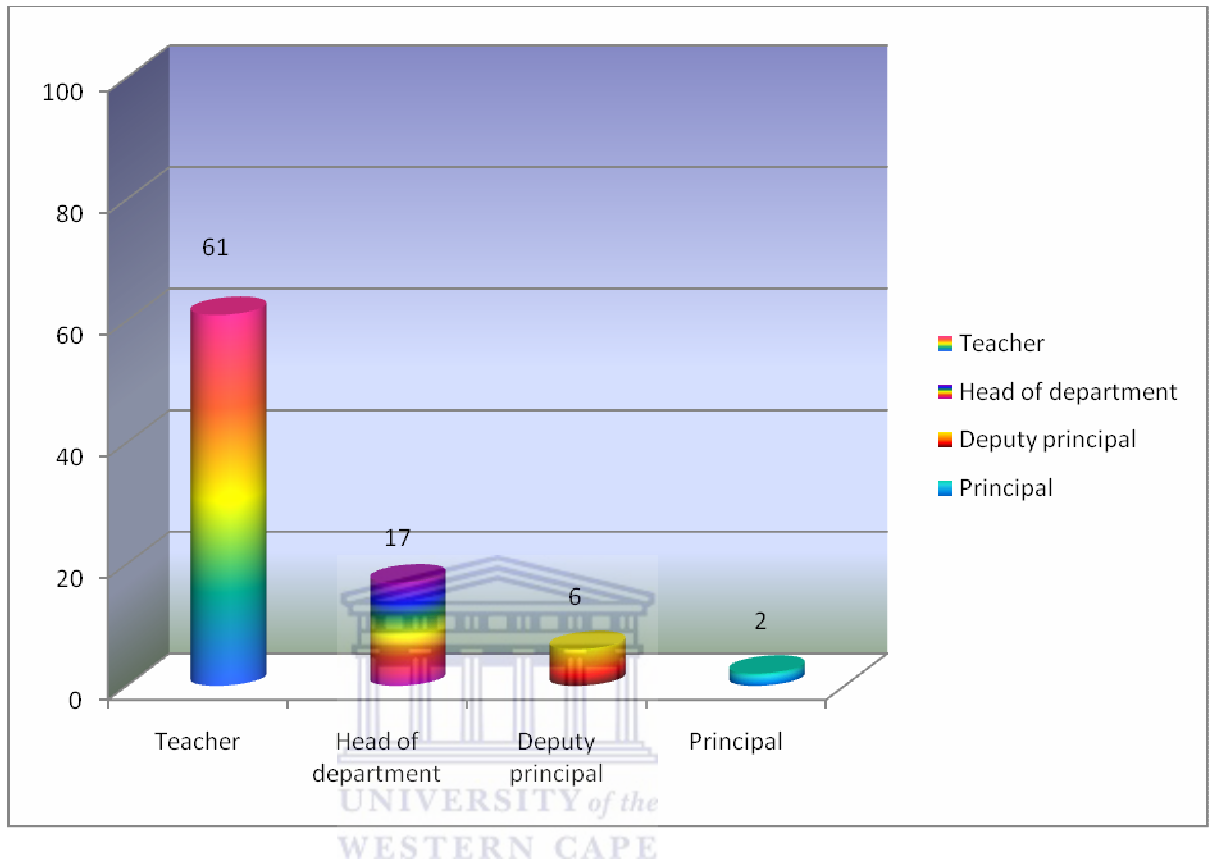
Figure 4.6 indicates that the majority of the respondents, or 71% (n = 61) are teachers, with 20% (n = 17) occupying the position of Head of Department. Seven percent (n = 6) of the sample who participated in the research occupy the position of Deputy Principal and only 2% (n = 2) are Principals.

Figure 4.7 presents the tenure of the respective sample
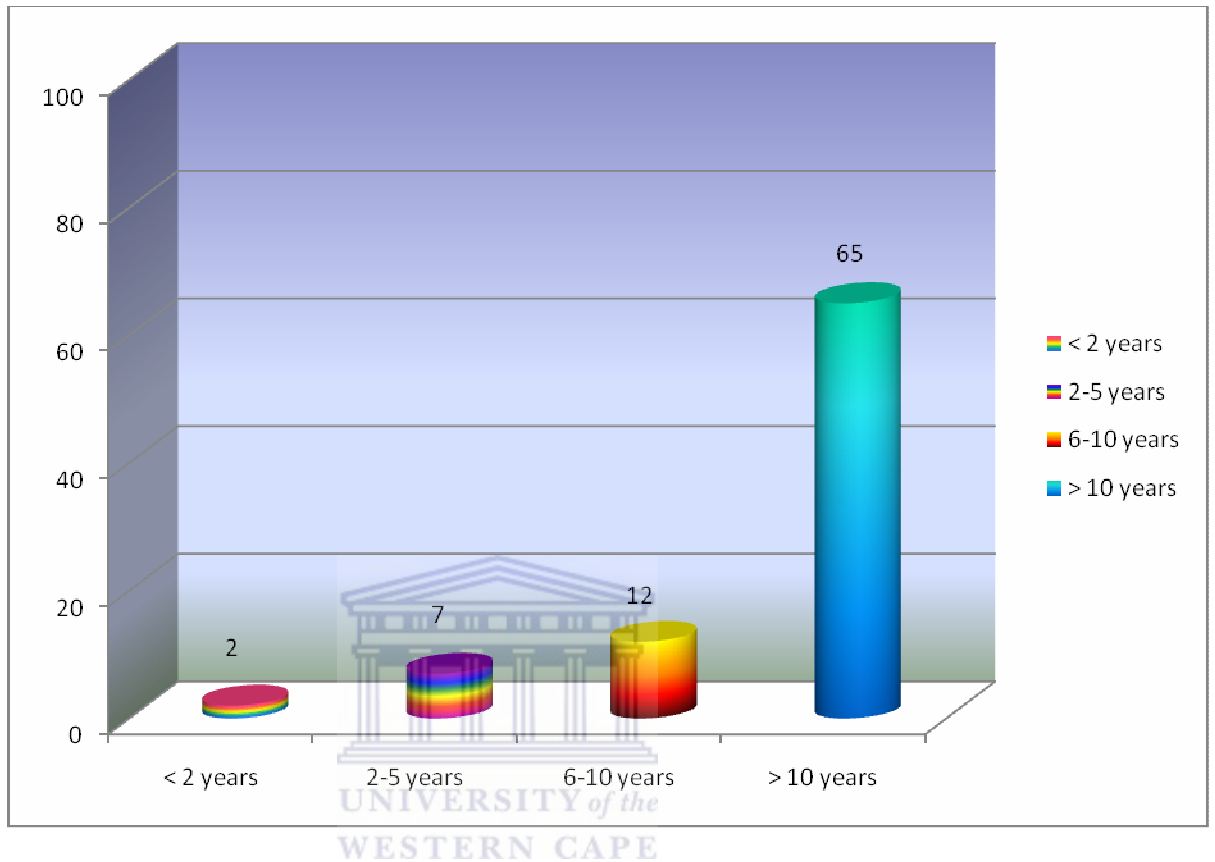
Figure 4.7 illustrates the tenure of the respondents. Those that have worked in education for more than 10 years comprised the majority (76%, n = 65). Furthermore, 14% (n = 12) have worked in education for between 6 and 10 years, 8% (n = 7) for between 2-5 years and 2% (n = 2) have been employed in education for less than 2 years.

Figure 4.8 depicts the educational qualification of the sample
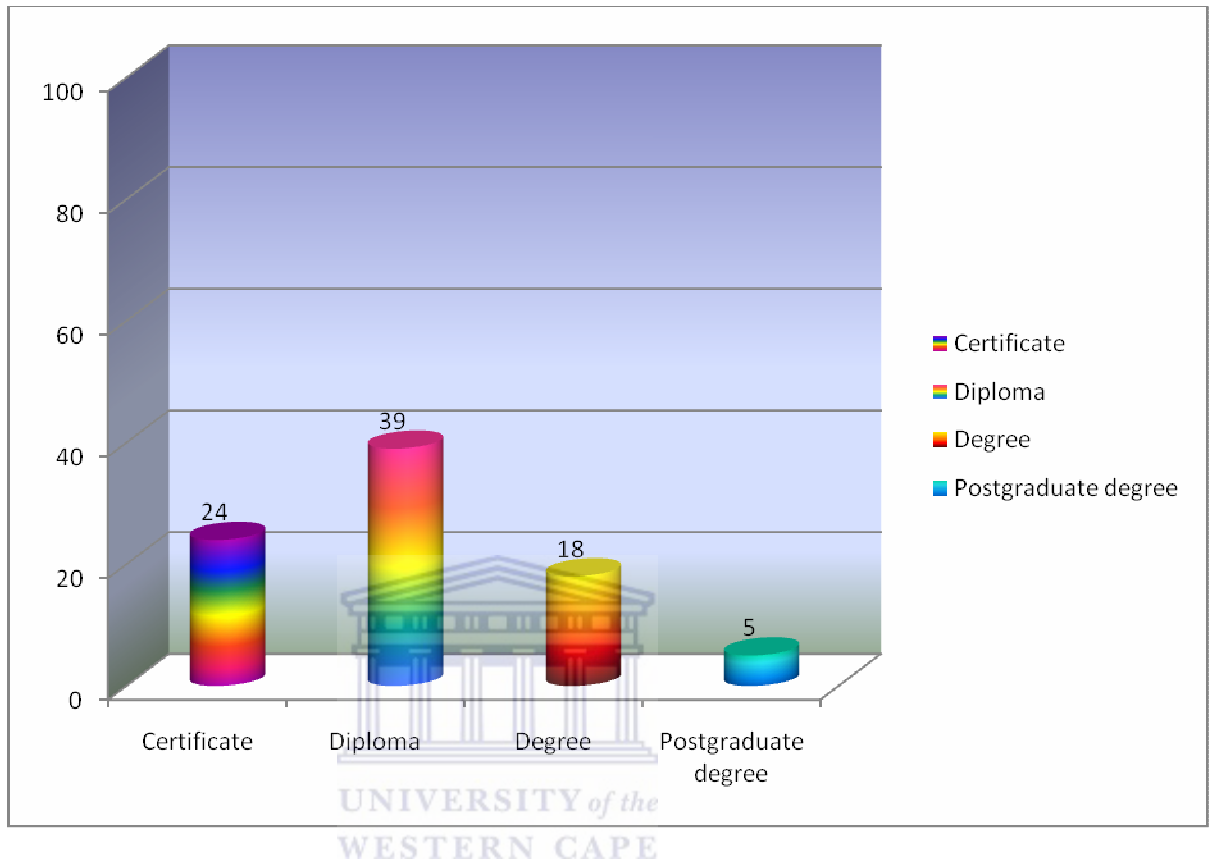
Participants with Diplomas constitute 45% of the sample (n = 39) and those with Certificates comprise 28% of the sample (n = 24). Those who have completed a Degree comprised a further 21% (n = 18), and 6% (n = 5) have completed Postgraduate qualifications.

Figure 4.9 illustrates the employment status of the sample
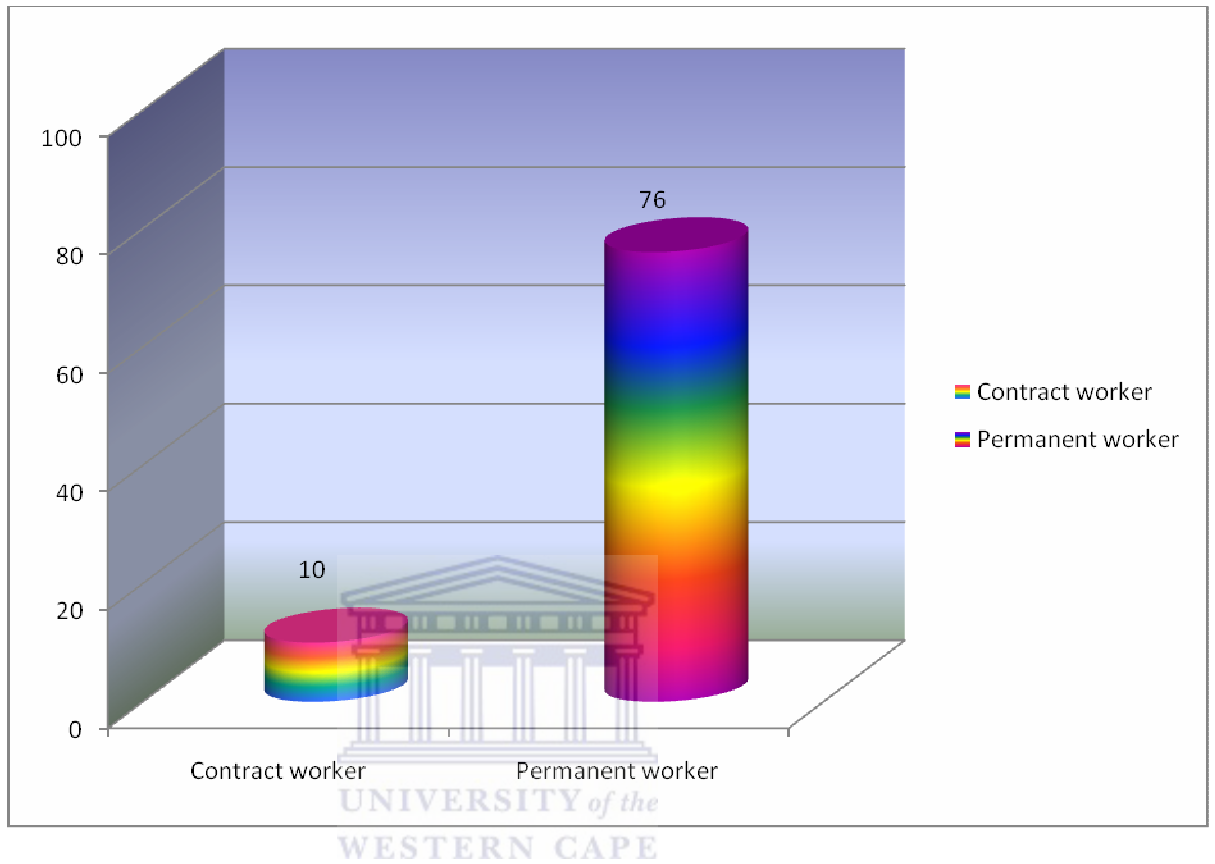
Figure 4.9 illustrates the employment status of the sample. It is evident that the majority of the respondents, that is 88% (n = 76) are permanent employees, while the remaining 12% (n = 10) comprise of contract employees.

Figure 4.10 presents the grade respondents teach
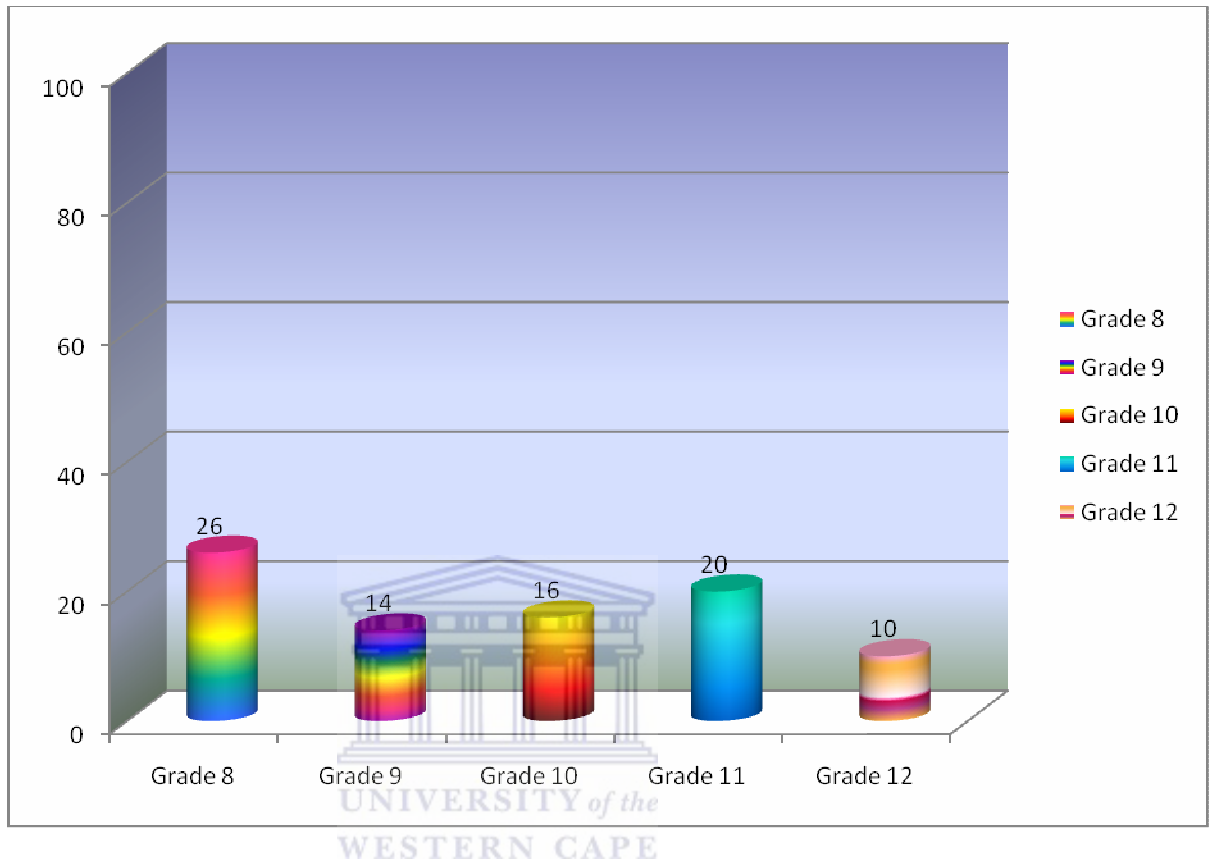
The grades in which educators work indicate that 30% (n = 26) teach grade 8, and 23% (n = 20) teach grade 11. Educators teaching grade 10 constitute a further 19% (n = 16), followed by those teaching grade 9 (n = 14) or 16%. Those teaching grade 12 constitute the remaining 12% (n = 10).

4.3   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 three 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. The measures of central tendency and dispersion for the dimensions of job satisfaction and that for stress are shown in tables 4.1 and 4.2, respectively.
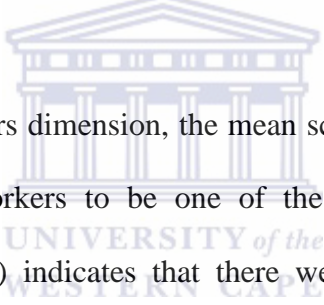
Table 4.1   Means, Standard deviations, Minimum and Maximum scores for the dimensions of the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. dev.
Pay	86	1	6	2.26	2.45
Promotion	86	1	6	2.56	1.32
Supervision	86	1	6	2.65	2.03
Fringe benefits	86	1	6	2.39	2.68
Contingent rewards	86	1	6	2.71	2.38
Operating conditions	86	1	6	2.93	2.04
Co-workers	86	1	6	4.22	0.68
Nature of work	86	1	6	4.63	1.28
Communication	86	1	6	4.09	1.02

The mean score (Mean = 4.63) for nature of work indicates that respondents reported this aspect as providing the highest source of job satisfaction. The

standard deviation (1.28) shows a moderate variation in the responses that were obtained with respect to the nature of the work undertaken.

For the dimension of pay, the mean score (Mean = 2.26) indicated that respondents showed payment to be one of the least satisfying aspects in terms of job satisfaction. The standard deviation (2.45) indicates that there was some variation in how this facet was experienced. The mean score (Mean = 2.56) for promotion indicates that subjects showed promotion to be one of the dimensions which provided the least job satisfaction. The standard deviation (1.32) shows slight differences in responses with respect to promotion.

In terms of the co-workers dimension, the mean score (Mean = 4.22) reveals that respondents rated co-workers to be one of the most satisfying aspects. The standard deviation (0.68) indicates that there were moderate variations in the responses obtained on this dimension. For the supervision dimension, the mean score (Mean = 2.65) indicates that respondents showed supervision to be one of the least satisfying. The standard deviation (2.03) indicates that there was some dissimilarity in the responses obtained.

With respect to fringe benefits, the respondents indicated low satisfaction (Mean = 2.39, s = 2.68). They were also relatively dissatisfied with contingent rewards (Mean = 2.71, s = 2.38). Respondents were generally satisfied with communication (Mean = 4.09, s = 1.02), but they were not particularly satisfied with operating conditions (Mean = 2.93, s = 2.04).

For ease of interpretation, the ranking of the information with respect to the dimensions of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) are presented in graphical format on the following page.
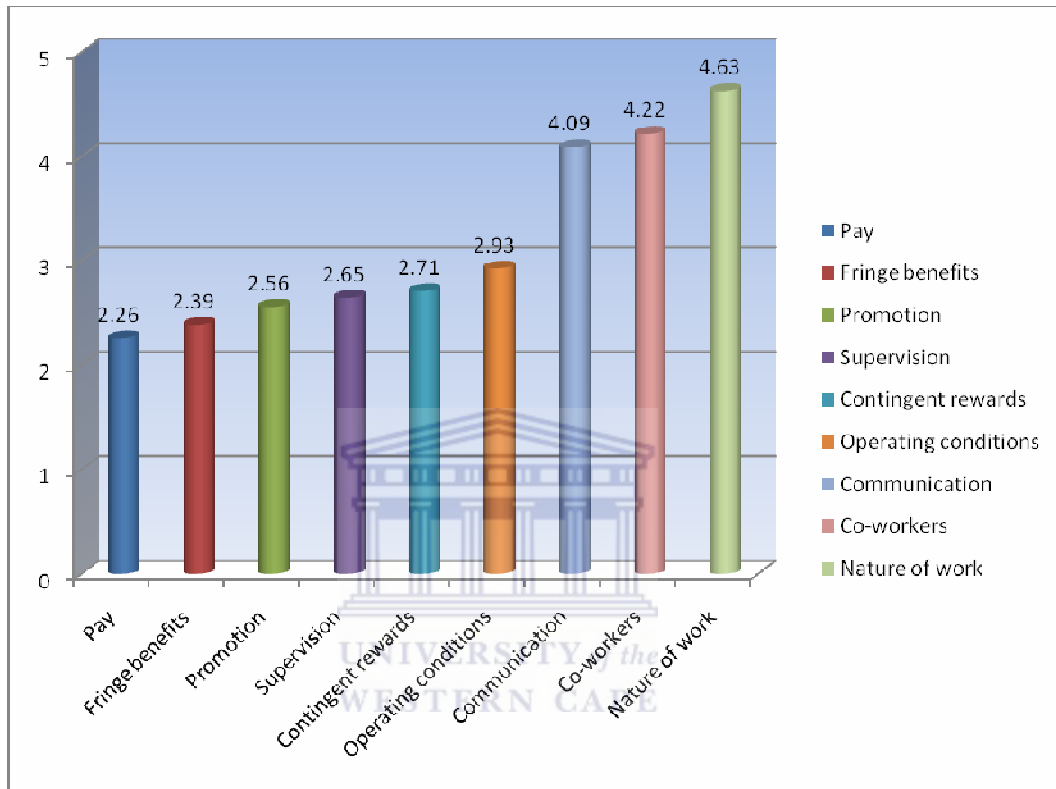
Table 4.2:   Levels and sources of stress

Scale	Mean	Sd	Interpretation
Role conflict	13.16	2.18	**Moderate**
Role ambiguity	10.89	4.32	**Moderate**
Work overload	32.12	5.94	**High**
Career development	24.03	6.17	**High**
Responsibility for people as opposed to things	27.93	4.13	**High**

Table 4.2 indicates that as a group, teachers experience high stress. Teachers report the highest stress as emanating from work overload (Mean = 32.12, s = 5.94), as well as responsibility for people (Mean = 27.93, s = 4.13) and career development (Mean = 24.03, s = 6.17). In addition, they report their stress levels to be moderate in relation to role conflict (Mean = 13.16, s = 2.18), as well as with respect to role ambiguity (Mean = 10.89, s = 4.32).

In order to gain a visual overview of the factors that educators perceive as stressful, the tabulated results are depicted in graphical format below.
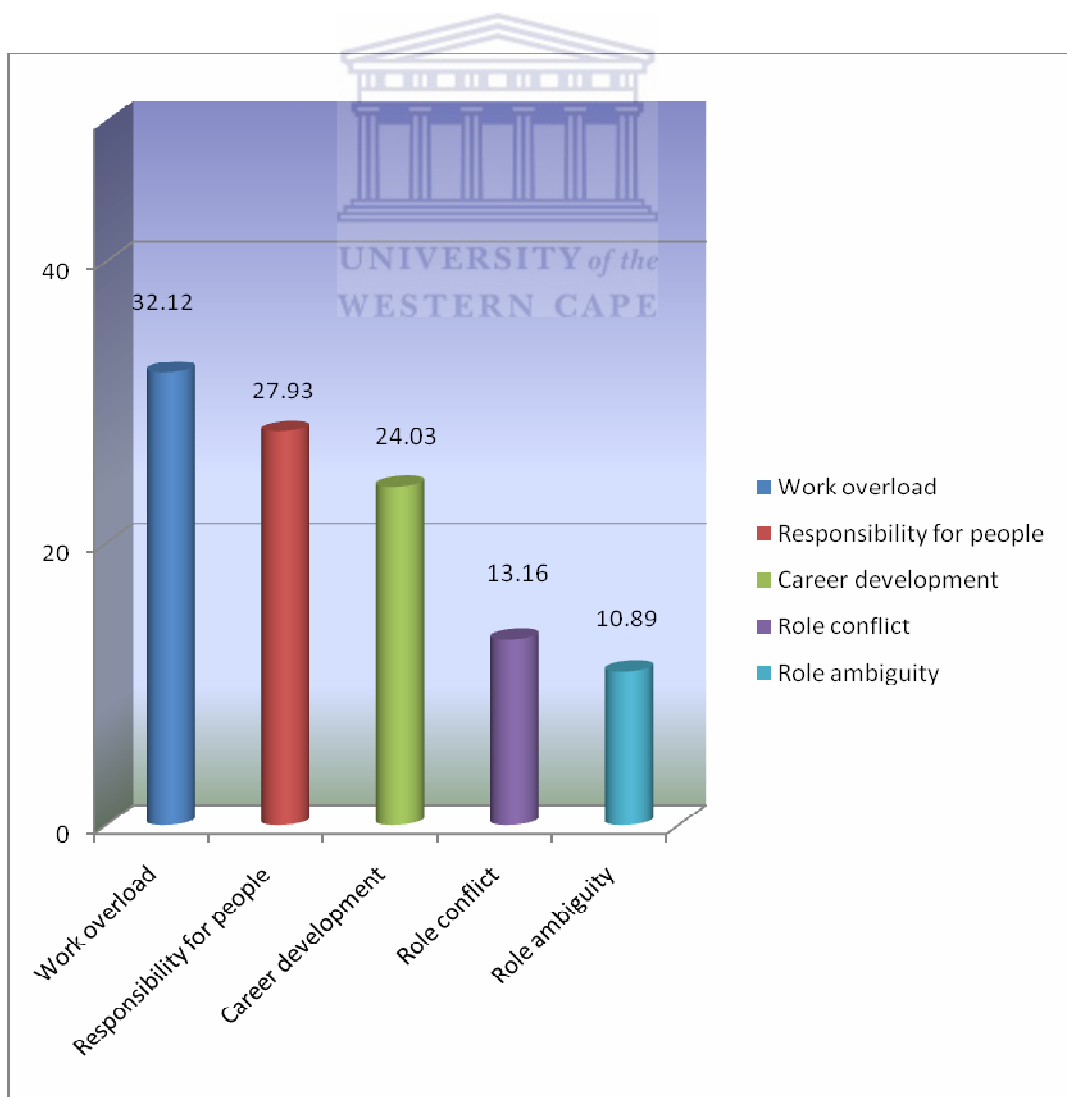
4.4   INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

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, t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) 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: There is a statistically significant relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar

Table 4.3: Correlation between job satisfaction and stress

	Stress	p-level
Job satisfaction	-.574[**]	.001

** $p < 0.01$

In order to ascertain whether there is a significant relationship between job stress and job satisfaction the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant, inverse relationship between stress and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar ($r = -.574$, $p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 2: There is a statistically significant difference in stress levels of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of children.

Table 4.4: T-Test: Job stress by Gender

	Male	Female		
	Mean	Mean	t	p
Stress level	87.6	102.3	-1.387	0.000**

** $p < 0.01$

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, although both males and females report high levels of stress. The results furthermore indicate that female teachers experience significantly higher levels of stress (Mean = 102.3).

Table 4.5: ANOVA: Job stress by Age

	F	P
Between groups	0.456	0.001**

** $p < 0.01$

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.

Table 4.6 ANOVA: Job stress by Tenure

	F	P
Between groups	1.273	0.001**

** $p < 0.01$

The results with respect to job stress based on tenure are shown in Table 4.6. The results clearly indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in the stress levels of educators based on the length of service ($F = 1.273$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4.7: ANOVA: Job stress by Marital Status

	F	P
Between groups	0.810	0.001**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.7 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 4.8 ANOVA: Job stress by number of children

	F	P
Between groups	0.574	0.000**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.8 depicts the ANOVA with respect to job stress based on the number of children respondents have. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences (F = 0.574, p < 0.01) in the stress levels of educators based on their number of children.

Hypothesis 3: There is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of children.

Table 4.9: T-Test: Job Satisfaction

	Male	Female		
	Mean	**Mean**	**T**	**P**
Job satisfaction	39.63	52.41	-.276	0.000**

**   p < 0.01

The results in table 4.9 indicate that there are statistically significant differences in educators' job satisfaction based on their gender (t = -.276, p < 0.01). Furthermore, the results depict that male teachers are statistically significantly less satisfied than their female counterparts (Mean = 39.63).
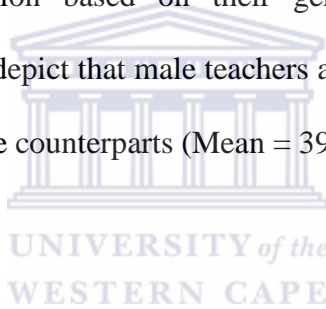
Table 4.10: ANOVA: Job satisfaction by Age

	F	**P**
Between groups	5.329	0.001**

**   p < 0.01

Table 4.10 depicts the ANOVA with respect to job satisfaction based on the ages of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences (F = 5.329, p < 0.01) job satisfaction based on their ages.

Table 4.11 ANOVA: Job satisfaction by Tenure

	F	P
Between groups	5.273	0.001**

** $p < 0.01$

The results with respect to job satisfaction based on tenure are shown in Table 4.11. The results clearly indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction of educators based on the length of service ($F = 5.273$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4.12: ANOVA: Job satisfaction by Marital Status

	F	P
Between groups	5.664	0.001**

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.12 shows the ANOVA with respect to job satisfaction based on the marital status of respondents. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences ($F = 5.664$, $p < 0.01$) in the job satisfaction of educators based on their marital status.

Table 4.13 ANOVA: Job satisfaction by Number of Children

	F	P
Between groups	3.361	0.042*

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.13 depicts the ANOVA with respect to job satisfaction based on the number of children respondents have. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences (F = 3.361, $p < 0.05$) in the job satisfaction of educators based on their number of children.

4.5   RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Cronbach's Alpha is viewed as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Cronbach, 2004). It is argued that Alpha coefficients range in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and or multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales. However, there is no lower limit to the coefficient; the closer Cronbach's coefficient alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Cronbach, 2004).

TABLE 4.14 Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for the Stress and Job Satisfaction Questionnaires

Reliability Coefficient			
	No. of cases	Alpha	No. of items
Stress (SDS)	86	0.91	30
Job satisfaction (JSS)	86	0.84	36

The scores obtained for both the Job Satisfaction and Stress Questionnaires which were administered can be regarded as satisfactory in terms of the reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. Hence with the current study, this was exceeded, indicating a high degree of reliability. As all coefficients were above 0.7, they can be regarded as acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

4.6   CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the most salient findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings obtained and contextualises the research findings based on previous research on job satisfaction and stress amongst high school educators.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the results of the statistical analyses in relation to the hypotheses by making reference to previous research. Where limited research was found on teachers / educators reference was made to other professions. Furthermore, it highlights the limitations of the study, and concludes by providing recommendations that may prove useful for future research of a similar nature.
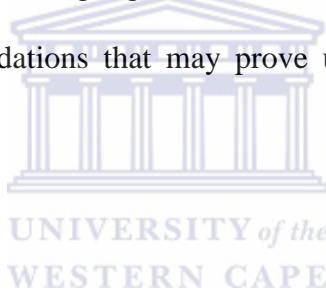
5.2 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar (Northern Cape). The results will be discussed per hypothesis.

5.2.1   Hypothesis 1

There is a statistically significant relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar.

Results emanating from the current research indicate that there is a statistically significant, inverse relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar ($r = -.574$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that, based on the sample of teachers that participated in the research within selected high schools within the De Aar region, those teachers that experience higher stress levels typically experience lower job satisfaction. ***Hence, the Null hypothesis is rejected.***
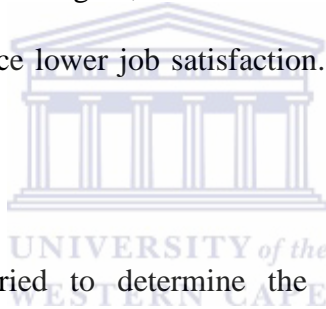
Several studies have tried to determine the link between stress and job satisfaction. According to Stamps and Piedmonte (1986 cited in Ahsan et al, 2009), job satisfaction has been found to have a significant relationship with job stress.

Fletcher and Payne (1980) identified that a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, while high satisfaction can ease the effects of stress. Another study reveals that job stress and job satisfaction were found to be interrelated (Ahsan et al, 2009).

The relationship between job satisfaction and occupational stress has however been established by various literatures as a negative one. This means that higher occupational stress is related to lower job satisfaction, and vice versa (Borg et al., 1991; Burke & Greenglass, 1994; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Day, Bedeian & Conte, 1998; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979; Laughlin, 1984; Manthei & Gilmore, 1996; McCormick, 1997b cited in DeNobile & McCormick, 2005). In a study conducted by Landsbergis (1988) and Terry et al. (1993 cited in Ahsan et al, 2009) it was found that high levels of job stress is associated with low levels of job satisfaction.

In an attempt to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and stress on 133 educators, findings of a study conducted by Brewer and McMahan-Landers (2003) regarding these variable were in line with most research (Cotton, Dollard & de Jonge, 2002; Hawe et al., 2000; Hendrix, Summers, Leap, & Steel, 1995; Richardsen & Burke, 1991; Ulleberg & Rundmo, 1997). This study also found an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and stress. Overall the stressors related to a lack of organisational support seem to have a greater impact on job satisfaction than stressors related to the job itself (Brewer et al., 2003).

The results of investigations between job satisfaction and stress have provided adequate evidence of how job stress and satisfaction are related. Various analyses have indicated that stress factors such as role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload have conflicting strengths in their relationships with job satisfaction. The direction of the relationships is generally negative (Currivan, 2000; Ray &

Miller, 1991; Smith & Bourke, 1992; Starnaman & Miller, 1992). In another study, Vinokur-Kaplan (1991) stated that organisational factors such as workload and working conditions were negatively related with job satisfaction. Currivan (2000) reported that the relation between role ambiguity and job stress was stronger than role conflict. In another study, role ambiguity and role conflict had relationships of different strengths with extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction (Summers, DeCotiis, & DeNisi 1995).

In a study conducted by McCormick (1997) job dissatisfaction was more strongly associated with stress from external forces than stress arising from personal issues. On the other hand, teachers reporting higher job satisfaction were more likely to identify stress arising from personal issues as sources of stress. In another study of teachers, Smith and Bourke (1992) reported that satisfaction with school administration was associated with reduced stress arising from lack of rewards and recognition while satisfaction with work conditions was related to diminished stress from time pressure. Based on these findings it can be concluded that this study confirms that job satisfaction is negatively related to occupational stress (DeNobile, McCormick, 2005).

From qualitative and quantitative data, Otto (1986) reported that occupational stress was highest amongst dissatisfied teachers and lowest amongst the satisfied teachers. Otto also cautioned that satisfied teachers were not without stress and this suggests that the relationship between stress and satisfaction is more complex (DeNobile, McCormick, 2005).

In a study conducted by Peltzer, Shisana, Zuma, Van Wyk and Zungu-Dirwayi (2009) considerably high stress levels were found amongst 21, 307 educators from public schools in South Africa. Job stress and lack of job satisfaction were found to be related with stress-related illnesses such as hypertension, heart disease, stomach ulcer, mental distress and alcohol misuse.

As seen from the above studies job satisfaction and occupational stress influence each other, but a direction cannot be specified for these two variables as the results are contentious.

5.2.2   Hypothesis 2

There is a statistically significant difference in stress levels of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of dependents.

The results which were obtained from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in stress levels of high school educators on the basis of their biographical characteristics, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of children. *Hence, the Null hypothesis is rejected.*

5.2.2.1 Gender

The results in the study indicate that there are statistically significant differences in stress levels of high school educators on the basis of their gender ($t = -1.387$, $p < 0.01$).

Some research findings confirm that women are more prone to stress than men. Arroba and James (2002) reported that the relationship between gender and stress is complex and varied and that women are more affected by stress than men.

This is supported by Jonas's study (2001 cited in Steyn & Kamper, 2006) which reports that female educators experienced higher levels of stress than men. In a study conducted by Samad, Hashiem, Moin and Abdullah (2010) amongst 272 educators, results indicate an inverse relationship between gender and stress. Similarly, Payne and Funham (1987 cited in Samad et al., 2010) found an inverse relationship and reported that female teachers experience more stress than their counterparts.

Van Zyl (2002) suggests that women have more stress than men and that they are more prone to depression. Van den Bergh (2001 cited by Van Zyl 2002) postulates that Black women are increasingly occupying managerial positions, sometimes without the necessary skills, experience and support which result in high levels of stress.

Another study of 290 teachers and principals found females to be associated with higher stress levels than men. It is postulated that the difference might be related to a greater willingness on the part of women to declare stress than their male colleagues. It can also be due to the increased pressures of work-life balance on women who may still have the major role in child care/domestic arrangements alongside their work (Phillips, Sen, McNamee, 2007).

Melhinsh (1998) and Phillips and Segal (1996) concluded from their studies that since most women work longer hours than men and both do not share duties equally at home, women tend to experience more psychological symptoms of occupational stress than men (Popoola & Ilugbo, 2010).

Contrary to the above findings a study conducted by Fontana and Abouserie at the University of Wales reveals that stress levels for men were slightly higher than women (Abaci, 1995 cited in Fontana & Abouserie, 1999). Borg and Riding (1991 cited in Samad et al., 2010) similarly found that males reported greater stress than female teachers.

5.2.2.2 Age

The results which were obtained from the sample of teachers indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in stress levels of high school educators on the basis of their age (F = 0.456, p < 0.01).

Research suggests that younger teachers experience lower levels of stress due to the absence of family responsibilities. Older respondents are more likely to experience higher stress levels because they are less mobile and more loyal to their chosen profession (Van Zyl, 2002; Van Zyl & Pietersen, 1999).

A study conducted by Schulze and Steyn (2007) confirms that older educators experienced more stress than younger educators. Possible reasons include changing conditions in schools and outside classrooms, and assisting learners with personal problems. Also, younger educators are less set in their ways and are adaptable to change, whereas older educators are more set in their ways, near retirement, and may not be inclined to adapt to changes. Van Zyl and Pietersen (1999) and Van Zyl (2002) concur that older educators are more likely to experience higher levels of stress due to the fact that they are less mobile and more loyal to the profession that they have chosen.

However, some researchers found that younger teachers suffered more from stress than do older teachers (Cunningham, 1983; Kalker, 1984), and others have found the opposite (Swogger, 1981; Remley, 1984 both cited in Green-Reese et al., 2001).

Contrary to the above various researchers (Fontana & Abouserie, 1993; Monareng, 2003; Ravichandran & Rajendran, 2007) found that age does not affect work stress. Research by Pisanti, Gagliardi, Razzino and Bertini (2003) amongst

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a sample of secondary school teachers did not find evidence of a relationship between the age and level of stress experienced by teachers.

Madya-Yahaya, Hashim and Kim (n.d.) indicated that there was no significant correlation between stress levels and age based on a sample of 92 teachers. This is inconsistent with findings of Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) and Siti Rohaini (1991 cited in Madya-Yahaya et al., n.d.), which concluded that age is associated with teacher stress level.

According to Chona and Roxas (2009), no significant difference was found between stress levels and age of a sample of 320 teachers. The research are of the opinion that more responsibilities become part of peoples' lives as they age which bring about consequences affecting their wellbeing.
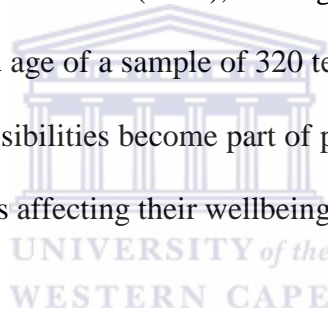
5.2.2.3 Tenure

The findings of the research on educator stress in De Aar indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in stress levels of high school educators on the basis of their tenure (F = 1.273, p < p 0.01).

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) and Siti Rohaini (1991 cited in Madya-Yahaya, et al., n.d.) reports that tenure is linked to teacher stress. Moreover, some studies reported that inexperienced teachers tend to report greater stress than experienced ones (Okebukola & Jegede, 1989; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002).

Findings of a study conducted by Nagy and Davis (1985) on teachers highlight that stress levels decrease with years of teaching. Reasons may include adequate participation in decision making, new training courses and curricula available, and continuous involvement in teaching methods (Knoop, 1986). This may also be the reason why teacher motivations do not decrease with increased length of service. The decrease in stress may also arise from the heightened ability to deal with various situations that comes with experience (Bishay, 1996).

A study conducted by Schulze and Steyn (2007) supports the above findings and reports that the stress levels of educators with more than 15 years experience are different to those with less years' experience. The researchers posit that more may be expected from less experienced educators and older educators are more respected.
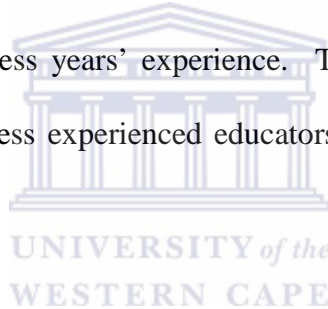
However, a study conducted by Monareng (2003) did not find teaching experience to be a significant factor in teachers job stress. This finding concurs with other research studies (Soloman & Field, 1989; Fontana & Abouserie, 1993; Soyibo, 1994; Jepson & Forrest, 2006).

Similarly Green-Reese et al, (2001) concur that in their research the number of years of teaching experience did not appear to be a factor in teacher job stress. In their study the highest mean teacher job stress score was 44.06, which was the most experienced group with 21+ years of experience and the lowest mean score 41.14 with 16-20 years of experience. The difference in the number of years of

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teaching experience was not significant. Also, in a study conducted by Madya et al. (n.d.), involving 92 teachers, no significant correlation was found between stress levels and tenure.

A study conducted by Chona and Roxas (2009) similarly found no significant difference between stress levels and years of experience amongst 320 teachers. However, new teachers can often be more stressed than those who are teaching for a longer period of time due to the fact that they have to adjust to a new environment. More reasons can include having to grapple with dealing with co-teachers and the roles and obligations that they have to abide by as a member of the teaching profession.

5.2.2.4 Marital status

The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in stress levels of high school educators on the basis of their marital status (F = 0.810, p < 0.01).

A study involving 320 teachers found a relationship between marital status and stress (Chona & Roxas, 2009). Gore and Mangione (1983 cited in Chona & Roxas, 2009) reported that married teachers have lower levels of stress than those who were married or were previously married (widowed, separated or divorced). Being separated, divorced or widowed could mean that the individual has to fulfill

multiple roles which could be stressful to some and inevitably create strain (Chona & Roxas, 2009).

In another study amongst a sample of 370 teachers, results also indicated that female teachers' marital status had a significant effect on reported stress levels. Moreover, it was found that married female teachers had the least stress rating compared to singles and divorced female teachers. An explanation for this could be the importance attached to married life among some people. Single or divorced women are constantly subjected to societal pressure, which could become a potential source of stress. It is also likely that married female teachers experienced less stress because they received some psychological support from their spouses, which enabled them to cope with stress on their jobs (Popoola & Ilugbo, 2010).
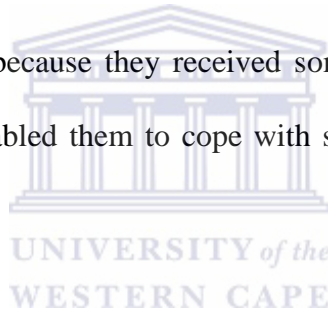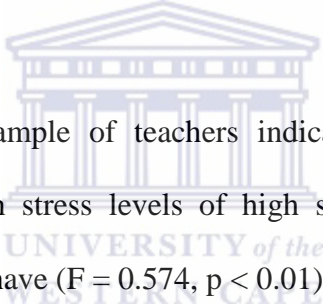
A study conducted my Duyilemi (1990) indicated a relationship between marital status and stress amongst 425 teachers. Matrimonial demands and problems originating from family maintenance were found to be possible sources of stress to the married teachers.

A study by Gold and Roth (1993) on the other hand reveal that unmarried teachers had a higher stress level than married teachers. Van Zyl and Petersen (1999) state that married female educators experienced high levels of stress due to the fact that they need to take on many different roles, for example, wife, mother and a professional educator.

The results from a study conducted by Samad et al. (2010) report no significant associations between stress levels and marital status.

Similarly, a study by Madya et al. (n.d.) involving 92 teachers indicated that there was no difference between marriage status and stress levels. This result was found to not be consistent with the findings of Gold and Roth (1993 cited in Madya et al., n.d.), which stated that single teachers showed a higher stress level than married teachers.

5.2.2.5 Number of dependents

The results from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in stress levels of high school educators based on the number of children they have ($F = 0.574$, $p < 0.01$).

A paucity of research exits between stress and number of dependents. However, research conducted by O'Connor and Bevil (1996) on nurses, found that the number of dependents they had resulted in stress.

According to research conducted by Thomas et al. (2003), the number of dependent children correlated positively and significantly with perceived family stress, which lends support to the finding that responsibility for child rearing is the main family concern for female teachers. These findings are consistent with work-family studies involving other occupations that have identified

responsibility for child rearing and household chores as prominent family stressors (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lundberg & Frankenhaeuser, 1999). Conversely, Fako (2010) reports that number of dependents are not associated with stress.

5.2.3 Hypothesis 3

There is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction of high school educators in De Aar based on their biographical variables, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of dependents and gender.

The results which were obtained from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in job satisfaction of high school educators on the basis of their biographical characteristics, namely, gender, age, tenure, marital status and number of children. *Hence, the Null hypothesis is rejected.*

5.2.3.1 Gender

The results from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in job satisfaction of high school educators based on their gender (t = -0.276, p < 0.01).

Olulube (n.d.) reports that female teachers experience greater job satisfaction than their male counterparts. This is in line with Ladebo's (2005) study where he

illustrated that Nigerian female teachers found their teaching jobs more satisfying than their male counterparts.

In another study Loscocco (1990) reports that females demonstrated higher levels of job satisfaction than male employees. He purports that most women value rewards that are readily available to them, such as relationships with co-workers. It is therefore easier for them to experience job satisfaction. On the other hand, male employees are more likely to desire things like autonomy and financial rewards which are readily available, hence their lower levels of satisfaction. Koustelios (2001) agrees that women educators are more satisfied with their jobs than men. The researchers are of the opinion that this could be because women employees tend to consider their working conditions more important than men (Koustelios, 2001).
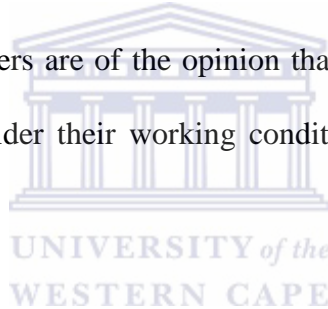
In a study conducted with 200 teachers, results indicate that the male respondents had a relatively higher level of overall job satisfaction compared to the female respondents. Similarly findings from a study by Quitugua (1976 cited in Abdullah, Uli & Parasuraman, 2009) showed that male teachers were overall more satisfied than female teachers. On the contrary, findings of Ghazali's research (1979 cited in Abdullah et al., 2009) reported that there was a significant relationship between gender and teachers' overall job satisfaction.

A study by Ngimbudzi (2009) found that there were significant differences between 162 male and female teachers with regard to job satisfaction. Similarly,

research conducted among teachers revealed that job satisfaction levels differ significantly between male and female teachers (Ma & MacMillan, 2001; Bishay, 1996). According to the research findings, female teachers were found to be more satisfied with their job than male teachers. Whereas, Zhongshan (2008 cited in Ngimbudzi, 2009) found that male teachers were more satisfied with their salaries than their female colleagues.

A study by Oshagbemi (2003) however, contradicts the above studies as results of his study revealed no relationship between gender and job satisfaction. Similarly, Crossman and Harris (2006 cited in Ngimbudzi, 2009) conducted a study on job satisfaction amongst secondary school teachers and their findings indicated that their satisfaction levels did not differ significantly by gender.
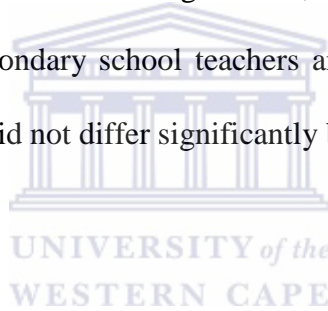
5.2.3.2 Age

The results from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in job satisfaction of high school educators based on age (F = 5.329, p < 0.01).

A study conducted by Olulube (n.d.) concurs with the results of the current study's findings indicating that there is a high statistical difference between teachers' age differentiation and their consequent job satisfaction. Teachers between the ages of 20-30 and 51 and above showed greater job satisfaction than those between the ages 31-40 and 41-50 (Ololube, n.d.).

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In a study conducted by Ngimbudzi (2009) results revealed that there were statistically significant differences in job satisfaction in relation to age. Findings of a study conducted among teachers by Rasku and Kinnunen (2003 cited in Ngimbudzi, 2009) revealed that there was a strong relationship between the teachers' age and job satisfaction.

On the contrary, Crossman and Harris (2006 cited in Ngimbudzi, 2009) found that secondary schools teachers in the United Kingdom did not differ significantly in their job satisfaction in relation to age. Similarly, Green-Reese et al. (2001) reported that age had no significant affect on educator's level of job satisfaction in their study. This was not expected because surveys have revealed that younger teachers tend to leave the teaching profession after five or fewer years of experience.

Age does not significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction. The results corroborate research findings provided by a number of researchers (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003; Carr & Human, 1988; Kacmar & Ferris, 1989; Siu, 2002).

Moreover, Zhongshan (2008) found that work satisfaction amongst 422 teachers increases with the increase in age. Similarly, it is argued that the higher the teacher's age, the higher the level of job satisfaction and the lower the teacher's age, the lower the job satisfaction level (Greenberg & Baron, 1995 cited in Zhongshan, 2008).

5.2.3.3 Tenure

The results from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in job satisfaction of high school educators based on tenure ($F = 5.273$, $p < 0.01$).

The findings of a study by Oshagbemi (2003) found tenure to be positively and significantly related to job satisfaction. Similarly, various studies indicate a positive correlation between tenure and job satisfaction (Jinnet & Alexander, 1999; Staw, 1995; Jones-Johnson & Johnson, 2000).

However, in many professions people may become bored and dissatisfied with their occupation with increased length of service (Bishay, 1996). A study conducted by Green-Reese et al. (2001) revealed that the number of years of teaching experience was not a significant factor in teacher job satisfaction. The highest age group mean was that of the 21+years teaching experience and the lowest mean was for those with 11-15 years teaching experience. However, Parkhouse and Johnson (1980) found that job satisfaction declined with the number of years of teaching experience.

In a study conducted by Blood et al. (2002) it was found that there is a statistically significant relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. They reported that the longer educators remained in their jobs, the more likely they are to report higher levels of job satisfaction. Reyes (2001) concurs that there is a statistically

significant relationship between job satisfaction and tenure. He conducted research on 133 teachers to establish the relationship between individual work orientations and teacher outcomes. Reyes (2001) maintains that this relationship is strong because dissatisfied teachers may leave the profession before spending several years on the job.

Oshagbemi (2003) found that tenure was negatively related to job satisfaction. The researcher posits that this can be because long servicing employees are less satisfied due to the increasing bureaucratic workload of the education institutions.

5.2.3.4 Marital status
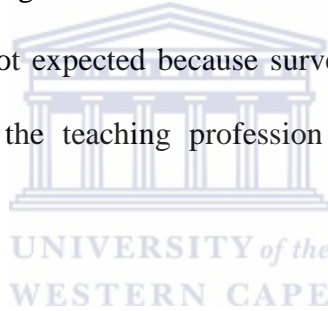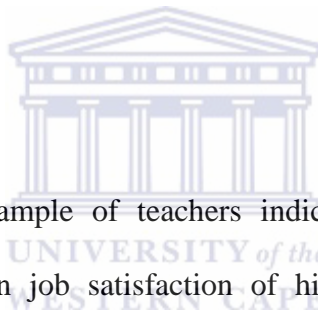
The results from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in job satisfaction of high school educators based on marital status (F = 5.664, p < 0.01).

Bowen et al. (1994 cited in Scott, Swortzel & Taylor, 2005) found that marital status was related to job satisfaction levels. His study of 132 agents revealed that employees were more satisfied with their jobs than single employees. Similar findings were highlighted in a study conducted by Koustelios amongst Greek educators where it was found that married educators are more satisfied with their jobs than single educators.

Several studies have also shown a relationship between marital status and job satisfaction, indicating that married or divorced agents are more satisfied with their jobs than remarried, never married, or widowed agents (Bowen et al., 1994; Fetsch & Kennington, 1997 cited in Scott et al., 2005).

According to Robbins et al. (2003), it could be that marriage imposes increased responsibilities, which might make a steady job more valuable, hence increasing their satisfaction. However, they note that the available research only distinguishes between being single and married.

A study conducted by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) reported no significant difference in job satisfaction and marital status. Scott et al. (2005) also found that no significant relationships were found between marital status and the job satisfaction constructs in their research.

5.2.3.5 Number of dependents

The results from the sample of teachers indicate that there are statistically significant differences in job satisfaction of high school educators based on the number of children ($F = 3.361$, $p < 0.05$).

Research in this area is limited. However, Robbins (1989) notes that research points to a positive relationship between number of dependents and job satisfaction. The reason for this could be that employees with more children are

more satisfied with their jobs. It could also be that employees with more children are probably older and longer in their jobs and they might therefore have adapted to their work situations, hence, the increase in job satisfaction.

However, a study by Alavi and Askaripur (2003) indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between number of dependents and job satisfaction.

Herzberg et al. (1957 cited in Scott et al., 2005) suggested that a clear conclusion cannot be drawn concerning job satisfaction and its relationship to number of dependents.

5.3   LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Like other empirical studies, this study is not without its limitations.

The sample size was small (N=86). The study can be strengthened by increasing the sample size as the results of the data analyses and findings may vary substantially when the sample size is increased. With an increased sample size, a more detailed empirical study amongst the independent variables can be performed.

Since this study was conducted in one geographical area it limits the generalisability of the results therefore caution should be taken when analysing the data.

There seems to be a dearth of information on stress and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in South Africa, hence reference were also made to other service professions.

The questionnaires administered are self-reported instruments and lend itself to bias. In addition to quantitative methodology, qualitative information could also be useful. Individual interviews with participants could provide a greater depth of information regarding sources of stress and coping strategies.

Additional variables such as race, education level, organisational culture, impact of technology, organisational climate, emotional demands of work and unclear work roles could be included in future studies because these are also critical factors impacting on teacher stress and job satisfaction.

For future research, the nine facets of job satisfaction could be investigated as the results for the education profession might be different to that of other professions.

There was an under representation of males in this study. This could be as a result of having used a convenience sampling. A recommendation would be to use stratified random sampling as this allows for greater control of the sample.

5.4   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ROLE PLAYERS IN EDUCATION

The findings of the current research indicate that the organisation should develop strategies to deal with the needs of those teachers who experience less job satisfaction and commitment.

Given the potential consequences of lowered job satisfaction/dissatisfaction (for example, costs of turnover, burnout, absenteeism and reduced productivity) and increasing occupational stress to teachers and the students in their care, it would be of long term benefit to schools to monitor the specific factors causing high levels of stress and dissatisfaction amongst teachers with the aim of structuring support programmes.
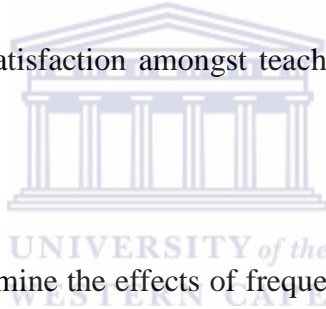
Further research to determine the effects of frequently occurring stressors over an extended period of time should be employed. Continuing studies of the same sample could yield answers relative to how prolonged exposure to stressors affects teachers. Such information could be vital in identifying the type of stress interventions and management programmes to be designed for reducing levels of stress which in turn, will improve their functional skills and lead to effective teaching/learning in the class room.

It is the duty of the school management to determine how satisfied teachers are in their jobs. If they are not satisfied, the management should determine the cause of

this and, with the assistance of the Department of Education, determine tangible solutions towards improving the morale and teachers' satisfaction.

5.5 CONCLUSION

Teachers are viewed as catalysts that foster change in education. They are important in the lives of their students and transmit the values of the society to the youth (Popoola & Ilugbo, 2010). The topic of teacher job stress and job satisfaction have gained the attention of various researchers (Green-Reese et al, 2001). Based on various research findings, teachers experience pressure or stress in their jobs and these pressures can result in job dissatisfaction.

Sources of stress are unique to the environment and therefore coping strategies should be implemented accordingly. School management and teachers will need to play a more active role in reducing stress and improving the school climate as both are responsible for managing stress.

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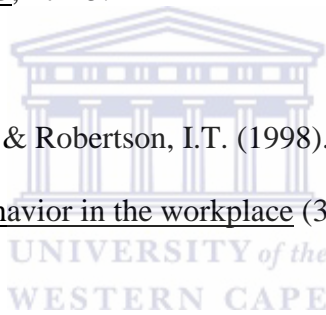
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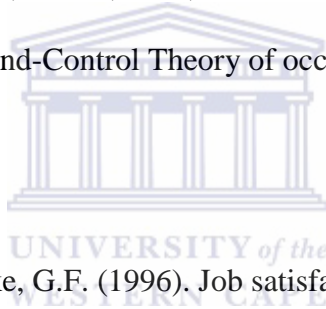
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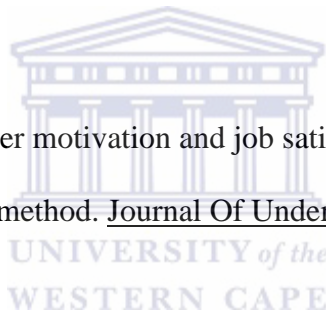
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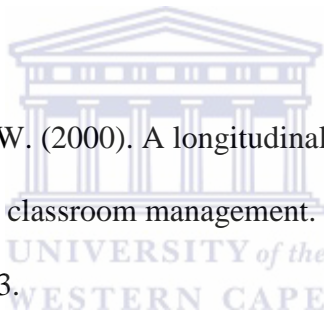
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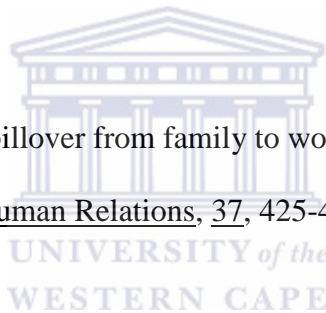
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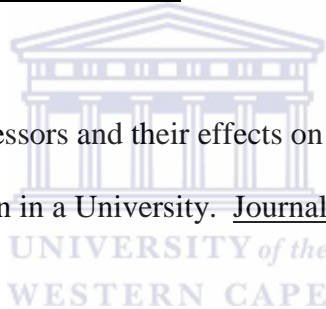
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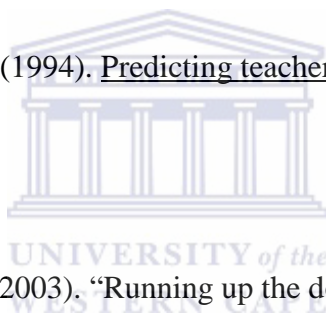
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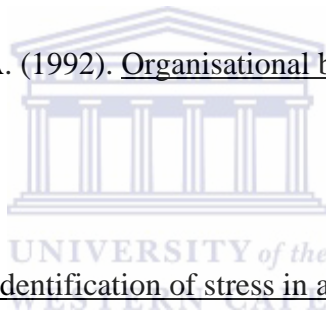
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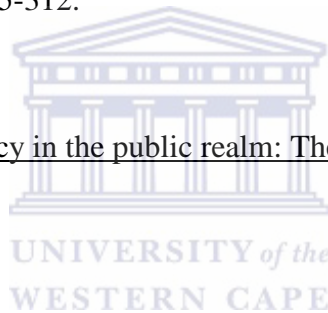
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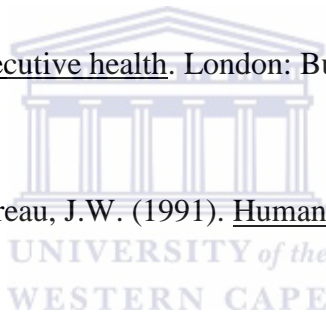
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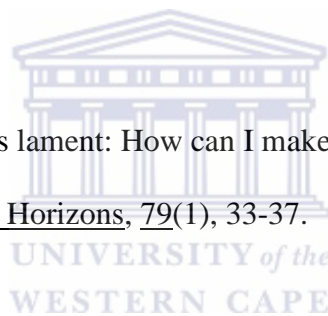
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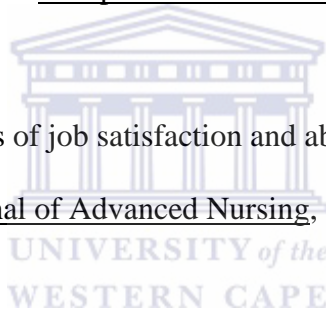
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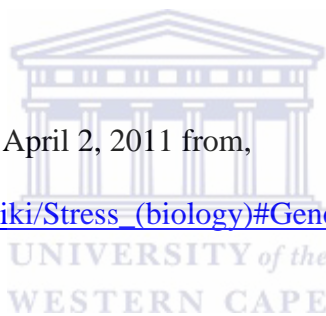
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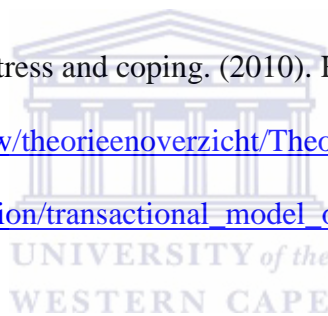
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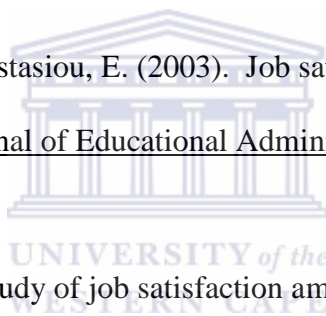
Dear Participants

REQUEST TO COMPLETE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRES

I am a Master's student at the University of the Western Cape (UWC) and conducting research for my thesis on the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction amongst high school educators in De Aar.

While permission has been granted for doing research within the high schools in De Aar, I am dependent on your assistance to be able to research these important issues. The attached questionnaires contain questions to find out your stress levels and job satisfaction levels. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers. I do realise that you are very busy, but I kindly plead with you to spare a few minutes of your time completing these questionnaires. It should not take you more than 45 minutes to complete all three questionnaires.

Please be reassured that your responses will be held in the strictest of confidence. To protect your confidentiality, please do not indicate your name or any other identifying particulars on the questionnaires. Also be assured that no one will have access to this information. This is why your questionnaires are handed to you in an envelope. On completion place it back into the envelope, seal it and please return it within one week to your principal or school secretary, who will return it to me unopened.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Kind regards,

Monique Lamberts

Biographical Questionnaire

Please complete the following by making a cross (x) next to the answer that is applicable to you.

1.   Gender

Male	Female

2.   Race

African	Colored	Asian	White

3.   Age

18 - 25	26 – 35	36 - 45	46 - 55	Older than 55

4.   Marital Status

Unmarried	Married	Divorced	Widowed	Separated

5.   Number of Children

None	1 - 2	3 - 4	More than 5

6.   Current level in profession

Teacher	Head of Department	Deputy Principal	Principal

7.   Years of service in education

Less than 2 years	2-5 years	6-10 years	More than 10 years

8. **Qualification**

Grade 10 – 12	Certificate	Diploma	Degree	Post-graduate degree

9. **Are you a:**

Contract worker	Permanent worker

10. **Which grade(s) do you currently teach?**

Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12

	JOB STRESS DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY	Never a source of stress	Rarely a source of stress	Occasionally a source of stress	Sometimes a source of stress	Often a source of stress	Usually a source of stress	Always a source of stress
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.							
1	My job objectives are unclear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I often receive conflicting requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am responsible for too many jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I do not have enough opportunities to advance in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I do not get pad enough for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	People come and go regularly -- here today and gone tomorrow.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I am not happy with the company's policy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	We follow no formal authority system around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I have no control over what is happening in my work area (office, workstation, desk).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	My boss does not respect me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	My working conditions are not as good as the working conditions of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	My work area is too uncomfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I have to deal with people in bad situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	There is lack of security in my work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I don't like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I often get social support from my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I often get social support from my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Never a source of stress	Rarely a source of stress	Occasionally a source of stress	Sometimes a source of stress	Often a source of stress	Usually a source of stress	Always a source of stress
18	I have a lot of control over my workspace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I have a lot of flexibility in the time I come to work or leave work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I am always allowed the time to get personal matters settled.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6