

JOB STRESS IN MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS - AN EDUCATIONAL- PSYCHOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION

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SUMMARY

JOB STRESS IN MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS - AN EDUCATIONAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION.

Key words: Job stress; management personnel; principals; deputy principals; heads of department; educational psychology.

The aims of this study were to determine:

- * The nature of job stress.
- * Factors causing job stress in management personnel.
- * The perceived severity or intensity of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools.
- * The frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools.

In order to achieve these aims a literature study and empirical investigation were undertaken. The data was investigated and evaluated and certain conclusions were made. Appropriate primary and secondary sources were used in the literature study. A DIALOG search was conducted using the following key words: job stress, occupational stress, career stress, work stress, management and education. The nature of job stress and factors causing job stress in management personnel were discussed.

Spielberger's Job Stress Survey (JSS) was used for the empirical investigation. This questionnaire was designed to determine the amount of stress associated with a particular event and the frequency of its occurrence.

The population consisted of the management teams (principals, deputy principals and heads of department) of 180 randomly selected secondary schools throughout South Africa. The management teams of 102 secondary schools throughout South Africa constituted the sample.

The data obtained in the empirical investigation was statistically analysed and interpreted. In conclusion the study was summarised, findings were reported and specific recommendations were made for implementation in practice and for further research.

OPSOMMING

WERKSTRES BY BESTUURSPERSONEEL IN SEKONDÊRE SKOLE - 'N OPVOEDKUNDIG-SIELKUNDIGE ONDERSOEK.

Sleutelwoorde: Werkstres; bestuurspersoneel; hoofde; adjunkhoofde; departements-hoofde; opvoedkundige sielkunde.

Die doel van die studie was om die volgende te bepaal:

- * Die aard van werkstres.
- * Faktore wat werkstres in bestuurspersoneel veroorsaak.
- * Die ernstigheid van werkstres by bestuurspersoneel in sekondêre skole.
- * Die voorkoms van werkstres by bestuurspersoneel in sekondêre skole.

Om hierdie doelwitte te bereik is 'n literatuurstudie en empiriese ondersoek onderneem. Die inligting is oorweeg en geëvalueer en gevolgtrekkings is gemaak. Die literatuurstudie is onderneem uit toepaslike primêre en sekondêre bronne. 'n DIALOG-soektog is onderneem met onder andere die volgende sleutelwoorde: job stress, occupational stress, career stress, work stress, management and education. Die aard van werkstres en faktore wat werkstres in bestuurspersoneel veroorsaak, is bespreek.

Spielberger se Job Stress Survey (JSS) is by die empiriese ondersoek gebruik. Hierdie vraelys is ontwerp om die mate en voorkoms van stres, met betrekking tot 'n sekere gebeurtenis, te bepaal.

Die populasie het bestaan uit die bestuurspersoneel (hoofde, adjunkhoofde en departementshoofde) van 180 ewekansig geselekteerde sekondêre skole in Suid-Afrika. Die steekproef het bestaan uit die bestuurspersoneel van 102 sekondêre skole in Suid-Afrika.

Die inligting wat in die empiriese ondersoek versamel is, is statisties verwerk en geïnterpreteer. Laastens is 'n samevatting van die studie gemaak. Sekere bevindinge word gestel. Bepaalde aanbevelings vir die praktyk is gemaak en verdere navorsing is aanbeveel.

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CHAPTER 1 : ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH DESIGN

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The significant impact of stress in the workplace on employee health, wellbeing and effectiveness has been increasingly recognised in recent years (Spielberger & Reheiser 1994 : 19). Stress and strain work settings are generally attributed to the interactions between an individual and that person's occupational environment.

Management personnel (principals, deputy principals and heads of department) in secondary schools experience stress due to a variety of stressors intrinsic to the job as well as a myriad of external factors. How these stressors are perceived by these individuals will determine the effects they will have, not only on the individual but also on the institution as a whole.

The management personnel are responsible for co-ordinating school activities, implementing strategies for the day-to-day functioning of the school, supervising the administrative and financial aspects and cultivating positive interpersonal relationships between staff, pupils, parents and the wider community. The total responsibility for the effective functioning of the school rests entirely on their shoulders. This research is therefore vital to assess the prevalence and perceived intensity of job stress in management personnel utilising the Job Stress Survey.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is widely accepted that in order for educational institutions (i.e. schools) to be more effective, competent management personnel (principals, deputy principals and heads of department) are required (Jirasinghe & Lyons, 1996 : 1). According to Grant (*in* Gordon & Donaldson, 1991 : 13) competent management consists in attempting to close the distance between ideals and behaviour by reminding all members of the community of what is at stake in the attainment of ideals and by suggesting practical actions that can be taken to help realise those ideals.

The functions of management personnel in schools can be understood as:

1. Committing time, energy and attention to activities that advance the education of children.
2. Identifying the proper people to involve in essential activities and providing for their success.
3. Understanding and developing proper relationships to maximise these people's and the school's success.

Therefore the functions of management personnel in secondary schools are defined in terms of other people and the facilitation of their success.

Blumberg and Greenfield (*in* Gordon & Donaldson, 1991 : 119) state that principals, deputy principals and heads of department are expected to be all things to all people, to do all things and to do them well. This might have been a reasonable expectation in days gone by, but it is no longer realistic given the increasing complexity of roles and their demands. No doubt, the rising expectations for principals and their schools and the expanding literature prescribing roles are convincing some prospective principals to finish their graduate work and certification for the principalship but *not* to seek the positions.

Every school (and every classroom) must effectively orchestrate the cramming together of bodies, minds, egos and emotions for 6 or more hours a day. The ultimate challenge is to see that coping strategies for doing so do not become the only plans or the major purposes for schools (Gordon & Donaldson, 1991 : 6).

No matter how accommodating and how efficient the administration, management personnel, whatever their degree of effectiveness, are bound to encounter constraints and work stress difficulties (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1990 : 65), such as:

- * Lack of time.
- * Departmental staff with other commitments.
- * Role overload.
- * Staff discipline and interpersonal relations.
- * Lack of role clarity and definition of responsibilities.

- * Inadequate preparation.
- * Management of physical resources.
- * The timetable.
- * Conflict of styles.
- * Parental pressure.

As far back as 1980, Millar (*in* Herr & Cramer, 1996 : 86) wrote that "There is no doubt that job related stress and other psychological disorders are rapidly becoming one of the most pressing occupational safety and health concerns in the country today".

Selye (1981 : 263) defines stress as "the non-specific response of the organism to any demand made upon it". Drawing from his medical background he provided a number of statements, based on research, which characterise stress (Gold & Roth, 1993 : 15). These are:

- * Stress is the wear and tear caused by life.
- * Stress is a state manifested by a specific syndrome of biological events and can be both pleasant or unpleasant.
- * Stress is the mobilisation of the body's defences that allow human beings to adapt to hostile or threatening events.
- * Stress is dangerous when it is unduly prolonged, comes too often, or concentrates on one particular organ of the body.

Cranwell-Ward's (1990 : 10) definition of stress is more descriptive. She states that stress is "the physiological and psychological reaction which occurs when people perceive an imbalance between the level of demand placed upon them, and their capability to meet those demands".

Turnage and Spielberger (1991 : 165) state that relatively little research has been directed toward understanding the specific stressors typically experienced by employees at different occupational levels. In order to alleviate job stress, the characteristics of a job that are perceived as most stressful by particular occupational groups must be identified.

Quick, Hess, Hermalin and Quick (1990 : 13) identify the following sources of career stress: initial career decision, career transition points, changes in occupations, obsolescence of skills and/or knowledge, uncertainty and risk, career-life fit and retirement. Sources of work stress in upper and middle managers such as management personnel in schools include work overload, time urgency, job complexity, decision-making, too many meetings and difficulty in attaining productivity standards (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 32; Busser, 1990 : 11).

In view of the above, it is deemed necessary to assess the prevalence and perceived intensity (severity) of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools as well as to identify those working conditions which are more likely to give rise to job stress and related problems. Questions which arise from this discussion are: What is the nature of job stress? What are the factors that cause job stress in management personnel? What is the perceived severity or intensity of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools? What is the frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools?

1.3 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aims of the research are to determine:

1. the nature of job stress;
2. the factors causing job stress in management personnel;
3. the perceived severity or intensity of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools and to establish whether there are any statistically significant differences between variables such as race and gender; and
4. the prevalence or frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools and to establish whether there are any statistically significant differences between variables such as race and gender.

It is hoped that the findings of this research will assist management personnel in taking precautionary measures to manage job stress so that their general quality of life can improve and that they can set a positive example for teachers and pupils

in their schools.

1.4 CLARIFICATION OF TITLE

JOB STRESS IN MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS - AN EDUCATIONAL - PSYCHOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION.

1.4.1 JOB STRESS

Although it is difficult to find a generally acceptable definition of job stress, most definitions include the following three aspects:

1. The stressor.
2. The perception of the stressor.
3. The reaction to the stressor.

An integrated definition of job stress according to the researcher would therefore be:

The negative psychological response or reaction (accompanied by physiological changes such as increased heart rate) to an event, condition or situation at work (stressor) which is perceived by the person as potentially threatening.

This definition could be graphically represented as follows:

STRESSOR	→	INDIVIDUAL PERCEPTION	→	RESPONSE
Event, condition/ situation at work.		Threat		Negative Psychological and physiological

A comprehensive definition of job stress will be provided in Chapter 2.

1.4.2 MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL

The term "management personnel" in this study refers to the principal,

deputy principal and heads of various departments of secondary schools.

1.4.3 SECONDARY SCHOOLS

These schools cater for pupils in grades 8 to 12.

1.4.4 EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

For as long as educational psychology has existed (about 90 years) there have been debates about what it really is. Some people believe educational psychology is simply knowledge gained from psychology and applied to the activities of the classroom. Others believe it involves applying the methods of psychology to study classroom and school life (Woolfolk, 1998 : 11). The view generally accepted today is that educational psychology is a distinct discipline with its own theories, research methods, problems and techniques.

Wittrock (*in* Woolfolk, 1998 : 11) states that educational psychology is distinct from other branches of psychology because it has the understanding and improvement of education as its primary goal. Educational psychologists study what people think, do and feel as they teach and learn a particular curriculum in a particular environment where education and training are intended to take place. Educational psychology focuses on the psychological study of the everyday problems of education, from which one derives principles, models, theories, teaching procedures and practical methods of instruction and evaluation, as well as research methods, statistical analyses and measurement and assessment procedures appropriate for studying the thinking and affective processes of learners and the socially and culturally complex processes of schools.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

To avoid duplication, the concepts used in this study will not be discussed here. An extensive description and definition of the various concepts and terms can be

found in Chapter 2.

1.6 METHOD OF STUDY

An extensive literature study and empirical investigation, using the Job Stress Survey, were undertaken to achieve the aims of the study. Both English and Afrikaans questionnaires were used.

1.7 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

Ephesians 4 : 11 - 12: "It was He (Christ) who gave some to be apostles, some to be prophets, some to be evangelists and some to be pastors and teachers, to prepare God's people for works of service, so that the body of Christ might be built up...".

From a Christian point of view it is the task and duty of each member of the management team to fulfil his/her role or calling as principal, deputy principal or head of department to the best of his/her ability. Failure to do so may lead to feelings of inadequacy and guilt and may prove to be a large contributing factor to stress on the job.

Management personnel are faced with challenging and potentially stressful situations every day, originating from all spheres of life and work. How these situations are dealt with will ultimately affect not only the principal, deputy principal or head of department but also have an impact on the teachers, the pupils, the parents, the community and the school. Job stress in management personnel is not an individual problem. It has a negative effect on the entire institution. It should be kept in mind that individual characteristics play an important role in the dynamics of job stress.

1.8 DOMAIN OF THE STUDY

Research was undertaken in the fields of Education, Psychology and Educational

Psychology to obtain information regarding the nature of job stress and the causes of job stress in management personnel. It was also deemed necessary to include information concerning the functions of management personnel, i.e. what exactly their work entails and what is expected of them as principals, deputy principals and heads of department. A closer look was taken at the South African situation because, although job stress is a universal phenomenon, the South African education system has undergone drastic changes and reform in the recent past and it has certainly not been easy for all parties involved to adapt. The transition itself may be a major cause of job stress in management personnel in South Africa.

Use was made of both primary and secondary sources including published works and journal articles. Where possible the most recent national and international sources were used. Information from these sources was studied critically, analytically and selectively and presented in an integrated manner to achieve the research aims.

It was decided to include all secondary South African schools in the study and to randomly select a sample, in order to obtain a national representation of the dimensions of job stress in management personnel.

1.9 COURSE OF THE STUDY

In Chapter 2 the nature of job stress is examined by means of a literature study. Topics under discussion include the definition and description of relevant terms, general views and misconceptions regarding stress as well as the course, symptoms and effects of stress.

Chapter 3 examines the factors causing job stress in management personnel, such as factors intrinsic to the job, role in the organisation, relationships at work, career development, the organisational structure and climate, personality traits, dietary contributors and the physical work environment as stressors.

In Chapter 4 the empirical research and results are presented and discussed. This

includes a discussion of the research design, study population and sample and instrumentation used to measure job stress. The perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel will be reflected and comparisons between principals, deputy principals and heads of department, regarding job stress, are made.

Chapter 5 provides a summary of the study, discusses conclusions and recommendations are made for further study.

CHAPTER 2 : THE NATURE OF JOB STRESS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Stress in life, in one form or another, is inescapable. In the professions and in business it is so commonplace that "stress management is the leading priority for employee assistance programs" (Murphy *in* Gold & Roth, 1993 : 14). We hear about it, talk about it and experience it virtually every day, yet we are not really sure what it is. It seems to mean different things to different people, largely because it is experienced in various ways.

Stress is a natural and inevitable characteristic of work and life. It is neither inherently bad nor destructive. It is, in fact, one of a person's best assets for achieving peak performance and managing legitimate emergencies. However, it does have the potential for turning into distress, or strain, due to a variety of reasons. It is this latter manifestation of stress that is individually and organisationally destructive (Quick, Murphy & Hurrell, 1992 : ix). While stress is inherent in living, excessive stress is harmful (Selye *in* French, Cast & Rosenzweig, 1985 : 271).

Swart (1988 : 162) expresses his concern regarding stress in education. He believes that both the teacher and the principal are subjected to extreme measures of stress. Lyons (1990 : 44) is of opinion that the school is a fertile breeding ground for conflicts. Conflicts that regularly arise lead to stress in principals.

The aim of this chapter is to:

- * define and clarify relevant concepts;
- * discuss the general views and common misconceptions regarding stress;
- * indicate the course of stress;
- * identify the symptoms of stress; and
- * highlight the effects of, or reactions to, stress.

2.2 DEFINITION AND DESCRIPTION OF TERMS

2.2.1 STRESS AND JOB STRESS

One of the potential career problems is job-related stress. It is a significant part of the stress that stems from modern life. Many current newspaper and magazine articles reflect the growing concern about the effect of stress on peoples' productivity, sense of wellbeing and physical and emotional health. Within this context people are becoming more aware of the cost, in both financial and human terms, of high pressure and stress in their daily work lives (French et al, 1985 : 650).

In many job situations, particularly in human services, high levels of stress are an integral and largely unavoidable component of the work environment. Examples include air traffic control centres, burn units in hospitals and social service agencies serving sexually abused children. Similarly, the ability to cope with complexity, ambiguity, conflict and competing demands is assumed to exist when individuals assume higher-level administrative positions (Paine, 1982: 21).

What is stress? It is difficult to define and even more difficult to measure. Events that might cause anxiety, frustration and even physical manifestations in one individual might go unnoticed by another. Generally, stress results from any external situation that requires behavioural adjustments. It is the response that a stressor evokes in the individual's body/mind. More specifically, stress is an adaptive response, mediated by individual characteristics and psychological processes, that is a consequence of any external action, situation or event that places special physical and psychological demands upon a person (Ivancevich & Matteson *in* French et al, 1985 : 651). Plug, Meyer, Louw & Gouws (1988 : 351) define stress as follows: "Die totaliteit van liggaamlike en psigiese reaksies op nadelige en/of onaangename stimuli (insluitend eksterne omgewingstimuli soos lawaai en gevaar, asook interne stimuli soos - veral langdurige - angs,

hewige emosies, bekommernis en spanning). Stres word in die algemeen gekenmerk deur versteuring van die homeostase van die liggaam, en meer spesifiek deur verskynsels soos hartkloppings, voortdurende moegheid, angs, spanning en gejaagdheid".

According to Marshall and Cooper (1979 : 9), few writers use the word *stress* consistently and it is used to denote variously:

1. An excessive environmental force (e.g. too much work) which, by its actions on an individual, causes him/her harm.
2. The harm thus caused (fatigue).
3. The individual's reaction in such a situation (irritability, inability to concentrate).

Stress has been and continues to be defined in numerous ways (Sethi & Schuler, 1984 : 6). For example, Selye defines stress as "the nonspecific response to any demand." Stress, according to French, Rogers and Cobb is "a misfit between a person's skills and abilities and demands of the job, and a misfit in terms of a person's needs supplied by the environment." Beehr and Newman (*in* Sethi & Schuler, 1984 : 6) define job stress as "a condition wherein job-related factors interact with the worker to change (disrupt or enhance) his/her psychological or physiological condition such that the person (mind and/or body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning." McGrath (*in* Sethi & Schuler, 1984 : 6) defines stress in terms of a set of conditions having stress in it: "Stress involves an interaction of person and environment. Something happens *out there* which presents a person with a demand, or a constraint or an opportunity for behaviour." Schuler defines stress as "a dynamic situation of uncertainty involving something important."

Burgoyne (*in* Gowler & Legge, 1975 : 5) comments that "few, if any of us could offer a definition of stress that would meet with even a modest degree of general agreement". Weir (*in* Gowler & Legge, 1975 : 13) states that the expression is often applied to the effects of occupying a particular position

in an organisation. So reference is made of stress in the job of an airline pilot or the stresses and strains of occupying a top managerial post. This is individual stress. Managers, of course, normally expect to occupy a position in which stress of this kind is one of the features.

There are so many confusing and contradictory definitions of stress that it will be useful to add a few remarks stating clearly what it is not (Sethi & Schuler, 1984 : 17; Gold & Roth, 1993 : 16):

- * Stress is not merely nervous tension.
- * Stress is not always the nonspecific result of damage.
- * Stress is not something to be avoided.
- * Complete freedom from stress is death.

2.2.2 STRESSOR AND JOB STRESSOR

According to Sethi and Schuler (1984 : 16), stress is associated with a great variety of essentially dissimilar problems that require an individual to reformulate his/her lifestyle. While these problems are quite different, they produce a stereotyped pattern of biochemical, functional and structural changes essentially involved in coping with any type of increased demand upon vital activity, particularly adaptation to new situations. All endogenous or exogenous agents that make such demands are called stressors.

Plug et al (1988 : 351) define a stressor as "enige (eksterne of interne) stimulus wat stres veroorsaak of die homeostase van die liggaam versteur."

A management stressor is defined by Moss (1981 : 4) as:

1. Any objective condition or any change in the work environment that is perceived as potentially harmful, threatening, challenging or frustrating; or
2. any set of circumstances related to work that requires change in the individual's ongoing life pattern.

Stressors are linked to their consequences. Different stressors require different actions to cope with these consequences.

Gold and Roth (1993 : 16) emphasise the importance of the perception or evaluation of an occurrence which will determine whether it is experienced as pleasant or unpleasant. Hayward (1993 : 5) describes a stressor as an experience or occurrence within the person or from his/her environment which results in a stress reaction. Whether the stress will be positively or negatively experienced, depends on the person's unique perception.

What are job stressors? In a sense, any situation, person or event that we encounter might be a source of stress. Fortunately most of these are not stressors. We cope with them without invoking undue response. Many factors outside the work organisation may contribute to individual stress, such as family crises or major life changes. These stressors can result in behaviour that has a detrimental impact on job performance and satisfaction (French et al, 1985 : 653).

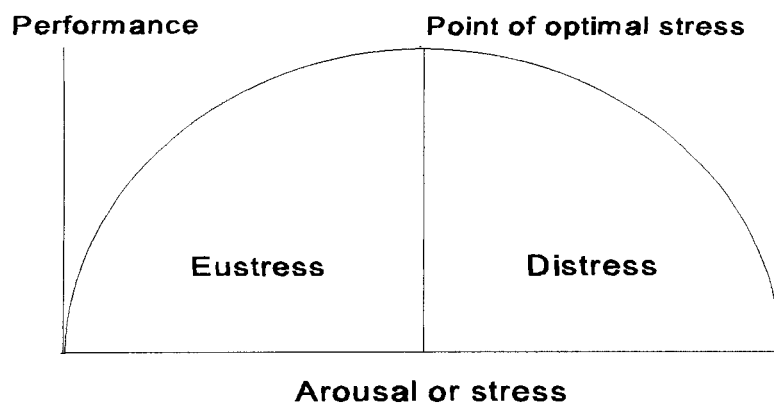
Many forces in the organisational environment have been identified as sources of stress. Physical environment factors - improper lighting, excessive noise, extreme temperatures, air pollution, noxious working materials - can certainly be stressors. These physical environmental stressors generally affect people in factories and production lines more than clerical, professional and managerial workers. Many job qualities have been associated with stress such as the pace of the work, work underload or underutilisation, work overload and too little or too much variety. Role conflicts can be highly stressful where the individual may have ambiguous responsibilities or may be subject to conflicting requirements. Relationships on the job, difficulties with supervisor, peers or subordinates, may also be sources of stress. It can be noted that responsibility for things - equipment, budgets, and the like - is less stressful than responsibility for people (Ivancevich & Matteson *in* French et al, 1985 : 653).

2.2.3 EUSTRESS AND DISTRESS

The term stress can be considered neutral with the words distress and eustress used for designating bad and good effects. Thus eustress can indicate a situation where the individual is in balance with or within tolerable limits. Distress would connote effects that are out of balance or outside the tolerable limits (French et al, 1985 : 707).

Selye (*in* Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 17) argues that stress can be a positive, creative and motivating force, or it can be a negative, debilitating and dangerous force. The former he calls eustress and the latter he calls distress. One important difference between eustress and distress can be explained in terms of quantity of stress as graphically represented in Figure 2.1.

FIGURE 2.1



As the arousal increases, performance will also increase as one becomes more motivated. It is not unusual to hear people say they work better under pressure. However, if that pressure is excessive, it becomes distress, causing performance to decline rapidly and health to suffer.

2.2.4 SYNTHESIS

It is difficult to find agreement when it comes to defining stress and job stress. It is, however, agreed upon that stress is a serious condition which warrants further investigation and intervention. Stressful situations are manifested physically, psychologically and behaviourally and may have a profound effect on the individual's functioning. The effects of stress depend on the individual's interpretation of the situation and therefore sources of stress (stressors) vary from person to person and situation to situation. Stressors can be either external (stemming from the family, community or the physical work environment) or internal (as a result of poor job qualities or relationships at work). Stress can be either positive or negative. Positive stress or eustress is essential for optimal functioning whereas negative or distress can be harmful and debilitating.

2.3 GENERAL VIEWS AND COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS REGARDING STRESS

2.3.1 GENERAL VIEWS

According to Burns (1988 : 1), the word *stress* has a mainly negative connotation in society, especially as the origin of stress is often thought of as psychosomatic. Absenteeism at work increased by 3% for men and 300% for women over the last 15 years. In British industries, up to 40 million working days are lost annually as a result of stress-related illnesses. One out of every ten people is assisted by a psychologist to manage stress at some time.

Due to prior connotations, Biggs (1988 : 44) states that stress is almost universally viewed as a harmful condition which should be avoided at all costs. She is, however, of the opinion that not all stress is unpleasant or undesirable. Without stress a condition of boredom will arise.

Cohen (1989 : 6) is of the opinion that school principals are faced with

stressful occupations. He believes school principals strive towards achievement as they attempt to meet the requirements of the community and others, and this puts them under pressure, which can lead to increased positive stress.

2.3.2 COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS

Gmelch and Thomas (1989 : 2) indicate the following misconceptions regarding stress:

- * Stress is dangerous.
Although stress can be disadvantageous and can lead to illness in extreme cases, a measure of stress is necessary to motivate and activate a person in his/her work. Stress is therefore not necessarily dangerous.

- * Stress should be avoided.
Stress is a natural part of each person's daily existence and it assists in reacting to threats or challenges. The only way to avoid stress is by ceasing to exist.

- * Chief Executive Officers (CEO's) experience the most stress.
Research done by an American Life Insurance company indicated that from a group of 500 of the largest industrial companies, 40% fewer presidents and vice-presidents than middle level managers died from heart-related illnesses. It was further found that more middle-level managers than CEO's developed ulcers. From this it can be deduced that middle-level managers (i.e. school principals) experience more stress.

- * Stress is only experienced by males.
It is a well-known fact that men experience more problems than women with regard to: excessive use of alcohol, ulcers, lung cancer, heart complications and suicide attempts. On average, women live

approximately 8 years longer than white men and 14 years longer than black men. However, this situation is changing rapidly as more women are appointed in management positions and are therefore also exposed to similar stressors as men. It appears, however, that women are mentally and physically stronger than men in handling stress. It has been found that women managers experienced less stress in all areas, excepting one, namely task-oriented stress. It is therefore a myth to accept that stress is only experienced by men.

- * There is only one way to manage stress.
There is no reference in the literature that indicates that stress can only be managed in one specific way. Selye (*in* Gmelch & Thomas, 1989) is of the opinion that, after all that has been said and written about stress, there is no instant remedy for the management of stress.

Roos and Möller (1988 : 18) identify the following misconceptions regarding stress:

- * Only inferior and maladapted people experience stress.
Any person is a potential victim of stress, especially extremely successful and highly competitive people.
- * Nothing can be done about the existence of stress.
By implication this statement entails that people should see the existence of stress as the result of circumstances. The truth is, however, that the person himself/herself is usually responsible for the stress in his/her life.
- * Stress is caused by important matters going wrong.
The greatest causes of stress are in fact less demanding matters such as unnecessary telephone calls, delays or interruptions, traffic congestion and continual demands with regard to the handling of problems.

- * The individual knows when he/she experiences stress.
Most victims of stress are not aware of the fact that they are experiencing stress.

- * Distress can be managed through relaxation.
Relaxation on its own is not sufficient. Physical exercise, changes in management styles and changes in ways of thinking or cognitive reconstruction are essential aspects which should be given attention.

2.3.3 SYNTHESIS

Stress is generally viewed as a harmful and dangerous phenomenon. Further incorrect assumptions include that stress should be avoided at all costs, that stress is only experienced by certain groups of people and that stress management is severely limited.

Contrary to popular belief, stress is a necessary part of life. It serves as a motivating force and leads to heightened functioning, if not experienced in excess. Stress is experienced by all people in all walks of life and can be caused by any number of situations, depending on whether the individual perceives the situation as threatening or harmful. Stress management techniques are also numerous and varied and are enjoying ever increasing attention.

2.4 THE COURSE OF STRESS

2.4.1 FIGHT-OR-FLIGHT

Stress is difficult to define and even more difficult to quantify. It is believed that stress results from environmental situations that require behavioural adjustment - ranging from petty daily annoyances to such events as significant illness, death of a spouse and divorce. The behavioural adjustments necessitated by stress are, in turn, related to specific

physiological changes including increased blood pressure and heart rate, sweating, faster breathing and markedly increased blood flow to the muscles. The changes frequently occur in an integrated, coordinated pattern called the "fight-or-flight response" (Benson & Allen *in* French et al, 1985 : 652). First described by Cannon (*in* French et al, 1985: 652), of the Harvard Medical School, this response has had great evolutionary significance. When used appropriately it enables an animal to escape a threatening or dangerous situation by fighting or running. Many scientists contend that the long-term survival of human beings was made possible because of this response. In our everyday lives, the elicitation of the fight-or-flight response is often associated with increased performance. Before an athletic event, competitors involuntarily elicit this response. Before an examination, students exhibit increased heart rate and blood pressure. Similarly, in today's business environment, the stimulus of the fight-or-flight response is often essential to success.

The same response, however, can also have undesirable effects. If the response is elicited frequently in a person who cannot fight or run - that is, cope in some appropriate way - the resulting stress is believed to be an underlying cause of high blood pressure, heart attacks and strokes. According to Benson and Allan (*in* French et al, 1985 : 652), high blood pressure affects about 60 million Americans. Related diseases of the heart and brain account for about 50% of the deaths each year in the United States, and during 1979 they cost society an estimated \$35.1 billion.

2.4.2 GENERAL ADAPTATION SYNDROME (GAS)

Dr. Hans Selye first conceptualised the General Adaptation Syndrome into three phases (French et al, 1985 : 651; Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 5):

1. The alarm stage is the body's response to a threat from the environment. The alarm is sounded and almost every major organ in the body responds to make ready for "fight-or-flight". In many cases this is short-lived, for instance, when you are startled by a stranger at

night. The initial shock phase of lowered resistance is followed by countershock during which the individual's defence mechanisms become active.

2. The resistance stage is when the stressor is more long-lived and is dealt with physiologically or mentally. The person adapts to the stressor and the symptoms usually disappear. This is the stage of maximum adaptation and, hopefully, successful return to equilibrium for the individual. If, however, the stressor continues or defence does not work, he/she will move on to the next stage.
3. The exhaustion stage is when physical and psychological resources are overcome. Prolonged exposure to stressors may eventually overcome the adaptive energy and the system becomes exhausted. The alarm stage symptoms reappear and result in many other physical manifestations such as fatigue, disease, disability and even death. It is in the exhaustion stage that the adverse consequences of stress become apparent in terms of productivity and physical and mental wellbeing. The adaptive mechanisms collapse.

This General Adaptation Syndrome provides a general model of responses to stress but it does not explain individual differences. The effects of environmental stressors are mediated by individual characteristics. Some people tolerate stressful conditions better than others and are more effective in coping with stressors.

2.4.3 THE MANAGEMENT STRESS CYCLE

In their description of the management stress cycle Gmelch and Thomas (1989 : 13), review the various approaches and most important characteristics of different models. The management stress cycle provides a broader perspective as well as a better explanation of the stress cycle from the viewpoint of the school principal's management task. The cycle can be

used to predict and understand stress as well as to apply stress management principles.

The cycle consists of four primary components with secondary filters which serve as interacting links between each component or phase. The phases are in a specific consecutive order so that the variables in the first phase are hypothetically the direct cause of the variables in the second phase. The objective stressors in the organisatory environment can influence the perception of stress in the following phase.

The function of the filters, include amongst others, the ability to ease and limit the influence of the variable in one phase on the variables of the next phase. The filters therefore control the influence and interaction between the different phases (Esterhuysen, 1993 : 17).

A discussion of each phase follows below:

1. Stressors.

The stress cycle begins with stressors from both the external and internal work environment. McGrath (*in* Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 13) uses six categories to classify stressors in the career field. These categories include task-oriented stress, role-based stress, stress originating from the field of behaviour, stress originating from the psychological environment and stress originating from the personality system. Gmelch and Swent highlighted the following four factors in school principals: task-based stress, role-based stress, conflict management stress and community stress (Gmelch & Thomas, 1989: 13).

It is impossible to compile a complete list of career stressors as each career has its own multi-dimensional characteristics and stress. The school principal does not only experience internal job stress, he/she also experiences stress from other spheres, e.g. external stressors

such as the family, the community and his/her physical environment.

2. Perception of stress.

The stressor is gauged by determining whether the demand made contains a danger, a threat or a challenge. School principals, for example, who experience a high level of stress, would rather see the stressor as a threat than a challenge (Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 14).

The perception of stress varies from person to person.

3. Reaction to the stressor.

This phase occurs when the stressor is seen as disadvantageous, a threat or a challenge. The physiological and psychological reaction of the body is not the end product of the stress cycle, but rather a method of processing the stressor before any physical damage is inflicted.

Gmelch and Thomas (1989 : 14) describe this warning as a psychological and non-specific signal to all the organs of the body, which initiates the biological chain reaction between the organs. The brain organises the body to resist the stressor by stimulating the hypothalamus gland which increases blood circulation and relaxes the intestines. The discharge of adrenalin monitors the liver, pancreas, spleen and large blood vessels while the thyroid gland increases the production of energy.

This reaction, known as the orientation reaction (Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 15), can result in reactions such as the enlargement of pupils, heart rate, dry mouth, sweaty palms, muscular spasms, improved hearing and a change in breathing. These and other psychological changes prepare people for action and are a natural bodily reaction to manage stress.

Cannon (*in* Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 15) describes this reaction as the "fight-or-flight reaction" as indicated in 2.4.1. While the body tries to absorb more information regarding the stressor, cholesterol, blood pressure and glandular secretion can increase.

The psychological and behavioural reactions differ from the physiological reactions in that they are not usually predictable. The psychological reactions of stress can be divided into four groups of stress management, namely, collecting information, direct action, inhibition of action and internal psychological reactions. The management of processing of personal stressors and organisational stressors can never depend upon one management category; it depends upon a variety of reactions and strategies. Gmelch and Thomas (1989 : 25) identified seven categories according to which stress is managed, namely: social, physical, intellectual, relaxation, personal, management and attitude.

4. Consequences of the reactions.

This phase varies greatly from the reactions, as it takes into account the long-term effect and intensity of the stress. When demands are not overcome successfully, the stress can result in serious physical illnesses. The physical symptoms of these illnesses can be clearly connected to stress. The person is however often unaware of the connection between stressors and illnesses experienced. Manifestation is usually experienced and observed in the body's weakest link. Therefore the same degree of stress can cause different symptoms in different people, as each person's physical and psychological condition differs. In view of the above certain principals will be able to resist the demands made for a longer period of time because their natural stress management ability is better developed, while other principals will become exhausted more quickly (Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 16).

5. The secondary filters of the stress cycle.

Each phase of the stress cycle is moderated by a filter which ensures equilibrium between the phases. Gmelch and Thomas (1989 : 16) compare the filter to spectacles through which the person observes nature. Through these spectacles everything looks better and softer but aspects that are dangerous are clearly pointed out.

The filter originates from two aspects, namely the individual's characteristics and demographic heredity such as cultural background and personal experience. The school principal's perception of the demands made upon him/her are therefore influenced by personal characteristics, values, attitudes and beliefs as well as gender, age and hereditary factors (Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 16).

2.4.4 SYNTHESIS

It has been postulated by various researchers that the course of stress can be explained in terms of a specific sequence of events. The final result will depend on the individual's reactions to these events.

Hans Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) consists of three phases:

1. The alarm stage ("fight-or-flight").
2. The resistance stage (adaptation and equilibrium).
3. The exhaustion stage (collapse).

This model does not, however, make allowance for individual differences. Gmelch and Thomas's Management Stress Cycle provides an integrated and more comprehensive perspective. It consists of four phases:

1. Stressors (external and internal).
2. Perception of stress (positive or negative).
3. Reaction to the stressor ("fight -or-flight").

4. Consequences of the reaction (adaptation or exhaustion).

The secondary filters (spectacles) ensure equilibrium between the phases. Individuals react differently to each stage and their unique management and coping styles will determine whether or not stress becomes problematic.

2.5 SYMPTOMS OF STRESS

There is a general misconception that illness starts when the symptoms first appear, but in most illnesses the more observable symptoms are preceded by less recognisable and less disabling symptoms which go unnoticed by the unaware. The more observable symptoms become our triggers for action because we are taught to act on health matters only when we hurt or when organs no longer function properly. What preceded pain or dysfunction is physical arousal which may persist undetected for months, even years (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 19).

Job stress is of rapidly growing concern to organisational researchers and managers because of its cost to both the individual and the organisation alike. Together with this concern is the tendency for many, and in some cases almost all, traditional organisational phenomena to be identified as stressors. Job satisfaction level of performance are being viewed as symptoms or outcomes of stress. Nevertheless, not all aspects of organisations are stressors, although they have the potential to be so, nor are satisfaction and performance the only stress symptoms which should be of concern to researchers and practitioners (Sethi & Schuler, 1984: 35).

According to Marshall & Cooper (1979 : 11), several writers have identified symptoms of managerial stress which can be recognised in behaviour at work. Consistently mentioned are:

1. Difficulty in thinking rationally and seeing all the problems.
2. Rigidity of views, prejudice.
3. Out-of-place aggression and irritability.
4. Withdrawal from relationships.

5. Excessive smoking.
6. An inability to relax, resulting in excessive drinking or a need for sleeping pills.

Cooper and Marshall (1977 : 12) state that it is important to consider what stress means for the functioning of the individual concerned - that is, what symptoms does he display and how can he, and we, as friends and researchers, recognise his/her condition? Each individual will have his/her own distinctive repertoire of stress symptoms, just as he/she does his/her behaviours in any type of situation. Manifestations of stress can be looked for at three levels of operation - the psychological, the physical and the behavioural.

Anxiety is one of the first and most important signs that an individual feels unable to cope. Even if he/she tries to hide this symptom, he/she will probably find concentrating and thinking clearly difficult and will tend to focus on short- rather than long-term outcomes. Being preoccupied with his/her problems he/she may become irritable and find that he/she is unable to relax. Minor physical ailments - a headache, an upset stomach or a sleeping problem - are also among the early signs of trouble. If external pressure is persistent, the individual may develop more severe psychologically mediated symptoms - an ulcer, high blood pressure, shingles. Not only early symptoms but also attempts to cope either with the problem itself or its manifestations are signs of stress; behavioural symptoms are usually of this type. The manager may withdraw from those relationships which are proving difficult. He/she may smoke or drink more than usual in an attempt to relieve the tension. He/she may consult his/her doctor and find that he/she needs to take tranquilizers to help him/her through a particularly difficult time. Symptoms at each of these three levels can feed back to become causes of stress in their turn. Worries about his/her inability to concentrate or deteriorations in health will be an added burden to the already stressed manager. Trying to solve problems in one life area (his/her work), he/she may cause further trouble by neglecting the demands of another, usually his/her home life (Cooper & Marshall, 1977 : 12).

In recent stress research on over 2 000 management and professional people in a

single Canadian organisation, 5 basic stress-symptom patterns were developed (Zaleznik et al *in* Sethi & Schuler, 1984 : 234). These patterns were labelled:

1. Emotional distress.
2. Medication use.
3. Cardiovascular symptoms.
4. Gastrointestinal symptoms.
5. Allergy-respiratory symptoms.

Each pattern was composed of a number of symptoms that are typical stress reactions. The emotional distress pattern included symptoms such as insomnia, fatigue, loss of appetite, moodiness and depression. Medication use included the taking of sleeping pills, diet pills, pain relievers, vitamin pills and tranquilizers. The cardiovascular pattern consisted of high blood pressure, rapid heartbeat and heart disease. The gastrointestinal pattern included ulcers, colitis, digestion problems, diarrhoea and nausea. The allergy-respiratory pattern included hayfever, a number of respiratory problems and skin problems such as eczema and psoriasis. Each of these patterns represents typical ways in which people react to stress-producing experiences.

It is not entirely clear why people react to stress in different ways, but factors such as age, sex, culture and education seem to be strongly related to the symptoms an individual is likely to develop. For example, emotional distress seemed to be particularly high among the young, while medication use and cardiovascular symptoms were found to be more common among older individuals. Gastrointestinal problems and allergy-respiratory problems did not seem to be age-related. Women were higher than men in the categories of emotional distress, medication use and allergy-respiratory symptoms, whereas cardiovascular symptoms afflicted men more often than women. Higher levels of education were associated with medication use, gastrointestinal symptoms and allergy-respiratory symptoms, while lower levels of education were associated with emotional distress and cardiovascular disease (Sethi & Schuler, 1984 : 234).

2.5.1 SYNTHESIS

Symptoms of stress can be manifested physiologically, psychologically or behaviourally. These manifestations are unique for each individual. It is of the utmost importance to be aware of these symptoms as early detection will aid in their effective management. The longer these symptoms are left undetected the more severe they become and they may, in turn, evolve into causes of further stress. Any changes in behaviour or mood, substance abuse or use of medication are warning signs which should not be ignored, no matter how trivial they might seem.

2.6 EFFECTS OF AND REACTIONS TO STRESS

2.6.1 PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS

The physiological consequences of stress are readily measurable, i.e. increased heart rate, blood pressure, adrenalin levels, respiratory rate, blood glucose, serum cholesterol levels, perspiration and blood flow to muscles (French et al, 1985 : 651; Cooper & Marshall, 1977 : 13; Sethi & Schuler, 1984: 217; Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 11; Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 15).

2.6.2 EFFECTS ON HEALTH

Stress can be detrimental to one's health. Chronic stress can have the following effects on the human body: excessive urination, gastrointestinal disturbances, headaches, coronary heart diseases, giddiness, digestion problems, ulcers, insomnia, skin disorders, nail-biting, asthma and lack of sexual energy (Du Plooy, 1991 : 40; Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 13; Sethi & Schuler, 1984 : 234; Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 2; Gowler & Legge, 1975: 154).

2.6.3 EMOTIONAL EFFECTS

Strong personal emotions evoked by stress are anxiety, nervousness, tension, irritability, moodiness, depression, boredom, repression of emotions, frustration, poor self-concept, negligence, restlessness, fear, anger, guilt and shame (Esterhuysen, 1993 : 23; Du Plooy, 1991 : 41; Sethi & Schuler, 1984: 234).

2.6.4 BEHAVIOURAL EFFECTS

Behavioural effects are external and observable signs that a person is experiencing stress. According to Humphrey and Humphrey (*in* Du Plooy, 1991: 41), the visible behaviour of a person experiencing stress is the most commonly presented form of stress. Examples are: emotional outbursts and instability, overeating or lack of appetite, excessive use of alcohol or smoking, impulsive behaviour, aggressive behaviour, irresponsibility, impatience and the abuse of medication (Du Plooy, 1991 : 41; Gmelch & Thomas, 1989 : 2; Cooper & Marshall, 1977 : 12; Marshall & Cooper, 1979: 11; Gowler & Legge, 1975 : 154).

2.6.5 COGNITIVE EFFECTS

Cognitive reactions are manifested when an individual who is usually neat and disciplined suddenly becomes undisciplined and untidy (Sutherland & Cooper, 1990 : 14). The effect of stress on the intellectual ability of a person is revealed in the following attitudes: hyperactivity, hypersensitivity, lack of concentration, poor self image, decline in spontaneity and creativity, lack of self confidence, forgetfulness, self-blame, indecision, forgetfulness and poor judgement (Du Plooy, 1991 : 42; Beard *in* Esterhuysen, 1993 : 22).

2.6.6 ORGANISATORY EFFECTS

Poor interpersonal relationships, work dissatisfaction, lack of motivation,

decline in productivity, increased absenteeism, diminished involvement, poor time management, negative attitudes, postponement of tasks and defensive behaviour are examples of the influence of stress on a person's relationships with others and his/her attitude towards his/her work (Du Plooy, 1991 : 42; Ferreira, 1991 : 35; Steinberg, 1993 : 33).

2.6.7 SOCIAL EFFECTS

Social consequences of stress include a decline in work achievement., decline in creativity, decreased effectivity and satisfaction, emotional distancing, feelings of isolation and rejection, suspicion, feelings of failure, scepticism, negative attitudes, sexual problems, divorce and substance abuse (Ferreira, 1991 : 34; Steinberg, 1993 : 32).

2.6.8 PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS

Stress has an immense psychological influence on the individual. It results in emotional exhaustion which can even bring about a change in the individual's personality. Examples of psychological effects are: frustration, unhappiness, impatience, nervous problems, tearfulness, aggression, moodiness and emotional outbursts, emotional exhaustion, psychosomatic symptoms, allergies, irritability and worry, anxiety and panic, depression, feelings of failure, poor self-concept, feeling of powerlessness and helplessness, withdrawal, suicide, burnout, mental illness, variations in eating and sleeping patterns and job alienation (Ferreira, 1991 : 34; Steinberg, 1993 : 31; Sethi & Schuler, 1984: 168; Gowler & Legge, 1975: 21).

2.6.9 SYNTHESIS

Effects of stress and reactions to stress are numerous and varied. Some are easily noticeable whereas others are more covert and subtle. Stress can lead to physiological, psychological, behavioural, emotional, cognitive,

organisatory, social and health problems and if it is not managed successfully it may lead to deterioration in all spheres of life and work.

2.7 SUMMARY

Stress in everyday life and in the work situation is commonplace, inescapable and inevitable. Stress is a response evoked by a stressor and this response can be either positive (eustress), or negative (distress). Stress can be manifested on three levels, namely psychological (moodiness, depression, irritability), physiological (increased heart rate, blood pressure) and behavioural (fluctuations in appetite, substance abuse). The effect of a stressor on an individual will depend greatly on the individuals' perception of the situation. This would explain why some individuals experience a situation as stressful while others do not. Distress will usually arise when the situation is perceived as potentially harmful or threatening.

In this chapter the nature of job stress was discussed. Relevant concepts were defined and clarified, general views and common misconceptions regarding stress were discussed and the course, symptoms and effects of stress were addressed.

In Chapter 3 a closer look will be taken at the various potential stressors encountered by management personnel.

CHAPTER 3 : FACTORS CAUSING JOB STRESS IN MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Signs of stress are widespread among managers and executives today and so are the adverse effects of stress on their wellbeing, effectiveness and health. Tension is evident throughout the ranks of management. Different groups of managers evidence tensions in distinct ways and for characteristic reasons (Moss, 1981 : 1).

Most people think that stress comes in big packages - a major illness, a death in the family, the loss of a job - and tend to ignore the little insults of everyday life (London & Spielberger, 1983 : 58). The research of London and Spielberger, and others, has begun to show that the little problems do add up, taking more of a toll on health and wellbeing than the rare major crises.

No matter what form of stress a person suffers from, he/she will be better able to manage that stress in a constructive way if he/she has an understanding of the things that cause his/her stress levels to be excessive (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 29).

There is a fair degree of agreement on the variables that act as organisational stressors. Marshall and Cooper (1979 : 28) identify intrinsic job factors (e.g. poor working conditions and overload), role in organisations (e.g. role conflict and role ambiguity), poor relationships at work, career development (e.g. lack of promotion policies and job security), and organisational culture (e.g. politics in organisations and lack of participation in decision-making) as organisational stressors. Matteson and Ivancevich also identify similar job factors as job stressors (Dua, 1994 : 60).

Not only do various stimuli at work act as stressors, but various things that happen to people outside their work environment may also contribute to their work stress. These extra-organisational stressors include factors such as family problems, personal problems and social problems. Job-related stressors and extra-organisational stressors cause stress, which, in turn, cause strains (Dua, 1994 :

60).

The aim of this chapter is to provide important information and insight from the relevant literature about potential sources of inefficiency and strain for management personnel.

3.2 FACTORS INTRINSIC TO THE JOB

Stress can be caused by too much or too little work, time pressures and deadlines, having to make too many decisions, fatigue from the physical strains from the work environment, excessive travel, long hours, having to cope with changes at work and the expenses (monetary and career) of making mistakes (Kearns *in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 27). It can be seen that every job description includes factors which for some individuals at some times will be sources of pressure.

3.2.1 WORKING CONDITIONS

A great deal of research has been done linking the working conditions of a particular job to physical and mental health. Kornhauser (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 :28) found for example that poor mental health was directly related to unpleasant working conditions, the necessity to work fast and to expend a lot of physical effort, and to excessive and inconvenient hours.

3.2.2 OVERLOAD

French and Caplan (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 28) differentiated overload in terms of quantitative and qualitative overload. Quantitative overload exists when you simply have too much work to do within a limited time. While you are technically capable of completing all of the work, the time restriction is what causes the stress reaction. Qualitative overload exists when you suffer a stress reaction due to the fact that the work you must complete exceeds your technical or intellectual capabilities at that time (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 32). Miller (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 29)

theorise that overload in most systems leads to breakdown, whether we are dealing with single biological cells or individuals in organisations.

3.2.3 TIME URGENCY

Our society's race against the clock has been proven to be a major source of stress. Virtually every organisation imaginable exerts some form of time pressure over its employees. It may be in the form of deadlines for work projects, deadlines for reports, etc. In some cases deadlines will motivate a person to achieve high levels of performance. However, when the time urgency causes mistakes or contributes to ill health, it becomes destructive; this condition has been referred to as the "hurry sickness" (Everly & Girdano, 1980: 33).

3.2.4 DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making is a source of stress that pervades all aspects of life in general, yet it has special applicability to the world of work. According to Everly and Girdano (1990 : 35), the stressfulness of any decision-making process will be determined largely by the following factors:

1. The relative importance of the consequences of the decision.
2. The complexity of the decision.
3. Sufficiency of the information available.
4. The locus of the responsibility for the decision.
5. The amount of time allotted for the decision-making process.
6. The expectation of success.

3.2.5 SYNTHESIS

Unfavourable working conditions, qualitative and quantitative overload and lack of time may all give rise to stress. Important and complex decisions also place pressure on the individual. These pressures are inherent to most jobs and therefore the individual must be aware of his/her abilities and have

confidence in his/her capabilities in performing the tasks required of him/her under prevailing circumstances and conditions. Possessing the qualities mentioned above, will enable the individual to minimise the levels of stress experienced at work.

3.3 ROLE IN THE ORGANISATION

A major source of job stress is associated with a person's role at work. A great deal of research in this area has concentrated on role ambiguity and role conflict (Kahn et al *in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 30).

3.3.1 ROLE AMBIGUITY

Role ambiguity exists when an individual has inadequate information about his/her work role, that is where there is lack of clarity about the work objectives associated with the role, about colleagues' expectation of the work role and about the scope and responsibilities of the job. Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 30) found in their study that men who suffered from role ambiguity experienced lower job satisfaction, high job-related tension, greater futility and lower self-confidence.

Role ambiguity may be caused by any of the following factors (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 44):

1. Unclear work objectives (goals).
2. Confusion surrounding responsibility.
3. Unclear working procedures.
4. Confusion as to what others expect of you.
5. Lack of feedback or uncertainty surrounding your job performance.

3.3.2 ROLE CONFLICT

Role conflict exists when an individual in a particular work role is torn by conflicting job demands or doing things he/she really does not want to do or

does not think are part of the job specification. The most frequent manifestation of this is when a person is caught between two groups of people who demand different kinds of behaviour or expect that the job should entail different functions. Kahn et al (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 31) found that men who suffered more role conflict had lower job satisfaction and higher job-related tension. It is interesting to note that they also found that the greater the power or authority of the people sending the conflicting messages, the more role conflict produced job dissatisfaction. The organisational role which is at a boundary - i.e. between departments or between the institution and the outside world - is by definition one of high role conflict. Kahn et al cite such a position as being potentially very stressful.

Role conflict is most commonly found among middle managers who find themselves caught between the top level management and lower level management. Research has clearly demonstrated the middle management position to be the most stressful of the three management levels. Role conflict may also be caused by work roles that conflict with personal, familial or immediate societal values (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 44).

3.3.3 RESPONSIBILITY

Another important potential stressor associated with one's organisational role is responsibility. One can differentiate here between "responsibility for people" and "responsibility for things" (equipment, budgets, etc.). Wardwell, Hyman and Bahnson (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 32) found that responsibility for people was significantly more likely to lead to coronary heart disease than responsibility for things. Increased responsibility for people frequently means that one has to spend more time interacting with others, attending meetings, working alone and in trying to meet deadline pressure and schedules.

3.3.4 OTHER FACTORS

Having too little responsibility, inactivity and boredom at work, lack of participation in decision-making, lack of managerial support, having to keep up with increasing standards of performance and coping with rapid technological change, lack of career development guidance and overspecialisation are other potential role stresses mentioned repeatedly in literature (Marshall & Cooper, 1979; Everly & Girdano, 1980). Kay (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 33), suggests that, independent of the particular characteristics of the employing organisation, some pressures are to be found more at middle than at other management levels. He depicts today's middle manager (principals, deputy principals and heads of department) as being particularly hard pressed:

1. By pay compression, as the salaries of new recruits increase.
2. By job insecurity - they are particularly vulnerable to redundancy or forced, premature retirement.
3. By having little real authority at their high levels of responsibility.
4. By feeling "boxed in".

3.3.5 SYNTHESIS

An individual's role at work could become extremely stressful if there is a lack of clarity with regard to his/her role or if the demands made upon them at work are conflicting. Too much or too little responsibility at work is another source of job stress. Not being well informed can lead to confusion and it is this confusion that is a major source of job stress. To avoid problems and complications, employees should be enlightened with regard to their function and role at work.

3.4 RELATIONSHIPS AT WORK

Another major source of stress at work has to do with the nature of relationships with one's boss, subordinates and colleagues. French and Caplan (*in* Marshall &

Cooper, 1979 : 34) define poor relations as "those which include low trust, low supportiveness and low interest in listening to and trying to deal with problems that confront the organisational member."

3.4.1 RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERIOR

In a study on the attitude and relationship of workers and managers to their immediate boss, Buck (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 34), found that those who felt that their boss was low on consideration reported feeling more job pressure. Buck concludes that the "lack of considerate behaviour of supervisors appears to have contributed significantly to feelings of job pressure."

3.4.2 RELATIONSHIPS WITH SUBORDINATES

Officially one of the most critical functions of a manager is his/her supervision of other people's work. It has long been accepted that an inability to delegate might be a problem but now a new strain is being put on the manager's interpersonal skills - he/she must learn to govern by participation.

3.4.3 RELATIONSHIPS WITH COLLEAGUES

Stress can be caused not only by the pressure of relationships but also by the opposite - a lack of adequate social support in difficult situations (Lazarus *in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 35). At highly competitive managerial levels it is likely that problem-sharing will be inhibited for fear of appearing weak and the isolated life of the top executive is an added source of strain.

3.4.4 SYNTHESIS

Relationships at work are a complex and sensitive issue. Depending on the

individual's position, he/she will be involved in an intricate web of relationships with peers, superiors and subordinates. An optimal level of professionalism must be maintained at all times to ensure that conflict and grievances are kept to a minimum. Isolation in the working environment may also be a cause of stress. Although individuals can function on their own, at some time or another interpersonal contact is inevitable and necessary. People in the organisation are the most important resources - use them properly.

3.5 CAREER DEVELOPMENT

An approach to the study of work stress would be to examine the stress points and issues throughout the duration of the career cycle. Seven sources of stress will be discussed. These seven sources of stress are not the only ones experienced by those in careers, though they provide a framework within which to think. It is noteworthy that in each of these issues, individual differences play an important part (Quick et al, 1990: 13).

3.5.1 INITIAL CAREER DECISION

The initial career decision provides the basis for an individual's first major life transition and can therefore be stressful. Many of the foundations for the decision may be laid down in childhood based upon family stories, models and aspiration levels. High stress levels at this point will be experienced by individuals who have competing and conflicting interests within themselves. Another source of stress concerns one's degree of reality testing. Fantasies about careers in the early and middle teenage years are an important input to career decisions. They reflect an individual's desires, hopes and aspirations for the future. However, not all fantasies are realistic. The more reality testing a person does the more stress and adaptation he/she will experience (Quick et al, 1990 : 14).

3.5.2 CAREER TRANSITION POINTS

Career transition points are an inevitable feature of later stages in the career. The successful negotiation of these transition points requires adaptation, change and adjustment on many fronts. Engineers, accountants and other professionals experience a key transition as they move into management responsibilities (Quick et al, 1990 : 14).

Promotion is another source of adaptive stress. The stressfulness of being promoted is considered by most as a small price to pay for the rewards of the promotion. Consider the impact of the following factors which generally accompany a promotion, in addition to the obvious rewards:

1. Significant changes in job function.
2. Increased responsibility for people, production and finances.
3. Changes in social role.

Inherent in each of these factors is a considerable amount of adaptation for most individuals (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 51).

3.5.3 CHANGES IN OCCUPATIONS

Changes in occupations occur just as changes within individuals do. For individuals who are in an occupation for an extended period of time, this becomes an important issue. The occupational and professional forces driving these changes place demands on the individual to adapt and change, either effectively or ineffectively (Quick et al, 1990 : 15).

Change is stressful because it disrupts the psychological and physiological rhythms that accompany all human behaviour. The most vital fact to grasp is that change is a disruption, requiring you to expand psychological and physiological energies in order for you to adapt to a new situation. This is true regardless of whether the change is good or bad. Selye (*in* Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 50) summarises this issue by stating that the expenditure of

"adaptive energy", in an attempt to adjust, is what makes change stressful. Change becomes harmful at the point where you deplete your adaptive energy. The end result is psychological or physiological breakdown - illness.

3.5.4 OBSOLESCENCE OF SKILLS AND/OR KNOWLEDGE

Many professions afford their members postgraduate continuing education and educational opportunities to improve the effectiveness of the individual's adaptation over time. Few occupations are so routine that they do not grow and change. The mechanisms for accommodation need not be formal training or education. Informal learning activities may be equally effective in managing the stress of obsolescence (Scott *in* Quick et al, 1990 : 15).

3.5.5 UNCERTAINTY AND RISK

For many managers their career progression is of overriding importance - by promotion they earn not only money but enhanced status and the new job challenges for which they strive. Typically in the early years at work, the striving and the aptitude to come to terms quickly with a rapidly changing environment is fostered and suitably rewarded by the institution. Career progression is a problem in itself. Sofer (*in* Quick et al, 1990 : 36) found that many people believed that "luck" and "being in the right place at the right time" play a major role. At middle age, and usually middle-management levels, career becomes more problematic and most executives find their progress slowed, if not actually stopped. Job opportunities become fewer, those jobs that are available take longer to master, past decisions cannot be revoked and there is the press of fresh young recruits to face in competition. Levinson and Constands (*in* Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 37) refer to this phase as "the male menopause" and depict the manager as suffering these fears and disappointments in silent isolation from his family and work colleagues.

3.5.6 CAREER-LIFE FIT

The career is one of several arenas in which the individual operates through the adulthood years. Family roles as spouse and parent, personal leisure time preferences and community involvement are other arenas which compete for time and attention. Work commitments may set up competitive time schedules with one's family and home life. The stress becomes one of making trade-offs and achieving integration among various demands. Defining a comfortable balance between one's career role, one's family role and one's role in the community may require difficult choices. Considerable stress can be generated if an individual becomes overcommitted in one or more spheres or if there is incongruity between a person's own sense of commitment and the expectations of others (Quick et al, 1990 : 18).

3.5.7 RETIREMENT

Retirement may either be a release or a major stressor. The key issue for those moving into retirement is time structuring. The individual must assume much greater responsibility for structuring his/her time in retirement (Quick et al, 1990 : 19).

It is not hard to understand why retirement is stressful for many employees. An employee may have spent most of his/her adult life working. For many workers, the association between self-esteem and job is so great, that they tend to replace their identity in terms of broad personal characteristics with job-related characteristics and roles. Thus when workers retire, the results are typically among the following (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 54):

1. Depression.
2. A sense of worthlessness and loss of self-esteem.
3. Decreased appetite.
4. Loss of motivation in general.
5. Increased cardiovascular complaints.
6. Decreased sexual drive.

Other factors which increase the stressfulness of retirement are:

1. A great number of years at the same job.
2. Lack of interests outside the job, e.g. family, hobbies, social involvement.
3. A high affiliation held with the job.
4. Lack of preparation for retirement, e.g. retirement counselling or informal mental preparation.
5. Lack of alternate sources of income.
6. Lack of alternate sources of ego gratification (self-esteem).
7. Knowing others who have retired and encountered difficulties adjusting.

3.5.8 SYNTHESIS

There are certain stages throughout the individual's career life cycle which are more stressful than others. These stages are usually characterised by change and uncertainty. To attain fulfilment in any profession, the individual must be prepared to adapt to the changes and to use the accompanying uncertainty to his/her advantage, by facing the challenges that are encountered. In this way progress will be accomplished and stress minimised.

3.6 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE AND CLIMATE

Another potential source of stress is simply being in the organisation and the threat this poses to an individual's freedom, autonomy and identity. Factors such as little or no participation in the decision-making process, no sense of belonging, lack of effective consultation and communication and restrictions on behaviour, are probable sources of stress (Marshall & Cooper, 1979 : 37).

The term "organisational communication" refers to the patterns and networks along which communications flow through an organisation. Stifled organisational communication has been found to be the single most prevalent source of frustration

in organisations today (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 47). Efficient organisational communication is perceived as so important that specialties in organisational communication are being introduced. Efficient communication can be a powerful source for stress reduction and increased performance on the job.

3.6.1 SYNTHESIS

The individual's degree of involvement at work is important for his/her self-esteem. Feeling that he/she performs a necessary and vital role in the organisation and that he/she is making a positive contribution will be an incentive to strive for even better results and performance. In order to allay stress, efficient organisational communication is essential and imperative in minimising discord and preventing the resulting plights and predicaments.

3.7 STRESSFUL PERSONALITY TRAITS

There is substantial research evidence to suggest that different personality types both respond and deal with stressors differently (Friedman & Rosenman *in* French et al, 1985 : 652). People with Type-A behaviour patterns tend to be competitive, hard driving, aggressive, hyperalert, impatient with people and situations that hinder accomplishments, achievement-oriented and continually under time pressure. They often react to stressors with hostility and anger. Type-A people also seem to be the major sufferers from the prolonged effects of stress - heart disease, alcoholism, etc.(Scott, 1998 : 11).

Type-B behaviour individuals tend to respond differently to stress; they have better coping mechanisms. It should be emphasised that Type-B individuals still may be highly motivated and goal-oriented. They are not all necessarily lazy or lacking in ambition. They may be just as desirous of success and accomplishments as Type-A individuals. The difference is that they seek satisfaction of these needs and behave in ways that do not create the adverse physical and mental consequences that affect the Type-A person. The Type-B person seems to have natural or learned immunities to the impact of stressors (French et al, 1985 : 653). These

individuals show low stress levels as they are able to relax more easily and seldom let external factors influence their emotional state (Scott, 1998 : 11).

The Type-A personality is sometimes referred to as "the coronary-prone personality" because of its high correlation to premature heart disease. This personality constellation was originally discovered by two cardiologists. During the course of treating their patients, cardiologists Myer Friedman and Ray Rosenman began to recognise a similar, recurrent pattern of personality in their patients who suffered from premature coronary heart disease. The Type-A person is not only harmful to himself/herself but harmful to the institution as well. Type-A's can cause direct costs such as medical payments and lost time and productivity. More insidiously, however, the Type-A worker often causes stress for those other non-Type-A workers with whom he/she comes into contact (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 57).

3.7.1 SYNTHESIS

Type-A individuals behave in ways that are more likely to initiate stress. Type-B individuals cope better with stress as they are able to relax more easily and exhibit less physical ailments arising from stress.

3.8 DIETARY CONTRIBUTORS TO STRESS

An often overlooked aspect of the environment which possesses significant potential to increase a person's stress level is his/her diet. Research has clearly demonstrated that certain dietary habits can actually increase the amount of stress in a person's life by:

1. Chemically triggering the discharge of the stress response in the body.
2. Making a person more anxious and irritable so that he/she is more likely to become stressed by things in his/her environment that normally wouldn't upset him/her (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 60).

3.8.1 STIMULANTS

Coffee, tea, cola beverages and chocolate all contain caffeine, a chemical which belongs to the xanthine group. Xanthines are powerful, amphetamine-like stimulants. The consumption of caffeine leads to an arousal of the body's sympathetic nervous system, which triggers "speed-like" effects characterised by increased heart action, increased blood pressure, anxiousness and most of the other responses that are known to be components of the stress response. Nicotine found in tobacco is also a powerful stimulant. However, exact quantities required to initiate a stress response are highly variable (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 60).

3.8.2 VITAMIN DEFICIENCY

Vitamin deficiency is another factor that has been implicated in increasing stress levels. Vitamins of the B complex are necessary to maintain the integrity of the central nervous system and thus to help keep a person calm and relaxed. When a person's body depletes its supply of B vitamins, the person begins to get fatigued and irritable and may have numerous anxiety spells (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 61).

3.8.3 SALT

Excessive consumption of salt leads to increased blood pressure and has even been implicated in anxiety and irritability. The basic mechanism through which these things are brought on is through water retention. Sodium increases the body's tendency to retain and store fluids. When the body retains excessive fluid, two things generally occur. First, blood pressure is increased and second a condition of hyperexcitability of nerve cells may occur. The second condition leads to increased anxiety and nervousness (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 62).

3.8.4 SYNTHESIS

Excessive consumption of salt and chemical stimulants containing caffeine, as well as vitamin B deficiencies may all lead to stress reactions. Fatigue, irritability, anxiousness, increased blood pressure and heart rate may all be caused by imbalances and discrepancies in the individual's diet.

3.9 PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT FOR WORK

Noise, lighting, temperature and physical posture facilitate the discharge of the stress response (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 63).

3.9.1 NOISE

Noise as a source of stress represents a rather unique variable. It can prove stressful because of its psychological characteristics, i.e. by being unwanted or distracting. It can also prove stressful simply because of its physical characteristics, i.e. volume or frequency. Therefore, noise as a stressor has a psychological as well as a strong physiological component to mediate its overall effects on human behaviour.

Reviews by Kryter, Glass and Singer (*in* Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 64) suggest that chronic, unprotected exposure to noise in excess of 90 dB and 20 000 Hz, can result in many of the following responses:

Physiological.

1. Increased heart rate.
2. Increased blood pressure.
3. Degenerative hearing processes.
4. Decreased white blood cell presence.
5. Increased adrenal medullary function.
6. Increased adrenal cortical function.
7. Increased anxiety caused by massive cortical bombardment.

Behavioural.

1. Decreased learning ability.
2. Increased error rate in simple production tasks.
3. Increased frustration.
4. Decreased tendency and ability to communicate.
5. Decreased ability to concentrate.
6. Decreased vigilance.
7. Decreased ability to gather information.
8. Decreased ability to perform analytical functions.
9. Decreased short-term memory.
10. Increased accident rates.

3.9.2 LIGHTING

Lighting within one's occupational environment is another potential source of stress. Either too little light or too much light can create a stress response (Hopkinson & Collins *in* Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 66). When lighting is poor, the eyes must strain to accomplish the working tasks. The most common form of stress from eye strain is muscle tension headaches caused by the muscular adjustments needed to maintain the proper visual acuity. The most common characteristic of too much light is glare. It results in excessive retinal stimulation which can be highly frustrating. Glare also appears to cut down on the length of time that a worker can spend at a given task without developing headaches.

3.9.3 TEMPERATURE

Excessive temperatures appear to erode productivity on tasks that consist of complex reasoning or finite detail and concentration. High humidity can significantly increase the stress from heat. Although most of the stress caused by temperature is heat related, cold can also affect performance. As the work environment gets colder, blood flows out of a person's hands and feet which leads to the loss of fine motor control and manual performance is

hindered (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 68).

3.9.4 PHYSICAL POSTURE

Muscle tension in the head, neck and shoulders is the most prevalent example of what can happen if a person labours over piles of paper every day. Leg cramps and even some lower back problems can result from chronic sitting. In addition to these specific problems, the physically stagnant worker must consider the effects of this working condition upon the cardiovascular system. Before too long, exercise programs become a necessity for a healthy mind and body (Everly & Girdano, 1980 : 68).

3.9.5 SYNTHESIS

Ergonomics is the study of efficiency of persons in their working environment. Unfavourable physical conditions in the working environment can give rise to deterioration of work performance and in extreme cases can hamper the individual to such an extent that he/she is unable to cope with even the most menial tasks. A noisy environment, ineffective lighting, excessive temperatures and incorrect physical posture are four of the main antecedents of job stress.

3.10 THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

Several authors are of the opinion that the main problems in South Africa's Education System are undoubtedly related to the troubled past, and particularly to the policy of apartheid and its consequences (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1997 : 15).

3.10.1 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Prior to 1994, the South African Education System consisted of separate education departments for each population group. The

newly elected government on central and provincial level were confronted with the hard reality of 11 education administrations, 19 departments of education and 15 ministers of education. The previous departments were responsible for 27 500 different educational institutions and 11 million learners. The previous system also consisted of all the elements of statutory segregation on basis of racial population group, ethnic or geographical divisions. Functioning on a system of mixed educational control, the previous system of education was characterised by a variety of types of management structures and educational resources. It was the task of the new government to transform this variety, according to the provisions of the Constitution, into a single non-racial education system to provide for the educational needs of a differentiated community with high expectations (Steyn, Steyn & de Waal, 1997 : 24).

South Africa was divided into 9 provinces after the general elections in 1994. The administration of education became the responsibility of each province. The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum 2005 would be implemented in 1998.

3.10.2 THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK (NQF)

The NQF is a new approach to the organisation of education and training in South Africa. It provides opportunities to learn regardless of age, circumstances and the level of education and training a learner may have. The NQF consists of three bands with different levels in each band. The structure of the NQF is given in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1 - THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK

NQF LEVEL	TYPES OF QUALIFICATIONS AND CERTIFICATES
HIGHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING BAND	
8	Doctorates, further research degrees.
7	Higher degrees, professional qualifications.
6	First degrees, higher diplomas.
5	Diplomas, occupational certificates.
FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING BAND	
4	School / college / training certificates. Grade 12.
3	School / college / training certificates. Grade 11.
2	School / college / training certificates. Grade 10.
GENERAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING BAND	
1	Senior phase. ABET 4. Grade 7, 8, 9.
	Intermediate phase. ABET 3. Grade 4, 5, 6.
	Foundation phase. ABET 2. Grade 1, 2, 3.
	Preschool. ABET 1.

(Adapted from Steyn et al, 1997 : 70).

3.10.3 CURRICULUM 2005

Curricula represent the different programmes and learning opportunities or teaching programmes that can provide for the education needs of the target group. A drastic new policy for the establishment of new curricula for schools was announced by Dr. Sibusiso Bengu, Minister of Education, on 24 March 1997. The new curriculum is known as Curriculum 2005 and will be implemented over a period of 6 years (Steyn et al, 1997 : 71; 74).

3.10.3.1 The different learning areas.

It was decided that there would be 8 new learning areas in schools, which would be phased in over a period of 12 years. The 8 learning areas are as follows:

- * Communication, literacy and language.
- * Human and social sciences.
- * Natural sciences.
- * Numeracy and mathematics.
- * Technology.
- * Economic and management sciences.
- * Life orientation.
- * Arts and culture.

The new curriculum was introduced in Grade 1 in 1998 and the process will be completed in 2003. The years 2004 and 2005 will see a fundamental review of the new curriculum with a view to improving and refining the achievements of the curriculum goals. In 2004 and 2005 specialised assessments and adjustments will be made. Traditional subjects at school will eventually disappear.

The new approach known as Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) is linked to the NQF. OBE is applied in formal schooling.

3.10.4 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (OBE)

The results expected at the end of each learning process are called outcomes. The new curriculum is based on outcomes which must be achieved by the learner. These outcomes are divided into critical, learning area and specific outcomes (Steyn et al, 1997 : 73).

3.10.4.1 Critical outcomes

Critical outcomes are not linked to a particular theme or course, they are common to all themes and courses. There are 8 critical outcomes, and they were designed by the South African Qualifications Authority and apply to all the learning areas.

Learners should be able to successfully demonstrate their ability to:

- * Communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation.
- * Identify and solve problems by using creative and critical thinking.
- * Organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively.
- * Work effectively with others in a team, group, organisation and community.
- * Collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information.
- * Use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others.
- * Understand that the world is a set of related systems. This means that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation.
- * Show awareness of the importance of effective learning strategies, responsible citizenship, cultural sensitivity, education and career opportunities and entrepreneurial abilities.

3.10.4.2 Learning-area outcomes

A learning-area outcome determines the skills a learner should obtain over a specific time in a specific learning area. The formulation of a learning-area outcome demands that the contents of a specific

learning area be investigated from the point of the learner. Every outcome must indicate the following:

- * Who is to exhibit the performance?
- * What performance is to be exhibited?
- * What conditions, if any, are to be provided for the learner at the time of the assessment?
- * What constitutes a minimally accepted response?

3.10.4.3 Specific outcomes

Specific outcomes are the exact skills and information required in a particular context or situation. Specific outcomes are deducted from the broad learning-area outcomes and are context specific.

3.10.5 A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE OLD AND NEW EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

The most important differences between the old and new educational systems are reflected in Table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2 - COMPARISON BETWEEN THE OLD AND NEW EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

THE OLD SYSTEM	THE NEW SYSTEM
Pupils passively accept what they are taught without questioning it.	Pupils are actively involved in finding and interpreting information for themselves.
Exams are the main method of evaluating pupil's abilities.	Pupils are assessed on an ongoing basis.
Pupils learn by memorising and repetition.	Pupils learn to think critically; to reason, reflect and then act.
Syllabi stick rigidly to their subjects and do not deal with related fields of study.	The emphasis is on integrating the different types of knowledge of relevance to the pupils. It deals with real life.
Subjects are restrained by textbook content, with teachers providing the main source of information.	Teachers act as facilitators for small groups or teams of pupils, with the emphasis on pupils gathering information.
The syllabus is rigid and non-negotiable.	The syllabus is seen as a guide with teachers having to adopt innovative and creative ways of helping their pupils to learn.
Teachers are responsible for ensuring that their pupils learn. Their personalities therefore determine to what extent they motivate their pupils.	Pupils take responsibility for their own learning but are motivated by feedback and praise from teachers.
The emphasis is on what the teacher wants to achieve.	The emphasis is on outcomes - on what the pupils understand.
Subjects have to be learnt within a specific period of time.	Pupils are free to learn at their own pace.
Input from parents and public on what and how pupils are taught is not favoured.	Comments and suggestions from parents and the public are encouraged.

3.10.6 CRITICISM OF THE NEW EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

With change in any form, teething problems are experienced. The new educational system has an idealistic approach and looks good on paper, but implementing the strategies will not be easily accomplished as planning takes time, pupils are too critical and the theoretical base for skills and knowledge is lost. In addition, the lack of a structured syllabus leads to confusion and uncertainty, the large teacher : pupil ratio leads to neglect and problems arise with the pupils' progress when they are left to work at their own pace. Skills and attitudes are difficult to evaluate and objectivity in evaluation is impossible.

3.10.7 SYNTHESIS

As a result of development, South African schools face many challenges. Reconstructing education from what it has been to a system that brings equity to the education of all children is one of the most urgent of those challenges.

Critically important factors influencing the implementation of outcomes-based education are the affordability of study material, re-training of teachers, parent and community involvement and the politicised nature of the South African society. The abovementioned are sensitive issues and must be handled tactfully and diplomatically to avoid friction.

The responsibility for implementing the ongoing changes and reforms in education rests heavily on the shoulders of management personnel. As a result of these adaptations and adjustments, principals, deputy principals and heads of department may experience uncertainty in their management role which in turn leads to an extremely stressful working environment.

3.11 FACTORS CAUSING JOB STRESS IN EDUCATION

3.11.1 INTRODUCTION

Job stress is especially significant for educators since it may affect not only the educators, but their stress may have a negative impact on their pupils as well. As Cecil and Forman (*in* Rigby & Bennett, 1996 : 38) state, "although occupational stress has been identified as a problem in all human professions, in recent years it has become a problem of especially serious proportions among teachers impacting on the future of the profession and the welfare of children".

Job stress among educators has become a matter of increasing concern not only as evidenced from the large body of studies on the subject, but also from the numerous programmes and workshops developed to help educators cope with the problem and reduce job stress (Borg, Riding & Falzon, 1991 : 59). Several surveys have revealed that up to a third of teachers regard teaching as highly stressful (Boyle, Borg, Falzon & Baglioni, 1995 : 50; Borg et al, 1991: 60; Borg & Riding, 1991 : 264).

Exposure to ever increasing social and technological changes during the past two decades has caused the principal to experience more pressure and conflict than ever before (Lam, 1988 : 250). The identification and classification of stressors is important when striving towards a healthy lifestyle in education (Beard, 1990 : 109). Marais (1989 : 6) states that it would be somewhat simplistic and naive to place sources of stress, indicated in research, in order of importance as each research project should be seen within a specific context. The most important sources of stress differ from school to school for the individual educator and personnel.

3.11.2 FACTORS CAUSING JOB STRESS IN SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

To date there have been many studies with regard to sources of stress in school principals and teachers (compare Esterhuysen, 1993; Venter, 1996; Ferreira, 1991; Pienaar, 1991; Engelbrecht, 1996; Griffioen, 1999; Kirsten, 2000), but little attention has been paid to deputy principals and heads of department. The principal is the head of the management team and therefore the deputy principal and heads of department are bound to experience similar problems as they also form part of the management team. Sources of job stress in principals have been divided into various categories. A discussion of the most significant stressors follows.

3.11.2.1 Stressors within the school principal.

The principal's personality plays an extremely important role when he/she experiences stress (Cooper, Sieverding & Muth, 1988 : 201). Some people simply cannot cope in stressful situations whereas others flourish. This phenomenon can be ascribed to specific personality traits (refer to 3.7).

The principal's ability to exercise control is also a possible job stressor. When the principal is of the opinion that he/she is largely responsible for events around him/her and that he/she is in control, very little stress is experienced. When the principal, however, believes that he/she has no control over events and situations and that these events are coincidental, distress can be experienced. This is known as external control over events (Mazur & Lynch, 1988 : 22). Principals who believe in external control, emphasise the importance of luck and fate in their professional careers. These principals are potential victims of job stress (Halpin, Harris & Halpin, 1985 : 138).

The principal himself/herself can be responsible for the creation of stressors (French, 1985 : 45). Job stress is caused by his/her perception and management of events. When he/she judges stressors based on previous experience he/she runs the risk of converting possible stressors into actual stressors. According to Esterhuysen (1993 : 32) the principal's self-concept determines his/her behaviour. It is important, especially with the uncertainties that presently exist in the educational system, for the principal to manage negative matters with a positive attitude.

3.11.2.2 Stressors in the management style.

The principal is expected to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships with everyone. He/she must liaise with pupils, personnel, parents and the community on a daily basis. The natural result of this liaison is positive or negative stress (refer to 3.4).

According to Kirsten (2000 : 46) job satisfaction is dependent on the degree to which the principal is involved in his/her career and the degree to which he/she identifies with his/her work. It is possible for the principal to be involved in his/her work, but nevertheless to experience frustration as a result of poor progress at work.

Discipline of teachers can lead to conflicts in relationships within the school and this increases the principal's level of job stress. Discipline of pupils can be seen as an aid in guiding, providing direction and cultivating positive behaviour. On the other hand, discipline could refer to control, restriction, force and punishment. Negative discipline creates an unpleasant working environment for pupils and personnel which aggravates job stress (Kirsten, 2000 : 64). The misbehaviour of pupils is seen as one of the greatest sources of job stress. When a principal has to apply strict disciplinary measures to control and motivate pupils, it could upset him/her and be seen as a sign of

personal and professional failure.

3.11.2.3 Stressors within the school.

Esterhuysen (1993 : 103) found that time-consuming meetings, numerous and demanding responsibilities, too many people whose demands have to be met, lack of time for personal issues, too much work and too little time, inadequate salary, lack of time to effectively complete important matters, untimely telephone interruptions, inadequate career security and uncertainty in education due to transition to government schools, were the major causes of stress in primary school principals.

In his research regarding the relationship between burnout and stress in secondary school principals, Venter (1996 : 87) found that conflict management and role confusion were the major causes of stress on the job. He believes that the prevalence of negative stress (distress) in South Africa will be augmented by change and the accompanying uncertainty.

According to Kirsten (2000 : 47) the principal's work should be meaningful, interesting and challenging to ensure job satisfaction. Furthermore variety, clarity of goals, autonomy, the amount of authority, decision-making and stability are all factors which play a role in the degree of stress experienced at school (Engelbrecht, 1996: 41).

3.11.2.4 Stressors in the community.

Additional roles to be fulfilled in the family environment can place extraordinary demands on the school principal. When his/her work activities and demands do not fit in with his/her home life, conflict arises between his/her different roles. In such a case he/she has to

adapt or change either his/her career or family environment to eliminate the stress. According to Everly and Girdano (1980 : 51) changing residence as a result of promotion is also an important stressor.

The influence of financial problems on the productivity of the principal is emphasised by researchers (Esterhuysen, 1993 : 44). The continual rise in costs the accompanying inability to survive causes ongoing stress.

The principal serves as a direct link between the school and the community. A community which is uninvolved and makes unrealistic demands on the principal will cause him/her to experience stress. A further negative factor is the attempts he/she has to make to get the approval and support of the community.

3.11.3 SYNTHESIS

As evidenced from existing research, job stress in education is a serious and universal phenomenon. The effects of stress are far reaching and evident throughout education, having a negative impact on everyone involved and ultimately, the entire system. The most important cause of job stress identified by researchers is lack of time to fulfil both professional and private commitments. Other factors causing job stress, although not as significant as the lack of time, but nonetheless still important are role overload and confusion, decision-making and conflict management.

Principals, and therefore management personnel, experience stress not only at work but from other spheres of life as well. The principal himself/herself can be the cause of job stress, his/her management style may make him/her prone to experiencing more stress, factors within the school as well as from the community may also contribute

to stress at work.

3.12 SUMMARY

There are many factors which could give rise to job stress; however, the extent to which the individual will be affected by these stressors depends on his/her ability to deal with the situation.

The most important potential stressors were dealt with in this chapter. Organisational as well extraorganisational stressors were addressed. The following aspects were discussed:

- * Intrinsic job factors (working conditions, overload, time urgency, decision-making).
- * Role in the organisation (role ambiguity, role conflict, responsibility).
- * Relationships at work (with superior, subordinates, colleagues).
- * Career development.
- * Organisational structure and climate.
- * Personality.
- * Diet.
- * Physical work environment.
- * The South African situation.

In Chapter 4 the method of investigation, results and data analysis will be reported.

CHAPTER 4 : EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter an empirical investigation of the perceived severity or intensity and frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools is covered.

The following aspects are addressed:

- * The merits of various survey methods.
- * The applicability of the Job Stress Survey.
- * The compilation of the Job Stress Survey.
- * The study population.
- * Statistical techniques.
- * Data analysis.
- * Interpretation of data.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.2.1 THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

4.2.1.1 Questionnaires : Types and design.

Daniel Yankelovich (*in* Wallace & Wallace, 1989 : 14) states that "a survey is a research method in which a sample of a population is asked to respond to questions". There are two major types of surveys: interviews and questionnaires. An interview is a means of gathering information in which one person asks another questions, either in person or by telephone. A questionnaire is a means of gathering information by having the respondent fill in answers to printed questions.

According to De Beer (1993 : 332), the four most commonly used

methods of data collection involving questionnaires are the personal interview, the telephone interview, the postal questionnaire and the self-administered questionnaire.

De Beer (1993 : 333) stipulates the following advantages and disadvantages of each:

The personal interview.

Advantages of the personal interview are that the respondent is well-motivated through face-to-face contact, a high questionnaire completion rate exists, longer questionnaires can be used, the questionnaire is not dependent on literacy or educational levels and it is possible to control the sequence of questionnaire completion.

Disadvantages of the personal interview are that it is the most expensive method of data collection, interviewers and interviewees become fatigued and certain types of questions can embarrass both parties.

The telephone interview.

The telephone interview shares most of the advantages of the personal interview but it is considerably less expensive.

Disadvantages of the telephone interview are that it cannot be used for national surveys because of low telephone penetration in disadvantaged communities, the design of the questionnaire is limited because of the lack of opportunity for communication as in a face-to-face situation. Another growing disadvantage is the use of telephone answering machines. The current percentage of American households with telephone answering machines is 31% (Langschmidt *in* De Beer, 1993 : 333).

The postal questionnaire.

The postal questionnaire is advantageous due to its relatively low cost and an added benefit is that scale-type and open-ended questions can be used.

The disadvantages of the postal questionnaire are the possibility of a low response rate. Furthermore, questionnaires have to be short, the survey excludes illiterate respondents and questions may be misunderstood.

The self-administered questionnaire.

When used in group sessions the self-administered questionnaire is very effective. Longer questionnaires can be used and respondents are better motivated in group sessions.

Disadvantages of the self-administered questionnaire are the exclusion of illiterate respondents, respondents can look ahead, skip around and compare questions and answers and the advantages of representativeness are limited in group sessions.

Mailed questionnaires have some advantage over interviews (Wallace & Wallace, 1989 : 16), viz.:

- * Saving money and time.
- * Convenience to the respondent, who can reply at will.
- * Greater assurance that the respondent will remain anonymous, that the question is not rephrased by the interviewer, and that the respondent is not biased by the interviewer.
- * Availability of time for the respondent to consult other sources before responding.
- * Ease of access to people who are widely separated

geographically.

De Beer (1993 : 334) recommends the following checklist as a useful tool for drawing up questions:

- * Are the words used simple, direct and familiar to all respondents?
- * Is the question as clear and specific as possible?
- * Are any items double-barred? (Testing two concepts which are mutually exclusive in the same question).
- * Are the questions leading or loaded?
- * Is the question applicable to all respondents?
- * Will the answers be influenced by response styles?
- * Can the item be shortened without loss of meaning?
- * Does the question read well?

4.2.1.2 Choice of measuring instrument.

After a thorough examination of the various survey methods a postal questionnaire was decided upon for the purpose of this study due to its time and cost effectiveness and the wide geographic distribution of the study population.

The Job Stress Survey (JSS) was selected because it was "specifically developed to address the shortcomings that have been noted in the measurement of occupational stress" (Turnage & Spielberger, 1991 : 166; Spielberger & Reheiser, 1994 : 21). It has the further advantage of not only measuring the prevalence, but also the perceived intensity of job stress.

4.2.1.3 The compilation of the questionnaire.

The Job Stress Survey (JSS) was designed to assess the perceived intensity (severity) and frequency of occurrence of working conditions

that are likely to adversely affect the psychological wellbeing of employees who are exposed to them (Spielberger & Reheiser, 1994: 22). The JSS assesses sources of job-related stress for managerial, professional and clerical employees in a variety of occupations. This instrument was adapted from the Police Stress Survey (PSS), which evaluated the intensity and the frequency of occurrence of 60 specific stressors encountered by law enforcement officers, and the Teacher Stress Survey (TSS), which comprised PSS items judged to be applicable to teachers, plus new items more specifically related to teacher stress (Grier *in* Turnage & Spielberger, 1991 : 167). Those PSS and TSS items that described stressors likely to be encountered in a wide range of occupations were subsequently selected for the generic 30-item JSS (Turnage & Spielberger, 1991 : 167).

Each JSS stressor is rated on a scale from 1 to 9 in terms of the amount of job stress associated with the stressor as compared to a standard, which was given a job stress rating of 5. The standard stressor "Assignment of disagreeable duties" was selected on the basis of consistent ratings of this stressor as average in previous research by persons engaged in a variety of occupations. Intensity ratings greater than, or less than 5, indicate that a particular stressor is considered to be more or less stressful than the standard (Grier *in* Turnage & Spielberger, 1991: 167).

After completing the JSS stress-intensity ratings, respondents are instructed to report the number of days, on a scale from 0 to 9+ days, that the stressor event occurred during the preceding 6 months. In addition to the intensity and frequency scores obtained for each item, the JSS yields total (overall) intensity and frequency scores and scores for factorially derived job pressure and lack of support subscales (Turnage & Spielberger, 1991 : 167).

The JSS consists of the following 2 parts (Spielberger, 1994):

PART 1 - Instructions: For those events that you feel are more stressful than the standard, circle a number proportionately larger than 5. If you feel an event is less stressful than the standard, circle a number proportionately lower than 5. For events judged to produce approximately the same amount of stress as the ASSIGNMENT OF DISAGREEABLE DUTIES, circle the number 5.

PART 2 - Instructions: For each of the job-related events listed in Part 1, please indicate the approximate number of days during the past 6 months on which you have personally experienced this event. Do this by circling a number from 0 to 9+ for each event. Circle 0 if the event did not occur during the past 6 months; circle the number 9+ for each event that you experienced personally on 9 or more days during the past 6 months.

STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENTS (The JSS consists of 30 statements that describe job-related events identified as stressful by employees in a variety of occupations):

1. Assignment of disagreeable duties.
2. Working overtime.
3. Lack of opportunity for advancement.
4. Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties.
5. Fellow workers not doing their job.
6. Inadequate support by supervisor.
7. Dealing with crisis situations.
8. Lack of recognition for good work.
9. Performing tasks not in job description.
10. Inadequate or poor quality equipment.
11. Assignment of increased responsibility.
12. Periods of inactivity.
13. Difficulty getting along with supervisor.
14. Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation.
15. Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment.

16. Making critical on-the-spot decisions.
17. Personal insult from customer / consumer / colleague.
18. Lack of participation in policy-making decisions.
19. Inadequate salary.
20. Competition for advancement.
21. Poor or inadequate supervision.
22. Noisy work area.
23. Frequent interruptions.
24. Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities.
25. Excessive paper work.
26. Meeting deadlines.
27. Insufficient personal time (for example, coffee breaks, lunch).
28. Covering work for another employee.
29. Poorly motivated co-workers.
30. Conflicts with other departments.

4.2.2 STUDY POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The population consisted of the management teams (principals, deputy principals and heads of department) of 180 randomly selected secondary schools throughout South Africa. Of the 180 schools that received questionnaires, 102 schools responded and returned the completed questionnaires. The management teams of 102 secondary schools throughout South Africa (n=254) constituted the sample.

TABLE 4.1 - FEEDBACK FROM RESPONDENTS

POST LEVEL	n	%
PRINCIPAL	57	22.4
DEPUTY PRINCIPAL	37	14.6
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT	160	63.0

4.2.3 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients for the JSS severity, frequency and index scores and univariate analyses of variants for each of the variables were calculated. Averages for each variable were also calculated.

In the ensuing discussion the questions and responses will be indicated and analysed. Certain deductions will be made accordingly.

4.3 INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.3.1 BIOGRAPHICAL PARTICULARS

The biographical data provides information regarding the gender, age, race and post level of the respondents. This data can be used to determine whether there are any differences between these variables and the perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of job stress. The biographical particulars of the respondents are provided in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2 - BIOGRAPHICAL PARTICULARS OF RESPONDENTS

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	f	%
GENDER	Male	162	63.3
	Female	94	36.7
	TOTAL	256	100
Frequency missing = 8			
AGE	25-30 years	6	2.4
	31-35 years	26	10.5
	36-40 years	51	20.6
	41-45 years	68	27.5
	46-60 years	847	19
	51-55 years	25	10.1
	56-60 years	22	8.9
	60+ years	2	0.8
	TOTAL	247	100
Frequency missing = 17			
RACE	Black	29	11.5
	White	223	88.5
	TOTAL	252	100
Frequency missing = 12			
POST LEVEL	Principal	57	22.4
	Deputy Principal	37	14.6
	Head of Department	160	63
	TOTAL	254	100
Frequency missing = 10			

f = number of respondents in particular category.

% = percentage in respect of total number of respondents.

4.3.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PER POST LEVEL

The means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients for the JSS severity, frequency and index scores for principals, deputy principals and heads of department are reported in Table 4.3. The alpha coefficients for principals, deputy principals and heads of department were all greater than 0.92. Thus the internal consistency for the three JSS measures was adequate for all three groups.

TABLE 4.3 - DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PER POST LEVEL

	PRINCIPAL	DEPUTY PRINCIPAL	HEAD OF DEPARTMENT
SEVERITY			
Mean	167.65	158.16	165.74
SD	37.94	33.77	35.04
N	57	37	160
Alpha	0.92		
FREQUENCY			
Mean	144.32	129.62	127.51
SD	43.26	51.28	52.23
N	56	37	158
Alpha	0.92		
INDEX			
Mean	52.33	30.82	37.14
SD	36.25	20.26	28.85
N	33	28	111
Alpha	0.92		

4.3.3 DIFFERENCES IN JOB STRESS EXPERIENCED BY DIFFERENT GENDERS FOR DIFFERENT POST LEVELS

TABLE 4.4 - DIFFERENCES IN GENDER FOR DIFFERENT POST LEVELS

	PRINCIPAL		DEPUTY PRINCIPAL		HEAD OF DEPARTMENT		ANOVA (p)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
SEVERITY							0.377	0.119
Mean	166.42	174.22	159.30	148.75	169.72	161.66		
SD	38.5	36.38	32.8	45.58	34.4	35.48		
N	48	9	33	4	81	79		
p	0.57		0.681		0.147			
FREQUENCY							0.072	0.350
Mean	141.94	158.63	130.82	119.75	129.09	125.84		
SD	45.05	28.41	52.97	38.40	50.05	54.71		
N	48	8	33	4	81	77		
p	0.185		0.628		0.698			
INDEX							0.032* f=0.2	0.008
Mean	49.75	135.00	31.12	27.00	39.34	34.35		
SD			19.59	38.18	30.71	26.36		
N	32	1	26	2	62	49		
p			0.904		0.359			

f = 0.1 - small effect

f = 0.25 - medium effect

f = 0.4 - large effect

There are no statistically significant differences between gender and post level for the JSS Severity and Frequency scores. There is however a statistically significant difference for male management personnel for the JSS Index score. Principals experience more JSS Index stress than deputy principals and heads of department. The differences are however not of any practical significance due to the small-to-medium effect size ($f = 0.2$).

There are too few female management personnel for the JSS Index score and can therefore only be viewed as a case study.

4.3.4 DIFFERENCES IN JOB STRESS EXPERIENCED BY DIFFERENT RACES
FOR DIFFERENT POST LEVELS

TABLE 4.5 - DIFFERENCES IN RACE FOR DIFFERENT POST LEVELS

	PRINCIPAL		DEPUTY PRINCIPAL		HEAD OF DEPARTMENT		ANOVA (p)	
	Black	White	Black	White	Black	White	Black	White
SEVERITY							0.034* f=0.27	0.017* f=0.11
Mean	191.80	162.17	186.33	155.68	173.20	164.66		
SD	21.38	39.21	27.59	33.46	44.82	33.76		
N	10	46	3	34	15	143		
p	0.003* d=0.76*		0.188		0.484			
FREQUENCY							0.022* f=0.29	0.236
Mean	163.78	141.02	178.67	125.29	116.80	128.08		
SD	31.02	44.92	49.65	49.81	68.74	50.23		
N	9	46	3	34	15	141		
p	0.083		0.200		0.545			
INDEX							0.522	0.002* f=0.17
Mean	33.00	54.27	49.50	29.38	48.67	35.56		
SD	36.37	36.28	6.36	20.29	39.80	27.06		
N	3	30	2	26	9	100		
p	0.423		0.043* d=0.99*		0.359			

d = 0.2 - small effect d = 0.5 - medium effect

d = 0.8 - large effect

d ≥ 0.8 - practically significant.

f = 0.1 - small effect f = 0.25 - medium effect

f = 0.4 - large effect

There is a statistically significant difference between black and white principals for the JSS Severity score. This difference is also practically significant (d = 0.8). The perceived severity of job stress is greater for black principals.

There is a statistically significant difference between black and white deputy principals for the JSS Index score. This difference is also practically significant ($d = 0.99$). The JSS Index stress is greater for black deputy principals.

There is a statistically significant difference between black management personnel for the JSS Severity score. Black principals experience job stress more severely than black deputy principals and heads of department. This difference is, however, not of practical significance due to the medium effect size ($f = 0.27$).

There is a statistically significant difference between white management personnel for the JSS Severity score. White principals experience job stress more severely than white deputy principals and heads of department. This is of little practical significance due to the small effect size ($f = 0.11$).

There is a statistically significant difference between black management personnel for the JSS Frequency score. Black principals reported having experienced stressful events more frequently than black heads of department, but less frequently than black deputy principals. These differences are not of great practical significance due to the medium-to-large effect size ($f = 0.29$).

There is a statistically significant difference between white management personnel for the JSS Index score. White principals experience more JSS Index stress than deputy principals or heads of department. The differences are, however, not of any practical significance due to the small effect size ($f = 0.17$).

4.3.5 AN ANALYSIS OF THE STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENTS ACCORDING TO AVERAGE RANK ORDER.

The aim of the empirical investigation was to determine the perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel as well as to identify factors causing job stress in management personnel in secondary schools. The following tables will provide an overview of the job-related events occurring most frequently and perceived as most stressful by various management personnel.

4.3.5.1 Perceived severity of stressful job-related events for principals.

From the data in Table 4.6 the most obvious stressful job-related events centre around people. From this it can be deduced that in view of the position they hold, principals are expected to be the leaders and give guidance to all other members of the staff. As the principal is in contact with the staff, pupils, parents and community on a day-to-day basis it is inevitable that certain conflicts will arise.

The most stressful job-related event reported by principals was fellow workers not doing their job. As a result of this the principal has to expend time and energy to ensure that the work is being done properly and therefore the time allotted to perform his/her own tasks is diminished. Another contributing factor is the shortage of qualified personnel, who lack the necessary motivation. The principal's time is further imposed upon by dealing with crisis situations, frequent interruptions and excessive paper work. It is therefore not surprising that he/she feels that the compensation is not adequate for the task he/she has to perform.

Some of the least stressful events identified by principals included: periods of inactivity, noisy work area and competition for advancement.

TABLE 4.6 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF SEVERITY FOR PRINCIPALS

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
5	Fellow workers not doing their job	1	7.01
15	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	2	6.87
7	Dealing with crisis situations	3	6.54
19	Inadequate salary	4	6.54
23	Frequent interruptions	5	6.45
25	Excessive paper work	6	6.43
29	Poorly motivated co-workers	7	6.31
3	Lack of opportunity for advancement	8	6.07
11	Assignment of increased responsibility	9	5.87
6	Inadequate support by supervisor	10	5.87
16	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	11	5.75
4	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	12	5.64
26	Meeting deadlines	13	5.64
18	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	14	5.61
2	Working overtime	15	5.54
8	Lack of recognition for good work	16	5.52
14	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	17	5.47
27	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	18	5.47
28	Covering work for another employee	19	5.42
30	Conflicts with other departments	20	5.41
9	Performing tasks not in job description	21	5.33
17	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	22	5.26
10	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	23	5.19
1	Assignment of disagreeable duties	24	5.01
21	Poor or inadequate supervision	25	4.98
24	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	26	4.91
13	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	27	4.89
20	Competition for advancement	28	4.76
22	Noisy work area	29	4.63
12	Periods of inactivity	30	4.00

4.3.5.2 Frequency of occurrence of stressful job-related events for principals.

From the data obtained in Table 4.7 the most frequently occurring stressful job-related events were associated with a time factor. The principals' personal time was infringed upon as a result of having to work overtime in order to meet deadlines and performing tasks not outlined in the job description.

The principal has to deal with excessive paper work, crisis situations and frequent interruptions on an almost daily basis. It is often expected of the principal to make critical on-the-spot decisions, when further deliberation would have been preferred. The decisions are therefore not always as favourable as they could have been had there sufficient time to make a thorough decision.

Stressful job-related events occurring less frequently included: periods of inactivity, competition for advancement and noisy work area.

It is interesting to note that stressful job-related events perceived as severe by principals tend to be those occurring the most frequently and vice-versa.

TABLE 4.7 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF FREQUENCY FOR PRINCIPALS

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
32	Working overtime	1	8.33
55	Excessive paper work	2	7.54
37	Dealing with crisis situations	3	7.30
53	Frequent interruptions	4	7.27
57	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	5	6.96
46	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	6	6.48
45	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	7	6.41
39	Performing tasks not in job description	8	6.23
56	Meeting deadlines	9	6.18
49	Inadequate salary	10	5.94
34	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	11	5.87
35	Fellow workers not doing their job	12	5.78
31	Assignment of disagreeable duties	13	5.54
59	Poorly motivated co-workers	14	5.51
41	Assignment of increased responsibility	15	5.35
38	Lack of recognition for good work	16	4.87
54	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	17	4.83
44	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	18	4.44
36	Inadequate support by supervisor	19	4.39
40	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	20	4.18
58	Covering work for another employee	21	3.90
48	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	22	3.70
33	Lack of opportunity for advancement	23	3.51
60	Conflicts with other departments	24	3.51
51	Poor or inadequate supervision	25	3.38
52	Noisy work area	26	3.16
47	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	27	2.66
50	Competition for advancement	28	2.57
43	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	29	2.23
42	Periods of inactivity	30	1.40

4.3.5.3 Perceived severity of stressful job-related events for deputy principals.

From the data in Table 4.8 the job-related event ranked as most severe for deputy principals was inadequate salary. Another important factor was lack of opportunity for advancement. As a result, stagnation sets in, the incentives are lacking and enthusiasm dwindles.

Most deputy principals feel that they do not receive adequate support from their supervisors and that their colleagues are poorly motivated and do not do their jobs. An added aggravation is the shortage of personnel to adequately administer the operation of the school.

There is a significant similarity between the factors perceived as causing the most stress in principals and deputy principals (compare Table 4.6). The responsibilities of the deputy principal are closely linked to those of the principal and therefore he/she experiences similar stressful situations. The pressures mount, the work is not completed and stress escalates. Working overtime was also cited by deputy principals as being one of the more stressful job-related events.

Factors perceived as less stressful include: periods of inactivity, conflicts with other departments, difficulty getting along with supervisor and noisy work area.

TABLE 4.8 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF SEVERITY FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
19	Inadequate salary	1	7.02
5	Fellow workers not doing their job	2	6.67
29	Poorly motivated co-workers	3	6.24
3	Lack of opportunity for advancement	4	6.10
15	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	5	5.89
7	Dealing with crisis situations	6	5.62
25	Excessive paper work	7	5.59
2	Working overtime	8	5.48
6	Inadequate support by supervisor	9	5.48
23	Frequent interruptions	10	5.45
20	Competition for advancement	11	5.44
17	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	12	5.38
16	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	13	5.32
21	Poor or inadequate supervision	14	5.32
27	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	15	5.27
10	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	16	5.25
14	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	17	5.18
26	Meeting deadlines	18	5.16
18	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	19	5.10
9	Performing tasks not in job description	20	5.08
4	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	21	5.02
28	Covering work for another employee	22	5.00
1	Assignment of disagreeable duties	23	4.97
8	Lack of recognition for good work	24	4.94
11	Assignment of increased responsibility	25	4.86
24	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	26	4.58
22	Noisy work area	27	4.56
13	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	28	4.48
30	Conflicts with other departments	29	4.40
12	Periods of inactivity	30	4.00

4.3.5.4 Frequency of occurrence of stressful job-related events for deputy principals.

Of the top ten most stressful job-related events reported in Table 4.8, eight of them were reported as being experienced most frequently in Table 4.9.

Other frequently experienced stressful job-related events include performing tasks not in the job description and making critical on-the-spot decisions, which were not rated as severely stressful by deputy principals.

The three factors with the lowest degree of frequency were the same as the three factors with the lowest degree of severity. In other words, those factors causing the least stress were experienced less often.

TABLE 4.9 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF FREQUENCY FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
49	Inadequate salary	1	7.36
32	Working overtime	2	7.27
37	Dealing with crisis situations	3	6.32
53	Frequent interruptions	4	5.81
59	Poorly motivated co-workers	5	5.81
39	Performing tasks not in job description	6	5.75
46	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	7	5.52
45	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	8	5.50
35	Fellow workers not doing their job	9	5.48
55	Excessive paper work	10	5.48
41	Assignment of increased responsibility	11	5.38
57	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	12	5.24
56	Meeting deadlines	13	5.19
34	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	14	5.10
58	Covering work for another employee	15	4.48
44	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	16	4.47
31	Assignment of disagreeable duties	17	4.44
54	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	18	3.82
33	Lack of opportunity for advancement	19	3.71
38	Lack of recognition for good work	20	3.50
51	Poor or inadequate supervision	21	3.33
52	Noisy work area	22	3.32
36	Inadequate support by supervisor	23	3.27
40	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	24	3.22
48	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	25	3.05
50	Competition for advancement	26	2.94
47	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	27	2.30
60	Conflicts with other departments	28	2.16
43	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	29	2.13
42	Periods of inactivity	30	1.77

4.3.5.5 Perceived severity of stressful job-related events for heads of department.

From Table 4.10 it can be seen that insufficient remuneration is the most severe cause of stress for heads of department. This factor is high on the priority list of all educators and the problem needs to be addressed. This could be the reason why personnel lack motivation and are not performing at optimal levels.

Excessive paper work, working overtime, dealing with crisis situations, frequent interruptions and insufficient personal time are further factors rated as severely stressful by heads of department. Once again it would seem that there is too much to do and too little time in which to do it.

Lack of opportunity for advancement was also one of the major concerns of heads of department. Being in this position, their prospects for advancement are limited as there are fewer senior management positions available.

Factors rated as least stressful by heads of department were periods of inactivity, difficulty getting along with supervisor and conflicts with other departments. It would seem that healthy vertical and horizontal inter-departmental relationships exist.

TABLE 4.10 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF SEVERITY FOR HEADS OF DEPARTMENT

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
19	Inadequate salary	1	6.95
15	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	2	6.72
5	Fellow workers not doing their job	3	6.59
29	Poorly motivated co-workers	4	6.47
25	Excessive paper work	5	6.34
2	Working overtime	6	6.27
3	Lack of opportunity for advancement	7	6.02
7	Dealing with crisis situations	8	5.97
23	Frequent interruptions	9	5.96
27	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	10	5.89
26	Meeting deadlines	11	5.87
9	Performing tasks not in job description	12	5.70
8	Lack of recognition for good work	13	5.64
28	Covering work for another employee	14	5.62
10	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	15	5.41
4	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	16	5.36
17	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	17	5.35
6	Inadequate support by supervisor	18	5.34
20	Competition for advancement	19	5.29
14	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	20	5.24
11	Assignment of increased responsibility	21	5.23
22	Noisy work area	22	5.19
16	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	23	5.13
24	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	24	5.07
1	Assignment of disagreeable duties	25	4.97
18	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	26	4.92
21	Poor or inadequate supervision	27	4.89
30	Conflicts with other departments	28	4.71
13	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	29	4.53
12	Periods of inactivity	30	4.20

4.3.5.6 Frequency of occurrence of stressful job-related events for heads of department.

Of the ten events reported as most severe in Table 4.10, nine were reported as being experienced most frequently in Table 4.11 by heads of department. The tenth frequently occurring factor, namely meeting deadlines, was rated as the eleventh most severe event. From this it can be seen that the factors rated most severe by heads of department also occurred more often.

The three factors rated as least severe by heads of department, namely periods of inactivity, difficulty getting along with supervisor and conflicts with other departments, were also experienced less frequently.

TABLE 4.11 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF FREQUENCY FOR HEADS OF DEPARTMENT

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
32	Working overtime	1	7.58
49	Inadequate salary	2	6.25
56	Meeting deadlines	3	6.04
57	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	4	6.04
45	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	5	6.03
55	Excessive paper work	6	5.92
59	Poorly motivated co-workers	7	5.76
53	Frequent interruptions	8	5.61
35	Fellow workers not doing their job	9	5.56
37	Dealing with crisis situations	10	5.28
58	Covering work for another employee	11	4.92
39	Performing tasks not in job description	12	4.81
41	Assignment of increased responsibility	13	4.80
31	Assignment of disagreeable duties	14	4.55
46	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	15	4.45
44	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	16	4.44
34	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	17	4.42
52	Noisy work area	18	4.03
33	Lack of opportunity for advancement	19	3.99
54	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	20	3.75
40	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	21	3.52
38	Lack of recognition for good work	22	3.28
36	Inadequate support by supervisor	23	3.24
50	Competition for advancement	24	3.03
51	Poor or inadequate supervision	25	2.78
48	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	26	2.45
47	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	27	2.35
60	Conflicts with other departments	28	2.31
42	Periods of inactivity	29	1.90
43	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	30	1.85

4.3.5.7 Perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of stressful job-related events for management personnel.

Table 4.12 and Table 4.13 depict the average severity and frequency of occurrence of stressful job-related events for all three groups (principals, deputy principals and heads of department) of management personnel.

Twenty-four of the thirty stressful job-related events were rated as severe (Table 4.12). These events ranged from problems of a financial nature to interpersonal conflicts, time pressures, inefficiency, stagnation, work overload and lack of motivation.

The factors that were not rated as severely stressful included: frequent changes from boring to demanding activities, periods of inactivity, noisy working area, conflicts with other departments and difficulty in getting along with supervisor.

Fourteen of the thirty stressful job-related events were frequently experienced by management personnel (Table 4.13). In addition, all fourteen of these factors were also rated as severe (Table 4.12). It therefore appears that the more often an event occurs, the more stressful it becomes.

Principals, deputy principals and heads of department have to work together as a management team. The pressures placed upon them causes a breakdown in communication and task performance, thus preventing effective administration and management of the school.

TABLE 4.12 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF SEVERITY FOR MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
19	Inadequate salary	1	6.83
5	Fellow workers not doing their job	2	6.75
15	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	3	6.49
29	Poorly motivated co-workers	4	6.34
25	Excessive paper work	5	6.12
3	Lack of opportunity for advancement	6	6.06
7	Dealing with crisis situations	7	6.04
23	Frequent interruptions	8	5.95
2	Working overtime	9	5.76
6	Inadequate support by supervisor	10	5.56
26	Meeting deadlines	11	5.55
27	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	12	5.54
16	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	13	5.40
9	Performing tasks not in job description	14	5.37
8	Lack of recognition for good work	15	5.36
28	Covering work for another employee	16	5.34
4	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	17	5.34
17	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	18	5.33
11	Assignment of increased responsibility	19	5.32
14	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	20	5.29
10	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	21	5.28
18	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	22	5.21
20	Competition for advancement	23	5.16
21	Poor or inadequate supervision	24	5.06
1	Assignment of disagreeable duties	25	4.98
24	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	26	4.85
30	Conflicts with other departments	27	4.84
22	Noisy working area	28	4.79
13	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	29	4.63
12	Periods of inactivity	30	4.06

TABLE 4.13 - RANK ORDER OF ITEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF FREQUENCY FOR MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL

ITEM	STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENT	RANK	MEAN
32	Working overtime	1	7.72
49	Inadequate salary	2	6.51
55	Excessive paper work	3	6.31
37	Dealing with crisis situations	4	6.30
53	Frequent interruptions	5	6.23
57	Insufficient personal time (for example coffee breaks, lunch)	6	6.08
45	Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	7	5.98
56	Meeting deadlines	8	5.80
59	Poorly motivated co-workers	9	5.69
35	Fellow workers not doing their job	10	5.60
39	Performing tasks not in job description	11	5.59
46	Making critical on-the-spot decisions	12	5.48
41	Assignment of increased responsibility	13	5.17
34	Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	14	5.13
31	Assignment of disagreeable duties	15	4.84
44	Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	16	4.45
58	Covering work for another employee	17	4.43
54	Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	18	4.13
38	Lack of recognition for good work	19	3.88
33	Lack of opportunity for advancement	20	3.73
40	Inadequate or poor quality equipment	21	3.64
36	Inadequate support by supervisor	22	3.63
52	Noisy work area	23	3.50
51	Poor or inadequate supervision	24	3.16
48	Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	25	3.06
50	Competition for advancement	26	2.84
60	Conflicts with other departments	27	2.66
47	Personal insult from customer/consumer/colleague	28	2.3
43	Difficulty getting along with supervisor	29	2.07
42	Periods of inactivity	30	1.69

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter the empirical research design was presented. The merits of various survey methods, compilation and applicability of the Job Stress Survey as measuring instrument were discussed. The study population and sample, statistical techniques and interpretation of data were also addressed.

The data obtained from respondents was analysed, tabulated and interpreted. The descriptive statistics were provided and comparisons were made between principals, deputy principals and heads of department, according to gender and race.

The perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of job stress for principals, deputy principals, heads of department and management personnel were provided and discussed. The major stressful job-related events were identified according to degree of severity and frequency of occurrence.

A summary of the study will be provided in Chapter 5. Conclusions will be discussed and recommendations made.

CHAPTER 5 : SUMMARY, RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this study the nature and magnitude of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools in South Africa was investigated. After a literature study regarding the nature of job stress as well as the factors causing job stress in management personnel was completed, an empirical investigation of the perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel was undertaken.

In this chapter a short summary of the course of the study will be provided. This will be followed by a depiction of the most important results. Finally, recommendations for implementation in practice and for further investigation will be made.

5.2 SUMMARY

In Chapter 1, the relevance of research regarding job stress in management personnel was discussed. The problem was stated and the following research questions arose:

- * What is the nature of job stress?
- * What are the factors that cause job stress in management personnel?
- * What is the perceived severity or intensity of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools?
- * What is the frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools?

The first question was answered by means of the literature study. The second question was answered by means of the literature study. The third and fourth questions were answered by means of the empirical investigation.

The title and concepts used in the study were clarified, and the assumptions,

domain and course of the study presented and outlined.

In Chapter 2 the nature of job stress was discussed. Relevant concepts such as stress and job stress, stressor and job stressor, eustress and distress were defined and clarified. General views and common misconceptions regarding stress were discussed. Stress is generally viewed as a harmful and dangerous phenomenon and many people believe that it should be avoided when it is in actual fact a necessary, motivating force. Some other common misconceptions are : stress is only experienced by males; there is only one way to manage stress; only inferior and maladapted people experience stress; stress is caused by important matters going wrong and the individual knows when he/she experiences stress.

The course of stress was discussed by means of Hans Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome and Gmelch and Thomas's Management Stress Cycle. Various symptoms of stress, effects of stress and reactions to stress were addressed.

In Chapter 3 factors causing job stress in management personnel, derived from the literature study, were reported. These included:

- * Factors intrinsic to the job such as unfavourable working conditions, qualitative and quantitative overload, time pressures and decision-making.
- * Role ambiguity, role conflict, too much or too little responsibility and lack of managerial support.
- * Relationships at work with superiors, subordinates and colleagues.
- * Stages in career development requiring adaptation to change.
- * The degree of involvement at work and the efficiency of organisational communication.
- * Stressful personality traits.
- * Dietary contributors to stress, such as stimulants, vitamin deficiencies and salt.
- * Unfavourable physical conditions in the working environment such as, noise, lighting, temperature and posture.
- * The South African Education System which is characterised by continued

change and adaptation.

These factors are all potential job stressors. However, individual differences play an important role in how these factors are perceived and the extent to which the individual and organisation will be affected.

Chapter 4 addressed the research design of the empirical investigation. The measuring instrument (JSS) was discussed and the study population and sample and statistical techniques described. Data obtained from the questionnaire was statistically analysed and interpreted. Differences between gender, race and post level for management personnel were reported and stressful job-related events were ranked according to degree of severity and frequency of occurrence.

5.3 RESULTS

5.3.1 RESULTS WITH REGARD TO RESEARCH AIM 1

The first aim of this research project was to determine the nature of job stress [refer to 1.3]

The findings were as follows:

- * Stress is a natural and inevitable characteristic of work and life [refer to 2.2.1].
- * It is difficult to find a generally accepted definition of stress [refer to 2.2.1].
- * The individual's perception of the situation will determine to a large extent how much job stress is experienced [refer to 2.2.2].
- * Stress can be positive, creative and motivating (eustress) or negative, debilitating and dangerous (distress) [refer to 2.2.3].

- * Job stress has a mainly negative connotation in society as a result of financial implications and lost productivity [refer to 2.3.1].

- * All people are susceptible to job stress, regardless of race, colour or creed [refer to 2.3.2].
- * The symptoms of job stress can be manifested physiologically, psychologically or behaviourally [refer to 2.5].
- * The physiological, emotional, behavioural, cognitive, organisatory, social and psychological effects of stress can have far-reaching effects on the individual and the organisation [refer to 2.6].

5.3.2 RESULTS WITH REGARD TO RESEARCH AIM 2

The second aim of this research project was to determine which factors cause job stress in management personnel [refer to 1.3].

Factors causing job stress were as follows:

- * Factors intrinsic to the job such as working conditions, overload, time urgency and decision-making [refer to 3.2].
- * Role in the organisation such as role ambiguity, role conflict and responsibility [refer to 3.3].
- * Relationships at work with superiors, subordinates and colleagues [refer to 3.4].
- * Career development such as initial career decision, career transition points, changes in occupations, obsolescence of skills and/or knowledge, uncertainty and risk, career-life fit and retirement [refer to 3.5].
- * The organisational structure and climate [refer to 3.6].
- * Personality traits [refer to 3.7].
- * Dietary contributors such as stimulants, salt and vitamin deficiency [refer to 3.8].
- * The physical work environment such as noise, lighting, temperature and posture [refer to 3.9].
- * The South African Education System [refer to 3.10].

5.3.3 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO RESEARCH AIM 3

The third research aim was to determine the perceived severity or intensity of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools [refer to 1.3].

The findings were as follows:

- * The mean severity of job stress was greater for principals than for deputy principals and heads of department [refer to 4.3.2].
- * There are no statistical significant differences between gender and post level with regard to the severity of job stress [refer to 4.3.3].
- * The perceived severity of job stress is greater for black principals than for white principals [refer to 4.3.4].
- * Black principals experienced job stress more severely than black deputy principals and heads of department [refer to 4.3.4].
- * White principals experienced job stress more severely than white deputy principals and heads of department [refer to 4.3.4].

The ten stressful job-related events ranked as most severe by management personnel were as follows [refer to 4.3.5.7].

1. Inadequate salary.
2. Fellow workers not doing their job.
3. Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment.
4. Poorly motivated co-workers.
5. Excessive paper work.
6. Lack of opportunity for advancement.
7. Dealing with crisis situations.
8. Frequent interruptions.
9. Working overtime.
10. Inadequate support by supervisor.

Job-related events which were not rated as severe by management personnel were as follows [refer to 4.3.5.7]:

1. Periods of inactivity.
2. Difficulty getting along with supervisor.
3. Noisy work area.
4. Conflicts with other departments.
5. Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities.
6. Assignment of disagreeable duties.

5.3.4 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO RESEARCH AIM 4

The fourth and final research aim was to determine the frequency of occurrence of job stress in management personnel in secondary schools [refer to 1.3].

The findings were as follows:

- * The mean frequency of occurrence of job stress was greater for principals than for deputy principals and heads of department [refer to 4.3.2].
- * There are no statistical significant differences between gender and post level with regard to the frequency of occurrence of job stress [refer to 4.3.3].
- * There is a statistically significant difference between black management personnel for the frequency of occurrence of job stress. Black principals reported having experienced stressful events more frequently than black heads of department but less frequently than black deputy principals [refer to 4.3.4].

The ten stressful job-related events ranked by management personnel as occurring most frequently were as follows [refer to 4.3.5.7]:

1. Working overtime.
2. Inadequate salary.
3. Excessive paper work.
4. Dealing with crisis situations.
5. Frequent interruptions.
6. Insufficient personal time.
7. Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment.
8. Meeting deadlines.
9. Poorly motivated co-workers.
10. Fellow workers not doing their job.

The ten job-related events which were rated by management personnel as occurring the least frequently were as follows [refer to 4.3.5.7]:

1. Periods of inactivity.
2. Difficulty getting along with supervisor.
3. Personal insult from colleagues.
4. Conflicts with other departments.
5. Competition for advancement.
6. Lack of participation in policy-making decisions.
7. Poor or inadequate supervision.
8. Noisy work area.
9. Inadequate support by supervisor.
10. Inadequate or poor quality equipment.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

*** Recommendation 1:**

The nature of job stress should be brought to the attention of management personnel.

Motivation :

Management personnel experience job stress but do not possess the

knowledge and ability to transform job stress into a positive and constructive element. If this can be accomplished it would not only be to the advantage of management personnel but also the entire education system.

* **Recommendation 2:**

The parents and community should become more involved in school activities.

Motivation:

"More hands make light work" - If some of the tasks and activities can be delegated to the parents or members of the community, the management personnel will bear less of a burden and have more time to spend on the more important managerial, administrative and functional tasks.

* **Recommendation 3:**

Courses should be presented and tuition given to management personnel to keep up with the changing trends and to enable them to adequately equip themselves to cope with new developments in education.

Motivation:

As the education system is continually changing and advancing, management personnel often find themselves thrown in at the "deep end". This creates insecurity, job dissatisfaction, conflict and unnecessary stress.

* **Recommendation 4:**

Management personnel must motivate themselves to become more dedicated to their professions.

Motivation:

As a result of the pressures and uncertainty faced in their professions, management personnel have become disillusioned and disheartened. In this frame of mind it is difficult for them to function optimally and it is therefore obvious that the work will suffer because of it. The implications

are far-reaching as this not only affects the quality of education but also the attitudes of teachers, pupils, parents and the community.

* **Recommendation 5:**

Management personnel should be made aware of the symptoms indicative of job stress.

Motivation:

By early detection of signs or symptoms of job stress, preventative or precautionary measures can be taken. This will eliminate the possibility of the stress becoming so severe that it becomes destructive.

* **Recommendation 6:**

That informal group sessions take place where grievances are aired and debated.

Motivation:

"A problem shared, is a problem halved". Having the opportunity of sharing problems with others clears the air and alleviates potentially explosive situations.

5.5 CONCLUDING REMARK

The importance of management personnel in secondary schools in South Africa must not be underestimated. Apart from the day-to-day running of the school, they have a responsibility and an obligation to the teachers, pupils, parents and the community. This is a heavy load to bear and not being able to live up to expectations places severe pressure on them. How management personnel perceive these pressures will determine what effect they will have on all parties involved.

By nature, human beings are inclined to criticise and find fault rather than compliment and be grateful. The "school" is often the target. If a pupil does not

achieve, it is a bad "school". The blame starts and ends there. The problem is seldom, if ever discussed with management personnel, who would, if they were aware of the situation, do something about it. Inevitably the pressure is placed on the management personnel because they are the ones responsible for the efficient functioning of the establishment.

The pupil needs direction and guidance which must perforce come from the parents, the teachers, the principal, the deputy principal and the head of department. In much the same way, management personnel are also human, they also need direction and guidance. Whose shoulders do they cry on? Where do they get the moral and spiritual support?

If management personnel are assisted by society they will be able to eliminate many of the factors that contribute towards job stress. Less time wasted on job stress will leave more time for constructive use, thereby enabling management personnel to maintain and even improve the standard of education in secondary schools in South Africa.

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PART 1 - Instructions : For those events that you feel are more stressful than the standard, circle a number proportionately larger than "5". If you feel an event is less stressful than the standard, circle a number proportionately lower than "5". For events judged to produce approximately the same amount of stress as the ASSIGNMENT OF DISAGREEABLE DUTIES, circle the number "5".

STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENTS

	Amount of stress									
	Low				Moderate				High	
1. ASSIGNMENT OF DISAGREEABLE DUTIES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(10)
2. Working overtime	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(11)
3. Lack of opportunity for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(12)
4. Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(13)
5. Fellow workers not doing their job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(14)
6. Inadequate support by supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(15)
7. Dealing with crisis situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(16)
8. Lack of recognition for good work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(17)
9. Performing tasks not in job description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(18)
10. Inadequate or poor quality equipment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(19)
11. Assignment of increased responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(20)
12. Periods of inactivity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(21)
13. Difficulty getting along with supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(22)
14. Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(23)
15. Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(24)
16. Making critical on-the-spot decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(25)
17. Personal insult from customer / consumer / colleague	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(26)
18. Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(27)
19. Inadequate salary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(28)
20. Competition for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(29)
21. Poor or inadequate supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(30)
22. Noisy work area	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(31)
23. Frequent interruptions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(32)
24. Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(33)
25. Excessive paperwork	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(34)
26. Meeting deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(35)
27. Insufficient personal time (for example, coffee breaks, lunch)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(36)
28. Covering work for another employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(37)
29. Poorly motivated co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(38)
30. Conflicts with other departments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(39)

PART 2 : Instructions : For each of the job-related events listed in Part 1, please indicate the approximate *number* of days during the past 6 months on which you have personally experienced this event. Do this by circling a number from "0" to "9+" for each event. Circle "0" if the event did *not occur* during the past 6 months; circle the number "9+" for each event that you experienced personally on 9 or more days during the past 6 months.

STRESSFUL JOB-RELATED EVENTS

Number of days on which the event occurred during the past 6 months

31. ASSIGNMENT OF DISAGREEABLE DUTIES	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(40)
32. Working overtime	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(41)
33. Lack of opportunity for advancement	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(42)
34. Assignment of new or unfamiliar duties	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(43)
35. Fellow workers not doing their job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(44)
36. Inadequate support by supervisor	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(45)
37. Dealing with crisis situations	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(46)
38. Lack of recognition for good work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(47)
39. Performing tasks not in job description	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(48)
40. Inadequate or poor quality equipment	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(49)
41. Assignment of increased responsibility	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(50)
42. Periods of inactivity	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(51)
43. Difficulty getting along with supervisor	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(52)
44. Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(53)
45. Insufficient personnel to adequately handle an assignment	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(54)
46. Making critical on-the-spot decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(55)
47. Personal insult from customer / consumer / colleague	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(56)
48. Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(57)
49. Inadequate salary	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(58)
50. Competition for advancement	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(59)
51. Poor or inadequate supervision	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(60)
52. Noisy work area	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(60)
53. Frequent interruptions	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(62)
54. Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(60)
55. Excessive paperwork	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(64)
56. Meeting deadlines	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(65)
57. Insufficient personal time (for example, coffee breaks, lunch)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(66)
58. Covering work for another employee	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(67)
59. Poorly motivated co-workers	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(68)
60. Conflicts with other departments	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(69)

DEEL 1 - Instruksies : Vir daardie gebeure wat volgens u mening stresvoller as die standaard is, omkring 'n syfer in verhouding groter as "5". Indien u meen 'n voorval is minder stresvol as die standaard, omkring 'n syfer verhoudingsgewys laer as "5". Vir voorvalle wat beoordeel word om ongeveer dieselfde hoeveelheid stres te veroorsaak as die OPDRAG VAN ONAANGENAME TAKE, omkring die syfer "5".

STRESVOLLE WERKVERWANTE VOORVALLE

	Hoeveelheid stres									
	Laag		Matig				Hoog			
1. OPDRAG VAN ONAANGENAME TAKE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(10)
2. Werk oortyd	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(11)
3. Gebrek aan geleentheid vir bevordering/vooruitgang	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(12)
4. Opdrag van nuwe of onbekende take	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(13)
5. Kollegas doen nie hul werk nie	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(14)
6. Onvoldoende steun deur Skoolhoof / departementshoof / kollegas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(15)
7. Hantering van krisissituasies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(16)
8. Gebrek aan erkenning vir goeie werk	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(17)
9. Take verrig wat nie binne posbeskrywing (taakooreenkoms) val nie	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(18)
10. Ontoereikende of swak gehalte toerusting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(19)
11. Opdrag van meer verantwoordelikheid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(20)
12. Tye van onaktiwiteit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(21)
13. Moeilikheid om met hoofde klaar te kom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(22)
14. Ervaar negatiewe gesindhede teenoor die skool/organisasie	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(23)
15. Te min personeel om 'n opdrag behoorlik uit te voer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(24)
16. Om onmiddellike besluite te neem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(25)
17. Persoonlike belediging deur skoolhoof / departementshoof / kollega / 'n ouer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(26)
18. Gebrek aan deelname in beleidmakende besluite	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(27)
19. Onvoldoende salaris	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(28)
20. Mededinging vir bevordering/vooruitgang	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(29)
21. Swak of onvoldoende toesig	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(30)
22. Rasenige werkplek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(31)
23. Veelvuldige onderbrekings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(32)
24. Veelvuldige verandering van vervelig na veeleisende aktiwiteite	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(33)
25. Oormatige papierwerk	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(34)
26. Tydgrense haal (sperdatums)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(35)
27. Onvoldoende persoonlike tyd (bv. koffiepouses, middagete)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(36)
28. Instaan vir 'n ander kollega (s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(37)
29. Swak gemotiveerde kollegas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(38)
30. Konflikte met ander departemente	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(39)

DEEL 2 - Instruksies : Vir elk van die werkverwante voorvalle genoem in DEEL 1, moet u asseblief by benadering die aantal dae aandui gedurende die afgelope 6 maande waarop u hierdie voorval persoonlik ervaar het. Doen dit deur 'n syfer te omring van "0" tot "9+" vir elke voorval. Omkring "0" indien die voorval nie gedurende die afgelope 6 maande plaasgevind het nie; omkring die syfer "9+" vir elke voorval wat u persoonlik op 9 of meer dae ervaar het gedurende die afgelope 6 maande.

STRESVOLLE WERKVERWANTE VOORVALLE

	Aantal dae waarop die voorval plaasgevind het gedurende die afgelope 6 maande										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(40)
31. OPDRAG VAN ONAANGENAME TAKE	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(40)
32. Werk oortyd	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(41)
33. Gebrek aan geleentheid vir bevordering/vooruitgang	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(42)
34. Opdrag van nuwe of onbekende take	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(43)
35. Kollegas doen nie hul werk nie	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(44)
36. Onvoldoende steun deur skoolhoof / departementshoof / kollegas	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(45)
37. Hantering van krisissituasies	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(46)
38. Gebrek aan erkenning vir goeie werk	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(47)
39. Take verrig wat nie binne posbeskrywing (taakooreenkoms) val nie	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(48)
40. Ontoereikende of swak gehalte toerusting	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(49)
41. Opdrag van meer verantwoordelikheid	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(50)
42. Tye van onaktiwiteit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(51)
43. Moeilikheid om met hoofde klaar te kom	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(52)
44. Ervaar negatiewe gesindhede teenoor die skool/organisasie	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(53)
45. Te min personeel om 'n opdrag behoorlik uit te voer	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(54)
46. Om onmiddellike besluite te neem	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(55)
47. Persoonlike belediging deur skoolhoof / departementshoof / kollega / 'n ouer	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(56)
48. Gebrek aan deelname in beleidmakende besluite	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(57)
49. Onvoldoende salaris	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(58)
50. Mededinging vir bevordering/vooruitgang	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(59)
51. Swak of onvoldoende toesig	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(60)
52. Rasenige werkplek	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(61)
53. Veelvuldige onderbrekings	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(62)
54. Veelvuldige verandering van vervelig na veeleisende aktiwiteite	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(63)
55. Oormatige papierwerk	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(64)
56. Tydgrense haal (sperdatums)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(65)
57. Onvoldoende persoonlike tyd (bv. koffiepouses, middagete)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(66)
58. Instaan vir 'n ander kollega (s)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(67)
59. Swak gemotiveerde kollegas	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(68)
60. Konflikte met ander departemente	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9+	(69)