RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF OF TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA: IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING

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DECLARATION

Ideclare that this workentitled ‘RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF OF TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA’ wascarried out by me in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling. The information derived for the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and list of references provided. No part of this thesis had previously been used for another degree or diploma at any University.

_____ _____

Jibrin, Ahmed Yusuf Date

CERTIFICATION

This dissertation entitled 'RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF OF TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA' by Ahmed Yusuf JIBRIN meets the regulations governing the award of Master's Degree (M. Ed) Guidance and Counsellingof Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to Allah (SWT) Lord of the Worlds on Whose command everything comes into existence

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to find out the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among Academic Staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State. The study was guided by five research questions and five null hypotheses that were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Correlational Design was used in this study.The Population of the study consist of 6,662 academic staff from six tertiary institutions located in Kaduna State. A simple random sampling technique was used to select 10% of the population of the study constituting 666 respondents. The instruments tagged Teacher Job Stress Questionnaire (TJSQ) developed by the researcherand The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) by Spector (1999)were used for data collection.Descriptive statistics of frequency counts, simple percentage, mean and standard deviation were used to analyze the research questions whileHypotheses one and three were tested by Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), null hypotheses two and four were tested using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) while Hypothesis Five was tested using t-test. All hypotheses are tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance.Results indicates thatInverse relationship exists between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State ($r= -0.79$, $p = 0.01$). This suggests that increase in job stress would lead to decrease in job satisfaction.; Age of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State has no influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction ($f = 1.16$, $p = 0.33$ and $f = 1.48$, $p = 0.30$). This suggests that the academic staff of all age groups manifest stress and job satisfaction at the same level; Gender of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State has no influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction ($r = 0.604$, $p = 0.021$ and $r = 0.567$, $p = 0.002$. this suggests male and female academic staff manifest stress and job satisfaction at the same level; Working experience of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State had influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction ($f= 8.79$, $p = 0.00$ and $f = 5.15$, $p = 0.03$). This suggests that there is significant difference in the level of job stress and job satisfaction of academic staff based on working experience and; Academic staff of Federal owned institutions expresses higher level of job satisfaction than their counterparts in the state owned tertiary institutions ($t = 0.54$, $p = 0.59$ and$t = 1.99$, $p = 0.05$). This suggests that academic staff of federal owned and state owned Institutions experiences stress at the same level but differ in job satisfaction level. It was recommended that the Management of the Tertiary institutions should expand the existing infrastructural facilities in the school and improve on staff working conditions among others.

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Teacher Stress: The response teachers may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities.

Job Satisfaction: Pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from approval of one's job or job experience.

Academic Staff: Also called Teaching staff, they are employees of Tertiary Institutions who are expected to beintellectually and morally capable to teach and conduct research and provide leadership to the students

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Workers in all most all organizations face a lot of challenges that make the discharge of their duties almost impossible. This implies that the workers are working under stress. Adeyemo & Ogunyemi, (2005) observe that Stress is an unavoidable characteristic of life and work. Also Ward, Jones, & Phillips (2003) agree that viewing stress as a life course process assists us in understanding how individual differences in predispositions, susceptibility and perceptions of stress may or may not manifest in disease. Stress has become a factor to be reckoned with in all organizations. It has increasingly attracted the attention of researchers and administrators because of its effect on the psychological wellbeing of the workers.Academic staff of tertiary institutions like their counter parts in other organizations are not immune from stress, Lecturers in the Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education are currently facing manychallenges that account for their stressful working conditions. The major factor that contributes to the stressful working conditions of the academic staff is the increasing number of students' population.

Over the years students' enrolment has increased astronomically, this increase in population of students however is not accompanied by a corresponding increase in resources to take care of the demand created as a result of increase in population. Akinade (2007) observes that in some places, it is obvious that more hands are needed, however, because of financial constraints; fresh hands cannot be employed as fast as the situation demands. Unfortunately, affected workers are blamed for non-compliance to the heavy task, which he maintains is another source of stress. The large number of students has led to overpopulated lecture theatres, where such are available. Effective teaching and learning cannot take place under such conditions. By the time the lecturer managed to deliver lectures in such unconducive

atmosphere, he/she requires the comfort of an office to sit and reduce the stress encountered in the crowded lecture room but in most schools the offices are not available. In institutions where the offices are available they are very unconducive hence adding to the stress level of the academic staff. Assessment of the students' achievement has also contributed to the lecturers stress level because organizing an effective examination is a herculean task due to the sheer large population of the students. Then scoring of the exam scripts and preparation of the students result is another difficult task for the academic staff.

Another factor that contributes to the stressful working condition of the academic staff of tertiary institution is the issue of staff development. Each academic staff is expected to undertake research regularly, undertaking research requires funds. Even though there are many sources of research funds such as the TETFUND, McAurthor foundation and a host of others, accessing the funds can be a frustrating experience. This coupled with the fact that an academic staff's promotion is tied to a number of publication, attendance of conference and seminars which must be undertaken together with the teaching and assessment of the students.This is a great source of stress to the academic staff as they could affect the job satisfaction of the academic staff.

Job satisfaction is a complex and multifaceted concept, which can mean different things to different people. It is more of an attitude, in internal state; it could be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative. The level of job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables relating to individual (i.e. personality, educational level attained, intelligence and abilities, age, marital status and orientation to work); social factors (i.e. relationship with co-workers, group working and norms and opportunity for interaction); cultural factors (i.e. attitudes, beliefs and values); organizational factors (i.e. nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedures, employee relations, nature of the work, supervision and styles of leadership, management systems and

working conditions); and environmental factors (i.e. economic, social, technical and governmental influences).

Additionally, Obisi (2003) lists factors that contribute to job satisfaction as adequate salary, good working conditions, parental management, job security, opportunity for growth, positive and supportive environment, friendly nature of co-workers and colleagues' responsibility and cordial relationship between the superior and the subordinates. Therefore, it can be concluded that job satisfaction is a person's evaluation of his or her job and work context. Thus, the larger the gap between what employees have and what they want from their jobs, the less satisfied they are; employees tend to be most satisfied with their jobs when what they have matches what they want. An employee's overall job satisfaction is the cumulative result of comparisons that he makes between what his job provides and what he desires in various areas.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teaching at the tertiary education level has traditionally been regarded as a low stress occupation. Although not highly paid, academics have been envied because they enjoyed tenure, light work load, flexibility, benefits such as overseas trips for study and/or conference purposes and the freedom to pursue their own research interests. During the past few years many of these advantages seems to have been eroded in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions. Academic salaries have fallen in real terms in relation to current economic crises. Increasing numbers of academic positions are now untenured; workloads have increased; and academics are under increased pressures to attract external funds for their research and to either 'publish or perish'. These could expose lecturers to such levels of stress that could force them to deviate from normal functioning.

Academic staff of the Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria are expected to perform at high level in their area of specializations without the basic facilities for teaching, learning and research.

Though the expectation is commendable, it is not always possible for lecturers to competently manage the diverse needs of students with the dearth of resources presently on ground in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions without stress as it could negatively affect their job satisfaction. These issues and others have led the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) to embark on six months strike from Wednesday, 3rd July, 2013 to 16th December 2013 demanding the implementation of agreement between ASUU and Federal Government which includes Funding Requirements for Revitalization of the Nigerian Universities, Progressive increase in Annual Budgetary Allocation to Education to 26% between 2009 and 2020, Amendment of the Pension/Retirement Age of Academics on the Professorial cadre from 65 to 70 years, Setting up of Research Development Council and Provision of Research Equipment to laboratories and classrooms in our universities among others. In the same vein, the Academic Staff Union of Polytechnics (ASUP) embarked on strike that lasted for ten months from October 4, 2013 to 14th July 2014, while the Colleges of Education Academic Staff Union, (COEASU) members' strike was from December 2013 and suspended on 17th July 2014.

Teacher stress was also focused on this study, because of the researcher's personal experience.He has, before taking up appointment as a Graduate Assistant with Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, regarded himself as very hardworking, but the experiences of the last two years in the teaching profession at the tertiary level and observations from the difficulties he observed the senior colleagues going through made him have a rethink. The above raises concern regarding the attitudes of educators towards their work and their levels of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This study therefore seeks to find out the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among Academic Staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State.

1.3 Research Objectives

The following are the objectives for this study, to:

1. determine the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State;
2. find out the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among different age groups of academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State;.
3. determine the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among male and female academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State;.
4. find out the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on working experience; and,
5. determine relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on ownership of Institution.

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions served as guide to this study:

1. What is the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State?
2. What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among different age groups of academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State?
3. What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among male and female academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State?
4. What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on working experience?
5. What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on ownership of Institution?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following are the research hypotheses for testing at $P \leq 0.05$:

HO_1: There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State.

HO_2: There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among different age groups of academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State..

HO_3: There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among male and female academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State.

HO_4: There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on working experience.

HO_5: There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on ownership of institution.

1.6 Basic Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, the following assumptions are made:

1. Teacher stress may influence job satisfaction of academic staff of tertiary institutions.
2. The age of the academic staff of tertiary institutions may have influence on the teacher stress and job satisfaction.
3. The influence of teacher stress on job satisfaction may differ between male and female academic staff of tertiary institutions.
4. The level at which the teacher stress influence job satisfaction of academic staff of tertiary institution may differ depending on their working experience.
5. The influence of teacher stress on job satisfaction may differ between academic staff that work in federal or state owned tertiary institutions.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will be beneficial to all stake holders in the tertiary educational sector such as the academic staff, management of the tertiary institutions, counsellors and would-be-researchers. The academic staff of tertiary institutions will benefit from the findings of this study in the sense that study will find out the level of stress experienced by the academic staff.This will sensitize the academic staff on the need to design means of reducing stress such as organising their work to give room for relaxation, ensuring demarcation between work and home and engaging in activities that would promote positive mental health. Also the need to employ additional staff to complement those currently undertaking the job, provision of resources required by the academic staff that will enhance their performance. All these when implemented would go a long way in reducing the stressful condition under which the academic staff work hence improve their job satisfaction. An educator who achieves success in his/her job and whose needs are met in their work place would be a happy employee that would strive to maintain excellence.

The management of the tertiary institutions would from findings of this study see the need to employ more staff to take care of the increasing population of the students. Related to this also will be the need to provide the resources required by the academic staff for effective teaching and learning such as conducive office accommodation, public address system and access to research grants among others. This would reduce job stress and bring about job satisfaction of the academic staff.

Counsellors would find the findings of this study useful since the implication of teacher job stress and job satisfaction of the academic staff to counselling will be highlighted. This will further enhance the counsellors' understanding of the practical applications of the theories of job stress and job satisfaction especially as it relates to the job stress and job satisfaction of the academic staff.

Students would also benefit from the findings of this study because if the academic staff are able to manage their stress the students will get better attention hence will derive maximum benefit from their academic pursuit. All learning activities are designed for the benefit of the students, there will be no lecturers if there are no students, hence any means of improving the performance of the lecturer is directly aimed at enhancing the students' performance thereby producing literate citizens that would contribute to nation building.

Findings of this study will add to literature in the area of teacher stress and job satisfaction. Would-be researcher will find the work useful as reference point. Before this study, most of the study concentrates on the universities as such a study that covers the Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education would give more room for literature reviews.

The society will be able to understand the stressful conditions under which the academic staff work, as such will be sympathetic with the staff anytime the staff embark on any measure aimed at improving the dilapidating conditions of the tertiary institutions. The practice now is such that the society frowns at the recurring industrial actions by the academic staff under the auspices of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), theAcademic Staff Union of Polytechnics (ASUP) and the Colleges of Education Academic Staff Union, (COEASU).

1.8 Scope and Delimitation

Thisstudy covers all the academic staff of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Kaduna State University, Kaduna Polytechnic, Nuhu Bamali Polytechnic Zaria, Federal College of Education, Zaria and College of Education, Gidan- Waya. The age, gender, working experience of the academic staff and ownership of the institutions will be considered in the study.

The Non-academic staff of the Institutions will not be involved in this research, higher institutions whose students are not admitted through the UTME such as IAR and CERT of ABU Zaria, School of Leather Technology Zaria, NARICT Zaria, Ameer Shehu Idris

College of Advanced Studies, Zaria, School of Health Technology in Kaduna, Makarfi, Panbegua and Zonkwa, Schools of Nursing Tudun Wada and Wusasa and the School of Midwifery Kafanchan would not be involved in the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews related literatures to relationship between Teacher Stress and Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State. The sub-themes to be discussed are:

2.2 Conceptual frame work

2.2.1 Concept of Stress,
2.2.2 Concept of TeacherStress
2.3 Types, Causes and Effects of Stress
2.3.1 Types of Stress
2.3.2 Signs and Symptoms of Stress
2.3.3 Organisational (Job) Stressors
2.3.4 Determinants of Stress
2.3.5 Effects of Stress
2.4 Concept of Job Satisfaction,
2.4.1 Demographic Factors of Job Satisfaction
2.4.2 Job Satisfaction Factors Dimensions
2.5 Theoretical frame work
2.5.1 Theories of Job Stress
2.5.2 Theories of Job Satisfaction
2.6 Empirical Studies
2.7 Summary

2.2Conceptual frame work

2.2.1 Concept of Stress

The term stress means different things to different people. In relationship to occupation, it is the physical, mental and emotional wear and tear brought about by incongruence between the requirements of the job and capabilities, resources and needs of the employee to cope with job demands according to Akinboye, Akinboye and Adeyemo (2002). In a simple language, the term 'stress' is associated with distress; meaning any kind of demand, burden, pressure or hardship on an individual. Biologically speaking, stress means anything constituting a threat, either real or imagined which could damage the organism (Staton 2003). According to Balarabe, (2004) it is a psychological pressure acting on the individual and which generate anxiety.Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) see it as a process in which environmental events or forces threaten the wellbeing of the individuals in the society. Akinade (2007) defines it as any stimulus that either raises your excitement or anxiety level beyond what you regard as above your usual or personal capabilities. He stated that stress is a chronically high level of mental arousal and body tension that exceeds a person's capacity to cope, resulting in distress, disease or an increased capacity to cope (eustress).

Stress according to D'Arcy (2007) is the body's way of rising to a challenge and preparing to meet tough situation with focus, strength, stamina and heightened alertness. To Adeyemo and Ogunyemi (2010), it is an unavoidable characteristic of life and work, while Selye in Kayastha, & Kayastha, (2012) defines stress as the rate of wear and tear of the body. Stress is therefore a process in which events or forces threaten the wellbeing of an individual in the society. It is a disruption of the emotional stability of the individual that induces a state of disorganization in personality and behaviour.

2.2.2 Concept of Teacher Stress

Teacher stress is defined as experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as tension, frustration, anger and depression resulting from aspects of his work as a teacher (Kyriacou, (2001). Smith and Bourke (2000) and the Health and Safety Executive -UK (2000) reported

that two out of every five teachers were highly stressed as against one in every five in other occupations such as nursing, management, road haulage and security. Stress and its effects on teachers in the university had been studied in developed countries under such variables as workload, working conditions, poor motivation, external forces and low status (Kyriacou, 2000, Boyd and Wylie (cited in Archibong, Bassey & Effiong, 2005) and Lam and Punch, 2001).The recent study on stress in Nigerian universities by Nwadiani and Ofoegbu (2001) investigated the level of stress among fresh students in Nigerian universities and found out that their level of stress was very high as a result of stress faced by their lecturers.

2.3 Types, Causes and Effects of Stress

2.3.1 Types of Stress

Akinade (2007; 5-9) listed the following types of stress:

1. Eustress (positive and good stress)

This is the type of stress that refers to a state of physical and mental wellbeing in which mind and body together achieve their full potential. Eustress is a term coined by endocrinologist Hans Selye. The word eustress consists of two parts. The prefix ‘eu’- derives from the Greek word meaning either "well" or "good." When attached to the word stress, it literally means "good stress". Eustress was originally explored in a stress model by Richard Lazarus, it is the positive cognitive response to stress that is healthy, or gives one a feeling of fulfilment or other positive feelings. Akinade (2007) reports that Selye created the term as a subgroup of stress to differentiate the wide variety of stressors and manifestations of stress. Eustress is not defined by the stressor type, but rather how one perceives that stressor (e.g. a negative threat versus a positive challenge). Eustress refers to a positive response one has to a stressor, which can depend on one's current feelings of control, desirability, location, and timing of the stressor. Potential indicators of eustress may include responding to a stressor with a sense of

meaning, hope, or vigour. Eustress has also been positively correlated with life satisfaction and well-being.

2. Distress.

This is a negative state or reaction of the body that arises from either under-or over – stimulation. Selye (cited in Kayastha & Kayastha, 2012) argued that persistent stress that is not resolved through coping or adaptation should be known as distress, and may lead to anxiety, withdrawal, and depressive behaviour. In medicine, distress is an aversive state in which a person is unable to adapt completely to stressors and their resulting stress and shows maladaptive behaviours. It can be evident in the presence of various phenomena, such as inappropriate social interaction (e.g., aggression, passivity, or withdrawal). Stress can be created by influences such as work, school, peers or co-workers, family and death. Other influences vary by age. This means that distress is the opposite of eustress, a positive stress that motivates people. People under constant distress are more likely to become sick, mentally or physically. There is a clear response association between psychological distress and major causes of mortality across the full range of distress (Russ, Stamatakis, Hamer, Starr, Kivimäki, and Batty; 2013)

3. Acute stress.

This is body's reaction to immediate short term threat. It is treatable and manageable. it is a very common form of stress which arises from current, future and past demands on the body or person

4. Self-imposed stress.

This is the stress that generate from within a person. This is created by an individual not environmentally influenced. Ellis stated that often some individuals carry around a set of irrational, self-defeating beliefs or thoughts that increases normal stress of living. This is due

to the fact that any slight sign of discrepancy, failure or inappropriateness will cause the individual stress or feel worthless

5. Chronic stress.

This is a continuing stressful circumstance which is neither thrilling nor exciting. This kills through suicide, violence, heart attack, stroke and perhaps cancer due to the fact that individuals wear down to a final fatal breakdown as a result of depletion in mental and physical resources been depleted through long term attrition.

6. Uncontrollable stress.

This is the type of stress that the individual have no say or way out of. Causes of uncontrollable stress include mandatory retirement, rape, death or serious injury in a motor accident and prison or police detentions

7. Acculturative stress

This is a cultural change that results from continuous first-hand contact with two distinctive cultural groups. Negative consequences of acculturation often leads to stress.

8. Normal stress

This is the type of stress that the body can cope with. Examples include being tense over difficult decisions, worrying about problems in relationships or feeling fear when in danger. They are all normal reactions to stress. Examples include being tense over difficult decisions, worrying about problems in relationships or feeling fear when in danger. These are normal reactions to stress.

9. Post-traumatic stress

This type of stress comes after exposure to certain serious disturbing harrowing experiences such as armed robbery, inferno, loss of a dear one, rape, floods, earth quakes, kidnapping, and near fatal accident.

10. Critical incident stress

A critical incident is a workplace event —like an accident, injury, fatality, or robbery —that causes emotional or psychological trauma in people exposed to the incident directly, or even indirectly. It is a sudden, powerful event outside the range of normal experience — and outside workers' control. A critical incident will often overwhelm a worker's ability to function in a normal way by causing strong emotional reactions. People who experience a traumatic event may be left feeling upset and shaken. Some common reactions to a highly stressful event are:

• Feeling jumpy, anxious, moody, or irritable

• Having difficulty concentrating, making decisions, or thinking clearly

• Having trouble going near the accident scene or to places that trigger memories of the accident or incident

• Having trouble being around people

• Having difficulty being alone

People may experience some or all of these reactions. These reactions are *normal* responses to stressful or *abnormal* events. However, in some cases, people may feel overwhelmed and unable to cope with day-today demands. They may feel numb, shocked, abandoned, and helpless. Some workers may have trouble sleeping. Some may stay away from work. Workers' home lives and personal relationships may suffer — workers may take their feelings of guilt, powerlessness, or anger out on their families. Some may withdraw, or turn to drugs and alcohol. In other cases, workers may suffer from nightmares or have flashbacks to the event — often fearing the event will happen again.

11. Executive stress

This is the type of stress experienced by important leaders. It is a psychological burden carried by people who have responsibility for organisations, institutions, companies, nations or even groups like head of the family. Human resource is often described by the Human

relations experts as the most difficult resource to handle. Different humans have different and divergentneeds, harmonising these needs towards achieving a group aim is usually accompanied by a lot of stress.

2.3.2 Signs and Symptoms of Stress

One of the problems with stress is recognising it. Once one is aware of it we can take action. However stress can be stealthy, it can slowly creep up on us without us being immediately aware of it. There are numerous signs and symptoms of stress that many of us are unaware of. Not everybody develops exactly the same symptoms and research has indicated that, although there are common symptoms of stress, individuals vary in the symptoms they present some of us may have mainly physical symptoms such as muscle pain/tension, others may present with symptoms such as crying or anger.

Physical Stress Symptoms (How Our Body Reacts)

- Breathlessness
- Churning stomach
- Diarrhoea/Constipation
- Dizziness
- Dry mouth
- Excess perspiration
- Fatigue
- Headaches
- Hyperventilating
- Increased colds/flu
- Increased heart rate
- Indigestion
- Impotence
- Nausea
- Palpitations
- Pre Menstrual Syndrome
- Sense of heart pounding

- Shallow breathing

Psychological Stress Symptoms (How We Think and Feel)

- Abrasive
- Anxious
- Blaming others
- Catastrophising
- Cynical
- Depression
- Depressed/Anxious thinking
- Excess guilt
- Excess worries over health
- Feeling a failure
- Feelings of fear
- Feeling unable to cope
- Frustration
- Hopelessness/helplessness
- Hostile
- Hypercritical of self/others
- Impatience
- Increased worrying
- Indecision
- Irritability
- Jealousy
- Lack of concentration
- Loss of confidence
- Lower self-esteem
- Mind in a whirl
- Mood swings
- Negative thinking
- Pessimistic thinking
- Rumination
- Sensitivity to criticism
- Snappy
- Stressful thinking
- Tense
- Worrying a lot

Behavioural Stress Symptoms (How We Behave)

- Aggression
- Agitation
- Avoidance behaviour

- Crying
- Decreased/increased sexuality
- Difficulty relaxing
- Difficulty with relationships
- Eating fast
- Eating too much/too little
- Gambling
- Hostile behaviour
- Impatience
- Increased alcohol
- Increased caffeine
- Increased smoking
- Losing temper
- Making mistakes
- Nail biting
- Outbursts of anger
- Poor eye contact
- Poorer personal hygiene
- Poor time management
- Restlessness
- Risk taking
- Substance abuse
- Talking fast
- Walking fast
- Withdrawal from relationships
- Withdrawal from activities

Work Related Stress Symptoms (How we may be affected in our work)

- Absenteeism
- Accidents
- Inability to delegate
- Increased sick days
- Inefficiency
- Persistent lateness
- Procrastination

- Poor decision making
- Poor interaction with colleagues
- Reduced work performance
- Resentment/anger/irritability

Source: http://www.webmd.com/balance/stress-management/stress-symptoms-effects_of-stress-on-the-body

2.3.3 Organizational (Job) Stressors

The following are the biggest contributors to workplace stress according to Sharma & Jyoti, (2009).

1. Bad Bosses

Recent studies suggest that one of the biggest sources of stress at work is having a bad boss. Toxic bosses wreak havoc in organizations. Sometimes bad bosses may be among the most experienced, hardworking and results-oriented folks in an organization. People can put up with many types of adversity, but often the hardest is to work for an "interpersonally challenged" boss. Ask anyone who has endured a number of difficult bosses in their career, and they'll tell you bosses come in many varieties and there are all sorts of boss-induced stress. Generally, where there are toxic bosses, there is increased turnover, more stress disability claims, less productivity and lower team morale. The evidence mounts: After 20 years of research and 60,000 exit interviews, the Saratoga Institute reports that 80% of turnover is directly related to unsatisfactory relationships with one's boss. According to a Gallup Organization study of approximately 2 million workers at 700 companies, the number one reason people leave their jobs is because of "bad bosses." Another recent Gallup study found poorly managed workgroups are an average of 50 percent less productive and 44 percent less profitable than well-managed groups. A conclusion reached by Herman (citedin Kayastha& Kayastha, 2012) is that 3/4 of people voluntarily leaving jobs don't quit their jobs; they quit their bosses. • Workplace bullying is more prevalent than most of us suspect. The most notorious and illegal varieties - sexual harassment and racial discrimination – get the most press, but bullying can take many forms. Bullies can be accidental, chronic, opportunistic, or substance-abuse related. The U.S. Hostile Workplace Survey 2000 (Campaign against Workplace Bullying) provided prevalence estimates of bullying in the U.S. to be approximately 1 in 6 (16.8%) workers who has experienced severe disruptive

mistreatment in the past 12 months (Alexandros-Stamatios et al., 2003). Being the victim of a brutal boss leads to clinical depression in 41 percent of victims, according to a survey by Bullybusters.org, an online non-profit in Benicia, CA, that advises victims of workplace abuse. Bullying eats away at self-confidence and leaves victims feeling inadequate and isolated. The victimization also can lead to sleep disorders, ulcers, high blood pressure, loss of creativity and even posttraumatic stress disorder. To the extent organizations tolerate poor management; employees are subjected to much unnecessary stress. Getting rid of bad bosses (or managing them) can alleviate much of it. The best organizations hire bosses, in part, based on their social and interpersonal skills (their emotional intelligence). They also provide training, mentoring, and incentives to help bosses learn how to treat people humanely and at the same time get productive work from them. Unlike primitive concepts where productivity and employee satisfaction were seen as trade-offs, there are some management styles that aim to maximize both objectives. Enlightened organizations actively encourage and reward that. They view their investment in management talent as a means of protecting their investment in their employees.

2. Overload, Frequent Reorganization and the Pace of Change

While bad bosses have been around since the dawn of time (or at least the dawn of organized work), the current pace of change has been a relatively new phenomenon. And, it is leaving employees reeling. Organizational charts are changing more quickly, and people have less of a clue about what's going on. Consequently, trust and confidence in management is down, and when people look outside the organization, they have seen fewer options. It is no surprise people feel more confused, angry, depressed, and worried about their job security. According to one executive in a Fortune 500 company, "We find the constant reorganizations are creating a lot of uncertainty and stress (Sauter at el, cited in Astrauskaitė, Vaitkevičius, & Perminas, 2011). In addition to work overload (since people now may have to do work that

displaced workers used to do), it is the lack of information itself that leads to panic. Often our managers are well-intentioned. They don't want to raise people's fears by telling them about impending restructuring. However, the lack of information actually creates more panic." The way mergers are handled can be especially demoralizing: "In the old days, we used to know everything and share information before it hit the street. Now we know it at the same time, or even later than everyone else." It is unsettling for employees to hear on the news about their own company, or to get a call from a friend outside the company who may have heard about it first. Human beings desire a certain amount of stability and certainty. When major changes occur, people's sense of predictability and control is disturbed. To the extent it is practical and legally permissible; it is good practice to share as much information as possible. And when you can't, say you can't and that you will share it as soon as you can.

3. Job Designs That Do Not Make Sense

Napping at work may be as hazardous to your health as it is to your security. According to a new University of Texas study, people who struggle to stay awake in passive jobs are 34% more likely to die prematurely than employees who have more active jobs (includes all causes of death). Additionally, a very heavy workload coupled with little decision making opportunity—air traffic controllers, for example—makes a premature demise 45% to 50% more likely. Why? Heavy workloads can lead to continuously high stress hormones and often are associated with poor overall health habits. In turn, poor habits are strongly correlated with adverse health, increased absenteeism and decreased productivity. Also, some job requirements simply do not make sense. Research on job satisfaction shows people want to do meaningful work that fits in to a larger framework (Alexandros-Stamatios et al., 2003). A sure way to kill motivation is to assign jobs where that connection is not clear. When people do not see the purpose of their work, there is little for them to get excited about. Work becomes a chore - a place to drag oneself to every day. A growing body of research suggests

two major factors leading to stress in this area. Jobs that are designed with little decision latitude and those with tremendous pressure and overload are linked consistently with lower productivity and adverse psychological and physical health outcomes such as hypertension and cardiovascular disease. Today, many employees feel an extra dose of pressure to produce more with fewer resources - adding to a psychological sense of overload. Employees who can actively participate in solving problems, planning their work, and making decisions are not only more satisfied, but more productive and healthier.

4. Lousy Feedback

Most of us require a certain diet of feedback. When that diet is deficient, there can be a number of problems. Sometimes we don't get enough positive feedback. Sometimes, we don't get any feedback. And sometimes it is the manner the feedback is given. In the first case, people who get plenty of negative feedback, but little positive (related to the problem of bad bosses) live in a very de-motivating work climate. It is stressful to be told only when you screw up. Getting consistently skewed feedback can erode self-confidence and make work a whole lot less fun(Sauter at el (cited in Astrauskaitė, Vaitkevičius, & Perminas, 2011). Getting no feedback at all can be extremely stressful too. (Or the variant of getting feedback that is so vague and watered down, you might as well get none.) The most engaging jobs are those where people perform a task --whether a complicated management process or a simple physical task -- and get immediate feedback. They know right away what worked and what did not. They know they have an impact on their environment. They see the connection between what they do and achieving some result. When deprived of that connection, people are left to swim through the mush of their work not knowing if their actions had any impact on anything or anyone. Current research suggests as leaders move up in organizations, they actually receive less direct feedback about their interpersonal and leadership style. Others are less inclined to be honest with them. One of the reasons for the rising popularity of 360

degree feedback processes is that they provide targeted information to leaders about what they are doing effectively and what their "blind spots" are. Feedback, properly delivered, actually increases motivation and reduces stress for most high performing employees. All feedback is not created equal! In fact, the way feedback is delivered sometime can be more important than the feedback itself. A recent meta-analysis review of over 600 feedback interventions in diverse organizations revealed that one-third of those interventions actually resulted in decreased performance! It is clear that little, no, or poorly delivered feedback can have tremendous impact on the psychological health and productivity of employees.

5. Money

Ask most employees, and they'll tell you they do not make enough money. When questioned about what can be done to make them happier, a common response is "just pay me more." However, that knee -jerk reaction may mask other more basic drivers of dissatisfaction. Below a certain threshold, to be sure, low pay does cause stress. (A large body of epidemiological research links low socioeconomic status to poorer overall health.) However, attitudes related to money often are complex and can have a bigger impact than actual dollars (Alexandros-Stamatios et al., 2003) Feelings about fairness, violated expectations, and lack of control can affect people more than their absolute level of pay. (An axiom stress management is that it usually is the perception of stress that is so stressful not the stressor itself.) "Equity theory" says that what your neighbour makes can change how you feel about what you make. Mary earns $75,000 a year and considers herself well paid. However, she finds out her colleague Pat is making $90,000 and doing less work. Now, her sense of justice may be offended. Simmering resentment can result. Also, if expectations are violated (the "psychological contract" as behavioural scientists likes to say), that too can lead to money stress. When people are led to believe they will get a certain raise or that their pay will be contingent on performance, they expect follow-through. Violations of such expectations can

lead to pent-up resentment, depression and a lower level of commitment to the organization. Paradoxically, being overpaid can be stressful too. Of all the dysfunctional workgroups we have known - and we have known many - some of the absolutely worst ones contained people who were substantially overpaid. And they knew it! Trapped in "golden handcuffs," they would not leave even the most deplorable or abusive work conditions. Instead, they simply hunkered down, grinned, bared it and did whatever it took to hang on to their jobs. Below the surface, however, they were seething. Sometimes they would act out in ways just short of getting themselves fired. Unable to attain satisfaction themselves, their closest substitute was to stir things up and try to make others miserable too.

6. Unpleasant Co-Workers

We catch colds and bad moods from infected co-workers. Like bad bosses, unpleasant co-workers rank right up there as a major source of occupational stress. A common chorus among many workgroups is "we spend more time with each other than we do with our families." Often that is true. The people we hang out with can have a big effect on how we feel about ourselves. Sauter at el (cited in Astrauskaitė, Vaitkevičius, & Perminas, 2011) concluded that poor relations with colleagues, supervisors and subordinates at work have been identified as important risk factors for stress-related problems. What goes on from 9 to 5 (or even later) may have a big impact compared to what we do at night and on weekends away from work. Team work, collaboration, political culture and interpersonal style play a big role in the type and amount of work stress that employees experience day-to-day. A substantial body of literature in social psychology has found that positive moods foster pro-social behaviour in a variety of settings (i.e., collaborative team work). These studies strongly suggest that positive mood at work is related to both health and productivity. For example, in a recent study of 210 sales people, positive mood at work was significantly associated with less absenteeism and greater pro-social behaviour towards other team

members. Unpleasant co-workers, on the other hand, can make work a real drag, driving down both the well-being and productivity of those around them.

7. The Work Itself

Sometimes, it is the actual work itself that leads to stress – not the conditions surrounding the work. In blue-collar jobs especially, exposure to chemicals, noise or an unpleasant physical working environment are common sources of stress. Among pink- and white-collar employees, environmental sources of stress are less common, but stress emanating from the social and political environment can be just as toxic. It is highly stressful when people believe their job requires them to do things that go against their values or beliefs. Managers or human resource folks sometimes feel compelled to take management's side and toe the company line even though their true sympathies lie elsewhere. Or potential whistle-blowers may anguish over whether they are willing to pay the price for acting on their principles. At its worst, people believe they need to lie in order to survive. Putting a lot of energy into posturing and presenting a false self can be insidious to physical and mental health. People often incur great costs when they feel they must pretend to be different from who they really are, or to cover for the mistakes and misdeeds of others.

8. **Techno stress**

Techno stress is not new. It has been around for a long time -- even before "multi-tasking" was a word. For quite a while, many of us suffered from information overload, and felt we were expected to do too many things at once. "Give yourself permission not to multi-task" is a more modern version of the mantra "one thing at a time." And yes, it is getting worse. By the time this goes to press, there probably will be a few more time-saving or data-transmitting technologies available to us. In many cases, rather than using them as tools to make our lives simpler, we feel compelled to use them and also suffer their effects. We become more available and have the capacity to do even more things in even less time.

Rather than being the master of technology, it is easy to become the victim of it. Have you checked your email lately? Just logging on at the beginning or end of a day (or not being able to log on at all) can increase your blood pressure substantially. Technology can be a double-edged sword. It potentially increases productivity. However, it also can increase expectations and the resulting work load. The bar is raised. Our level of customer focus is higher. Now, we may feel we need to be responsive to others all around us 24/7. A recent AT&T corporate study found that half of those taking vacation either call in to work or check email while away (and that's assuming they do so with a healthy discount on their long distance telephone bill). We know many stories of executives who spend practically their entire vacation responding to their e-mails, voice-mails and pagers. This can contribute to the "let down effect" where people actually get sick just when they planned to actually unwind and relax. Current research from UCLA suggests that some individuals actually get sick as soon as they slow down and get away from techno stress and the demands from work ("reactors"). Others wait to get sick until they get back to work when they have to work doubly hard to catch up after a relaxing vacation ("delayers").

9. **Work/Life/Family Balance**

Results of a new study from the University of Maryland confirm what working parents already know -- the expanded work week is undermining family life. In a study of over 500 employees in a Fortune 500 company, researchers concluded that long hours at work increase work-family conflict and that this conflict is associated with stress related health problems and depression. This was true regardless of how flexible an employee's schedule was or how much help they had at home for child care. In case anyone hasn't noticed, some major career paradigm shifts continue to influence the value struggle between employers' needs and employees' wants. Job security has been replaced by employability security, organizational loyalty has been replaced by job/task loyalty, linear career paths have been replaced by

alternative career paths, and career success has been replaced by work/family balance.According to Alexandros-Stamatios et al. (2003) home-work interface can be known as the overlap between work and home; the two way relationship involves the source of stress at work affecting home life and vice versa , effects of seafaring on home life, demands from work at home, no support from home, absent of stability in home life. It is no coincidence that when reviewing characteristics of the "Best Companies" in America, we find a shift to those that are indeed "family friendly." In the past, it simply was accepted that many of us had to put in long hours (particularly if we wanted to be promoted and climb the corporate ladder). In recent years, some folks are reprioritizing. Despite economic conditions, they feel life should not centre entirely on work. Today, an increasing number of employees are willing to put family, community, religion, hobbies, or volunteering first even if they pay the price. Career research from Organizational Performance Dimensions suggests there is a greater proportion of working adults who endorse work/family balance as a top priority for them—despite anxieties over the slow economic recovery and continuing threats of downsizing. Despite these trends and despite the existence of family-friendly work policies in many organizations, there are plenty of cultures that actively discourage employees from leading balanced lives. Rewards and promotions go to those who put in the requisite amount of "face time," staying at the office long enough to show they are good dedicated corporate citizens.

2.3.4 Determinants of Stress

(1) **Personality Characteristics**: It is an important factor in the development of stress. Lazarus indicated that the way in which a person interprets a situation is of great importance for the occurrence or non-occurrence of stress problems. The interpretation of a situation is related to an individual's personality structure. A very competitive person will regard a situation in which he had the worst of it as more threatening than someone who is not

competitive. Jenkins(citedin Parvin & NurulKabir, 2011) arrived at a Coronary prone behavioural pattern. Individuals who are subject to this syndrome are characterized by extreme competitiveness, an urge to achieve, aggression, haste, impatience, restlessness, hyper-alertness, tension and time pressure. The measurement of time has become more sophisticated over the past hundred years and the pace of life has increased. Rosenman and Friedman called this mental and behavioural pattern the type-A behaviour. On the basis of experience and research, they adopted a theory that is unacceptable to many cardiologists. In the absence of a Type-A behaviour pattern, coronary heart disease almost never occurs before 70 years of age, regardless of the fatty foods eaten, the cigarettes smoked or the lack of exercise. But when this behaviour pattern is present, coronary heart disease can easily erupt in one's thirties or forties (Rosenman & Friedman,citedin Kayastha& Kayastha, 2012). This competitive person; who continually lives under time-pressure and worries about lack of time, is found in many organizations. Some authors say that this type of behaviour is an extreme variant of what is socially highly recommended and positively rewarded. Others think that Type-A behaviour is dysfunctional and that the better jobs are only for the quiet, detached, contemplative Type-B. Glass in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011) has theorized that A-types demonstrate hyper-responsiveness with regard to challenging situations, meaning that they always expose themselves to fight situations. If they fail to succeed, they will, much more so than B-types, start to achieve less and experience learned helplessness. Other personality characteristics which are of significance in stress research are rigidity, conformism, suppression of aggression, dogmatism, authoritarianism, internal versus external control.

(2) Role Overload: It is a condition in which the individual is faced with a set of obligations which require him to do more than he is able to in the time available. It obviously has to do with lack of time and too many activities. In the case of too many activities, we speak of

quantitative overload; when an individual has to perform tasks that are too difficult for him, we speak of qualitative overload (French & Caplan in cited Astrauskaitė, Vaitkevičius, & Perminas, (2011). The role bearer may be bombarded by expectations; a force which he eventually cannot cope with. A sensible tactic then is to organize 'role negotiation' or 'role bargaining.Whereby the threatened individual tries to organise his obligations with or without outside help. Nevertheless, some individuals do not appreciate a simplification of their tasks and continue their 'Sisyphus complex'. However, research is still needed on whether self-inflicted overload and overload inflicted by others make a significant difference.

(3) Role Conflict: It is the simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressures, such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other. Some professions or jobs are characterized by a higher degree of role conflict than others. People in mediating positions appear to be the most vulnerable because they are in the centre of a network of pressures. The Personnel Manager, for instance, wants to belong to the organizational staff, but on the other hand, he must dare to stand up for the man at a lower level. This forces him to compromise, which results in both parties mistrusting him. To be in a role conflict situation is often associated with little job satisfaction, obesity and a higher coronary risk (Kahn et al.; Shirom et al; and Caplan et al (cited in Astrauskaitė, Vaitkevičius, & Perminas, 2011). Moreover, House and Rizzo (cited in Parvin & NurulKabir, 2011) found more feelings of anxiety and tension and a higher degree of fatigue in cases of role conflict. Role conflict has emerged as an important Stressor, although there are indications that this is more the case for the white collar professions than for blue collar factory workers.

(4) Role Ambiguity: People in an organization sometimes do not have sufficient information about what they are expected to do and especially about how they are to perform a task. This deficiency can be remedied through job evaluation, job descriptions and education. In the Dutch research on middle management, ambiguity emerged as the most powerful Stressor.

Too much role ambiguity correlated significantly with psychological and psychosomatic complaints, with higher heart beat frequency, with concern for personal functioning, and with higher absenteeism. In India, contrary to the findings of Das (cited in Parvin & NurulKabir, 2011), who has reported that role ambiguity is not a significant cause of stress, the researchers in general have expressed a serious concern about role ambiguity as a stress inducing factor.

(5) Role Stagnation and Mid-life Crisis: Many people experience the frightening feeling of being fixed in their role within the organization. Most threatening is monotonous work or work lacking in challenge, whereby time seems to stand still. Some people develop a strong aversion to their job or their position in the organization, but secondary working conditions are sometimes so favourable that people often stay on involuntarily. Middle age is an especially problematic period for many employees, particularly for those in middle and higher management. One's career is no longer growing, tension has vanished and there are no further possibilities. It is implied that one should rise in one's career and rising means promotion. Room at the top of the pyramid is, however, limited; as a result, employees get frustrated exactly during that period of their life when their career opportunities are becoming decisively clear. Because of, among other things, career frustrations, middle age is often accompanied by a series of vague psychoneurotic and psychosomatic complaints, including heart neurosis, headaches, lower back complaints, exhaustion and overweight. Hinkle in Sharma & Jyoti, (2009)has contended that individuals who rise too fast within an organization do not show more stress than those who do not. This is attributed to the following mechanism: success in career may be perceived as having control over one's destiny (Agrawal & Dharcitedin Amburgey, 2005), and can serve as a means to alleviate frustration and combat stress. Too much mobility of individuals within or between organizations can also have detrimental effects.

(6) Absence of Social Support: Relations with others, both at home and work, are often crucial for an employee's well-being. This makes high demands upon social skills. An employee should build up a good relation of trust with his environment. On the one hand, he should defend his rights and prove himself, but, on the other hand, he should not rely too much on his capacities only. In research on middle management, it was found that inadequate willingness of others to help at work is related to considerably more smoking as well as to anxiety about one's own functioning, job dissatisfaction and physical complaints. Good relationship between employer and employee serves as a shield against the occurrence of stress. French in Judge et al (2001) has reported a significantly positive relation between role ambiguity and serum cholesterol level for employees who had a bad relationship with their employer. This pattern disappeared if a good relationship existed between employer and employee. He has reported a significantly negative correlation of social support and open communication with the felt stress.

(7) Role Incompatibility: the 'person-environment fit' theory of French el al. in Judge et al (2001) distinguishes two kinds of agreement between an individual and the job environment. The first fit' is between an individual's capabilities arid the possibilities presented by the job. If there is no such adequate coordination between the individual and the environment, then strains like anxiety, depression and dissatisfaction have an increasing chance of occurrence. General improvements in the organization cannot be effectively made if the possibilities and wishes of those involved are not considered. Many job design programmes assume that their proposed changes meet the need for more challenge and participation of those involved. Those who want a more complex and challenging job can take advantage of the opportunities opened up to them. Those individuals who prefer simple jobs can choose to delegate decision making to others who want this job demand. Adequate adjustment of the individual to his job environment and vice versa is, therefore, important. This is often not the case and the

individual consequently experiences strain. (Sharmacited in Shields & Rangaranjan (2013) has identified 10 different types of organizational role stresses, including Role Stagnation Stress, Role Overload Stress and Role Ambiguity Stress. The other seven are: Inter-Role Distance (experienced when there is a conflict between organizational and non-organizational roles. Examples are: the role of an executive versus the role of a father), Role Expectation Stress (aroused out of conflicting demands originating from colleagues), Role Erosion Stress (aroused when a role has become less important than it used to be, or when somebody else gets the credit for doing what needs to be done in one's own role), Role Isolation Stress (characterized by the feeling that others do not reach out easily, indicative of the absence of strong linkages of one's role with other roles), Personal Inadequacy Stress (depicted by the absence of adequate skills, competence, and training to meet the demands of one's role), Self-Role Distance Stress (aroused from a gap experienced between one's concept of self and the demands of the role), and Resource Inadequacy Stress (around when the human or material resources allocated are inadequate to meet the demands of the role). Omoniyi (2012) has observed that images of action can have as much of an effect as action itself. Ideas and imagery can arouse the same type of internal physiological changes as the actual actions do. Thus, blood pressure rises even when one thinks of being angry. Most threats are either self-contrived or born out of misunderstandings and defective cognitive structuring. Further, Shukla (cited in Olushola 2012) in a study of managerial stress experiences has concluded that it may be more accurate to look at stress as a pattern of inter-related experiences rather than as one single experience. The stress due to lack of freedom at work is as real as the experience of stress due to an inter-personal encounter. He has also conceded that pattern of stressful experiences appears to be unique to an individual or a group of individuals and it may be determined by the life-situations of the individual(s), as well as their personality.

(8) Management of Stress: It is believed that the amount of strain depends on the number of coping tactics available to an individual, Stress arises only when people find out that they cannot cope adequately with a difficult situation. Adaptive response to job stress is a response intended to eliminate, ameliorate or change the stress producing factors in the job context or intended to modify, in a beneficial way, the individual's reaction to the stressful job situation. The adaptive response could be considered both curative and preventive. Generally, two different styles of coping with stress are distinguished: the 'avoider' as opposed to the 'coper'. The avoider solves his stress problems simply by denying them: taking time off from routine pre-occupations, developing hobbies, and getting involved in book reading, attending intellectual discourses, etc. (Sharma cited in Shields & Rangaranjan (2013), whereas the coper seeks out stress situations in order to learn how to cope with them (Lazarus et al cited in Obisi, 2003). Strategy of confrontation or coping, instead of avoiding problems, relies on facing them and working out a solution. The causes of job stress could be found both within the individual and the work environment. As such it is logical that an individual's attempt to manage job stress might focus on changing the personal condition and/or the environmental condition that precipitated or otherwise influenced his or her experiences of stress. These studies have shown that the greater the belief in one's ability to influence the environment, the lower is the reported job strain. In order to experience less strain and improve one's physical condition, an individual can start off by tackling the so-called risk factors: smoking less, eating less, taking more exercise, more relaxation, using less salt, etc. The development of learning-based anxiety reduction techniques and cognitive therapies has served to stimulate the development of educational programmes designed to help people acquire specific coping responses they can use to prevent or reduce stress response. Meditation, biofeedback and relaxation training are all effective in alleviating anxiety, although their effectiveness varies with the symptom being treated. Meditation being

an increasingly popular technique focuses on enabling the individual to control his/her responses to stressful stimuli. It refers to sustained concentration upon a single work, object or idea while one maintains a quiet repose. The purpose of meditative techniques is to restrict one's physical and mental activity, the result being a calming of the mind-body, a state of tranquillity, i.e., stress reduction. Individuals who are able to lower their anxiety level thus are more productive, it is said, since they can attend more efficiently to their task. Strong positive relationship has been reported between transcendental meditation and the measures of better performance, increased job satisfaction, reduced turnover propensity, better relationship with superior, better relationship with peers, and reduced motivation to climb the hierarchy. Other courses are those of psychotherapy, by which traumas can be lessened and ways for re-orientation discussed. Behaviour modification uses principles derived from the experimental analysis of behaviour and social learning theory to modify maladaptive behaviours or inculcate more adaptive habits. Any kind of reward or punishment which improves or modifies the behaviour is a sort of behaviour therapy and results in the modification of behaviour of the recipient. Behaviour modification is the goal of any behaviour therapy which is achieved through a family of techniques. The diverse methods included under the general label have in common the goal of enhancing persons' lives by altering specific aspects of their behaviour (Agrawal and Dharcited in Amburgey, 2005). It includes a variety of processes and procedures, some of them being operant conditioning, modelling, cognitive restructuring and systematic desensitization. A number of researchers who have been studying 'stress' for some time espouse complete lifestyle re-adjustment as the best way to manage stress. Rosenman and Friedman(citedin Kayastha& Kayastha, 2012) present some suggestions, such as substituting the hectic, competitive A-type life pattern by a more contemplative and balanced B-type pattern. However, these authors are not so clear about how to bring about such a change. The concern with Type-A behaviour has recently

led to programmes designed to modify these behaviours. It is doubtful whether it is desirable to exclude, via selection, the Type-A from certain organisational functions (Lazarus et alcited in Atindanbila, 2011). The social contact between individual and organization should be clearly spelt out to limit confusion and prevent the existence of unrealistic expectations; much care should be given to arriving at compatibility between organizational role arid individual. An individual who thinks about forthcoming events-and the potential Stressors that may arise is seemingly in a better position to make adaptive response than the individual who rushes blindly from one event to the next. One should think realistically about mid-life changes in advance and prepare for them. Individuals should expose themselves to new skills and ideas, engage in exploratory behaviour, and develop flexibility and self-motivation. If, however, the structural causes remain unchanged, exhaustion of the individual may be expected. An impending stress problem requires activities at various levels simultaneously. Job overload will have to-be reduced to more workable proportions; roles with too many ambiguities should be re-structured; the non-supporting role should be revised and be given .more support by employer and colleagues. Stress management programmes can employ a variety of Stressors so as to give subjects the opportunity to practise and experiment with various coping skills. These can include stress inducing films, unpredictable electric shock, imagining stressful situations and other physical and psychological Stressors.

2.3.5 Effects of Stress

1. Behavioural effects of stress

The behavioural effects of an over-stressed lifestyle are easy to explain. When under pressure, some people are more likely to drink heavily or smoke, as a way of getting immediate chemical relief from stress.

Others may have so much work to do that they do not exercise or eat properly. They may cut down on sleep, or may worry so much that they sleep badly. They may get so carried away

with work and meeting daily pressures that they do not take time to see the doctor or dentist when they need to. All of these are likely to harm health.

The direct physiological effects of excessive stress are more complex. In some areas they are well understood, while in other areas, they are still subject to debate and further research.

2. Stress and heart disease

The link between stress and heart disease is well-established. If stress is intense, and stress hormones are not 'used up' by physical activity, our raised heart rate and high blood pressure put tension on arteries and cause damage to them. As the body heals this damage, artery walls scar and thicken, which can reduce the supply of blood and oxygen to the heart.

This is where a fight-or-flight response can become lethal: Stress hormones accelerate the heart to increase the blood supply to muscles; however, blood vessels in the heart may have become so narrow that not enough blood reaches the heart to meet these demands. This can cause a heart attack.

3. Other effects of stress

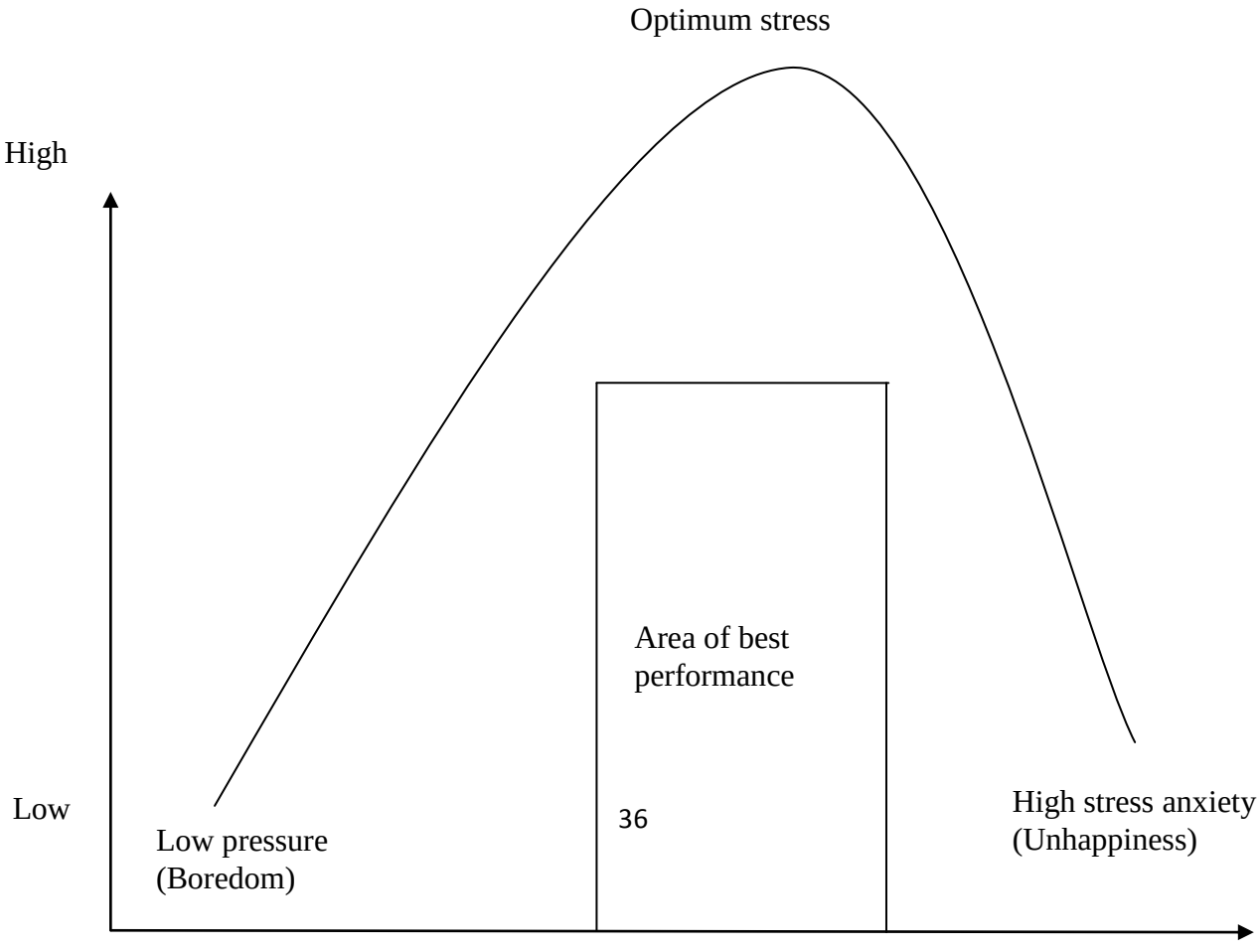
Stress has been also been found to damage the immune system, which explains why we catch more colds when we are stressed. It may intensify symptoms in diseases that have an autoimmune component, such as rheumatoid arthritis. It also seems to affect headaches and irritable bowel syndrome, and there are now suggestions of links between stress and cancer.

Stress is also associated with mental health problems and, in particular, anxiety and depression. Here the relationship is fairly clear: the negative thinking that is associated with stress also contributes to these.

The direct effects of stress in other areas of health are still under debate. In some areas (for example in the formation of stomach ulcers) diseases traditionally associated with stress are now attributed to other causes.

4. Pressure & Performance – the Inverted U

The relationship between pressure and performance is explained in one of the oldest and most important ideas in stress management, the "Inverted-U" relationship between pressure and performance (see below). The Inverted-U relationship focuses on people's performance of a task



The inverted U: Relationship between pressure and performance

Source: Kiev & Kohn (1979, 10**)**

The left hand side of the graph is easy to explain for pragmatic reasons. When there is very little pressure on us to carry out an important task, there is little incentive for us to focus energy and attention on it. This is particularly the case when there may be other, more urgent, or more interesting, tasks competing for attention.

As pressure on us increases, we enter the "area of best performance". Here, we are able to focus on the task and perform well – there is enough pressure on us to focus our attention but not so much that it disrupts our performance.

2.4 Concept of Job Satisfaction

So many authors defined the concept of job satisfaction in different ways, for example Spector (cited in Spector, 2000) refers to job satisfaction in terms of how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) support this view by defining job satisfaction as the extent to which employees like their work. It is the personal evaluation of the job conditions (the job itself, the attitude of the administration etc.) or the consequences or (wages, occupational security etc.) acquired from the job (Fletcher and Williams, 2006). According to another definition, job satisfaction is the phenomenon ascertaining the contentment of the server and appearing when the qualifications of the job and the demands of the servers match (Reichers, 2006). In line with these definitions, job satisfaction might be handled as the consequence resulting from the comparison between the

expectations of the server from his job and the job in question which is performed. The consequence may emerge as satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the server from the job.

Additionally, Mbua (2003, 305) then, defines job satisfaction as "the fulfilment acquired by experiencing various job activities and rewards." Whereas, for Robbins (2005), the concept job satisfaction refers to the employee's feelings about her or his job. Similarly, job satisfaction is "a positive feeling about one's job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics" (Robbins & Judge, 2008, 20). Reilly (cited in Parvin & NurulKabir, 2011) defines job satisfaction as the feeling that a worker has about his job or a general attitude towards work or a job and it is influenced by the perception of one's job. Job satisfaction means the contentment of the servers because of their jobs.

Job satisfaction is often divided into two separate types by industrial psychologists and researchers. The first type concerns the holistic level of job satisfaction for an individual and is referred to as global job satisfaction. Global job satisfaction is ascertained by querying individuals on the factors and motivational forces that led to their view of job satisfaction. This type of job satisfaction is open to criticism because it is simplistic in nature. It may be said that understanding job satisfaction goes much deeper than asking a few pointed questions to the individual employee. In its defence, global job satisfaction is considered a good initial investigation into the level of job satisfaction (Morgan, McDonagh, & Ryan-Morgan citedin Amburgey, 2005).

The second type of job satisfaction may be considered the structure to determine global job satisfaction. Facet job satisfaction relates to the level of job satisfaction an individual has with specific components of his or her job position or organization. For example, an account executive that finds great pleasure in having personal contact with clients but despises the paperwork generated from his or her responsibilities is an example of facet job satisfaction. Satisfaction is derived from one facet of his or her work while displeasure may result from

another facet. Organizational leaders may notice that different aspects of an employee's work experience will result in differing levels of job satisfaction. Measuring facet job satisfaction is important and is achieved by performing regular evaluations on the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that affect employee satisfaction (Morgan, McDonagh, & Ryan-Morgan in citedAmburgey, 2005). They identified several key intrinsic and extrinsic factors that served as emotional catalysts for employees. The intrinsic factors are related to the employee's position. The nature of work, specialization of tasks, and other factors that compose a job position are some themes that may be viewed as intrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors that may shape job satisfaction are those components that reside outside the actual performance of work responsibilities. Salary, the work environment, and the organizational culture are generally recognized as extrinsic factors that can play an integral role in job satisfaction.

2.4.1 DemographicFactors Associated with Job Satisfaction

Personal background or demographic factors are the factors which refer to such aspects as: an individual's gender, age, educational background, teaching subjects and job experience among others (Bolin, 2007).

- **Gender**

The question whether or not gender differences in job satisfaction exist has been answered both affirmatively and negatively in the literature." The research conducted among Canadian teachers revealed that job satisfaction levels differ significantly between male and female teachers (Ma & MacMillan, 2001). Similarly, the results of research that was conducted in the United States revealed that there were significant differences in the levels of job satisfaction between male and female teachers (Bishay in Judge et al 2001). They say that female teachers were more satisfied with their job than male teachers. Whereas, Zhongshan (2007) found that elementary school male teachers in Shanghai, China were more satisfied with their salaries than their female colleagues. Conversely, Crossman and Harris (2006)

conducted a study on job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in United Kingdom and their findings indicated that their satisfaction levels did not differ significantly by gender.

- **Age**

Previous research data collected in various countries give mixed results about the influence of age on job satisfaction. Findings of a study conducted among teachers in Finland revealed that there was a strong relationship between the teacher's age and job satisfaction (Rasku and Kinnunen, 2003).They found that teachers‟ job satisfaction was linked to their age. On the contrary, Crossman and Harris (2006) found that secondary schools teachers in United Kingdom did not differ significantly in their job satisfaction in relation to age.

Moreover, Zhongshan (2007) found that work satisfaction among Chinese teachers increases with the increase in age. Similarly, it is argued that the higher the teacher's age, the higher the level of job satisfaction and the lower the teacher's age, the lower the job satisfaction level (Greenberg & Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, 2011). This implies that earlier studies indicate that there is a significant difference in job satisfaction caused by age differences. Additionally, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) conducted a survey on teacher motivation found that young Tanzanian teachers were less satisfied with their job than their older counterparts who felt being teachers by profession was a privilege. This implies that teachers differed significantly in job satisfaction with regard to age.

- **Marital Status**

However, results of the research on job satisfaction that was conducted among primary and secondary school teachers in Greece revealed that there were no significant differences in levels of teachers‟ job satisfaction with regard to marital status (Koustelios, 2001). This implies that secondary school teachers in Greece did not differ in their job satisfaction levels in relation to marital status.

- **Teaching Experience**

Teaching experience refers to the number of years a person has served as a teacher. Crossman and Harris (2006, 29) call this the "length of service". According to Koustelios (2001), the teachers with long teaching experience indicated higher levels of job satisfaction with such aspects as pay and supervision. In other words, the level of satisfaction increased with the increase in years of service in the teaching profession. Similarly, Greenberg and Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011) contend that employees with many years of service perceived higher job satisfaction than their colleagues with less job experience. Conversely, Crossman and Harris (2006) found that teaching experience or length of service did not contribute to any significant differences in job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in the United Kingdom.

- **Type/Location of School**

Empirical research data of a study that was conducted in the United Kingdom indicated that teachers differed in job satisfaction in relation to the type of school in which they worked (Crossman and Harris, 2006). The teachers who worked in independent and private schools in the United Kingdom indicated higher levels of job satisfaction than their colleagues in other types of schools (ibid). However, other research findings indicate that teachers in public and private schools did not differ in the job satisfaction levels significantly (Zhongshan, 2007, 46).

Furthermore, earlier study findings indicated that teachers who worked in schools that are in the remote/rural areas were less satisfied with their jobs than those working in urban areas (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). This implies that the location of school was a determinant factor of their differences in job satisfaction.

Lastly, according to Greenberg & Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011), employees occupying managerial or leadership positions in the organization indicate higher levels of job satisfaction than others. This implies that teachers who occupied senior positions like being

Deputy Principal, Senior Academic master/mistress, and Head of Department among others in their respective schools were more satisfied with their job than their colleagues without such promotional positions. Similarly, Dinham and Scott, (2000), found that teachers who had earned promotions in their schools were more satisfied with their job than others.

2.4.2 Job Satisfaction Factors/Dimensions

Job satisfaction is a multidimensional phenomenon and it is therefore argued that different scholars identify different job satisfaction factors or facets (Bolin, 2007). However, the facets or factors they identify are somewhat similar content wise.

The phenomenon of job satisfaction is associated with five main factors namely: "achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement" Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman and they refer to these factors as the "basic satisfiers" or "motivators" (Herzberg et al in Judge et al (2001). The seven major aspects/factors of job satisfaction that Vroom **(**cited in Bolin, 2007, 49) are: "administration, promotion, job nature, superiors, salary remuneration, working conditions and colleagues." Additionally, the teachers derive their satisfaction from such factors as: "salaries, fringe benefits, educational policies and administration, working conditions, advancement opportunities, responsibilities within the job recognition, and so on" as Ossai, 2004; Ubom & Joshua, 2004; and Ubom, 2001. This implies that teacher job satisfaction can also be derived from what Herzberg refers to as "dissatisfiers", that is, salary, company policies, administration and working conditions among others.

Moreover, Davidson (2007) conducted a survey on teacher motivation in Tanzania and he found that most teachers were unhappy with their pay, fringe benefits, teachers‟ accommodation, their promotion position, status and number of lessons allocated. This implies that they had a low level of job satisfaction. The current study is intended to examine

what other factors behind teachers' job satisfaction there are besides teacher motivation, which the above researcher studied.

Furthermore, Greenberg & Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011) factors that are associated with job satisfaction are of categories and these are organizational and individual determinants. According to them, the organizational determinants include: reward system, perceived quality of supervision, work and social stimulation and pleasant working conditions Greenberg & Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011). Whereas, the personal factors or determinants they list are: personality, job congruent with interest, status and seniority and general life satisfaction. This implies that job satisfaction is derived from both the organisational and the individual factors. In other words, in measuring workers‟ job satisfaction one needs to study both the organizations and institutions in which they work and the individual employees themselves.

Shann (2001) found that teachers derived their job satisfaction from the relationship they had with their pupils and thus this factor was ranked higher than the rest of the job facets. The other factor that was also important according to her is job security. Conversely, in her study, the aspect of pay was ranked as the least of all among the fourteen facets**.** In other words, the participants in the study expressed low satisfaction with this job facet. Wood (2008) found that British employees derived their job satisfaction from supportive administration. According to the author, an informative and consultative administration makes employees comfortable with their jobs.

According to Woods and Weasmer (2002), workers‟ job satisfaction is derived from collegial relationship that they enjoy at their place of work. It is very important for teachers to have time to share experiences. He argues that teachers‟ motivation and job satisfaction are associated with "intrinsic and extrinsic rewards". Intrinsic rewards include such issues as: professional development, nature of work itself and sense of achievement, while the extrinsic

ones include pay and job security**.** This implies that in studying employees‟ job satisfaction one has to incorporate these aspects.

However, Roethlisberger in his article published in Classics of Organization Theory Sixth Edition (Shafritz Ott. & Jang. 2005) argues that salary is the main demand which a worker is making of his employment and that what an employee wants is simply to be assigned work that he or she is supposed to do and the amount of money they will earn by the end of the day for such a job and nothing else. This implies that money is the main source of satisfaction to some employees. Other workers derive their satisfaction from being accepted and recognised by their supervisors and co-workers (ibid). In other words, teachers like other employees, derive their satisfaction from acceptance and recognition. However, Maslow in Sharma & Jyoti, (2009) argues that "the human being is a wanting animal and rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction except for short time. As one of the desires is satisfied, another pops up to take its place. When this is satisfied, still another comes into the foreground, and so on". This implies that good pay, acceptance and recognition do not make them always satisfied with their jobs. When teachers have indicated that they were satisfied with their job last year, it does not necessarily imply that they will be at the same level of job satisfaction presently or in the future.

According to Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006, 235) who studied the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Cyprus, it is claimed that teachers derive satisfaction from such aspects as: "working with children and seeing them grow and achieve, making a contribution to the society, working collaboratively with colleagues and achieving personal professional growth". They also found that pay, working time and vacation influence job satisfaction although they were not of great significance. Rasku and Kinnunen (2003), then, found that Finnish secondary school teachers expressed more job satisfaction than their

counterparts in other European countries in which the study was conducted. Their satisfaction was a result of the fact that they are assured their wellbeing through working**.**

Research findings indicate that "both hygienes and motivators or work-related needs of employees are predictors of job satisfaction among Nigerian teachers" (Ololube, 2007, 6). His findings are contrary to Herzberg‟ s Two Factor Theory which differentiates "satisfiers" from "dissatisfiers". This implies that both "hygiene" and "motivators" influence job satisfaction among employees. Other researchers also argue that teachers in the United Kingdom and Australia derive their job satisfaction from aspects such as: "student achievement, helping students to modify their attitude and behaviour, positive relationships with students and others, self-growth, mastery of professional skills, and feeling part of a collegial, supportive environment...."(Dinham & Scott, 2000, 389).

Robbins and Judge (2008) assert that employees derive their job satisfaction from such facets as: the job itself, salary, possibilities to advance themselves, supervision, and relationship with their workmates. They argue that of all these job facets the enjoyment with the job itself indicated the greatest correlation to high job satisfaction levels on the overall.

Additionally, they argue that majority of the employees focus quite often on the pay when talking about the phenomenon of job satisfaction. According to Balzer et al. in Gambrell, Rehfuss, Suarez and Meyer (2011), "the essence of job satisfaction can be captured by measuring five facets of a job-work itself, pay, promotions, co-workers, and supervision." They add that apart from examining employees‟ satisfaction using those five aspects general job satisfaction may be measured as well.

Similarly, Spector in Spector (2000) argues that the most common facets or aspects of job satisfaction include the following: "appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work itself, organization itself, organization's policies

and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security, and supervision."

According to (Spector, 2000) job satisfaction can be measured using the nine facets approach. In other words, the survey instrument has to include nine job satisfaction facets or factors and those facets include: "pay, promotion, supervision, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work and communication." The author provides further descriptions of such facets (Table 3).

Table 3: Facets of Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Facet	Description
Pay	
Promotion	
Supervision	
Benefits	
Contingent rewards	
Operating conditions	
Co-workers	
Nature of work	
Communication	

Adopted from Spector (1997, 3)

2.5 Theoretical Framework

Four theories were used to serve as framework for this study. Two theories; Person-Environment Theory by French, Caplain and Harrison (1982); and Rational Emotive Theory by Ellis (1962) as theories for job Stress and Two Theories: Two-factor theory by Herzberg (1976) and Affect Theory by Edwin Locke (1976) for Job Satisfaction

2.5.1 Theories of Job Stress

These are The Person-Environment Fit Theory and The Rational Emotive Theory

- **Person–Environment Fit (French, Caplain and Harrison (1982))**

A theoretical model which has been in existence for a considerable amount of time, and which toa large extent has underpinned other approaches to stress and well-being is the *Person–Environment Fit*(P–E fit) perspective. This account of the stress process stems from the early work and theorizing ofLewin (1935) and Murray (1938). For example, reacting to prevailing mechanistic views of humanbehaviour which attributed the causes of behaviour solely to the environment, and psychodynamicapproaches which tended to conceive behaviour as emerging from personality characteristics (traits) Celik, (2011).

Lewin conceptualized the interaction between the person and environment (P × E) as the key to understandingpeople's cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions. His early thinking therefore providedthe foundation for the modern perspective of P–E fit. In particular, he foreshadowed the notion that optimal fit between the person and his/her environment is needed for effective human functioning. Numerousdescriptions of P–E fit are available in the literature, although perhaps the most comprehensive accountis that offered by Edwards (1998), who also described earlier constructions of P–E fit, such as those initiated by French, Caplan, and Harrison in Kayastha& Kayastha, (2012). Here we do not attempt to provide an exhaustive accountof this theory and its applications; rather, we summarize the main elements of this perspective, and illustratehow it has been applied, along with its strengths and some limitations. It should also be noted thatthe tenets of P–E fit theory also underlie several other theoretical models of stressor–strain relationships,including the cybernetic theory (Edwards, 1998). One specific advantage of the P–E fit conceptualization over some other (more specific) theories is that P–E fit is based essentially on the idea of employee adjustment in the work setting,which has been illustrated as being critical for overall well-being.

Synonyms for fit are "match," "congruence," and "correspondence."In the occupational stress and well-being literature, the fit concept has been characterizedas having two

components: (a) the degree of match, congruence, or correspondencebetween the demands people confront at work and their abilities to meet those demands, referredto as *demands–ability fit;* and (b) the match, congruence or correspondence between the person'sneeds (including physical and psycho-social needs) and the resources available to him/her. Thelatter is referred to as *needs–supplies fit.* Most research on the relationship between P–E fit andstress or well-being has focused on the second of these types of fit, as it is assumed that a lack offit (that is, mis fit) between needs and resources will have a pronounced impact on stress levels andoverall well-being. However, demands–ability fit can also be important in terms of a person'swell-being. For instance, if person's workload is high and they do not have the time or energy toperform what is expected from them, this can induce a high level of psychological strain.

The theoryaccording to Celik, (2011) hinges on the amount of a "stimulus" (for example, workload, work complexity, level of authority,and social interaction with work colleagues) that an individual prefers to have, and the actual levelof the various stimuli (referred to in this figure as "received"). There are two conditions in which the level of fit is high: when the preferred levels and the received levels are both high; and when they are both low. Consider, for instance, the level of social contact people have with their work colleagues.

An individual may wish to have an extensive amount of contact with colleagues, and may actually experience this amount. This situation clearly is one where there is a strong match betweenwhat people want and what they receive; that is a strong fit, and they should (at least theoretically)experience low strain (and high psychosocial well-being). Alternatively, the individual may notactually want very much contact at all with work colleagues, and does not have substantial interpersonalcontact. Again, this situation reflects a high degree of fit, and one might expect the levels of strain to be low. However, this situation is not as clear-cut as

the high–high condition, becausehere social interaction may not be important for individuals and other factors may have moreimpact on their stress and well-being levels.

Conversely, P–E fit theory postulates that high strain will occur when there is a mismatch betweenthe person's needs and what they receive or confront at work. The condition which (theoretically)should create highest levels of strain will be one where the person strongly desires a particular feature(such as interpersonal contact), but does not receive it. Under these circumstances,strain will be at its highest level. On the other hand, when people do not have a strongpreference for an attribute (in this case, interpersonal contact), but they do receive it, there is someambiguity over whether this situation will be stressful for them. Strictly speaking, they should experiencestrain, as there is a mismatch between their preference and what they are supplied with. However, thisis likely to depend on numerous other factors, including whether the attribute interferes with otheractivities or things the individual would prefer to be engaged in. For example, having frequent contactwith work colleagues may distract the person from core job activities, leading to frustration and a sense of lack of achievement, in which case high strain might be anticipated. In contrast, even though theymay not desire it, interpersonal contact may serve as a welcome distraction from a challenging task;hence, they may not feel stressed by it. In sum, although the P–E fit model predicts that misfit (of eitherkind) will increase levels of strain, in practice the amount of strain experienced in the high–low condition may be substantially greater than that felt in the low–high situation.

In summary, the basic notion underlying P–E fit theory is that there needs to be a match betweenwhat people want and what they receive, as well as a match between their abilities (knowledge,skills) and the demands placed upon them. Lack of match (mis fit) creates strain and (ultimately)reduces their sense of psychosocial well-being. However, demands–ability and needs–supply matchare considerably more relevant to people when the stimuli are

important to them. Edwards (2000) has referred to this as dimension importance, and is related to Maslow's need-hierarchy principle.

Using the example given above, if work performance is important to the person, then frequent interpersonal contact may be viewed as a substantial interference which reduces the ability of the person to achieve what he/she desires. On the other hand, if individuals are not concerned about how well they perform at work, frequent non-work related social interaction with work colleagues may not be considered a distraction and, hence, will not increase strain. As we have noted above, increased psychological strain and decreased psychosocial well-being are two major outcomes of misfit in the work context. Other potential outcomes have also been identified in the literature,including job dissatisfaction, reduced commitment to the organization, and greater turnover intentions.It is also evident that the notion of P–E fit is relevant across various domains, including lifeoutside of work.

Numerous studies have confirmed that misfit (mainly in respect of needs–supplies, but also in terms of demands–abilities) can have serious consequences for worker well-being. A good illustration of this relationship comes from a fairly recent study by Yang, Hongsheng, and Spector (2008). These researchers explored the actual and preferred conditions at work, with respect to two key issues—career advancement and relationships at work—in a sample of Chinese workers. Expectations concerning career development are clearly salient to many employees, and opportunities for advancement within their career are typically important Yang and colleagues hypothesized that correspondence between the preferred level of career advancement and perceptions of opportunities available to employees would enhance job satisfaction, mental and physical well-being, whereas misfit between preferred levels and perceived opportunitieswould predict reductions in these criterion variables. A similar prediction was proffered by Yang and colleagues in relation to social relationships at work. They suggested that maintenance ofharmonious social relationships is a critical need

(perhaps even more so in a collectivist culturesuch as China), and that good social relationships will enable people to fulfil their need for affiliation and need for belonging. These researchers argued that a better fit between preferred levels of social relationship and actual levels would be related to greater job satisfaction and reduced turnover intentions.

- **RET- Albert Ellis (1962)**

The second theoretical approach adopted for this study is the Rational Emotive therapy by Albert Ellis. The fundamental assertion of Rational Emotive Therapy is that the way people feel is largely influenced by how they think. When people hold irrational beliefs about themselves or the world, problems result. Because of this, the goal of REBT is to help people alter illogical beliefs and negative thinking patterns in order to overcome psychological problems and mental distress.

Rational emotive behaviour therapy was one of the very first types of cognitive therapies. Ellis first began developing REBT during the early 1950s and initially called his approach rational therapy. In 1959, the technique was redubbed rational emotive therapy and later rechristened rational emotive behaviour therapy in 1992. Ellis continued to work on REBT until his death in 2007.

According to McLeod (2009) Albert Ellis proposes that each of us hold a unique set of assumptions about ourselves and our world that serve to guide us through life and determine our reactions to the various situations we encounter.

Unfortunately, some people's assumptions are largely irrational, guiding them to act and react in ways that are inappropriate and that prejudice their chances of happiness and success. Albert Ellis calls these basic irrational assumptions.

Some people irrationally assume that they are failures if they are not loved by everyone they know - they constantly seek approval and repeatedly feel rejected. All their interactions are affected by this assumption, so that a great party can leave them dissatisfied because they don't get enough compliments.

The ABC Model

Albert Ellis and REBT posit that our reaction to having our goals blocked (or even the possibility of having them blocked) is determined by our beliefs. To illustrate this, Dr. Ellis developed a simple ABC format to teach people how their beliefs cause their emotional and behavioural responses:

A. Something happens.
B. You have a belief about the situation.
C. You have an emotional reaction to the belief.

For example:

A. Your employer falsely accuses you of taking money from her purse and threatens to fire you.
B. You believe, "She has no right to accuse me. She's a bitch!"
C. You feel angry.

If you had held a different belief, your emotional response would have been different:

A. Your employer falsely accuses you of taking money from her purse and threatens to fire you.
B. You believe, "I must not lose my job. That would be unbearable."
C. You feel anxious.

The ABC model shows that **A** does not cause **C**. It is **B** that causes **C**. In the first example, it is not your employer's false accusation and threat that make you angry; it is your belief that she has no right to accuse you, and that she is a bitch. In the second example, it is not her accusation and threat that make you anxious; it is the belief that you must not lose your job, and that losing your job would be unbearable **Stress**

2.5.2 Theories of Job Satisfaction

These are Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory and The Affect Theory

- **Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1976)**

Herzberg's Two-Factor theory was used as a framework for this study. Herzberg's two-factor theory is concerned with factors that are responsible for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. His two factor theory was derived from Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs. He conducted a widely reported motivational study following Maslow's model using 203 Accountants and Engineers employed by firms in and around Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA which he tagged "what do people want from their jobs?" Herzberg in Judge et al (2001)argued that an individual's relation to his work is a basic one and that his attitude to his work can determine his success or failure. Subjects were asked to relate times when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad with their present job or any previous job. Responses to the interviews were generally consistent and revealed that there were two different sets of factors affecting motivation and work. This led to the two-factor theory of motivation and job satisfaction. He categorized the responses and reported that people who felt good about their jobs were different significantly from those who felt bad. Certain characteristics that tend to relate to job satisfaction are achievement, recognition, the work itself, advancement, responsibility and growth; while others that tend to relate to job dissatisfactions are supervision, company policy and administration, working conditions and interpersonal relations.

Herzberg believed that two separate dimensions contribute to an employee's behaviour at work. Number one dimension is the **hygiene factors** that involve the presence or absence of job dissatisfaction. These factors are related to job content; they are concerned with job environment and extrinsic to the job itself. They are also known as maintenance factors. They serve to prevent dissatisfaction. These factors include salary/pay, interpersonal relations with

supervisors, peer and subordinates, working conditions, company policy and administration, status, security, personal life and supervision. If these factors are poor, work is dissatisfying. When there are good hygiene factors, dissatisfaction is removed. Good hygiene factors simply remove the dissatisfaction and do not cause people to become highly satisfied and motivated in their work. They are needed to avoid unpleasantness at work and to deny unfair treatment.

The second dimension of factors is motivatingfactors. They are the variables, which actually motivate people and influence job satisfaction (Judge, Bona, Thoresen, and Patton 2001 and Luthans, 2002).

Motivators are high-level needs and they include aspects such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement or opportunity for growth. When these are absent, workers are neutral toward work but when present, workers are highly motivated and satisfied. These two dimensions of factors influence motivation. They are factors that induce satisfaction on the job and those causing no satisfaction. Hygiene factors concentrate only in the area of job dissatisfaction, while motivators focus on job satisfaction- for instance; interpersonal conflicts will cause people to be dissatisfied and the resolution of interpersonal conflicts will not lead to a high level of motivation and dissatisfaction; whereas, motivators such as challenging assignments and recognition must be in place before employees will be highly motivated to excel at their workplace (Daft, 2000: 540). Herzberg emphasized the importance of job centred factors that increased interest in job enrichment including effort to design jobs which would increase employees' satisfaction.

In addition, Morrison in Amburgey, (2005)argued that there are other motivators that do not promote a sense of growth because they do not provide significant meaning to the worker. These include group feelings, job security, and status, feelings about fairness, unfairness, pride and shame. Based on the above findings, the researcher's observation in the workplace

is that the mentioned factors are important to employees. Employees do raise dissatisfaction if the organization does not provide job security, status and when unfairness is exhibited.

Moreover, Herzberg discovered that intrinsic factors such as achievement, responsibility, recognising the work itself and advancement seem to be related to job satisfaction. On the other hand, when employees are not satisfied, they tend to cite extrinsic factors such as work conditions, interpersonal relations, company policy and administration and supervision as reasons for their not being satisfied. According to Herzberg, satisfaction is not the absence of dissatisfaction because removing dissatisfying characteristics from the job does not necessarily make the job more satisfying. He further argued that the opposite of "satisfaction" is "no satisfaction" and the opposite of "dissatisfaction is "no dissatisfaction".

- **Affect Theory by Locke (1976)**

Edwin A. Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most famous job satisfaction model (Singh&Sinha, 2013). The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren't met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn't value that facet. To illustrate, if Employee A values autonomy in the workplace and Employee B is indifferent about autonomy, then Employee A would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a position with little or no autonomy compared to Employee B. This theory also states that too much of a particular facet will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction the more a worker values that facet.

2.6 Empirical Studies

2.6.1 Empirical Studies in Teacher Stress

The findings of Winefield&Jarret (2001) among academic staff in Australia revealed that psychological strain was higher in academic staff than general staff. Wiley (2005) and Jarvis (2002) also asserted that teachers experience significant amount of stress in the course of performing their duties. The study revealed that there is a significant difference in the level of stress perceived by married and single lecturers. The single (mean = 115.4) seems to be experiencing more stress than the married ones (means = 96.78) the observation contradicts the works of Omoniyi, (2007) who found no significant difference between the level of stress perceived by single and married educated working mothers and Meinhe in Omoniyi, and Ogunsanmi (2012)who observed that the level of stress was not significantly different among married and single university lecturers. The study by Omoniyi, and Ogunsanmi, (2012) investigated the level of perceived stress among Nigeria University Academic Staff in the South West based on the variables of sex, marital status, and years of experience as lecturers. The result indicated that there is no significant difference in the level of stress perceived by male and female lecturers irrespective of their years of experience as lecturers. The findings also revealed that there is no significant difference in the level of perceived stress by married and divorced lecturers. However there is a significant difference between the level of stress perceived by married and single lecturers.

Ahsan, Abdullah, Fie and Alam (2009) on a study among academic staff in Malaysia identified stress inducing factors in academic staff to include: work overload, homework interface, role ambiguity and performance pressure. In support of stress on academic staff, Abouserie in Archibong, Bassey & Effiom, (2010) found workload and conducting research as factors of stress. Listing the most related stressors on academic staff, Ahmandy, Changiz, Masiello and Bromnels (2007) study on Organizational Role Stress among Medical School Faculty in Iran, included workload, conflict, demands from colleagues and supervisors,

incompatible demands from different personal and organization roles, inadequate resources for appropriate performance, insufficient competency to the demands of their role, inadequate autonomy to make decision on different tasks and feeling of underutilization.

Some studies found high levels of stress relating to work relationships, control, resources and communication and job insecurity. Excessive overload and work-life imbalance are among the most frequently reported stressors by academics (Association of University Teachers, UK 2003). In fact, 80 percent of the academics in the study indicated that their workloads had expanded significantly in recent years. Also, with this escalation in the demands of the job, it is not surprising that academic staff report difficulty in maintaining firm boundaries between the workplace and the home as, for many, it appears that the home is the extension of the workplace (Kinman, 2001). The majority of academics in the United Kingdom (67%) in Kinman and Jones's (2006) study agreed that work now encroached more on their home lives than in the recent past and 72 percent believed that their families suffered as a direct result of their jobs. More seriously, both work overload and work-life imbalance have been related to low psychological well-being among academics (Kinman & Jones, 2003; Winefield *et al*., 2002).

Generally speaking, psychological well-being amongst academics is relatively poor. Two-thirds of the respondents in Gillespie *et al*.'s (2005) study among the academic staff in Australia reported that stress impacted on them psychologically: they described experiencing feelings of anxiety, depression, burnout, anger, irritability and helplessness. Academic burnout in particular has been well documented (i.e. Blix et al., in Archibong, Bassey & Effiom, (2010). Moreover, depression has been associated with suicidal thoughts and tendencies. In fact, an epidemiological study of suicide conducted by them suggest that university academic staff are at around 50 percent greater risk than the average worker. Psychological stress, in turn, can lead to severe physical consequences.

In a study on academic staff in Austalia by Winefield *et al*. (2002), the majority of the respondents reported experiencing tiredness 'sometimes' to 'nearly all the time', back and neck pains, sleeping difficulties, headaches, muscle pain, colds and virus infections.

A study by Archibong et al (2010) on Occupational Stress Sources among University Academic Staff of Cross River University of Technology (CRUTECH) and University of Uyo (UNIUYO) revealed that male and female academic staff experienced same level of stress in the areas of interpersonal-relationship, research and career development but differed as touching teaching. This no difference result is in line with the works of Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) and Abouserie in Archibong, Bassey & Effiom, (2010) but does not confirm that of Liu and Zhu (2009). They concluded that the gender difference in stress experienced academic staff with respect to teaching could be attributed to the interface between the official workload of female academic staff and managing their homes. This position stands true because of women are more prone to domestic stress than their male counterparts in Africa due to value orientation.

A study by Atindanbila, (2011) on Perceived Stressors of Lecturers at the University of Ghana compared the stress levels among the three categories ranks of Lecturers. The results showed that the Junior Lecturers reported significantly more stress than the Senior Lecturers and Professors. The reasons that account for these differences might be due the experience in teaching. He cited Furnham who found that teachers with less experience and qualifications reported greater stress than their counterparts. Similarly, he stated that Laughlin found that younger teachers and those not in managerial position reported more stress from student recalcitrance. Their explanation is that the junior teachers still lack behavioral and classroom management skills. Their age, experience, and position also limit their scope of involvement in school management.

2.6.2 Empirical Studies on Job Satisfaction

- **Teaching Experience**

Teaching experience refers to the number of years a person has served as a teacher. Crossman and Harris (2006, 29) call this the "length of service". According to Koustelios (2001), the teachers with long teaching experience indicated higher levels of job satisfaction with such aspects as pay and supervision. In other words, the level of satisfaction increased with the increase in years of service in the teaching profession (ibid). Similarly, Greenberg and Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011)) contend that employees with many years of service perceived higher job satisfaction than their colleagues with less job experience. Conversely, Crossman and Harris (2006) found that teaching experience or length of service did not contribute to any significant differences in job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in the United Kingdom. (Bolin, 2007).

- **Gender**

According to Mason in Archibong, Bassey & Effiom, (2010), "the question whether or not gender differences in job satisfaction exist has been answered both affirmatively and negatively in the literature." The research conducted among Canadian teachers revealed that job satisfaction levels differ significantly between male and female teachers (Ma & MacMillan, 2001). Similarly, the results of research that was conducted in the United States revealed that there were significant differences in the levels of job satisfaction between male and female teachers (Bishay in Judge et al (2001)). They say that female teachers were more satisfied with their job than male teachers. Whereas, Zhongshan (2007) found that elementary school male teachers in Shanghai, China were more satisfied with their salaries than their female colleagues. Conversely, Crossman and Harris (2006) conducted a study on job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in United Kingdom and their findings indicated that their satisfaction levels did not differ significantly by gender.

- **Age**

Previous research data collected in various countries give mixed results about the influence of age on job satisfaction. Findings of a study conducted among teachers in Finland revealed that there was a strong relationship between the teacher's age and job satisfaction (Rasku and Kinnunen, 2003).They found that teachers‟ job satisfaction was linked to their age. On the contrary, Crossman and Harris (2006) found that secondary schools teachers in United Kingdom did not differ significantly in their job satisfaction in relation to age.

Moreover, Zhongshan (2007) found that work satisfaction among Chinese teachers increases with the increase in age. Similarly, it is argued that the higher the teacher's age, the higher the level of job satisfaction and the lower the teacher's age, the lower the job satisfaction level Greenberg & Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011). This implies that earlier studies indicate that there is a significant difference in job satisfaction caused by age differences. Additionally, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) conducted a survey on teacher motivation found that young Tanzanian teachers were less satisfied with their job than their older counterparts who felt being teachers by profession was a privilege. This implies that teachers differed significantly in job satisfaction with regard to age.

2.6.1 Job Stress and Job Satisfaction

Several studies have tried to determine the link between stress and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction and job stress are the two hot focuses in human resource management researches.Job stress has been viewed as a predecessor of job satisfaction, and the two constructs have been treated as related yet distinct. Individuals under excessive stress tend to find their jobs less satisfying. Some of their intrinsic or extrinsic needs may be thwarted or not met sufficiently.

Teacher job satisfaction and stress can have both economic and personal implications as it can lead to stress-related employee absenteeism, burnout and a negative impact on pupil outcomes (Kyriacou, 1987). According to Chandraiah et al (2003) higher level of job stress

and job satisfaction has been found significant relationship between different age groups and also shown that the age was found to be negatively correlated with occupational stress and positively with job satisfaction. One study of general practitioners in England identified four job stressors that were predictive of job dissatisfaction (Cooper, et al., 201). In other study, Ismail (2009) demonstrated that level of physiological stress has increased job satisfaction, and level of psychological stress had not decreased job satisfaction. Nilufar Ahsanet al (2009) have studiedand examined the determinants of job stress including, management role, relationship with others, workload pressure, homework interface, role ambiguity, and performance pressure. This study reveals that there is a significant relationship between four of the constructs tested.

Fletcher & Wiiliams (2006) identified that a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, while high satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress. This study reveals that, both of job stress and job satisfaction were found to be interrelated. Darmody and Smyth (2010) reported that Job satisfaction and occupational stress were associated with a number of background and schoollevel factors. Sheena et al. (2005) studied in UK and reporting there were some occupations worse than average scores on each of the factors such as physical health, psychological wellbeing, and job satisfaction. The relationship between variables can be very important to higher secondary teachers. If a definite link exists between two variables, it could be possible for a higher secondary school teachers to provide intervention in order to increase the level of one of the variables with a hope that the intervention will also improve the other variable as well (Kozlowsky, et al., 2000).

Also a study by Kayastha, & Kayastha, (2012) titled A Study of Occupational Stress on Job Satisfaction among Teachers with Particular Reference to Corporate, Higher Secondary School of Nepal: Empirical Study. The study a 268 respondents made up of 216 Male and 52 Female. Majority of them was between 25 to 35 years or older (56%) and are unmarried

(75%) found out that occupational stress is associated with job satisfaction Occupational stress was negatively associated with six job satisfaction facets. It was seen that a high level of occupational stress will reduce job satisfaction. Reducing occupational stress such as workload, conflict and Unreasonable Group and political pressures may lead to high satisfaction with regards to Work, pay, co-workers, supervision, Promotion, Job in General

2.7 Summary

The chapter looked at the framework on which the research will be based. The theoretical framework chosen for the study consists of four theories, two theories for Job Stress and two theories for job satisfaction. One of the theories of Job stress is Person Environment Fit Theory of French et al, the basic notion underlying P–E fit theory is that there needs to be a match between what people want and what they receive, as well as a match between their abilities (knowledge, skills) and the demands placed upon them. Lack of match (mis fit) creates strain and (ultimately) reduces their sense of psychosocial well-being. The second theory for Job stress is the Rational Behaviour Therapy by Albert Ellis. The fundamental assertion of Rational Emotive Therapy is that the way people feel is largely influenced by how they think. When people hold irrational beliefs about themselves or the world, problems result. Because of this, the goal of REBT is to help people alter illogical beliefs and negative thinking patterns in order to overcome psychological problems and mental distress. Faced with the same stressful situation perceives the event causing the stress different hence reacts to the situation differently.

The first theory considered for job satisfaction was the Herzberg's two-factor theory, which sees people as having two sets of needs: motivators and hygiene factors. The hygiene factors also known as dissatisfiers are aspects such as organizational policy and administration, supervision, salary and work conditions, – whereas satisfiers are aspects such as achievements, recognition, work itself, responsibility and development. While the second

theory for job satisfaction is the Affect Theory by Locke (1976), the main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren't met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met)

Again the chapter looked at the literature review that addressed issues pertaining to job stress and Job satisfaction. The purpose is to identify factors within the tertiary institutions that can lead to job stress and ultimately job satisfaction and to see how these factors can influence the performance of employees.

Key concepts such as the concepts of stress, teacher stress, job satisfaction had been identified and explained in the chapter to facilitate understanding of all the necessary concepts in the study. Types, causes and effects of stress where identified and discussed.

All previous studies on job stress of academic staff concentrates on specific school without comparing the job stress to lecturers of other schools. The present study intends to fill gaps created by earlier studies by comparing the job stress of lecturers in 2 Universities, 2 polytechnics and 2 colleges of education. In each type of the institutions, one is a federal institution while the other is a state owned institution. The relationship between job stress and job satisfaction of lecturers in the different institutions will also be determined, this is also the first study locally that intends to establish relationship between these variables.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology adopted for this research. It was discussed under the following sub-themes:Research Design; Population of the Study; Sample and Sampling

Technique; Instrumentation; Validity and Reliability of the Instrument; Procedure for Data Collection and Procedure for Data Analysis.

3.7 Research Design

This study adopted theCorrelational Design.Correlational research comprises of collecting data to determine whether, and to what extent, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. Correlational research uses numerical data to explore relationships between two or more variables. The degree of relationship is expressed in terms of a coefficient of correlation. If the relationship exists between variables, it implies that scores on one variable are associated with or vary with the scores on another variable (Picciano, 2004) If the relationships are substantial and consistent, they enable a researcher to make predictions about the variables. Correlational study does not specify cause-and-effect relationships between variables under consideration. It merely specifies concomitant variations in the scores on the variables.

3.3 Population of the Study

Population of the study consist of all academic staff of two Universities; Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State University (KASU), two polytechnics; Kaduna Polytechnic, Nuhu Bamali Polytechnic, Zaria, and two Colleges of Education; Federal College of Education, Zaria, College of Education, Gidan-Waya. There are a total of 6,663academic staff in the schools as analysed below:

Table 3.1: Distribution of Academic Staff in Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State

S/No	Name of Institution	Nature of Institution	No of Academic staff

1.	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	University	2678
2.	Kaduna State University (KASU)	University	643
3.	Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna	Polytechnic	1334
4.	Nuhu Bamali Polytechnic, Zaria	Polytechnic	671
5.	Fed College of Education, Zaria	College of Education	775
6.	College of Education, Gidan Waya	College of Education	562
Total			**6663**

Source: Registry Dept of the Institutions (2014)

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

A simple random sampling technique was used in selecting the sample for this study. 10% of the population of the study were randomly selected making a total of 666. The rationale for selecting 10% of the entire population is according to Kerlinger and Denga in Ali (2009) 10% of the population was an ideal representation of the entire population. The samples is shown on the table below:

Table 3.2: Sample of the Study

S/No	Name of Institution	Sample Size	Percentage
1.	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	268	10%
2.	Kaduna State University (KASU)	64	10%
3.	Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna	133	10%
4.	Nuhu Bamali Polytechnic, Zaria	67	10%
5.	Fed College of Education, Zaria	78	10%
6.	College of Education, Gidan Waya	56	10%
Total		**666**	

3.5 Instrumentation

Two questionnaires were used for data collection. To measure teacher stress, the Teacher Job Stress Questionnaire (TJSQ) was used, while in measuring the job satisfaction of the lecturers, The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) by Spector (1997) was used.

3.5.1 Description of the Instruments

- **Teacher Job Stress**

This questionnaire developed by the researcher consists of two main parts; section A solicits for the respondents demographic data, while Section B consists of 20 questions relating to sources of stress to the academic staff. The academic staff were expected to indicate the extent to which they experience stress in relation to the items that was based on the modified 5 Likert Scale of Very High, High, Moderate, Low and Very Low.

- **Job Satisfaction Survey**

JSS is a standardised instrument developed by Spector (1997)to fulfil the needs for human services to have an instrument to measure employee satisfaction. The theory that job satisfaction was formed by an attitudinal reaction to an employment situation was the basis for the JSS. The design of the JSS is rooted in both public and private service organizations that may be either for-profit or non-profit in nature. The JSS scale was created to be applicable to service organizations for use in rating employee satisfaction, as past scales were not focused on that particular category. Furthermore, the JSS scale provides a total satisfaction score for an individual while also containing subscales that reflect distinct components of job satisfaction. The inclusion of subscales allow for unique components of job satisfaction to be measured individually.

The JSS contains 36 items that were grouped into 9 different facets. The different facets are defined as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. The combined total of these

facets determines the individual total satisfaction score. The instrument uses a summated rating scale where the respondent selects from six choices ranging from a score of 1- Disagree very much, 2-Disagree moderately, 3- Disagree slightly, 4- Agree slightly, 5- Agree moderately and 6- where the respondent Agree very much. Approximately half of the items are worded negatively and should be reverse scored.

The JSS total score is determined by combining the nine sub scores from the different facets. The minimum total score that may be achieved is 36, while the maximum score that may be achieved is 216. Each negatively worded item is reverse scored before the final summation of scores to allow for continuity in scoring the responses.

The researcher has a written permission by the author to use the instrument for this research purpose.

3.5.2 Scoring of the Instruments

- **Teacher Job Stress**

Scores on each of three facet subscales based on 5 items each ranging from VH-5, H-4, M-3, L-2 and VL-1. Scores of 83 to 124 would be considered as stressed, while scores of 31 to 82 would be considered as not stressed.

- **The Job Satisfaction Survey**

The Job Satisfaction Survey or JSS, has some of its items written in each direction--positive and negative. Scores on each of nine facet subscales, based on 4 items each, can range from 4 to 24; while scores for total job satisfaction, based on the sum of all 36 items, can range from 36 to 216. Each item is scored from 1 to 6 if the original response choices are used. High scores on the scale represent job satisfaction, so the scores on the negatively worded items must be reversed before summing with the positively worded into facet or total scores. A score of 6 representing strongest agreement with a negatively worded item is considered

equivalent to a score of 1 representing strongest disagreement on a positively worded item, allowing them to be combined meaningfully

3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

3.6.1 Validity of Instruments

An instrument is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure and accurately achieves the purpose for which it was designed (Patten, 2004; Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001). Patten (2004) emphasizes that validity is a matter of degree and discussion should focus on how valid a test is, not whether it is valid or not. According to Patten (2004), no test instrument is perfectly valid. The researcher needs some kind of assurance that the instrument being used will result in accurate conclusions (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001).

- The TJSQ

To determine the validity of the instrument, the questionnaire was subjected to scrutiny by some staff of Educational Psychology and Counselling Department, Faculty of Education, Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. Content validity of the instrument wasascertained as it covered all facets of teacher stress.

- The JSS

The JSS satisfies content validity as it covers all aspects of job satisfaction as it contains 36 items that are grouped into 9 different facets. The different facets are defined as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. The combined total of these facets determines the individual total satisfaction score.

3.6.2 Pilot Study

A pilot test was undertaken on 67 staff of National Animal Production Research Institute (NAPRI) Shika, Institute of Agricultural Research (IAR) and Division of Agricultural Colleges (DAC) in Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria to determine the reliability of the two instruments. The sample size was 666, this justified the use of 67 subjects which constituted 10% of the sample size.

3.6.3 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials (Miller, 2009). In short; it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across ratters. Keep in mind that reliability pertains to *scores* not people.

- **The TJSQ**

In order to determine the reliability of the instrument, a pilot test was undertaken on some staff of National Animal Production Research Institute (NAPRI) Shika, Institute of Agricultural Research (IAR) and Division of Agricultural Colleges (DAC) in Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The data collected was subjected to the Cronbach Alpha method. The justification for its use is because the study is a descriptive research design. A Cronbach Reliability Coefficient of 0.820 was obtained. According to Ali (2008) any instrument that produced up to 0.70 reliability coefficient is reliable for a study.

- **The JSS**

Spector (1997) computed the internal consistency reliability for the JSS based on a sample of 2,870. Table 3 contains a listing of all coefficient alphas for the JSS. A coefficient alpha of at least 0.60 was found for all of the nine facets of the JSS. The lowest coefficient alpha for the nine facets was co-workers (0.60) and the highest was supervision (0.82). Only two of the facets fell below a coefficient alpha of 0.70 and the coefficient alpha for the total scale was 0.91.

Table 3.3 showing JSS Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients

FACET	Alpha
Pay	0.75
Promotion	0.73
Supervision	0.82
Fringe Benefits	0.73
Contingent Rewards	0.76
Operating Procedures	0.62
Co-workers	0.60
Nature of Work	0.78
Communication	0.71
Total	0.91

To localize the instrument also a pilot study was conducted undertaken on 67 staff of the National Animal Production Research Institute (NAPRI) Shika, Institute of Agricultural Research (IAR) and Division of Agricultural Colleges (DAC) in Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. A Cronbach Reliability Coefficient of 0.751 was obtained. According to Ali (2008) any instrument that produced up to 0.70 reliability coefficient is reliable for a study.

3.8 Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher collected a letter of introduction from the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling to the various schools under study, permission was sought from the Head of Departments to administer the instruments. The researcher personally visitedthe schools on different days to administer the instruments; he employed the services ofsome trained research assistants. The researcher made several visits to the schools before he was able to collect the completed questionnaire.

3.8Procedure for Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics involving frequency and percentages were used to present the responses on demographic variables. Such as sex, age, years of experience, ranks and ownership of institutions. The research questions were answered using frequency counts, means and standard deviations. Hypotheses one and three were tested by Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), null hypotheses two and four were tested using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) while Hypothesis Five was tested using t-test. All hypotheses are tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This research work was aimed at investigatingthe relationship between Job stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. A total of 666 samples were used in this analysis. The Statistical package IBM version 20 was used in the analysis of the data. The descriptive statistics involving frequency and percentages were used to present the responses on demographic variables. Such as Gender, Age, Years of experience, Ranks and Ownership of institutions. The research questions were answered using item means and standard deviations including their frequencies. Hypotheses one and three were tested by Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), null hypotheses two and four were tested using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) while Hypothesis Five was tested using t-test. All hypotheses are tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Academic Staff

The results obtained for the demographic characteristics of the academic staff are presented on table 4.1:

Table 4.1 Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
1. Gender		
Male	494	74.2
Female	172	25.8
2.Age		
21-30 Years	41	6.2
31-40 Years	208	31.2
41-50 Years	209	31.4
51-60 Years	195	29.3
ABOVE 60 Years	13	2.0
3. Rank		
Professor	32	4.8
Asst Prof/Reader	42	6.3
Senior Lecturer	143	21.5
Lecturer I	118	17.7
Lecturer II	136	20.4
Asst Lecturer	112	16.8
Graduate Asst	54	8.1
Others	29	4.4
4. Type of Institution		
University	460	69.1
Polytechnic	90	13.5
College of Education	116	17.4
5.Ownership of Institution		
Federal	479	71.9
State	187	28.1
Total	**666**	**100.0**

On the gender status of the respondents, 494 representing 74.2%v are males while the rest 172 or 26.8% are females. This shows that both males and females teachers are reasonably represented in this study.

The Ranks of the respondents as shown above revealed that 32 or 4.8% are professors while 42 or 6.13% are Associate Professors as against 143 or 21.5% that are senior lecturers while 118 or 17.7% that are Lecturer I while 136 or 20.4% are Lecturer II while 112 or 16.8%

are Assistant lecturers as against 54 or 8.1% that are Graduate Assistants and the rest 29 or 4.4% that are in other ranks

On type of institution, 460 or 69.1% of the respondents are from Universities while 90 or 13.5% are from Polytechnic as against 116 or 17.4% that are from colleges of Education

Regarding the ownership of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state, 479 or 71.9% are from Federal owned institutions while the rest 187 or 28.1% are from state owned Institutions.

4.3 Research Questions:

The research questions were answered using item means and standard deviations including their frequencies.

Research Question One;

What is the relationship between teachers job stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state?

Table 4.2 Mean descriptive statistics on relationship betweenteachers' job stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	S.D	CORRELATION INDEX R
Extent of Job Stress experience	666	87.58	14.15	-0.79**
Job Satisfaction	666	134.46	10.66	

Table 4.2 above indicated that the mean job stress is 87.58 and the mean job satisfaction is 134.46 while level of correlation between the two variables is at a correlation index level of -0.79. This implies that the relationship between teachers job stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state, is inversely relational. This is, the lower the job stress, the higher the job satisfaction and vice versa.

Research Question Two:

What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among different age groups of academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State?

Table 4.3(a): Mean descriptive statistics on the teachers' job stress among different age groups of academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.

Age groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
21-30 YRS	41	87.54	15.76	2.46
31-40 YRS	208	88.91	13.08	.91
41-50 YRS	209	86.78	15.30	1.06
51-60 YRS	195	86.73	13.58	.97
ABOVE 60 YRS	13	92.23	14.14	3.92
Total	**666**	**87.58**	**14.15**	**.55**

Their mean job stress are 87.54, 88.91, 86.78, 86.73 and 92.23 by age groups of 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, 51-60 years and above 60 years respectively. Therefore there is differences in the job stress of teachers on the basis of their age groups.

Table 4.3(b): Mean descriptive statistics on theteachers' job satisfaction among different age groups of academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.

Age groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
21-30 YRS	41	132.66	7.89	1.23
31-40 YRS	208	135.58	11.98	.83
41-50 YRS	209	132.46	10.28	.71
51-60 YRS	195	136.01	9.75	.70
ABOVE 60 YRS	13	131.08	9.23	2.56
Total	**666**	**134.46**	**10.66**	**.41**

The above table is a Mean descriptive statistics on the difference in the teachers' job satisfaction among different age groups of academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.

Their mean job satisfaction are 132.66 135.58, 132.46, 136.01 and 131.08 age groups of 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, 51-60 years and above 60 years

respectively.Therefore there is differences in the job satisfaction of teachers on the basis of their age groups

Research Question Three:

What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among male and female academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State?

Table 4.4 (a): Descriptive mean statistics in theteachers' job stress on the basis of their Gender

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std.dev	Std. Err
Male 494 87.78 14.18 .64					
Job stress					
Female	172	87.01	14.11	1.08	

Table 4.4 (a) shows results of the descriptive statistics that their calculated mean job stress which are 87.78 and 87.01 by male and female teachers of tertiary institutions respectively. This shows that among teachers of tertiary institutions their mean job stress level is not significantly different on the basis of their Gender.

Table 4.4 (b): Descriptive mean statistics in theteachers' jobsatisfaction on the basis of their Gender

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std.dev	Std. Err
Male	494	134.15	11.024.495		
Job Satisfaction					
Female 172 135.34 9.491 .723					

Table 4.4 (b) presented results of the descriptive statistics, it shows that their calculated mean job satisfaction are 134.15 and 135.34 by male and female teachers of tertiary institutions respectively. This means that among teachers of tertiary institutions their mean job satisfaction level is not significantly different on the basis of their sex.

Research Question Four:

What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on working experience?

Table 4.5 (a): Descriptive mean statistics on theteachers' job stress among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state on the basis of their working experience.

Working experience N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1-5 years 149 91.571411.99 .98			
6-10 years 166 90.9060 13.98 1.08			
11-15 years 14087.7714 13.99 1.18			
6-20 years6387.905412.59 1.59			
21 years and above 148 82.638615.63 1.28			
Total 666 87.5826 14.15 .55			

The descriptive statistics table above revealed that the mean job stress are 91.5714, 90.060, 87.7714, 87.9054 and 8.6386 by working experiences of 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and above 20 years respectively. This shows that teachers with 1-5 working experience and 6-10 years had the highest mean job stress

Table 4.5(b): Descriptive mean statistics on theteachers' job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state on the basis of their working experience.

Working experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1-5 years	149	133.7854	11.85	.97
6-10 years	166	134.5509	9.29	.72
11-15 years	140	134.8753 10.66	.91	
16-20 years	63	135.852312.12	1.53	
21 years and above	148	136.945910.22	.84	
Total	**666**	**135.1972 10.66**	**.41**	

Table 4.5 (b) above is Descriptive mean statistics on the difference in teachers' job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state on the basis of their working experience. Their mean job satisfaction are 133.7854, 134.5509, 134.8753,

135.8523 and 136.9459 by working experiences of 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and above 20 years respectively. This implies that the job satisfaction of teachers is different on the basis of their working experience,

Research Question Five:

What is the relationship betweenteacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on ownership of Institution?

Table 4.6 (a): Descriptive mean statistics in theteachers' job stress on the basis of their school ownership

Variable	Ownership of school	N	Mean	Std.dev	Std. Err
Federal	479	87.39	13.87	.63	
Job stress					
State	187	88.05	14.87	1.09	

Table 4.6 (a) above presented results of the descriptive statistics indicatingthat their calculated mean job stress are 87.39 and 88.05 by teachers from Federal and state owned institutions respectively that there is no difference in the teachers job stress between Federal and state owned teachers of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.

Table 4.6 (b): Descriptive mean statistics inteachers' job stress on the basis of their school ownership

Variable	Ownership of school	N	Mean	Std.dev	Std. Err
Federal	479	134.97	10.38	.47	
Job satisfaction					
State	187	133.14	11.24	.82	

Table 4.6 (b) above presented results of the descriptive mean statistics showing that their calculated mean job satisfaction are 134.97 and 133.14 by Federal and state teachers from Federal and state owned tertiary institutions respectively. This shows that among teachers of tertiary institutions, Teachers from Federal tertiary institutions have significantly higher job satisfaction than their counterparts from state owned tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses one and three were tested by Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), null hypotheses two and four were tested using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) while Hypothesis Five was tested using t-test. All hypotheses are tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance.

Null Hypothesis One:

There is no significantrelationship between teachers job stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state

Table 4.7 Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) statistics on the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	S.D	CORRELATION INDEX r	SIG (p)
Extent of Job Stress Experienced	666	87.58	14.15	-0.79**	0.001
Job Satisfaction	666	134.46	10.66		

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.7 above presented the Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistics which revealed that the calculated significant (p) value of 0.001 is lower than the 0.05 alpha level of significance at a correlation index r level of -0.79 at df of 663. This shows that the Job satisfaction is inversely significantly affected by job stress experience among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Hence, the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant relationship between teachers stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state, is hereby rejected. Implying that significant relationship

exist between teachers stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.

Hypothesis Two:

(a) There is no significant differences in the job stress of teachers of tertiary institutions in Kaduna sate on the basis of their age groups

Table 4.8 (a): Analysis of variance statistics differences in the job stress of teachers of tertiary institutions in Kaduna sate on the basis of their age groups

Variations	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F calculated	Sig.(p)
Between Groups	927.987	4	231.997	1.16	0.33
Within Groups	132251.971	661	200.079		
Total	133179.958	665			

The Analysis of Variance statistics above showed that there is no significant differences in the teachers job stress on the basis of age groups of academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Reason being that the calculated p value of 0.33 is higher than the 0.05 alpha value. Their mean job stress are 87.54, 88.92, 86.78, 86.73 and 92.2308 by age groups of 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, 51-60 years and above 60 years respectively. Therefore the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant differences in the job stress of teachers on the basis of their age groups is hereby accepted and retained.

Hypothesis Two (b) There is no significant differences in the job satisfaction of teachers of tertiary institutions in Kaduna sate on the basis of their age groups

Table 4.8 (b): Analysis of variance statistics differences in the job satisfaction of teachers of tertiary institutions in Kaduna sate on the basis of their age groups

Variations	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F calculated	Sig.(p)

Between Groups	1848.768	4	462.19	1.48	0.30
Within Groups	73650.637	661	111.42		
Total	75499.405	665			

The Analysis of Variance statistics above showed that there is no significant differences in the teachers' job satisfaction on the basis of their age groups of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Reason being that the calculated p value of 0.30 is higher than the 0.05 alpha value. Their mean job satisfaction are 132.66, 135.58, 132.46, 136.01 and 131.08 age groups of 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, 51-60 years and above 60 years respectively. Therefore the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant differences in the job satisfaction of teachers on the basis of their age groups is hereby accepted and retained.

Hypothesis Three:

There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among male and female academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State.

Table 4.9(a) Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) statistics on the relationship between teachers job stress and job satisfaction among male academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	S.D	CORRELATION INDEX R	SIG (p)
Extent of Job Stress experience	494	87.78	14.18	- 0. 604. **	0.021
Job Satisfaction	494	134.15	11.02		

***** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).**

Table 4.9(a) above showed the outcome of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistics revealed that the calculated significant (p) value of 0.021 is lower than the 0.05 alpha level of significance at a correlation index r level of -0.604 at df of 493. This means that the Job satisfaction is inversely significantly affected by job stress experience among male academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.Implying that significant relationship exist between teachers job stress and job satisfaction among Male academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Hence, the null hypothesis which state that there is no

significant relationship between teachers stress and job satisfaction among Male academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state, is hereby rejected.

Table 4.9(b): Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) statistics on the relationship between teachers job stress and job satisfaction among female academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	S.D	CORRELATION INDEX R	SIG (p)
Extent of Job Stress experience	172	87.01	14.11	- 0. 57. **	0.000
Job Satisfaction	172	135.34	9.50		

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.9 (b) above presented Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistics revealed thatthe calculated significant (p) value of 0.02 is lower than the 0.05 alpha level of significance at a correlation index r level of -0.57 at df of 171. This means that the Job satisfaction is inversely significantly affected by job stress experience among female academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Implying that significant relationship exist between teachers job stress and job satisfaction among female academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Hence, the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant relationship between teachers stress and job satisfaction among female academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state, is hereby rejected

Hypothesis Four:

There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on working experience.

(a): T**here is no significant difference in teacher job stress among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state based on working experience.**

Table 4.10 (a) Analysis of variance statistics on teacher job stress among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state based on working experience

Variations	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F calculated	Sig.(p)
Between Groups	6726.17	4	1681.54	8.79	0.000
Within Groups	126453.79	661	191.31		
Total	133179.96	665			

The Analysis of Variance statistics above showed that significant differences exist in the teachers job stress on the basis of their working experience of academic staff of tertiary institutions.. Reason being that the calculated p value of 0.000 is lower than the 0.05 alpha value. Their mean job satisfaction are 133.7854, 134.5509, 134.8753, 135.8523 and 136.9459 by working experiences of 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and above 20 years respectively.Therefore the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant differences in the job stress on the basis of their working experiences is hereby rejected.

Post Hoc Tests

Variable	**Teaching Experience**	**Teaching Experience**	**Mean diff**	**std error**	**sig (p)**
Extent of Job stress Experienced	1-5 years	6-10 years	0.6654	1.56089	.075
		11-15 years	3.8	1.62801	.077
		16-20 years	3.666	2.07859	.004
		21 years and above	8.9328	1.60515	.001

The post hoc test above shows that academic staff with 1-5 years teaching experience exhibited the highest job stress level followed by those that had 6-10 years teaching experience. The academic staff with over 10 years teaching experience showed low level of job stress

Hypothesis Four (b): The null hypothesis state that there is no significant difference in teacher job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state based on working experience

Table 4.10 (b) Analysis of variance statistics on teacher job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state based on teaching experience

Variations	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F calculated	Sig.(p)
Between Groups	234.547	4	58.637	5.15	0.003
Within Groups	75264.858	661	113.865		
Total	75499.405	665			

The Analysis of Variance statistics above showed that significant differences exist in the teachers' job satisfaction on the basis of their working experience of academic staff of tertiary institutions. Reason being that the calculated p value of 0.03 is lower than the 0.05 alpha value. Their mean job satisfaction are 134.85, 134.73, 133.79, 133.19 and 134.95 by working experiences of 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and above 20 years respectively. Therefore the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant differences in the job satisfaction on the basis of their working experiences is hereby rejected

Post Hoc Tests

Variable	**Teaching Experience**	**Teaching Experience**	**Mean diff**	**std errorsig (p)**

Extent of		6-10 years	-0.7655	1.56089	.070
Job satisfaction	1-5 years	11-15 years	-1.0659	1.62801	.065
Experienced		16-20 years	-2.0669	2.07859	.003
		21 years and above	-3.1605	1.60515	.002

The post hoc test above shows that academic staff with 1-5 years and 6-10 years teaching experience exhibited the lowest level of job satisfaction as compared to the academic staff that has put more years in teaching.

Hypothesis Five:

There is no significant relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on ownership of institution.

Hypothesis Five:

(a) The null hypothesis state that there is no significant differences in teacher job stress level on the basis of ownership of institutions

Table 4.11 (a): Independent t test statistics differences in teacher stress level on the basis of ownership of institutions

Variable	Ownership of school	N	Mean	Std.dev	Std. Err	Df	t calculated	Sig (p)
Job stress	Federal	479	87.39	13.869	.633	664	0.54	0.59
	State	187	88.05	14.870	1.087			

Calculated t < 1.96, calculated p > 0.05

Results of the independent t-test statistics showed that there is no significant difference in the teachers job stress between Federal and state owned teachers of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Reason being that the calculated p value of 0.59 is higher than the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the t-calculated value of 0.542 is lower than the t-critical value of 1.96, at df 664. Their calculated mean job stress are 87.39 and 88.05 by teachers from

Federal and state owned institutions respectively. This shows that among teachers of tertiary institutions their mean job stress level is not significantly different on the basis of their ownership of their institutions. Consequently the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant difference in the teachers job stress on the basis of the ownership of their institutions is hereby accepted and retained.

Hypothesis Five (b) The null hypothesis state that there is no significant differences in teacher job satisfaction level on the basis of their ownership of their institutions.
Table 4.11 (b): Independent t test statistics differences in teacher job satisfaction level on the basis of their ownership of their institutions.

Variable	Ownership of school	N	Mean	Std.dev	Std. Err	Df	t calculated	Sig (p)
Job satisfaction	Federal	479	134.97	10.38	.474	664	1.99	0.05
	State	187	133.14	11.24	.822			

Calculated t > 1.96, calculated p < 0.05

Results of the independent t-test statistics showed that significant differences exist in the teachers' job satisfaction between teachers of Federal and state owned tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Reason being that the calculated p value of 0.05 is equal to the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the t-calculated value of 1.986 is higher than the t-critical value of 1.96, at df 664. Their calculated mean job satisfaction are 134.97 and 133.14 by teachers from Federal and state owned tertiary institutions respectively. This shows that among teachers of tertiary institutions, Teachers from Federal tertiary institutions have significantly higher job satisfaction than their counterparts from state owned tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. Consequently the null hypothesis which state that there is no significant difference in the teachers' job satisfaction on the basis of the ownership of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state is hereby rejected.

4.5 Summary of Major Findings

The following are the summary of the research findings:

1. Inverse relationship exists between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State (r= -0.79, p = 0.01). This suggests that increase in job stress would lead to decrease in job satisfaction.
2. Age of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State has no influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction (f = 1.16, p = 0.33 and f = 5.15, p = 0.30). This suggests that the academic staff of all age groups manifest stress and job satisfaction at the same level.
3. Gender of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State has no influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction (r = 0.604, p = 0.021 and r = 0.567, p = 0.002. this suggests male and female academic staff manifest stress and job satisfaction at the same level.
4. Working experience of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State had influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction (x^2= 65.86, p = 0.00). This suggests that there is significant difference in the level of job stress and job satisfaction of academic staff based on working experience.
5. Academic staff of Federal owned institutions expresses higher level of job satisfaction than their counterparts in the state owned tertiary institutions (r = 1.99, p = 0.05 and t = 1.99 and p= 0.05). This suggests that academic staff of federal owned and state owned Institutions experiences stress at the same level but differ in job satisfaction level.

4.5 Discussion of Findings

The basic essence of this study was to find out relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State, implications for

counselling. Five research questions and corresponding hypotheses were raised. All the research questions were answered using frequency counts, mean score and standard deviation while Hypotheses one and three were tested by Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), null hypotheses two and four were tested using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) while Hypothesis Five was tested using t-test. All hypotheses are tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance.

Null hypothesis one aimed at finding out the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State. The hypothesis was rejected because the level of correlation between the two variables is at a correlation index level of 0.786. Implying that there is significant inverse relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State. This finding is not surprising based on the stressful working conditions the academic staff found themselves and it is in agreement with the findings of Winefield, &Jarret (200) among academic staff in Australia revealed that psychological strain was higher in academic staff than general staff. Wiley (2005), Jarvis (2002) and Blix in Archibong, Bassey & Effiom, (2010) also asserted that teachers experience significant amount of stress in the course of performing their duties. Also, the majority of academics in the United Kingdom (67%) in Kinman and Jones's (2006) study agreed that work now encroached more on their home lives than in the recent past and 72 percent believed that their families suffered as a direct result of their jobs. Similarly, majority of academics in the United Kingdom (67%) in Kinman and Jones's (2006) study agreed that work now encroached more on their home lives than in the recent past and 72 percent believed that their families suffered as a direct result of their jobs. Other studies with similar results include Two-thirds of the respondents in Gillespie *et al*.'s (2005) study among the academic staff in Australia reported that stress impacted on them psychologically: they described experiencing feelings of anxiety, depression, burnout, anger,

irritability and helplessness. Academic burnout in particular has been well documented. Moreover, depression has been associated with suicidal thoughts and tendencies. In fact, an epidemiological study of suicide conducted by Kelly, Charlton, and Jenkins in Sharma & Jyoti, (2009) suggest that university academic staff are at around 50 percent greater risk than the average worker. Psychological stress, in turn, can lead to severe physical consequences. Another study by Kayastha, & Kayastha, (2012) titled A Study of Occupational Stress on Job Satisfaction among Teachers with Particular Reference to Corporate, Higher Secondary School of Nepal: Empirical Study. The study a 268 respondents made up of 216 Male and 52 Female. Majority of them was between 25 to 35 years or older (56%) and are unmarried (75%). about nearly thirty three percent of the teachers were Master of Arts degree and nearly fifteen percent had Master degree with diploma and only very limited teachers having MPhil or Ph.D Degree. It found out that occupational stress is associated with job satisfaction Occupational stress was negatively associated with six job satisfaction facets. It was seen that a high level of occupational stress will reduce job satisfaction. Reducing occupational stress such as workload, conflict and Unreasonable Group and political pressures may lead to high satisfaction with regards to Work, pay, co-workers, supervision, Promotion, Job in general.

Null hypothesis two sought to find out the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among different age groups of academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State.The null hypothesis was upheld, this implies that teachers do not differed significantly in job satisfaction with regard to age.This finding is not in agreement with a wide range of previous findings. For example Findings of a study conducted among teachers in Finland revealed that there was a strong relationship between the teacher's age and job satisfaction (Rasku and Kinnunen, 2003).They found that teachers' job satisfaction was linked to their age. Also, Zhongshan (2007) found that work satisfaction among Chinese teachers increases with the increase in age. Similarly, it is argued that the higher the teacher's age, the higher

the level of job satisfaction and the lower the teacher's age, the lower the job satisfaction level Greenberg & Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011). Additionally, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) conducted a survey on teacher motivation found that young Tanzanian teachers were less satisfied with their job than their older counterparts who felt being teachers by profession was a privilege. Listing the most related stressors on academic staff. Ahmandy, Changiz, Masiello and Bromnels (2007) conducted another study on Organizational Role Stress among Medical School Faculty in Iran and they included workload, conflict, demands from colleagues and supervisors, incompatible demands from different personal and organization roles, inadequate resources for appropriate performance, insufficient competency to the demands of their role, inadequate autonomy to make decision on different tasks and feeling of underutilization.

Null hypothesis three aimed to find out the difference in the teachers job stress between male and female teachers of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.The null hypothesis was up held because their mean job stress level is not significantly different on the basis of their sex. This finding is not surprising as all the academic staff perform the same function without consideration for gender. This is also is in agreement with those of Crossman and Harris (2006) who conducted a study on job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in United Kingdom and their findings indicated that their satisfaction levels did not differ significantly by gender, implying that both male and female teachers experiences stress at the same level. The study by Omoniyi, and Ogunsanmi, (2012) investigated the level of perceived stress among Nigeria University Academic Staff in the South West based on the variables of sex, marital status, and years of experience as lecturers. The result indicated that there is no significant difference in the level of stress perceived by male and female lecturers irrespective of their years of experience as lecturers. A study by Archibong et al (2010) on Occupational Stress Sources among University Academic Staff of Cross River University of

Technology (CRUTECH) and University of Uyo (UNIUYO) revealed that male and female academic staff experienced same level of stress in the areas of interpersonal-relationship, research and career development but differed in level of stress in the area of teaching. This result is in line with the works of Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) and Abouserie in Archibong, Bassey & Effiom, (2010). Conversely, it differs from findings of the research conducted among Canadian teachers revealed that job satisfaction levels differ significantly between male and female teachers (Ma & MacMillan, 2001). Similarly, the results of research that was conducted in the United States revealed that there were significant differences in the levels of job satisfaction between male and female teachers (Bishay in Judge et al, 2001). They say that female teachers were more satisfied with their job than male teachers. A study by Zhongshan (2007) also who found that elementary school male teachers in Shanghai, China were more satisfied with their salaries than their female colleagues.

Null hypothesis four sought to investigate the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on working experience. The null hypothesis was rejected implying that significant differences exist in the teachers' job stress and job satisfaction on the basis of their working experience of academic staff of tertiary institutions. This findingdid not come as a surprise as experience they say is the best teacher. It is in agreement with that of Koustelios (2001), who observed that teachers with long teaching experience indicated higher levels of job satisfaction with such aspects as pay and supervision. In other words, the level of satisfaction increased with the increase in years of service in the teaching profession. Similarly, Greenberg and Baron in Parvin & NurulKabir, (2011)) contend that employees with many years of service perceived higher job satisfaction than their colleagues with less job experience. Also, a study by Atindanbila, (2011) on Perceived Stressors of Lecturers at the University of Ghana compared the stress levels among the three categories ranks of Lecturers. The results showed that the Junior

Lecturers reported significantly more stress than the Senior Lecturers and Professors. Conversely, Crossman and Harris (2006) found that teaching experience or length of service did not contribute to any significant differences in job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in the United Kingdom.

Null hypothesis five aimed at establishing the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State based on ownership of institution. The null hypothesis was rejected implying that there is significant difference in the teachers job stress and job satisfaction between teachers of Federal and state owned tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. This shows that among teachers of tertiary institutions, Teachers from Federal tertiary institutions have significantly higher job satisfaction than their counterparts from state owned tertiary institutions in Kaduna state.Academic staff in state owned institutions in addition to the normal stressful conditions faced by their counterparts in the federal owned institutions has to contend with politics in the state. Those who are not in the good books of the state governor and his lieutenants may be denied basic rights such as promotion as at when due which is never the case at the federal institutions. This finding is in agreement with that of a study conducted in the United Kingdom which indicated that teachers differed in job satisfaction in relation to the type of school in which they worked (Crossman and Harris, 2006). The teachers who worked in independent and private schools in the United Kingdom indicated higher levels of job satisfaction than their colleagues in other types of schools. However, other research findings indicate that teachers in public and private schools did not differ in the job satisfaction levels significantly (Zhongshan, 2007, 46).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The study aimed at finding out the relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna state. This chapter presents a summary of chapters, implications of findings for counselling, conclusions and recommendations

5.2 Summary

Chapter one presented the background to the study, statement of the problem, five objectives that served as a guide to this study were set based on teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions. Related to these are five research questions and five hypotheses. Significance of the study was stated, basic assumptions made and finally, the scope and delimitation of the study were highlighted.

Chapter two looked at the framework on which the research will be based. The theoretical framework chosen for the study consists of four theories, two theories for Job Stress and two theories for job satisfaction. One of the theories of Job stress is Person Environment Fit Theory of French et al, the basic notion underlying P–E fit theory is that there needs to be a match between what people want and what they receive, as well as a match between their abilities (knowledge, skills) and the demands placed upon them. Lack of match (mis-fit) creates strain and (ultimately) reduces their sense of psychosocial well-being. The second theory for Job stress is the Rational Behaviour Therapy by Albert Ellis. The fundamental assertion of Rational Emotive Therapy is that the way people feel is largely influenced by how they think. When people hold irrational beliefs about themselves or the world, problems

result. Because of this, the goal of REBT is to help people alter illogical beliefs and negative thinking patterns in order to overcome psychological problems and mental distress. Faced with the same stressful situation perceives the event causing the stress different hence reacts to the situation differently. The first theory considered for job satisfaction was the Herzberg's two-factor theory, which sees people as having two sets of needs: motivators and hygiene factors. The hygiene factors also known as dissatisfiers are aspects such as organizational policy and administration, supervision, salary and work conditions, – whereas satisfiers are aspects such as achievements, recognition, work itself, responsibility and development. While the second theory for job satisfaction is the Affect Theory by Locke (1976), the main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren't met. Again the chapter looked at the literature review that addressed issues pertaining to job stress and Job satisfaction. The purpose is to identify factors within the tertiary institutions that can lead to job stress and ultimately job satisfaction and to see how these factors can influence the performance of employees. Key concepts such as the concepts of stress, teacher stress, job satisfaction had been identified and explained in the chapter to facilitate understanding of all the necessary concepts in the study. Types, causes and effects of stress where identified and discussed.

Chapter three presented the methodology adopted for the study, the study adopted the Expo Factor Survey Design. Population of the study consist of all academic staff of two Universities; Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State University (KASU), two polytechnics; Kaduna Polytechnic, Nuhu Bamali Polytechnic, Zaria, and two Colleges of Education; Federal College of Education, Zaria, College of Education, Gidan-Waya. There

are a total of 6,663 academic staff in the schools, 666 (10%) of the academic staff from all the institution under study were randomly selected to serve as respondents to instruments for data collection. Two instruments were used for data collection. To measure teacher stress, the Teacher Job Stress Questionnaire (TJSQ) was used, while in measuring the job satisfaction of the lecturers, The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) by Spector (1997) was used. The teacher job stress questionnaire was developed by the researcher while Job Stress Survey is a standardised instrument. In order to determine the reliability of the instrument, a pilot test was undertaken on some staff of NAPRI Shika, IAR and DAC in Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

Chapter four presented data collected from the field, a total of 666 samples were used in this analysis. The Statistical package IBM version 20 was used in the analysis of the data. The descriptive statistics involving frequency and percentages were used to present the responses on demographic variables. Such as sex, age, years of experience, ranks and ownership of institutions. All the research questions were answered using frequency counts, mean score and standard deviation while Hypotheses one and three were tested by Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC), null hypotheses two and four were tested using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) while Hypothesis Five was tested using t-test. All hypotheses are tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance. It was found that Inverse relationship exists between teacher stress and job satisfaction among academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State ($r= -0.79$, $p = 0.01$); Age of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State has no influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction ($f = 1.16$, $p = 0.328$ and $f = 1.48$, $p = 0.30$); Gender of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State has no influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction ($r = 0.604$, $p = 0.021$ and $r = 0.567$, $p = 0.002$; Working experience of the academic staff of tertiary institutions in Kaduna State had influence on their level of job stress and job satisfaction ($f = 8.790$, $p = 0.000$ and $f= 5.5$

and p = 0.025); and, Academic staff of Federal owned institutions expresses higher level of job satisfaction than their counterparts in the State owned tertiary institutions (t = 0.542, p = 0.588 and t = 1.986 and p= 0.040).

5.3 Implications for Counselling

The study found that there was inverse relationship between teacher stress and job satisfaction, inferring that the academic staff are working under stress and it is negatively affecting their job satisfaction. The implication of this is thatCounsellors should design and implement appropriate stress awareness and prevention programmes for the academic staff. This could be achieved through health talks, seminars and workshops related to stress where the academic staff could be sensitised on the causes and effects of stress and teaching them coping strategies. The counsellors should also help the lecturers adopt a cognitive redefinition coping strategy to survive the situations that are beyond their control. This is a strategy by which an individual accepts the reality of the situation, restructure his/her mind towards it to find something favourable. Such strategies involve reminding oneself that things could be worse, thinking of oneself as well-off with respect to other people, concentrating on something good that might develop from the situation and altering values and priorities. Lecturers should also be counselled to avoid emotion focused coping behavior which includes: verbal expression to let off steam especially with students, crying, smoking, overeating and engaging in impulse acting out as these may lead to more harmful psychosomatic illnesses.

It was also found that age and gender of the academic staff had no influence on their job stress and job satisfaction, the implication of this finding is that the academic staff should not be discriminated on the basis of age and gender as they all experience stress irrespective of

their age and gender. One of the guidance principle states that guidance is for all; that is everybody needs counselling despite the age or gender. The female academic staff experiences job stress as much as their male counterparts. Stress level cut across all age group. As such, counsellors in designing the stress coping strategies for the academic staff should consider both male and female academic staff, as well as considering their different ages.

Working experiences of the academic staff were found to have influence on their job stress and job satisfaction, the implication of this finding is that the younger academic staff should be targeted more for stress coping training. The counsellors could use orientation programmes usually organised for the newly employed to give talks on stress. The counselling centres of the institutions should be fully involved in organizing and implementing the orientation programme. It is expected that once the newly employed academics have been informed about the expected stressors they are likely to encounter in their new job, they will be prepared and would not be taken unware by the stressors.

5.4 Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions are arrived at:

The academic staff of tertiary institutions are stressed and it is impacting negatively on their job satisfaction. This is capable of affecting their Physical and psychological health, cases have been recorded of academic staff dying suddenly while in a meeting and a former DVC of Ahmadu Bello University slumping during Jumaat service. The stressful working conditions of the academic staff is without bias to age and gender. The newly employed staff expressed higher job stress and lower job satisfaction than their more experienced

counterparts and staff of state owned institutions are less satisfied with their job than their counterparts in the federal owned institutions.

5.5Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. The management of the Tertiary institutions should expand the existing facilities in the school and improve on staff working conditions, also the federal Government should honor its agreements with all the academic staff unions on funding of tertiary institutions.
2. All programmes and activities designed to reduce the stressful working conditions of the academic staff should be without bias to their age
3. Also the academic staff should not be discriminated on the basis of their gender.
4. An effective mentoring programme should be designed for the newly employed academic staff
5. Conditions of service of academic staff in the Federal and State owned institutions should be harmonized.

5.6 Suggestion for Further Studies

A single study on job stress and job satisfaction will not be enough as it will reveal so many areas unexploited which could be taken advantage of by would-be- researchers. Some suggestions include:

Because this study sample was limited to the Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State, other Tertiary institutions in the South-south, South-east, North West, North East that are not included in the study. Another study could be conducted to cover all the Geo-political zones

as the environment in which these other zones are situated may give another perspective on the teacher stress and job satisfaction of academic staff in these institutions.

Another study could be conducted using experimental study other than the Correlational method adopted for this study.

Since the present study was limited to public tertiary institutions, further research is recommended in order to compare public and private tertiary institutions.

Another study could also be conducted to cover Educational qualification of academic staff as the present study did not involve educational qualification of the academic staff.

Job stress and motivation of the academic staff of tertiary institutions could be investigated

The perception academic staff of both the federal and state owned tertiary institutions can be compared to see whether the lecturers in the two categories of schools perceive their job stress in relation to their job satisfaction differently

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APPENDIX

TEACHER JOB STRESS QUESTIONNAIRE (TJSQ) & JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY (JSS)

Dear Sir/Madam,

The questionnaire is designed to find out job stress among academic staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State; Implications for Counselling. Your participation in this study is important and will be greatly appreciated. Please read and complete the questionnaire. Your name is not required. Kindly try to be honest and frank in your responses. All information provided by you will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Thank you for your cooperation.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. **Gender:** Male ( ) Female ( )

2. **Age:** 21-30 Years ( ) 31-40 Years ( ) 41 -50 Years( )
51-60 years ( ) above 61 Years ( )

3. **Teaching Experience**: 1-5 years( ), 6-10 years( ) 11- 15 years( ),
16-20 years ( ) 21 Years and above ( )

4. **Rank**: Professor ( ), Asst Prof./Reader ( ), Senior. Lecturer( ), Lecturer I ( ), Lecturer II ( ), Assistant Lecturer ( ) Graduate Asst ( )others (Please specify).....
5. **Institution:** University( ), Polytechnic ( ), College of Education ( )
6. **Ownership of Institution:** Federal ( ) State ( )

SECTION B: **TEACHER JOB STRESS QUESTIONNAIRE (TJSQ)**

Please indicate the extent to which you experience stress in relation to the following:
Key: VH: Very High**, H:** High**, M:** Moderate**, L:** Low**, VL:** Very Low.

S/No	Sources of Stress	VH	H	M	L	VL
	A: Career Development/Research					
1	Sourcing funds for advancing my career					
2	Having the required publication for promotion					
3	Obtaining the next highest qualification					
4	University/College condition/provisions for professional development					
5	Linkages to avenues for professional development					
6	Conceptualizing research problems					
7	Sourcing for research grants					
8	Access to relevant literature					
9	Publication of concluded articles/work					
10	Access to other professionals in my research discipline					
11	Unavailability of internet facilities for research					
	B: Interpersonal Relationship					
12	Relating with the University/College Management					
13	Relating with the Head of Dept/Unit					
14	Relating with colleagues					
15	Relating with Non-Academic Staff					
16	Relating with the students					
17	Political influence in staff promotion					
18	Harassment and/or discrimination by superiors					
19	Inadequate channel of communication from management					
20	Lack of appreciation for good work					
21	Lack of participation in decision making					
	C: Teaching					
22	Overcrowded lecture rooms					
23	Marking and grading of examination scripts					
24	Supervision of students project/theses					
25	Preparation of examination results					
26	Lack of instructional facilities e.g. public address system					
27	Inadequate break times/mealtimes					
28	Poor ventilation in the class rooms/lectures theatres					

29	Job insecurity as a result of political alienation					
30	Inadequate office accommodation					
31	Inconvenient office accommodation					

SECTION C: JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

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

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

Permission to use the JSS

From: ahmed alfa [mailto:ahmedalfay@yahoo.com]
Sent: Wednesday, March 19, 2014 3:24 AM
To: Spector, Paul
Subject: Permission to use JSS

Good morning Sir, Iam a post-graduate student undergoing a masters degree in Guidance and Counselling at the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. Nigeria. My thesis topic is Relationship between Teacher stress on Job satisfaction among Academic Staff of Tertiary Institutions in Kaduna State, Nigeria. The study will cover two university, two polytechnics and one college of Education. I promise to share the findings of my study with you. awaiting your permission. Thank you

Reply, Reply All or Forward | More
Click to reply all
Mar 19 at 8:23 AM
Spector, Paul
To Me
Mar 19 at 2:41 PM

Dear Ahmed Alfa:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms in the Scales section of my website. I allow free use for non-commercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes

student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, all rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor

Department of Psychology

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Test for Reliability

Teachers Job Stress Questionnaire (TJSQ)

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	70	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	70	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.820	.830	31

Job Satisfaction Survey

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	70	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	70	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.751	.735	36