

**THE IDENTIFICATION OF FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH STRESS AMONG  
PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN SOSHANGUVE**

**BY**

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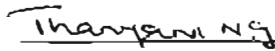
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## **DECLARATION**

I declare that “The identification of factors associated with stress among primary school teachers in Soshanguve” is my own work and all resources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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**NKHANGWELENI GLORIA THANYANI**

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to identify some of the factors associated with stress among primary school teachers in Soshanguve. The three main objectives were:

- To identify factors associated with stress among primary school teachers in the township.
- To identify signs and symptoms of stress among primary school teachers in the township.
- To compare stress experienced by male and female primary school teachers in the township.

Questionnaires were administered to a sample of 63 black teachers in the Soshanguve township, which is located north (but near) Pretoria. Statistical analyses revealed the following factors that were identified as major sources of stress:

- Inadequate salaries
- Lack of parental support
- Lack of promotion
- Learner ill-discipline
- Too many learners in school

The majority of respondents also indicated that they were experiencing some symptoms of stress and above 80% of the respondents stated that they were experiencing muscular aches, worries, headaches, anger, anxiety, depression, frustration, poor concentration and

powerlessness. Also, it was found that gender has nothing to do with any source of stress. The researcher has therefore recommended that the Department of Education should establish help care centers where teachers would be enlightened on some techniques on how to handle stress.

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### ***RATIONALE FOR RESEARCHING STRESS AMONG TOWNSHIP TEACHERS***

#### **1.1. Introduction**

Stress has become a common condition of our times. Research on stress has been done not only by medical practitioners, but also by educationists, psychologists, theologians and the business community (Marais, 1992: 305). Although Hans Seyle (1956) is regarded as the "father of studies on stress" (Albrecht, 1979: 7), stress is as old as mankind. However, the difference between stress in the past and stress today is the frequency of occurrence: while pre-historic man had enough time to settle completely after a stressful situation, present day man is engaged in a life full of stress from morning until sunset (Swick, 1987: 7).

Stress on teachers has been the subject of much research since the 1930's and has been described recently as the number one health problem (Brown & Ralph, 1994: 5). Research on teacher stress has been done mostly overseas and to a limited extent locally (Kruger, 1992: 3; Ngwezi, 1988: 9). However, very little research has been done on township teachers and their problem situations. It is generally believed that the main reason was political restriction which made black townships almost inaccessible due to the permit system. (whereby no one was allowed to enter these areas without a permit)

and tight security (roadblocks) at township entrances (Humphrey & Humphrey, 1986: 17).

However, teachers in townships are subjected to usually unbearable working conditions. It is, therefore, believed that education in the townships, as well as research on the stress of learners and teachers should be given the highest priority (Motseke, 1998: 3). Aitkinson (1988) indicated that Bantu education produced over-burdened teachers who lacked self-confidence and learners who were economically dependent. Although a new democratic government is in place, the scourge of apartheid still lingers.

Township teachers are often seen as lazy and irresponsible (Pearson, 1992: 15, Motseke, 1998: 3). The question that this view raises is on what grounds are they judged and is it not fair to know the circumstances under which they work in order to make a balanced judgment. The study has, to a certain extent, revealed these circumstances and also determined how they impact on township teachers.

## **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is to examine the factors associated with stress among primary school teachers in the township.

### **1.3. Objectives of the Study**

- To identify factors associated with stress among primary school teachers in the township.
- To identify signs and symptoms of stress among primary school teachers in the township.
- To compare stress experienced by male and female primary school teachers in the township.

### **1.4. Critical Questions**

The following are the critical questions relating to stress among primary school teachers in the township:

- What are the manifestations of stress?
- What are the factors associated with stress?
- What coping mechanisms do teachers use?

### **1.5. Demarcation and Scope**

Due to time constraints, the researcher was limited to one township (Soshanguve) which is located in Pretoria. The researcher found it convenient to sample teachers from this township as her Psychology internship was based in Soshanguve.

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

The researcher felt it necessary to conduct a study of this kind as it would help teachers and principals with information about issues on stress. The information will also help them on how to approach and handle stress in schools. It will also assist them to realize the need for help centers where teachers can have workshops on stress management.

## **1.7. Layout of the Dissertation**

Chapter one presents motivation for this study. The purpose of the study, objectives of the study, critical questions, demarcation and scope, and significance of the study have been presented above.

Chapter two presents literature review. Issues presented are definition of concepts like stress, burnout, educator, township, eustress, coping and stressor. Some of the aspects discussed include stress among township teachers, and organizational stressors. Other aspects that were discussed under organizational stressor included salary, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, time pressure, teacher workload, school climate, inadequate training and lack of parental involvement. Common symptoms of stress are also listed. The chapter also discussed some stress coping mechanisms which include effective coping skills, self-awareness, physical exercise, relaxation, self-hypnosis, nutrition, time management, sense of humour, behavioural adjustment, interpersonal coping skills,

organizational coping skills, community coping skills, the role of the schools in reducing teacher stress, and mediators of stress.

Chapter three presents research methodology. Issues presented include the introduction, research design, aim and objectives, the population and sample, validity, reliability, research instruments, procedure, pilot testing.

Chapter four presents the findings.

Chapter five presents the discussion of findings, conclusion and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### ***LITERATURE REVIEW***

#### **2.1. Definition of Concepts**

##### **Stress**

Because stress is studied from religious, psychological, social, industrial and educational points of view, it is often defined differently (Arnold, 1990: 4; Cranwell-Ward, 1990: 5; Zimble, Solomon, Tov and Gruzol, 1985: 5). For the purpose of this study, stress is defined as response of negative affect, usually accompanied by potentially harmful physiological changes that results from aspects of the teacher's job and is mediated by perception that job demands are a threat and coping mechanisms used to reduce the threat (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1987: 5). According to Swick (1987: 12) stress is experienced when the individual or an organism subjectively responds to the environmental situation or event. Stressors which are perceived to be specially threatening create a flight/fear response which leads to headaches, heart tremors, anger, absenteeism from work and decrease levels of performance (Swick, 1989: 17).

The preceding paragraph may give the impression that all stress is bad. This is not the case. Stress, depending on how it is experienced can be negative (distress) or positive (eustress). Stress is positive when the individual faced with stressful situation views it as a challenge and not a threat (Brown & Ralph, 1994: 17). D'Arienzo, Moracco, and

Krajewski (1982: 12) saw stress as the spice of life and asserted that too little of it leads to boredom. Zimbler, Solomon, Tov, and Gruzol (1985: 23) believe that there is an optimum stress level that enables us to perform at peak efficiency.

Stress is specific to each individual. What one teacher might find stressful is not necessarily stressful situation for another. In addition, several teachers in the same stressful situation will probably respond very differently.

### **Teacher Burnout**

Truch (1980: 4) consider teacher burnout as “the biggest problem in education today.”

Truch defined burnout as a physical, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion. The symptoms include being tired, sleeplessness, depression, and being physically run down.

Truch also points out that teachers experiencing burnout have minor physical maladies such as frequent colds, headaches, dizziness, or diarrhea. If not attended to, these ailments can turn into ulcers, colitis or asthma or could cause loss of appetite and loss of sexual interest.

### **Educator**

Pedagogically speaking, an educator (or teacher) is seen as a professional person or adult who intervenes in the life of a child in order to instill in the child values, norms and knowledge-scientific or experiential-via certain didactic method (Du Plooy & Kilian, 1984: 7).



## **Township**

For the purpose of this study, a township is a residential area exclusively for blacks and established near a residential area for whites according to the Native (Urban Areas) Act of 1923. Both townships and informal settlements are generally lacking in infrastructure, are usually crime-ridden and are centers of resistance against the law (Motseke, 1988: 51).

## **Eustress**

Swick (1987: 4) refers to eustress as healthy stress.

## **Stressor**

Stressor is any action or factor that causes stress, that is, “a source of stress”. Eskridge and Coker (1985: 15) stated that stress can be environmental, organisational and individual or personal: environmental stressors are found outside the school, such as teacher-faculty and teacher-community relationships; organisational stressors are found in schools where there are large classes, while individual stressors are factors such as teacher’s health and functional problems.

## **2.2. Stress and the Township Teachers**

Research on stress in general and teacher stress has received much attention over the years, especially overseas (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1987: 7). However, lack of agreement among researchers regarding theoretical and conceptual framework of stress is a major

obstacle in studying the phenomenon of stress (Kruger, 1992: 59). The study of stress is approached from different perspectives and this has led to a number of definitions, theories and methodological difficulties. Innumerable general approaches to and models and theories of stress have also been formulated, but for the theoretical background of this study, the works of Seyle (1956: 34), are of utmost importance.

Despite the lack of adequate research on township teachers, information gleaned from newspapers, history books and commercial statistics clearly indicated that township teachers experienced more stress than that experienced by teachers elsewhere (Motseke, 1998: 59). Research done by Capel (1992: 199) shows that about 78% of teachers in San Diego experienced more stress than other professional people. The high number of applications for teachers' resignation has prompted the education authorities and teacher unions to plead with teachers not to leave the profession in such large number.

Survey data indicate that teaching is one of the 'high stress' professions. Self-report questionnaires have been used by many researchers, such as Hiebert and Farber (1984); Kyriacou, (2001). Some of these studies showed that:

- 25% of teachers surveyed in England in 1980 reported teaching to be extremely stressful (Cole & Walker, 1989: 30).
- as many as 77% of teachers surveyed in San Diego reported physical signs of stress (Truch, 1980: 9); and
- 20% percent of new teachers in America leave the teaching profession in three years and by the fifth year, one third of them have left the profession (Jones, 2002: 3).

Research by Ngwezi (1988: 9) indicated that many South African teachers also experience a high degree of stress. Although Ngwezi stated that the South African teaching environment does not differ from the teaching environment abroad in terms of degree of stressfulness, it is therefore believed that township teachers experience a higher degree of stress compared to teachers abroad, especially in First World Countries. The reason for this view is that the apartheid policy deliberately provided fewer teachers, fewer facilities and a poorer education system (Motseke, 1998: 60). Coupled with the appalling conditions prevalent in townships, the assumption could be made that the working conditions of township teachers have been fraught with stressful experiences. Seeing that the situation has not changed much, it may be possible that township schoolteachers may still expect high level of stress.

According to the Sunday Times (2001: 15) of 12<sup>th</sup> November, the common causes of stress for teachers were listed as overwork, large classes, discipline problem, getting to grips with changes in the curriculum, uncertainty regarding their careers, low self-esteem, poverty of pupils and the increase in HIV/Aids at schools.

### **Organizational stressors**

- **Salary**

According to Greenberg (1984: 27), salary is an important factor that affects the role a teacher plays within the school. It can affect a person's attitude and morale within the school, his or her self-concept, and even relationships with family and friends. When

black teachers went on strike in the late 1980's and the early 1990's they demanded, among others, a living wage and parity between salaries of different races and genders. Inadequate salaries create financial problems for teachers and negatively affect their attitude and morale. They feel they are being used and that their status is being eroded (Cacha, 1981: 26). The postponement of salary increments from July to August in 1995 led to serious objections by teachers and teacher organizations. They indicated that teachers' salaries were already inadequate and failure to implement salary increments only worsened the situation. Although this happened only once, the teachers' outcry could be seen as an indication of financial problem over a long period of time.

- **Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards**

A promotion, for instance from teacher to head of department, is normally accompanied by feelings of accomplishment and self-actualization (Russel, 2000: 66). Russel also mentioned that there are very few promotion posts in schools, which means that many teachers are never promoted. This discourages and frustrates teachers and makes them feel that their hard work is not rewarded (Litt & Turk, 1985: 84). Ngwezi (1988) conducted a study among more than 290 high school teachers, with the aim of identifying major sources of stress. He found that 45% of teachers had intended to leave the teaching profession due to poor opportunities for advancement or promotion. Martin (1988: 46) indicated that the lack of promotion caused school graduates to shy away from the teaching field. A promotion is usually accompanied by a higher salary scale. Bromley (1988: 94) established that science and mathematics teachers leave the teaching profession in large numbers because of attractive offers in industry. Motseke (1998: 82)

indicated that lack of promotion will drive many teachers away from the profession into the private sector where their chances of promotion are better because of affirmative action – a system designed to favour people who are or were disadvantaged because of their race or gender.

- **Time-pressure**

The majority of teachers often find that they have to do a lot of work in a limited time. It does not matter how much energy the teachers put into their work, or how fast they do their work, there will still be unfinished work (Otto, 1986: 110). Fixed times for lesson preparations, for completing syllabi and for breaks and this means that teachers have to rush over their duties. This deprives the teacher of time to relax and to chat with colleagues (Brenda, 1994: 15). Inadequate time for schoolwork forces the teacher to do school work at home and after hours. This may have a negative effect on the teacher's private life, and thus increases his/her stress levels (Brown & Ralph, 1994: 100; Brenda, 1994: 17: 17).

- **Workload**

The stressor with possibly the single greatest influences on teachers is workload (Otto, 1986: 42). Teachers normally have to work under pressure to meet many deadlines and expectations. Two types of workload can be distinguished, namely quantitative overload and qualitative overload. Quantitative overload refers to the teacher's tendency to do too much work, much more than he/she can handle comfortably, while qualitative overload refers to work that is too difficult for the teacher's professional or intellectual

capabilities (Otto, 1986: 42). Duties such as marking, preparation, meetings, extramural activities and class teaching can present both quantitative and qualitative overload for the teacher (Brenda, 1994:16).

- **School climate**

A school climate that is permeated with the value of learning will contribute toward lower teacher stress, but a school characterized by constant interruptions, uncontrolled traffic during lessons, difficult staff relationships, noise and lack of discipline cannot guarantee the success teachers expect (Otto, 1986: 43; Swick, 1989: 9).

Shortage of classrooms and high number of students per class negatively affects the school climate. This leads to overcrowded classes. The high number of pupils is accompanied by a serious shortage of resources and overuse of available resources. The above-mentioned conditions are all common in township schools (Brenda, 1994: 17).

The physical structure of the school also plays a very important role in school climate. The location of the school may also influence school climate. For example it was discovered that teachers of schools that are located in lower socio-economic areas experienced higher level of stress than teachers from the middle and higher class societies (Johnstone, 1989: 37). Research done by Revees (1994: 20) indicated that schools surrounded by shacks in South Africa experience higher incidents of theft, vandalism, and rape.

- **Inadequate training**

Inadequately trained teachers lack confidence and also doubt their own abilities to communicate effectively with learners. Better-qualified and more experienced teachers therefore experience less stress than poorly qualified and less experienced teachers (Brown & Ralph, 1994: 109).

Many teachers are also not adequately trained in responsibilities such as extra-mural activities, sports, and subject teaching and class control. This problem is aggravated by the lack of formal induction programmes for newly appointed teachers (Brown & Ralph, 1994: 109).

South African black teachers in particular, are generally poorly qualified both academically and professionally compared to white teachers (Reeves, 1994: 23). Reeves also indicated that black teachers lack insight into many teaching or classroom situations and are often unable to take decisions. Cole and Walker (1989: 160) state that black teachers only act out the experience they acquired as students in their Bantu Education school days. That experience is no longer relevant in a changing educational situation.

Given the situation of poor qualifications, teachers are forced to be engaged in programmes of further study in an attempt to improve their qualifications. This extra study may also increase the teachers' stress levels since it is undertaken after a long stressful day, generally in crowded and uncomfortable conditions. The most disturbing factor is that many teachers undertake extra study to improve their salaries and

promotion chances, not necessarily to improve their teaching skills (Cichon & Koff, 1980: 100).

- **Lack of parental involvement**

Too much parental interference and too little cooperation from the parents are also considered sources of stress for teachers (D'Arienzo, Moracco & Krajewski, 1982: 17).

Both parents and teachers should be involved in the education of learners. Many teachers like to meet the parents of their learners. They want to form rapport so that should a problem arise the cause of the problem can be solved at ease. Sadly this does not always happen. Teachers often complain about the lack of support and interest from the parents. Some parents say that they come home late and as a result they are unable to monitor the work of their children and this in turn contributes to stress on teachers. A question may be asked whether this is because they are too busy in their own personal life or is it that they have no interest in their children's education.

### **2.3. Symptoms of Stress**

Early identification of stress is very important and individuals respond to stress in different ways. so it is essential for the individual teacher to recognise the signs as soon as they become apparent (Dunham & Varma, 1998: 78).

-Table 1 below shows some of the common physical, behavioural, mental and emotional symptoms of stress (Lale, 2001: 3).



**Table 1: Common Symptoms of Stress**

<p><b>Physical:</b>          Fatigue          Headache          Insomnia          Muscle aches/stiffness (neck, shoulders and Low back etc)          Heart palpitations          Chest pains          Abdominal cramps          Nausea          Trembling          Cold extremities          Flushing or sweating          Frequent colds</p>	<p><b>Behavioural:</b>          Pacing,          Fidgeting          Nervous habits (nail-biting, foot-tapping)          Increased eating          Smoking          Drinking          Crying          Yelling          Swearing          Blaming          Throwing things or hitting.</p>
<p><b>Mental</b>          Decrease in concentration          Indecisiveness          Mind racing or going blank          Confusion          Loss of sense of humor</p>	<p><b>Emotional</b>          Anxiety          Nervousness          Depression          Anger          Frustration          Worry          Fear          Irritability          Impatience          Short temper</p>

#### **2.4. Stress Coping Mechanisms**

Coping has been considered to include all responses to stressful events or episodes. Lyriacou (1987: 149) defines coping as a direct action taken by an individual to deal positively with a source of stress. Lyriacou endorses this idea and states that managing stress includes accepting, tolerating, avoiding or minimizing the stressor, as well as the traditional idea of coping as mastery over the environment. Coping takes two forms. A person may use direct action to deal with the actual problem, the source of stress.

Alternatively, particularly if little can be done about the source of stress, he may use indirect action (palliation) to deal with the experience of stress by reducing emotional distress (Goss, 1985: 2; Dunham & Varma, 1998: 54). In general direct action is the best approach to dealing with stress, as the cause of stress is resolved.

The first step towards stress management is to acknowledge that it exists (Dunham & Varma, 1998: 78; Sunday Times of 12<sup>th</sup> November, 2001: p.15). This acceptance may be difficult for people who associate stress with personal weakness and professional incompetence.

The second step is to understand what stress means. Motseke (1998: 106) indicated that it is therefore important to ensure that all teachers understand the meaning of stress. For example teachers should understand that continually worrying about poor results or lack of discipline could lead to stress if not properly handled. Feelings of constant worry could therefore also be interpreted as stress.

Russel (2000: 66). Sunday Times Metro (2002: 19) of 31<sup>st</sup> November, and Star News (2002: 6) of 7<sup>th</sup> August stated that a systematic approach to recognition and identification of stressors is necessary if one is to begin to deal with stress before it assumes. A useful technique is to keep a stress diary in which one can assess those incidents and series of related incidents during the working days, weeks and months that causes ones' distress. This diary can provide one with information about the types of

situation and people who cause one the most stress. As one becomes aware of these one can develop an action plan that helps one manage these situations or eliminate them.

There is a distinction between coping skills that are employed by the individual teacher on the one hand, and those that are employed by the school and the community on the other. Some of the effective coping skills are discussed below.

### **Effective Coping Skills**

- **Self-awareness**

Any success in dealing with stress begins with self-knowledge. Self-knowledge brings awareness that the individual must change his/her perceptions in order to cope effectively with stress (Humphrey & Humphrey, 1986: 81). For example, lack of promotion may be the real causes of stress, but it may feel safer to complain about being overworked or about the principal. Self-knowledge, therefore, helps to put the real causes of stress in the correct perspective and thus leads to strategies that directly address the stressors.

- **Physical exercise**

Stress leads to certain physiological processes such as activation of the sympathetic nervous system and the production of hormones such as adrenaline. These physiological processes make the body aware that it is under attack. This results in a state of physical tension as well as the release of glucose and fatty substances. These substances become health hazards if not utilized or eliminated by the body. Physical exercise do not only

help to increase the intake of oxygen required for the burning up process, but it also leads to the consumption of physical energy and the release of muscular and nervous tension which have a liberating effect on the physical, mental and emotional state of the teacher (Otto, 1986:185).

Physical exercise can be in the form of walking, swimming, cycling, jogging and other sports such as golf and tennis. Of importance here is that physical exercise should not involve unhealthy competition since this may lead to more stress (Otto, 1986).

- **Relaxation**

Relaxation training often begins with helping people to relearn natural breathing habits. Continuous stress or tension, or prolonged intense concentration, can lead to breathing which is too fast and shallow. But breathing which is deep and rhythmic has a calming effect on both the body and mind (Otto, 1986:186).

Meditation is another important relaxation technique. It is defined as concentrating on the flow of perception, feelings and images which pass through consciousness, but without personal involvement. Maintaining this over a prolonged period of time can lead to physical and emotional relaxation; as it can give the teacher time to distance him/herself from problems and help him/her delay or even avoid panic (Otto, 1986:187). People who practice meditation claim that it improves memory and learning (Greenberg, 1984:134).

- **Self-Hypnosis**

Greenberg (1984: 136) defines self-hypnosis as the altered state of consciousness that results from focusing attention on a set of suggestions and allowing oneself to be receptive to those suggestions, thereby allowing free reign to one's powers of imagination. Use of self-hypnosis is a simple technique that can be easily mastered, again with practice. Self-hypnosis, like other meditation techniques, is well suited to a classroom or office environment. It can be used quickly and effectively to achieve heightened relaxation, even during times of stress and strain.

- **Nutrition**

A balanced and healthy diet is important for maintaining a healthy body that can withstand stress. Nutrients that can help reduce effects of stress are those rich in alkaline-forming minerals, vitamins and fiber. These are found in fruits, vegetables, plants foods, whole grain products and cereals (Otto, 1986: 189).

- **Time management**

The amount of time available to an individual is finite. The teacher should plan his/her activities in order to avoid time pressure and an unbalanced workload. This can be done by inter alia keeping a diary of daily objectives, prioritizing duties and allocating time for each duty as well as time for resting. Resting time is very important, especially under stressful circumstances. Many teachers neglect to rest and are always available to learners and their parents, even during breaks (Atkinson, 1988: 92).

- **Sense of Humour**

Humour can be an effective tool to reduce stress. Teachers need to have a good sense of humour in the classroom. This is probably one of the most effective qualities that teachers should possess. Teachers often take their teaching too seriously and forget to look for the funny side of the things. Teachers will feel better if they are more relaxed and able to handle the serious side of life. Laughter sometimes may be the best medicine (White & Wells, 2000: 3).

- **Behavioural adjustment**

Certain behaviour of teachers may raise their stress levels. Although the teachers may be unaware of such behaviour, certain steps can be taken to improve the situation. Firstly, a specific behaviour that is stressful should be noted and then an effort be made to change the stressful behaviour (Humphrey & Humphrey, 1986: 90). They also suggest desensitization as an effective form of behavioural modification. Desensitization is a process of systematically lessening a specific learned fear. It involves presenting items from a list of anxiety-provoking stimuli, starting from the feeblest item, proceeding gradually until the strongest anxiety-provoking stimulus fails to evoke any anxiety in the individual (Motseke, 1998: 109).

## **2.5. Interpersonal Coping Skills**

School support teams, the support teachers receive from spouses, family and friends is frequently cited as a positive factor in stress reduction. Education White Paper (2001: 6)

stated that the district support teams will also help schools to evaluate programmes, diagnose their effectiveness and suggest modifications. This support can be in the form of talking or discussing school problems, sexual relationships, trust and family togetherness (Dunham & Varma, 1998: 170).

Another effective stress management skill is handling stress as a team. Some benefits of working as a team include sharing ideas for dealing with stress, using each other's strengths to reduce particular tensions forming supportive relationships which enable team members to improve their self-concepts and establishing common ground for pride and integrity (Otto, 1986: 195; Alley, Sutherland & Cooper, 1990: 252; Swick, 1989: 25).

## **2.6. Organisational Coping Skills**

No individual teacher, however effective his/her stress management techniques, can completely eliminate stress if environmental sources of stress remain unresolved. The school environment needs to be looked at and changed if necessary in order to minimize stress (Capel, 1992: 209).

Firstly the school authority and the Department of Education should appreciate teachers' work and their input, and also understand their stress problems. Often teachers feel that their work is not appreciated and their feelings and personal welfare are of little or no value to the bureaucratic Department of Education (Otto, 1986: 201).

Secondly, a form of support system should be instituted in order to help teachers deal with stress effectively. This can take the form of counseling, and training of self-help groups (Brown & Ralph, 1992: 99; Otto, 1986: 201). The involvement of other people such as colleagues and psychologist helps to alter the teacher's initial perceptions of the potentially threatening events and can lessen the effects of stress (McLean, 1979: 92).

Thirdly, the improvement of conditions of service can be effective in reducing stress for teachers. This can be done by, among others, increasing salaries, employing more teachers in order to reduce each teacher's workload, providing adequate teaching material, helping teachers with student discipline and allocating more time for duties (Brenda, 1994: 16; Otto, 1986: 203).

## **2.7. Community Coping Skills**

There is a close relationship between the school and the broader community and it is therefore important that the community leaders recognize teacher stress and intervene to reduce it. Unfortunately, negative community attitudes, poor economic conditions and political instability further increase the teacher's stress level (Motseke, 1998; Otto, 1986). Brown and Ralph (1992: 67) indicated that the community can help reduce stress by establishing adequate recreational facilities, enrichment courses organized by local authorities and non-governmental organizations, and holiday packages for teachers.



Goss (1985: 78) indicated that there is no simple approach for coping with stress because of its very individual and personal nature. Stress is caused by many factors, and its management must therefore be approached simultaneously on various fronts. The strategies employed should include both the direct and the indirect actions which reduce the discomfort experienced during times of stress. Successful coping with stress has a positive influence on a person because it does not only stimulate personal development but also increases resistance to future stress.

## **2.8. The Role of Schools in Reducing Teacher Stress**

Sharing problems or engaging in some social activity with colleagues during break periods can effectively help dissipate the feelings of stress. Some schools are able to make counseling services available to members of staff who experience stress. An important development in reducing teacher stress comes from the need to think more in terms of what characteristics make for healthy organizational functioning and then to develop individual and organizational practices to come into line with these, so that the teacher stress can be reduced (Kyriacou, 2001: 7).

Kyriacou (2001) has listed the following characteristics of a “healthy” school:

- good communication between staff;
- a strong sense of collegiality;
- management decisions based on consultation;
- consensus established on key values and standards;

- ● whole school policies in place;
- ● role and expectations clearly defined;
- ● teachers receive positive feedback, and advise;
- ● good level of resources and facilities to support teachers;
- ● support available to help solve problems;
- ● policies and procedures are easy to follow;
- ● red tape and paperwork is minimized;
- ● additional duties are matched to teachers' skills;
- ● building environment is pleasant to work in;
- ● senior management makes good use of forward planning;
- ● induction and career development advise is given.

## **2.9. Mediators of Stress**

Mediators of stress may be described as those factor that function as moderator variables and that heighten or lessen the impact of a stressor (Kruger, 1992: 135). They can be seen as a means that an individual can muster towards coping with the stress situation. There is general consensus among researchers that variables such as age, gender and social support are important mediators of stress. A few important mediators are listed and described below.

- **Temperament and personality**

Appraising a situation as stressful or not depends on the individual's temperament and personality (Kruger, 1992: 137). Some authorities on stress have identified certain personalities which appear to be more stress-prone than others. For example, personalities that are sociable, tolerant and extroverted modify the effects of stress more than aggressive, moody and introverted personalities (Ngwezi, 1988). Researchers have also found that the individual's actions, thoughts and hopes can help or hinder the process of stress (Albrecht, 1979: 82). For example, over commitment, excessive dedication and lack of separation of oneself from one's work are typical of Type A personalities. Limiting commitments, patience and a relaxed attitude are characteristic of a type B personality. Such persons hinder the process of stress (Ngwezi, 1988: 100-102). Therefore, a type B personality serves as a buffer against excessive stress since these individuals are not preoccupied with achievement, seldom feel any sense of time urgency and seldom become angry or irritable (Charlesworth & Nathan, 1982: 157).

- **Family and social support**

Social support is derived from family, friends, colleagues, authorities, members of the helping professions (e.g. psychologists) and the broader community (Cobb, 1976: 302; Russel, 2000: 94). Rogers (1992: 103) indicated that the higher the level of social support from colleagues, the lower the level of burnout. The family is also a very important buffer of stress since it can provide solutions to problems, guidance and practical assistance in stressful times such as birth, death, dismissal from work and illness (Cobb, 1976: 305).

Social support leads a person to believe that he/she

- ◆ is cared for, loved, valued and esteemed,
- ◆ belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligation, and
- ◆ is trusted and respected (Aneshensel & Stone, 1982: 139; Cobb, 1976: 300).

Russel (1992: 96) noted that researchers have consistently found that individuals who possess high levels of social support are in better physical and mental health than those that do not.

## **2.10. Conclusion**

Stress cannot be eliminated totally from a person's life. Without some stress we cannot function properly as individuals. It is important that it does not get out of hand. Teachers need to be able to recognise situations in which they experience stress and to take steps to manage it. To do this they will need to be able to know when they are experiencing stress, and also think about how they might manage it (Dunham & Varma, 1998: 150).

From the literature cited above, teachers experience a high degree of job dissatisfaction, and a high rate of physical, emotional and mental illness. However, stress can be understood and managed. Gaining an awareness of stress management techniques and applying them to daily activities both in the educational setting and at home will not

eliminate all of the causes of stress, but can significantly and permanently reduce its negative effects.

This chapter defined important concepts of the present research and has reflected on stress research among educators. It has also listed and described the various types of stressors, symptoms of stress, various stress coping mechanisms, and mediators of stress. The role of schools in reducing teacher stress was also discussed.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### ***RESEARCH METHODOLOGY***

#### **3.1. Introduction**

The preceding chapter presented literature review where concepts were defined and some relevant aspects were discussed from a theoretical perspective. This chapter describes the research design, research objectives, population and sample size, research instrument, validity and reliability of the study, and the procedure used in conducting the research.

#### **3.2. Research Design**

The present study is a cross-sectional survey where questionnaires were gathered with the aid of questionnaire in a real life setting. The researcher used a quantitative method that was followed by appropriate statistical analyses.

#### **3.3. Aim and Objectives**

The main aim of the study was to examine the factors associated with stress among primary school teachers in the township.

The following were the objectives of the study:

- To identify factors associated with stress among primary school teachers in township.
- To identify the signs and symptoms of stress among primary school teachers in the township.
- To compare the level of stress between male and female primary school teachers in the township.

### **3.4. Population and Sample**

The population consisted of all the primary school teachers in Soshanguve. The sample comprised 84 teachers, males and females, chosen randomly as follows:

All primary schools (58) in Soshanguve area were listed, comprising of 812 teachers (list in Soshanguve circuit office). From the list of 58, a total of 21 primary schools were selected at random. From these 21 schools, 4 teachers from each school were randomly selected to yield a total of 84 teachers (10.34% of all teachers). Only teachers excluding those from the management with at least 5 years of teaching experience or more were asked to participate in the study. Their ages ranged from 25-55 years. Of the 84 teachers, only 63 teachers were able to return the questionnaires. All the respondents were black teachers, offering their services in township schools, and all the learners of these schools were black. The fieldwork was preceded by a pilot study.

### **3.5. Validity**

Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument or procedure measures what it is intended to measure (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1990: 256). Internal validity is the degree to which research findings can be protected from extraneous variables. It also refers to factors that may pose a threat to internal validity such as maturation where changes occur in the subjects during the course of the study (loss of subjects during the study). It is believed that these threats pose more of a problem as the length of a study increases (Baumgartner & Strong 1994: 258). The questionnaire was designed from literature review according to findings of other researchers around the world. Maturation may not pose a threat because the administration of questionnaires took merely three weeks. Loss of subjects was only caused by respondents who were too busy to complete the questionnaires.

### **3.6. Reliability**

According to Baumgartner and Strong (1994: 258) reliability is the degree of consistency with which the measuring instruments measures whatever it is supposed to measure. According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990: 434), this process is very taxing on the side of the researcher because he/she should repeat a questionnaire or an interview with the same individuals after a period of time. In this study there was consistency because information was obtained from reliable sources (primary school teachers).



### **3.7. Research Instrument**

The main research instrument was a questionnaire compiled by the researcher. It was piloted (see Section 3.9) and used to collect data for the study. Collectively, the questionnaire (reproduced in Appendix D) comprised three sections (Sections A, B and C) with a total of 57 items. The final questionnaire consisted of both closed- and open-ended questions.

In Section A teachers were requested to assist in completion of demographic information. This consisted of age, gender, marital status, years of service in the teaching profession, academic qualification, enrolment of the school, number of educators, subjects offered, number of grades and learners, and promotion in the past five years. It also contained a question on passion for teaching.

Section B dealt with factors associated with stress among township primary school teachers. Items were ranked from “minor source of stress” to “very important source of stress”.

Section C dealt with signs and the symptoms of stress like headache, loneliness, loss of sense of humour, nervousness, poor concentration, etc.

### **3.8. Procedure**

An application to conduct the research was made and permission was granted by the Head of Education of the Gauteng Department of Education by a letter (Appendix A) to involve schools and teachers in participation of study.

Some of the school principals were consulted personally and others telephonically. A letter from the Head Office (Appendix A) and another from the researcher (Appendix B) were sent to those schools that were selected for research. The purpose of the research was explained to the principals. Only teachers who were not in the management positions were asked to participate in the study, and it was also explained to them that information they gave would be kept confidential. Ethical clearance was also obtained from the University of Durban-Westville's Ethics Committee (Appendix C).

### **3.9. Pilot Testing the Questionnaire**

According to Baumgartner and Strong (1994: 259), pilot testing a research questionnaire means that the researcher tries it out with a small sample to some group of people or with few colleagues and friends. These pilot group of respondents are intended to provide valuable critiques about the questionnaire format, content, expression and whether questions should be added or deleted before it is administered to a large group of respondents.

The questionnaire for this study was piloted with help from a statistician at the University of South Africa. Some questions in the questionnaire were not clearly understood by the respondents, necessitating a re-wording of those questions. To finalise the questionnaire, an open-ended question under section B (sources of teacher stress) was included.

### **3.10. Data Analysis**

The researcher used Microsoft Excel package to organise and analyse the data. Specifically, graphical and tabular forms were used. Percentages for different themes were calculated. In addition, some statistical hypotheses were tested. Research findings are presented in Chapter 4 and discussed in Chapter 5.

### **3.11. Conclusion**

The chapter discussed the method followed in undertaking this research. It explained the research design and reasons for it, reinforced the study aim and objectives, population and sampling, data validity, instrument reliability, research instrument, and the whole procedure followed, which covered pilot testing the questionnaire and data analysis.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **FINDINGS**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings made from the empirical survey. The format used in the questionnaire has been followed for consistency and simplicity. The demographic details of the respondents are presented first, then the sources of stress, and lastly the symptoms of stress. Demographic data had 9 items with specific sub-items. Sources of stress had 29 items while the symptoms of stress had 18 items. Findings about all the items in the three categories are reported in this chapter.

Tables and graphs were used to describe, explain and compare the male and female educators who responded. Initially, 84 respondents were targeted for this study. In the end only 63 responses were received, of which 31 were male and 32 female. This made it a 75% response rate. Where applicable and appropriate, contingency tables and chi-square tests were used to test the hypotheses of independence between gender and sources of stress. They were also used to test if gender and symptoms of stress were independent. Contingency tables considered that a factor was indicated as a source or symptom of stress, not the extent to which it indicated stress. The presentation of findings follows in the next sections.

## 4.2. Demographic Detail of Respondents

### 4.2.1. Age of respondents

*Table 4.1. Age of respondents by gender*

Age groups (in years)	Frequencies		Total
	Male	Female	
26-30	7	4	11
31-35	9	9	18
36-40	5	7	12
41-45	2	5	7
46-50	6	6	12
51-55	2	1	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

**Figure 4.1. Line chart of age of respondents**

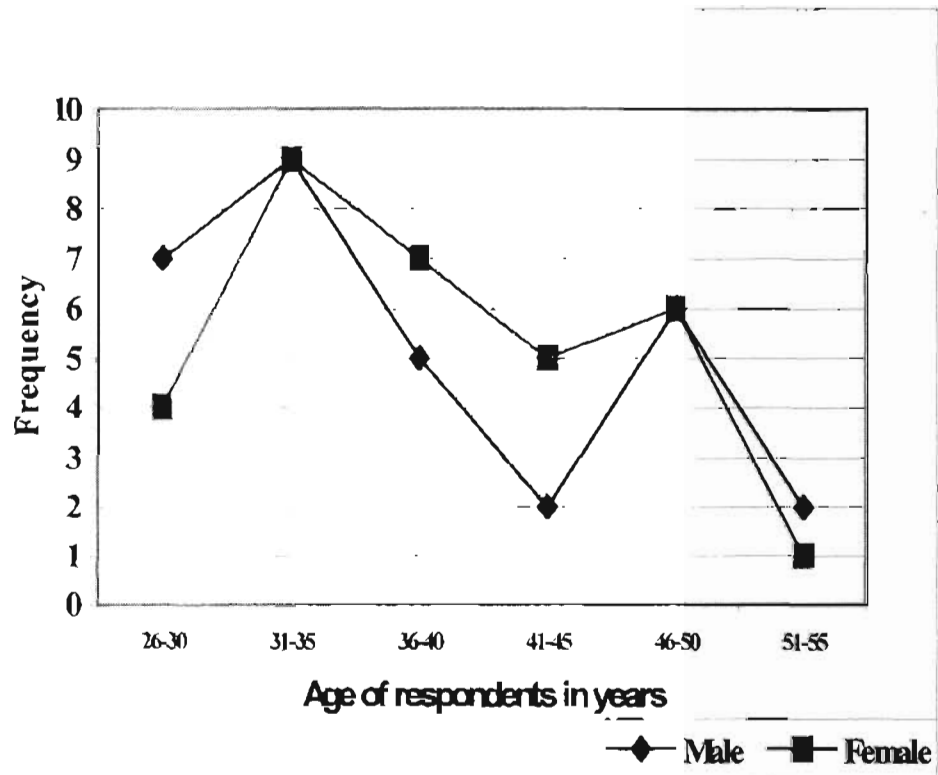


Table 4.1 demonstrates that the study revealed that 7 (11.11%) male and 4 (6.35%) female educators were aged in the range of 26-30 years. In the age group 31-35 years, male and female educators were equal with 9 (14.29%) respondents for each gender. In the age group 36-40 years there were 5 (7.94%) males and 7 (11.11%) female respondents. The age group 41-45 years had 2 (3.17%) males and 5 (7.94%) female respondents. The next finding presented was the 46-50 years age group with the number of male and female educators equal with 6 (9.52%) males and 6 (9.52%) females. Lastly, the age group 51-55 years yielded 2 (3.17%) male and 1 (1.59%) female respondents. There were no respondents below the ages of 26 years and above 55 years.

The graph shows that there are more male educators in the age ranges of 26-35 and 46-55 years, and more females than males in the middle ages of 35-45 years.

#### 4.2.2. Marital status of educators

*Table 4.2: Marital status of respondents*

Marital status	Frequencies		
	Male	Female	Total
Single	10	4	14
Divorced	0	3	3
Widowed	0	2	2
Married	21	23	44
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

Figure 4.2: Marital status of respondents

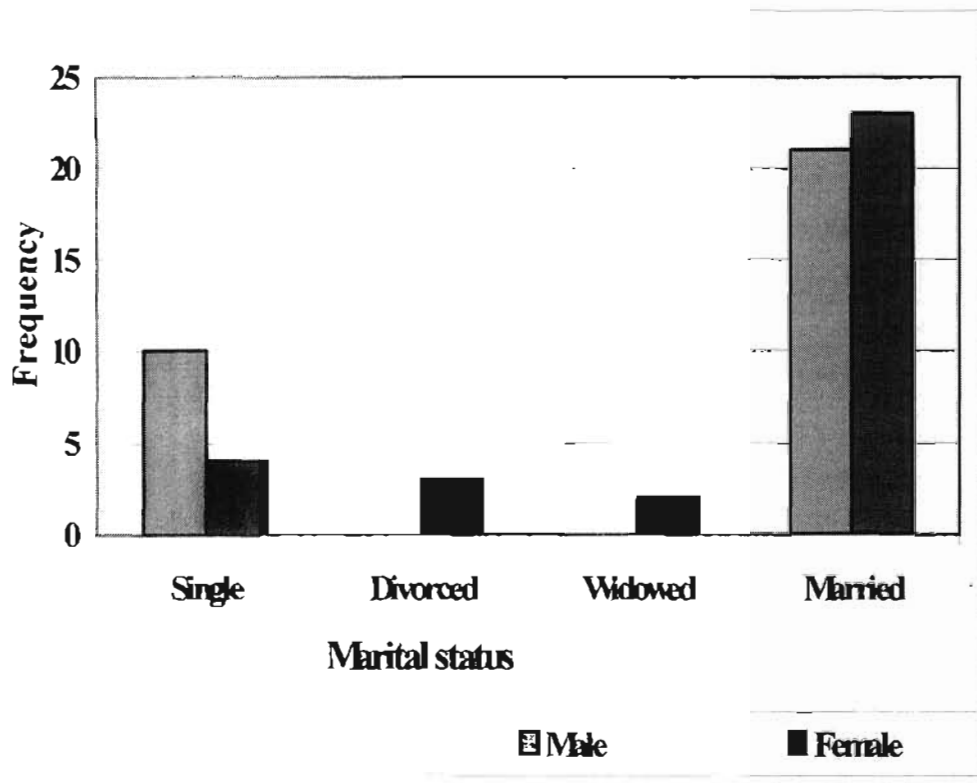


Table 4.2 shows that of the 63 educators who responded, the majority, 44 (69.84%), were married. Of these, 21 (33.33%) were males and 23 (36.51%) females. The next most were 14 (22.22%) who were still not married, of which 10 (15.87%) were males and 4 (6.35%) were females. The divorced educators were 3 (4.76%) respondents who were also all female. Lastly, 2 (3.17%) were widows who were females.

Figure 4.2 confirms that more males than females were single, more females than males were married. there were no males who were widowed, and two females had lost their husbands through death. It also substantiated that no man had divorced while very few women had divorced.

#### 4.2.3. Years of service of the educators

**Table 4.3: Years of service of the educators**

Teaching experience (years)	Frequency		
	Male	Female	Total
6 to 10	16	15	31
11 to 15	3	4	7
16 to 20	6	4	10
21 to 25	3	5	8
26 to 30	2	4	6
31 to 35	1	0	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

**Figure 4.3: Years of service of the educators**

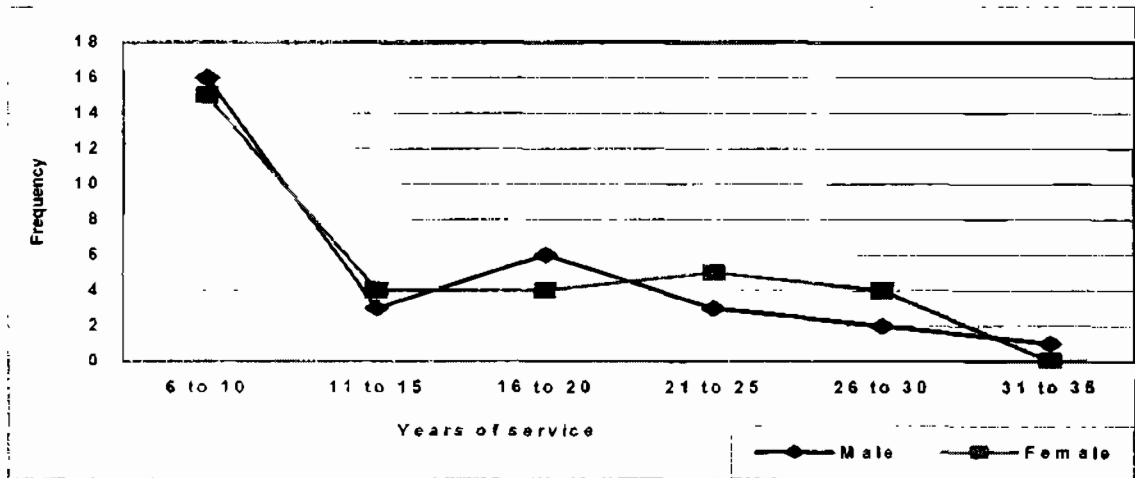


Table 4.3 shows that most respondents, explicitly 31 (49.21%), had been in the service for only 6 to 10 years, of which 16 (25.40%) were male and 15 (23.81%) were female. The next 7 (11.11%) other educators had from 11 to 15 years of teaching experience made up of 3 (4.76%) and 4 (6.35%) females. The next 10 (15.87%) others had been in





the service for 16 to 20 years, and the split was 6 (9.52%) males and 4 (6.35%) females. Eight (12.70%) other respondents had a 21 to 25 years of teaching experience, which was made up of 3 (4.76%) males and 5 (7.94%) females. The other 6 (9.52%) respondents, of whom 2 (3.17%) were male and 4 (6.35%) female, had 26 to 30 years teaching service. Only 1 (1.59%) respondent, a male, had a service of 31 to 35 years. No respondent had a service of less than five years in teaching. Further, there was no educator with a service of longer than 35 years, and only 7 (11.11%) of the 63 educators had teaching experience of over 25 years. This could be due to educators taking packages or retiring early.

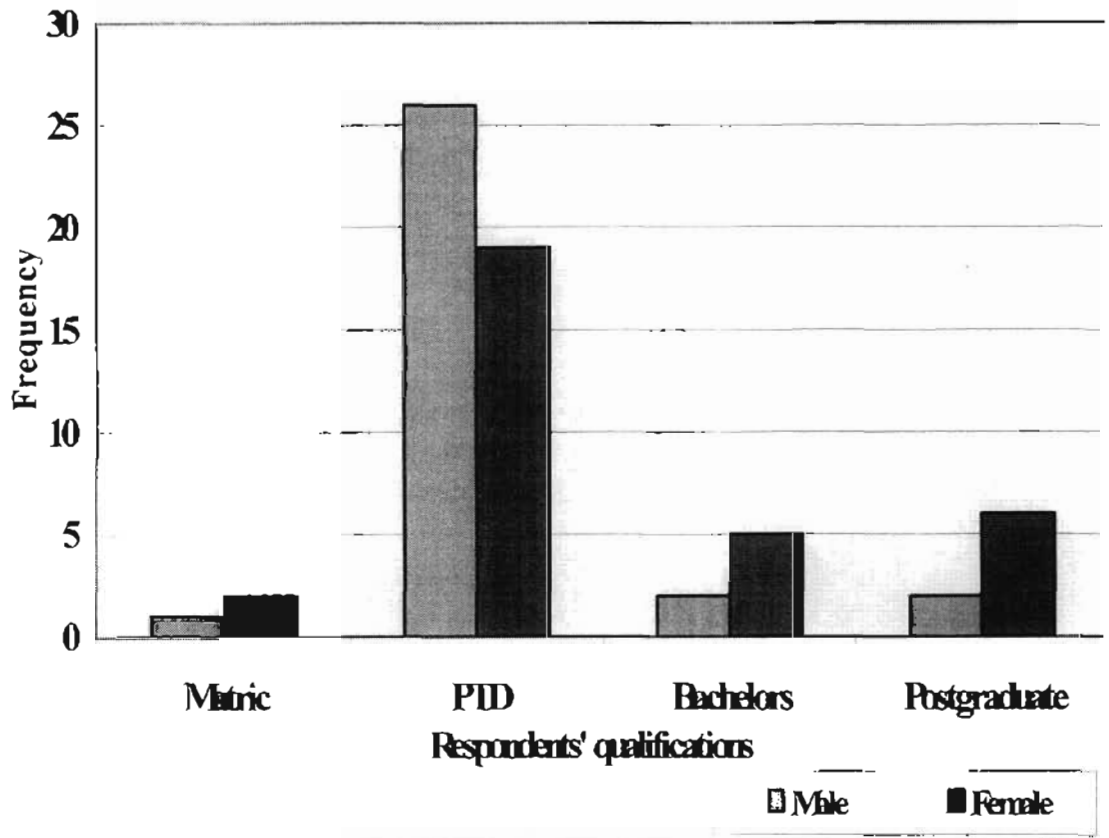
Graph 4.3 shows that there were slightly more males than females who had between 6 and 10 year teaching experience, and slightly more females than males between experiences of 11 to 15 years. There were more males than females in the experience range of 16 to 20 years, and more females than males in the experience range of 21 to 25 years. There were more females than males in the experience range of 26 to 30 years. Lastly there were more males than females in the experience range of 31 to 35 years.

#### 4.2.4. Qualification of educators

*Table 4.4: Educators' qualifications*

Highest qualification	Frequency		
	Male	Female	Total
Matric/Standard 10	1	2	3
Primary Teachers' Diploma	26	19	45
Bachelor's Degree	2	5	7
Honours degree and Higher	2	6	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

**Figure 4.4: Educators' qualifications**



There was a question in the questionnaire to determine the levels of education of the different educators. From Table 4.4, only 3 (4.76%) respondents had up to a matric certificate. 1 (1.59%) of whom was male and the other 2 (3.17%) females. The majority of respondents, 45 (71.43%), of whom 26 (41.27%) were males and 19 (30.16%) females, had a primary teachers' diploma. The other 7 (11.11%) had bachelors' degrees, of whom 2 (3.17%) were male and 5 (7.94%) female. The last 8 (12.70%), made of 2 (3.17%) male and 6 (9.52%) female, had honours or higher degrees.

The graph in Figure 4.4 indicates that there were few unqualified educators (only up to matric) with more female educators in this category than their male counterparts. The educators with primary teachers' diploma were overwhelmingly the highest. This category had more male educators than female counterparts. The female educators with bachelor's and postgraduate degrees were more than their respective male counterparts.

In the rapidly changing educational environment with the new demands from educators, the primary teachers' diploma is considered inadequate due to the fact that knowledge of research is required from the educators. The finding shows that 48 (76.19%) of the 63 educators were poorly qualified. This means that evaluation of stress was undertaken mainly for poorly qualified educators in a rapidly changing educational environment.

#### 4.2.5. Learner enrolment in the schools

*Table 4.5: Learner enrolment in the schools*

Number of learners	Frequencies of educators		
	Male	Female	Total
200-399	4	3	7
400-599	6	7	13
600-799	8	8	16
800-999	3	2	5
1000-1199	5	5	10
1200-1400	5	7	12
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

**Figure 4.5: Learner enrolment in the schools**

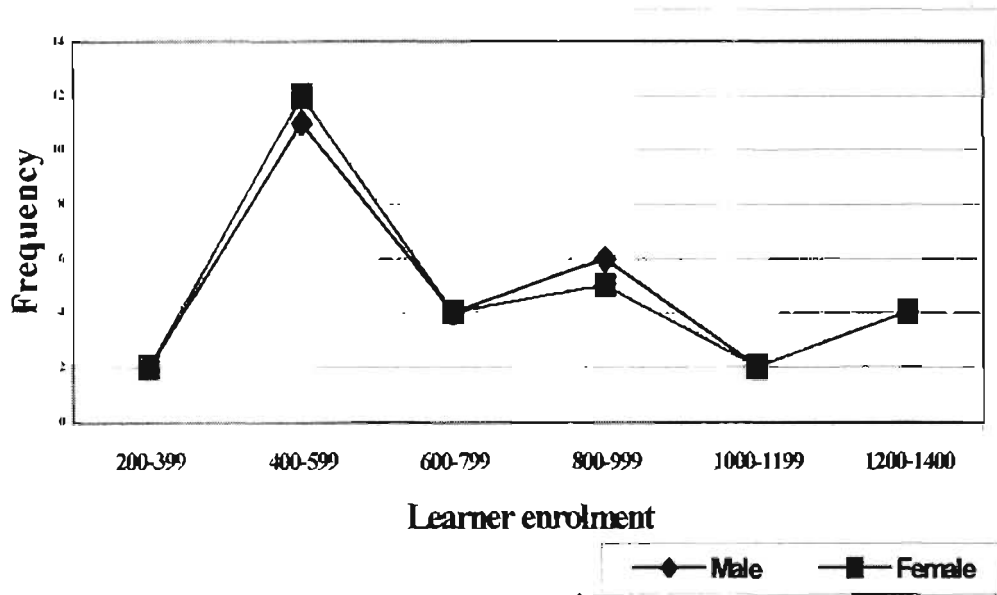


Figure 4.5 shows that the minimum number of learner enrolment in the schools surveyed was 200 and the maximum was 1400 learners. Seven (11.11%) educators were working in schools that had learner enrolments of between 200 and 399 learners, 4 (6.35%) of whom were male and 3 (4.76%) were female. Thirteen (20.63%) educators worked in schools with enrolments of between 400 and 599 learners, 6 (9.52%) of which were males and the other 7 (11.11%) females. Sixteen (25.40%) educators came from schools that had enrolled between 600 and 799 learners, with 8 (12.70%) males and 8 (12.70%) females. Five (7.94%) educators came from schools with learner enrolment of between 800 and 999 learners, with 3 (4.76%) males and 2 (3.17%) females. Ten (15.87%) others came from schools that had enrolments ranging between 1000 and 1199 learners, with an equal 5 (7.94%) male and 5 (7.94%) females. Twelve (19.05%) respondents were educators working in schools with enrolment of between 1200 and 1400 learners. Of these, 5 (7.94%) were males and 7 (11.11%) females.

The graph in Figure 4.5 shows that female educators are equal in number to their female counterparts in schools that have learner enrolment of between 200 and 799 learners. Males were only slightly more in schools with enrolment of between 800 and 1199 learners.

#### 4.2.6. Number of educators in school

*Table 4.6: Number of educators in school*

Number of educators	Frequency		
	Male	Female	Total
6 to 10	2	2	4
11 to 15	11	12	23
16 to 20	4	4	8
21 to 25	6	5	11
26 to 30	2	2	4
31 to 35	4	4	8
36 to 40	2	3	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

More information about Table 4.6 is given in Figure 4.6 that follows. A description also follows the figure.

**Figure 4.6: Number of educators in school**

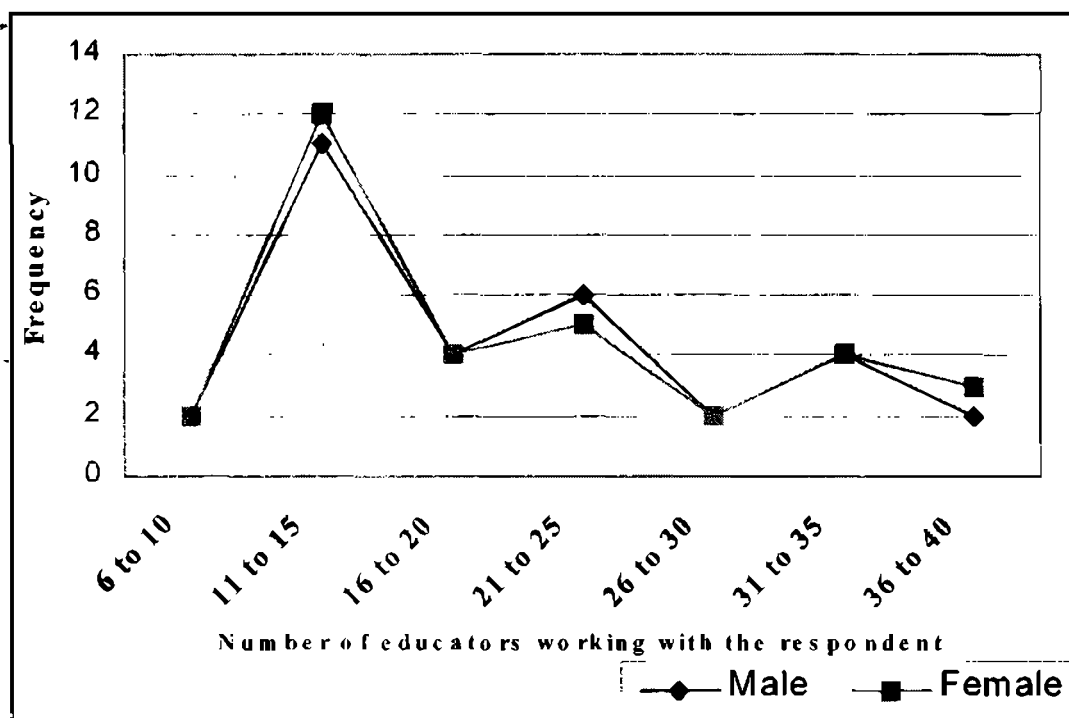


Table 4.6 shows that 4 (6.35%) respondents, 2 (3.17%) males and 2 (3.17%) females, were teaching in schools staffing from 6 to 10 educators. Twenty-three (36.51%) respondents made up of 11 (17.46%) males and 12 (19.05%) females were teaching in schools that had from 11 to 15 educators. The next was 8 (12.70%), 4 (6.35%) males and 4 (6.35%) females, who were employed in schools staffing from 16 to 20 educators. Eleven (17.46%) were working in schools staffing from 21 to 25 educators, of which 6 (9.52%) were males and 5 (7.94%) females. Four (6.35%) respondents were employed in schools that employed from 26 to 30 educators, 2 (3.17%) each of males and females. Eight (12.70%) respondents of an equal split of 4 (6.35%) males and 4 (6.35%) females

were employed in schools that staffed from 31 to 35 educators. Five (7.94%) respondents were employed in schools that staffed from 36 to 40 educators with a distribution of 2 (3.17%) males and 3 (4.35%) females.

The graph in Figure 4.6 confirms that educators who were employed in schools with 6 to 20 educators had slightly more females than males. Schools with 21 to 30 educators had slightly more males than females.

In the next table some acronyms are used. They are defined as follows:

AC	=	Arts and Culture
EMS	=	Economic and Management Sciences
HSS	=	Human and Social Sciences
LLC	=	Language, Literacy and Communication
LO	=	Life Orientation / Life Skills
MLMMS	=	Mathematical, Literacy, Mathematics and Mathematical Science
NS	=	Natural Sciences
Tech	=	Technology

#### 4.2.7. Subjects, number of grades and learners taught by educators

*Table 4.7: Subjects, number of grades and learners taught by educators*

Subject taught	Number of grades	Number of learners in each subject category	Teacher frequency (N = 63)
Tech & NS	4	Above 40	9
LLC	3 to 5	70 to 102	20
LO	3 to 6	30 to 80	15
MLMMS & AC	4 to 6	60 to 140	10
HSS & EMS	3 to 5	60 to 110	9

Subjects taught in Soshanguve schools and the number of grades each educator was teaching are shown in Table 4.7. Nine (14.29%) respondents were teaching the Technology and Natural Sciences in four grades and all the others had more than 40 learners. Twenty educators (31.75%) were teaching languages in 3 to 5 grades to between 70 and 102 learners. Fifteen educators (23.81%) were teaching Numeracy, Literacy and Life skills in 3 to 6 grades to between 30 and 80 learners. Ten educators (15.87%) were teaching MLMMS and AC in 4 to 6 grades to between 60 and 140 learners. The last 9 educators (14.29%) were teaching HSS and EMS in 3 to 5 grades to between 60 and 110 learners. No educator was teaching in less than three grades, and most of them had a total of far more than 40 learners.



#### 4.2.8. Number of educators who gained promotion in the last five years

*Table 4.8: Number of educators who gained promotion in the last five years*

Promotions in last 5 years					
Promoted			Not promoted		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
4	2	6	27	30	57

Table 4.8 shows that only 6 (9.52%) of the 63 educators had been promoted in the last five years. of which 4 (6.35) were males and 2 (3.17%) females. It also shows that the last 57 (90.48%) had not been promoted in the past five years. Of these, 27 (42.86%) were male and 30 (47.62%) female.

#### 4.2.9. Teaching passion of educators

*Table 4.9: Teaching passion still there*

	Frequency		
	Male	Female	Total
Yes	10	14	24
No	21	18	39
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

As seen from Table 4.9, a total of 39 (61.90%) respondents had no more passion for teaching. They indicated that if they were to obtain a chance to choose another career, they would not choose teaching. Of these, 21 (33.33%) were male and 18 (28.57%) female. Twenty-four (38.10%) others said that they still had passion for education and would still choose to educate. Ten (15.87%) of these were male and 14 (22.22%) female.

The next Table 4.9a provides that basis for testing if sustenance of existence of passion of an educator is independent of gender of an educator (see Section 3.1). The critical value from the statistical tables is  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ .

*Table 4.9a: Expected teaching passion*

<b>Frequency</b>			
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Yes	11.80952	12.19048	<b>24</b>
No	19.19048	19.80952	<b>39</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>63</b>

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.899154$ . This value does not exceed the critical value and therefore we conclude that continued loyalty to teaching and gender of an educator, are independent. Thus, gender is unrelated to passion for teaching.

The next section (Section 4.3) presents items that were thought to be sources of stress. They appear in the next table, Table 4.10. Each item is presented and checked if it caused the educators any stress. Counts were taken as to how many of the males and females had ever experienced it as a source of their stress, and to what extent that occurred.

### **4.3. Sources of Stress**

The analyses in the next section start with percentages of the different levels of causes of stress; that is, it establishes the extent to which every given factor is a cause of stress. Thereafter, more analyses were undertaken by counting all the respondents who indicated that a given factor was a cause of stress regardless of the extent to which the factor was indicated to be a cause of stress. These led to forming the contingency tables, a table used in the analysis of count data that concerns the independence of two methods of classification of observed events (Mendenhall, Wackerley & Scheaffer, 1990: 650). Use of contingency tables for each factor that caused stress was to test the null hypotheses that the factor as a source of educator stress is independent of gender of an educator. Alpha level is set at the 5% level of significance. The tables used for these tests have 2 rows and 2 columns, hence the degree of freedom is 1. The chi-square value serving as the critical region is thus  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$  for all the cases testing independence (cf. Stoker, 1970). The next Table 4.10 uses codes to represent the extent of an item as a source of stress as follows:

0 = not a source of stress

1 = minor source

2 = moderate source

3 = important source

4 = very important source of stress

Thus,

0 = item does not cause stress

1 - 4 = item is a source of stress.

### 4.3.1. Measures of the contribution of sources of stress

**Table 4.10: Frequency count of educators on factors that give them stress**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. Tension	11	8	7	9	4	4	3	6	7	4
2. Boredom	20	16	8	5	2	4	2	3	0	3
3. Anxiety	9	12	7	9	9	1	6	6	1	3
4. Irritation	10	13	5	0	6	8	2	2	9	8
5. Lack of promotion	7	3	4	4	1	4	7	6	13	14
6. Vandalism	8	7	2	3	5	3	2	5	15	13
7. Unequipped	8	5	4	4	3	7	8	8	9	7
8. Moral decay	13	9	4	10	4	5	5	2	6	5
9. Conflicts	6	9	6	3	3	6	1	4	16	9
10. School work at home	9	4	4	7	1	5	7	5	11	10
11. Inadequate salary	2	2	0	1	3	1	7	6	20	21
12. No learner control by T's*	11	10	6	6	5	8	3	3	7	4
13. No parent support	0	1	2	1	4	4	5	9	21	16
14. Job financial insecurity	2	2	1	0	4	5	5	5	20	19
15. Other teachers lazy	4	6	4	4	5	3	7	3	12	15
16. Inclusive educ* obligation	10	9	4	3	8	5	3	6	7	8
17. Learner ill-discipline	1	3	3	5	1	4	14	6	13	13
18. Learner multi-cult backgr*	15	6	7	5	4	9	1	5	5	6
19. Shacks around school	19	15	3	4	3	4	1	4	6	4
20. Too many learners	3	4	5	5	5	1	5	4	14	17
21. Being blamed for failure	8	8	5	10	2	4	3	5	14	4
22. Too many periods / week	7	7	4	6	4	7	6	3	11	8
23. Shattered classrooms	8	19	8	3	3	1	5	2	8	6
24. Cold class- & staff rooms	6	6	8	7	4	6	5	4	9	8
25. Curriculum changes	10	4	5	6	3	8	5	2	9	11
26. Classroom shortage	12	6	2	5	2	5	5	2	11	13
27. Job dissatisfaction	9	5	3	3	2	8	4	5	14	10

\* T stands for teacher, educ for education, multi-cult backgr for multicultural background.

28. Has it crossed your mind a bit in the past 6 months that you want to leave teaching?

**Table 4.10a: Number of respondents who ever thought of leaving teaching**

Almost daily		At least once per week		At least once per month		Occasionally		Never	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
7	7	0	2	2	1	10	6	13	15

A total of 35 (55.56%) have had thoughts of leaving teaching, possibly due to feelings of stress, despite poor economic conditions and high unemployment in South Africa. Some 28 (44.46%) never had thoughts of leaving teaching, they have remained loyal to the profession regardless of the conditions in schools and education.

29. Please describe your work in one or more of the following groups.

	Stressful	Not stressful
Unpleasant	40	0
Enjoyable and rewarding	0	23

A total of 40 (63.49%) educators out of 63 found teaching to be stressful and unpleasant while 23 (36.51%) said it was not stressful but enjoyable and rewarding. This shows that most of the educators did not find teaching to be fun, but a burden.

In the forthcoming discussions, when it is said that an item was a source of stress it shall imply that it was a minor or a moderate source of stress, while an 'important' source shall include the important and the very important items.

### 4.3.2. Stress associated with tension

**Table 4.11: Educators stressed by tension**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
i. Tension (%)	17.46	12.70	11.11	14.29	6.35	6.35	4.76	9.52	11.11	6.35
Frequency	11	8	7	9	4	4	3	6	7	4

Table 4.11 shows that there were 19 (30.16%) subjects who said that for them, tension was not a source of stress. Of these, 11 (17.46%) were male and 8 (12.70%) female. A total of 24 (38.10%) respondents indicated that for them tension was a source of stress. These were 7 (11.11%) male and 9 (14.29%) female subjects who responded that tension was a minor source; and 4 (6.35%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that tension was a moderate source. The last 20 (31.75%) respondents indicated that for them tension was an ‘important’ source of stress. This was made up of 3 (4.76%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who indicated that tension was an important source of stress; and 7 (11.11%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who indicated that tension was a very important source of stress.

Further analysis was undertaken using chi-squares test to determine whether there was a gender difference in the relationship between tension and stress. In all the tables presenting results of the chi-square tests, the acronym N. S. shall stand for “not significant”. Yates’ correction is used because the matrices are of the size  $2 \times 2$ , and cell frequencies are rather small in some instances.

**Table 4.11a: Educators stressed by tension**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	11	8	1	0.4929 (N. S.)
Yes	20	24		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.4929$ . This value does not exceed the critical value  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Thus, there is no relationship between educator stress and tension.

#### 4.3.3. Stress associated with boredom

**Table 4.12: Educators stressed by boredom**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
2. Boredom (%)	31.75	25.40	12.70	7.94	3.17	6.35	3.17	4.76	0.00	4.76
Frequency	20	16	8	5	2	4	2	3	0	3

As seen from Table 4.12, there were 36 (57.15%) respondents who stated that boredom did not cause them stress. Of these, 20 (31.75%) were male and 16 (25.40) female. A total of 19 (30.16%) respondents indicated that for them, boredom was a source of stress. This was made of 8 (12.70%) male and 5 (7.94%) female who indicated that for them boredom was a minor source of stress; and 2 (3.17%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that for them boredom was a moderate source of stress. The last 8 (12.70%) respondents indicated that for them boredom was an 'important' source of stress. Of these, (3.17%) males and 3 (4.76%) females said that for them boredom was an

important source of stress: and 0 (0%) males and 3 (4.76%) said that for them boredom was a very important source of stress.

Further analysis was done to examine whether there was a gender difference in the relationship between boredom and stress.

**Table 4.12a: Educators stressed by boredom**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	20	16	1	0.6887 (N. S.)
Yes	11	16		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.6887$ , which is lower than the critical value  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Therefore, the relationship between boredom and stress is similar for males and females.

#### 4.3.4. Stress associated with anxiety

**Table 4.13: Educators stressed by anxiety**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
3. Anxiety (%)	14.29	19.05	11.11	14.29	14.29	1.59	9.52	9.52	1.59	4.76
Frequency	9	12	7	9	9	1	6	6	1	3

Table 4.13 shows that a total of 21 (33.34%) respondents stated that anxiety did not cause them stress, which was made up of 9 (14.29%) males and 12 (19.05%) females.



Another 26 (41.27%) respondents indicated that for them, anxiety was a source of stress. Of these, 7 (11.11%) were males and 9 (14.29%) females who said that anxiety was a minor source of stress; and 9 (14.29%) males and 1 (1.59%) female who said that anxiety was a moderate source of stress. The remaining 16 (25.40%) respondents indicated that for them, anxiety was an 'important' source of stress. This was made up of 6 (9.52%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who said for them, anxiety was an important source of stress; and 1 (1.59%) male and 3 (4.76%) females who said for them, anxiety was a very important source of stress.

The next chi-square test determines if anxiety as a source of stress and gender could be said to be dependent or independent variables.

**Table 4.13a: Educators stressed by anxiety**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	9	12	1	0.5154 (N. S.)
Yes	22	20		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.515376$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that anxiety causes stress to male and female educators in a similar way regardless of gender.

### 4.3.5. Stress associated with irritation

**Table 4.14: Educators stressed by irritation**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
4. Irritation (%)	15.87	20.63	7.94	0.00	9.52	12.70	3.17	3.17	14.29	12.70
Frequency	10	13	5	0	6	8	2	2	9	8

Table 4.14 shows that 23 (36.50%) educators said that irritation did not cause them stress, of whom 10 (15.87%) were males and 13 (20.63%) females. A total of 19 (30.16%) others indicated that irritation, for them, was a source of stress. These were 5 (7.94%) males and 0 (0%) females who indicated that irritation was a minor source of stress for them; and 6 (9.52%) males and 8 (12.70%) females who indicated that irritation was a moderate source of stress. The last 21 (33.33%) subjects indicated that irritation was an 'important' source of stress for them. Of these, 2 (3.17%) males and 2 (3.17%) females said that irritation was an important source of stress; and 9 (14.29%) males and 8 (12.70%) females said that irritation was a very important source of stress for them. The findings reveal that most educators experienced irritation to be a source of their stress. The next chi-square test was used to determine if irritation as a source of stress, and gender, are dependent or independent variables.

**Table 4.14a: Educators stressed by irritation**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	10	13	1	0.8048 (N. S.)
Yes	21	19		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.8048$ . This value is lower than the critical region,  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that the association between irritation and stress to educators has nothing to do with gender.

#### 4.3.6. Stress associated with lack of promotion

**Table 4.15: Educators stressed by lack of promotion**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
5. Career stop (%)	11.11	4.76	6.35	6.35	1.59	6.35	11.11	9.52	20.63	22.22
Frequency	7	3	4	4	1	4	7	6	13	14

In assessing the number of educators who are stressed by lack of promotion, Table 4.15 shows that 10 (15.87%) subjects stated that lack of promotion did not cause them stress. Of these, 7 (11.11%) were male and 3 (4.76%) female. A total of 13 (20.63%) respondents indicated that for them, lack of promotion was a source of stress. These were 4 (6.35%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who responded that lack of promotion was a minor source of stress; and 1 (1.59%) male and 4 (6.35%) females who said that lack of promotion was a moderate source of stress. The last 40 (63.48%) subjects indicated that for them, lack of promotion was an 'important' source of stress. These were 7 (11.11%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who said that for them, lack of promotion was an important source of stress; and 13 (20.63%) males and 14 (22.22%) who said that for them, lack of promotion was a very important source of stress. Most educators were found to be stressed by lack of promotion.

In the next chi-square test lack of promotion as a source of stress and gender were to be considered as dependent or independent variables.

**Table 4.15a: Educators stressed by lack of promotion**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	7	3	1	0.5063 (N. S.)
Yes	24	29		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.5063$ . This value is below the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Hence the relationship between lack of promotion and stress is similar for both male and females.

#### 4.3.7. Stress associated with school vandalism

**Table 4.16: Educators stressed by results of school vandalism**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
6. Vandalism (%)	12.70	11.11	3.17	4.76	7.94	4.76	3.17	7.94	23.81	20.63
Frequency	8	7	2	3	5	3	2	5	15	13

Table 4.16 shows that 15 (23.81%) subjects stated that vandalism in their schools did not cause them stress. Out of this, 8 (12.70%) were male and 7 (11.11%) female. A total of 13 (20.63%) respondents said that vandalism in their schools was a source of their stress.

Of these, 2 (3.17%) males and 3 (4.76%) females said that vandalism in their schools was a minor source of their stress; and 5 (7.94%) males and 3 (4.76%) females said that vandalism in their schools was a moderate source of stress. The last 35 (55.56%) respondents indicated that vandalism in their schools was an 'important' source of stress. This was made up of 2 (3.17%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that vandalism in their schools was an important source of stress; 15 (23.81%) males and 13 (20.63%) said that vandalism in their schools was a very important source of stress.

In the next analysis, gender and the results of vandalism as a source of stress were tested whether they were dependent or independent sources of stress.

**Table 4.16a: Educators stressed by school vandalism**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	8	7	1	0.9713 (N. S.)
Yes	23	25		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9713$ , which is lower than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Therefore, the relationship between school vandalism and educator stress is similar for both male and female educators.

#### 4.3.8. Stress associated with lack of teaching equipment

**Table 4.17: Educators stressed by lack of equipment**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
7. Unequipped (%)	12.70	7.94	6.35	6.35	4.76	11.11	12.70	12.70	14.29	11.11
Frequency	8	5	4	4	3	7	8	8	9	7

In determining how many educators were stressed by lack of equipment in their schools, Table 4.17 gives 13 (20.63%) subjects indicated that lack of equipment in their schools did not cause them stress. They were 8 (12.70%) males and 5 (7.94%) females. Another 18 (28.57%) said that lack of equipment was a source of stress. Of these, 4 (6.35%) males and 4 (6.35%) females said that lack of equipment was a minor source of their stress; and 3 (4.76%) males and 7 (11.11%) females said that lack of equipment was a moderate source of their stress. The last 32 (50.79%) subjects said that lack of equipment was an 'important' source of stress. These were 8 (12.70%) males and 8 (12.70%) females who said that lack of equipment was an important source of stress; and 9 (14.29%) males and 7 (11.11%) females who said that lack of equipment was a very important source of stress. The next analysis was used to determine if lack of equipment as a source of stress and gender are dependent or independent sources of stress.

**Table 4.17a: Educators stressed by lack of equipment**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	8	5	1	0.7909 (N. S.)
Yes	23	27		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.7909$ . The value is lower than  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ , the critical value. Thus the relationship between lack of equipment in the school and stress is similar for both males and females.

#### 4.3.9. Stress associated with disregard for ethics

**Table 4.18: Educators stressed by disregard for ethics**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
8. Moral decay (%)	20.63	14.29	6.35	15.87	6.35	7.94	7.94	3.17	9.52	7.94
Frequency	13	9	4	10	4	5	5	2	6	5

According to Table 4.18 it was observed that 22 (34.92%) respondents indicated that disregard for ethics in their schools caused them stress, of whom 13 (20.63%) were males and 9 (14.29%) females. There were 23 (36.51%) respondents indicated that for them disregard for ethics caused them stress. Of these, 4 (6.35%) males and 10 (15.87%) females said that it caused them minor stress; and 4 (6.35%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that it caused them a moderate stress. Lastly, there were 18 (28.57%) respondents who indicated that for them it is an 'important' source of stress. This was made up of 5 (7.94%) males and 2 (3.17%) females who said that for them it was an important source of stress: 6 (9.52%) males and 5 (9.94%) females who said for them it was a very important source of stress. A comfortable majority of educators were stressed by disregard for ethics in the schools. The next chi-square test was used to determine if disregard for ethics as a source of stress and gender are dependent or independent variables.

**Table 4.18a: Educators stressed by disregard for ethics**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	13	9	1	0.7472 (N. S.)
Yes	18	23		

The calculated chi-square value  $\chi^2 = 0.7472$  is below the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Hence the relationship between disregard for ethics and stress is similar for both males and females.

#### 4.3.10. Stress associated with conflict in school

**Table 4.19: Educators stressed by conflict within school**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
9. Conflicts (%)	9.52	14.29	9.52	4.76	4.76	9.52	1.59	6.35	25.40	14.29
Frequency	6	9	6	3	3	6	1	4	16	9

Table 4.19 shows that 15 (23.81%) educators said that conflict in their schools caused them stress, of whom 6 (9.52%) were male and 9 (14.29%) female. Another 18 (28.57%) said that for them conflict in their schools caused them stress. Of these, 6 (9.52%) males and 3 (4.76%) females said that conflict in their schools it caused them minor stress; and 3 (4.76%) males and 6 (9.52%) females indicated that conflict in their schools caused them a moderate stress. The last 30 (47.62%) subjects said conflict in their schools was an 'important' source of stress. These were 1 (1.59%) male and 4 (6.35%) females who



said that conflict in their schools was an important source of stress; and 16 (25.40%) males and 9 (14.29%) female respondents who said that conflict in their schools was a very important source of stress. Conflict within schools seem to stress most educators.

It was also determined in the next chi-square test if stress due to conflict and gender was dependent or independent variables.

**Table 4.19a: Educators stressed by conflict within school**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	6	9	1	0.8508 (N. S.)
Yes	25	23		

The calculated chi-square value  $\chi^2 = 0.8508$  lies below the critical region of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Thus the relationship between conflicts within schools and stress is similar for both males and females.

#### 4.3.11. Stress associated with taking school work home

**Table 4.20: Educators stressed by having to do school work at home**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
10. School work at home (%)	14.29	6.35	6.35	11.11	1.59	7.94	11.11	7.94	17.46	15.87
Frequency	9	4	4	7	1	5	7	5	11	10

Table 4.20 shows that a total of 13 (20.63%) subjects said that having to take schoolwork home caused them stress. These were 9 (14.29%) males and 4 (6.35%) females. Another 17 (26.98%) indicated that having to complete schoolwork at home causes them stress. Of these, 4 (6.35%) were males and 7 (11.11%) females who said that having to complete schoolwork at home caused them a minor stress; and 1 (1.59%) male and 5 (7.94%) females who said that having to complete schoolwork at home caused them a moderate stress. The last 33 (52.38%) subjects indicated that for them, having to complete schoolwork at home was an 'important' source of stress. These were 7 (11.11%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that having to complete schoolwork at home was an important source of stress; and 11 (17.46%) males and 10 (15.87%) females who said that having to complete schoolwork at home was a very important source of stress. Most of the educators seem to be stressed by having to take school work home.

The next chi-square test was used to determine if having to complete schoolwork at home as a source of stress and gender were dependent or independent sources of stress.

**Table 4.20a: Educators stressed by having to take school work home**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	9	4	1	0.4040 (N. S.)
Yes	22	28		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.4040$ . This value is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that having to take school work home as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator are independent is accepted.

#### 4.3.12. Stress associated with inadequacy of salaries

**Table 4.21: Educators stressed by inadequate salaries**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
11. Inadequate salary (%)	3.17	3.17	0.00	1.59	4.76	1.59	11.11	9.52	31.75	33.33
Frequency	2	2	0	1	3	1	7	6	20	21

Table 4.21 shows that 4 (6.35%) subjects indicated that inadequacy of educator salaries caused them stress. These were made of 2 (3.17%) males and 2 (3.17%) females. The next 5 (7.93%) subjects said that inadequate salaries were a source of educator stress. Of these, 0 males and 1 (1.59%) female said that inadequate salaries were a minor source of stress; and 3 (4.76%) males and 1 (1.59%) female said that inadequate salaries were a moderate source of stress. The remaining 54 (85.71%) subjects said that inadequate salaries were an 'important' source of stress. Of these, 7 (11.11%) males and 6 (9.52%) females said that inadequate salaries were an important source of stress; and 20 (31.75%) males and 21 (33.33%) females said that inadequate salaries were a very important source of stress. Even for this item, most educators were stressed by inadequacy of salaries.

The following chi-square test was used to establish if gender and inadequacy of salaries as a source of stress are dependent or not.

**Table 4.21a: Educators stressed by inadequacy of salaries**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	2	2	1	0.9498
Yes	29	30		

The calculated chi-square value  $\chi^2 = 0.9498$  is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Thus, the relationship between inadequate salaries and educator stress and gender is similar for both males and females.

#### 4.3.13. Stress associated with inability to control learners

**Table 4.22: Educators stressed by lack of learner control**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
12. No learner control (%)	17.46	15.87	9.52	9.52	7.94	12.70	4.76	4.76	11.11	6.35
Frequency	11	10	6	6	5	8	3	3	7	4

It was observed (in Table 4.22) that 21 (33.33%) respondents indicated that lack of learner control in their schools caused them stress. It was made up of 11 (17.46%) males and 10 (15.87%) females. The next 25 (39.68%) respondents said that lack of learner control served as a source of stress. These were 6 (9.52%) males and 6 (9.52%) females

who responded that lack of learner control was a minor source of stress; and 5 (7.94%) males and 8 (12.70%) females who said that lack of learner control was a moderate source of stress. There were the last 17 (26.98%) respondents who indicated that lack of learner control was an 'important' source of stress. The distribution was 3 (4.76%) males and 3 (4.76%) females who said that lack of learner control was an important source of stress; 7 (11.11%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that lack of learner control was a very important source of stress. The number of educators who were not stressed by lack of ability to control learners was higher when compared with that of those who were stressed by other items. However, even here a majority of them were stressed by inability to control learners in schools.

The next chi-square test was used to determine if lack of learner control as a source of stress and gender were to be considered dependent or independent variables.

**Table 4.22a: Educators stressed by inability to control learner**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	11	10	1	0.9761
Yes	20	22		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9761$ , and is lower than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that lack of learner control as a source of stress has nothing to do with gender of an educator.

• **4.3.14. Stress associated with lack of parental support**

**Table 4.23: Educators stressed by lack of parental support**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
13. No parent support (5)	0.00	1.59	3.17	1.59	6.35	6.35	7.94	14.29	33.33	25.40
Frequency	0	1	2	1	4	4	5	9	21	16

It was observed from Table 4.23 that 1 (1.59%) respondent indicated that lack of parental support in their schools caused them stress, which was 0 male and 1 (1.59%) female. The next 11 (17.46%) respondents said that a lack of parental support caused them stress. The distribution of these was 2 (3.17%) males and 1 (1.59%) female who responded that a lack of parental support caused them a minor stress; and 4 (6.35%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that a lack of parental support caused them a moderate stress. The last 51 (80.95%) respondents indicated that a lack of parental support was an ‘important’ source of stress for them. These were 5 (7.94%) males and 9 (14.29%) females who said that a lack of parental support was an important source of stress; and 21 (33.33%) males and 16 (25.40%) females who said that a lack of parental support was for them a very important source of stress. For this item, almost all the educators found it to be a source of stress.

• The next chi-square test was used to determine if lack of parental support as a source of educator stress was dependent on the gender of an educator or not.

**Table 4.23a: Educators stressed by lack of parental support**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	0	1	1	0.8070 (N. S.)
Yes	31	31		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.8070$ , also lower than the critical region of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that lack of parental support as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.15. Stress associated with financial insecurity of job

**Table 4.24: Educators stressed by financial insecurity of teaching**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
14. Job financial insecurity (%)	3.17	3.17	1.59	0.00	6.35	7.94	7.94	7.94	31.75	30.16
Frequency	2	2	1	0	4	5	5	5	20	19

Table 4.24 shows that 4 (6.35%) respondents indicated that financial insecurity of the educator job caused them stress. It was made up of 2 (3.17%) males and 2 (3.17%) female respondents. Another 10 (15.87%) respondents indicated that financial insecurity of the teaching profession caused them stress. The distribution was 1 (1.59%) male and no female who responded that financial insecurity of the teaching profession caused them a minor stress; and 4 (6.35%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that financial insecurity of the teaching profession caused them a moderate stress. The last 49 (77.78%) respondents indicated that financial insecurity of the teaching profession was

for them an 'important' source of stress. It was distributed as 5 (7.94%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that financial insecurity of the teaching profession was an important source of stress; and 20 (31.75%) males and 19 (30.16%) females who said that financial insecurity of the teaching profession was a very important source of stress. A majority of educators were stressed by financial insecurity of the job.

It was also tested if financial insecurity as a source of stress was dependent on the gender of an educator.

**Table 4.24a: Educators stressed by financial insecurity**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	2	2	1	0.9498 (N. S.)
Yes	29	30		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9498$ . This value is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that financial insecurity of teacher salaries as a source of stress affects male and female educators in a similar way regardless of gender.

#### 4.3.16. Stress associated with working with lazy colleagues

**Table 4.25: Educators stressed by working with lazy teachers**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
15. Other teachers lazy (%)	6.35	9.52	6.35	6.35	7.94	4.76	11.11	4.76	19.05	23.81
Frequency	4	6	4	4	5	3	7	3	12	15



From Table 4.25, 10 (15.35%) respondents indicated 0 that the fact that some of their colleagues are lazy caused them stress. The number was made up of 4 (6.35%) males and 6 (9.52%) female respondents. Another 16 (25.40%) respondents indicated that working with lazy teachers in the same school cause them stress. These were 4 (6.35%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who responded that working with lazy teachers in the same school caused them a minor stress; and 5 (7.94%) males and 3 (4.76%) females who said that working with lazy teachers in the same school caused them a moderate stress. The last 37 (58.73%) respondents indicated that working with lazy teachers in the same school was for them an 'important' source of stress. These were 7 (11.11%) males and 3 (4.76%) females who said that working with lazy teachers in the same school was an important source of stress; and 12 (19.05%) males and 15 (23.81%) females who said that working with lazy teachers in the same school was a very important source of stress. As was the case with other items, working with lazy colleagues stressed most educators.

In the next chi-square test the objective was to determine if the stress caused by lazy colleagues and gender of an educator were dependent or not.

**Table 4.25a: Educators stressed by lazy colleagues**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	4	6	1	0.9042 (N. S.)
Yes	27	26		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9042$ . This value is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that working with lazy educators as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.17. Stress associated with inclusive education obligation

**Table 4.26: Educators stressed by obligation of inclusive education**

	0		1		2		3		4
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
16. Inclusive education obligation (%)	15.87	14.29	6.35	4.76	12.70	7.94	4.76	9.52	11.11
Frequency	10	9	4	3	8	5	3	6	7

Table 4.26 shows that 19 (30.16%) respondents indicated that the obligation of educators to have inclusive education did not cause them stress. From these, 10 (15.87%) were males and 9 (14.29%) were females. The next 20 (31.75%) respondents indicated that being obliged for inclusive education was a source of stress for them. It was distributed as 4 (6.35%) males and 3 (4.76%) females who responded that being obliged for inclusive education was a minor source of stress; and 8 (17.70%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that being obliged for inclusive education was a moderate source of stress. The last 24 (30.10%) respondents indicated that for them, being obliged for inclusive education was an ‘important’ source of stress. These were 3 (4.76%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who said that being obliged for inclusive education was an important source of stress, 7 (11.11%) males and 8 (12.70%) females who said that being obliged for inclusive education was a very important source of stress.

As for other items that were identified as stressors, a majority of educators were stressed by obligation for inclusive education.

The next test was intended to determine if inclusive education as a source of stress and gender of an educator were independent.

**Table 4.26a: Educators stressed by inclusive education**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	10	9	1	0.9754 (N. S.)
Yes	21	23		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9754$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that inclusive education as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.18. Stress associated with lack of learner discipline

**Table 4.27: Educators stressed by lack of learner discipline**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
18. Learner ill-discipline (%)	1.59	4.76	4.76	7.94	1.59	6.35	22.22	9.52	20.63	20.63
Frequency	1	3	3	5	1	4	14	6	13	13

From Table 4.27, 4 (6.35%) respondents indicated that lack of learner discipline in their schools did not caused them stress. They were made up of 1 (1.59%) male and 3 (4.76%) females. The next 13 (20.63%) respondents indicated that lack of learner discipline was a source of stress. These were 3 (4.76%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who responded that lack of learner discipline was a minor source of stress; and 1 (1.59%) male and 4 (6.35%) females who said that lack of learner discipline was a moderate source of stress. The last 46 (73.02%) respondents indicated that lack of learner discipline was an 'important' source of stress. They were made up of 14 (22.22%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who said that lack of learner discipline was an important source of stress; and 13 (20.63%) males and 13 (20.63%) females who said that lack of learner discipline was a very important source of stress. A majority of educators indicated that they were stressed by ill-discipline of the learners. In the next chi-square test, learner ill-discipline as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator were tested for dependence or independence.

**Table 4.27a: Educators stressed by learner ill-discipline**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	1	3	1	0.6490 (N. S.)
Yes	30	29		

The calculated chi-square value,  $\chi^2 = 0.6490$  is less than the critical value  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The null hypothesis is accepted. The conclusion is that learner ill-discipline as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.19. Stress associated with many cultures in schools

**Table 4.28: Educators stressed by many cultures in the school**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
19. Learner multi-cultural background (%)	23.81	9.52	11.11	7.94	6.35	14.29	1.59	7.94	7.94	9.52
Frequency	15	6	7	5	4	9	1	5	5	6

From Table 4.28, 21 (33.33%) respondents said that the fact that they have to deal with diverse cultures in their schools did not cause them stress. These were 15 (23.81%) males and 6 (9.52%) females. Next were 25 (39.68%) others who said that the fact that they have to deal with many diverse cultures in their schools caused them stress. These were distributed as 7 (11.11%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that many cultures in their schools caused them a minor stress; and 4 (6.35%) males and 9 (14.29%) females who indicated that diverse cultures in their schools caused them a moderate stress. Lastly, 17 (26.98%) respondents indicated that many cultures in their schools were an 'important' source of stress. Their distribution was 1 (1.59%) male and 5 (7.94%) females who said that many cultures in their schools were an important source of stress; and 5 (7.94%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who said that many cultures in their schools were a very important source of stress. There was an indication that multiculturalism stressed most of the educators.

The next chi-square test used to establish if multiculturalism as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator were dependent or independent variables.

**Table 4.28a: Educators stressed by many cultures in their schools**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	15	6	1	0.0868 (N. S.)
Yes	16	26		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.0868$ , which is less than  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This leads to the conclusion that having many cultures in the school as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.20. Stress associated with having shacks around school

**Table 4.29: Educators stressed by having shacks around the school**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
20. Shacks around school (%)	30.16	23.81	4.76	6.35	4.76	6.35	1.59	6.35	9.52	6.35
Frequency	19	15	3	4	3	4	1	4	6	4

In Table 4.29, a total of 34 (53.97%) respondents, 19 (30.16%) and 15 (23.81%) females indicated that having shacks around their schools did not cause them stress. Next were some 14 (22.22%) respondents who indicated that having shacks around their schools caused them stress. These were 3 (4.76%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who responded that having shacks around their schools caused them a minor stress; and 3 (4.76%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that having shacks around their schools caused them a moderate stress. The last 15 (23.81%) respondents said that having shacks around their

schools was an 'important' source of stress. They were 1 (1.59%) male and 4 (6.35%) females who said that having shacks around their schools was an important source of stress; and 6 (9.52%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that having shacks around their schools was an important source of stress. A majority of educators indicated that having shacks around the school did not cause them stress.

Having shacks around the school as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator were also tested for independence.

**Table 4.29a: Educators stressed by having shacks around the schools**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	19	15	1	0.6994
Yes	12	17		(N. S.)

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.6994$ , a value is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This leads to the conclusion that having shacks around the school as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.21. Stress associated with teaching too many learners

**Table 4.30: Educators stressed by having to teach too many learners**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
21. Too many learners (%)	4.76	6.35	7.94	7.94	7.94	1.59	7.94	6.35	22.22	26.98
Frequency	3	4	5	5	5	1	5	4	14	17

In Table 4.30, 7 (11.11%) respondents indicated that having to teach too many learners did not cause them stress. Of these, 3 (4.76%) were male and 4 (6.35%) female. Next were 16 (25.40%) respondents who indicated that having to teach too many learners was a source of stress. From these, 5 (7.94%) males and 5 (7.94%) females said that having to teach too many learners was a minor source of stress; 5 (7.94%) males and 1 (1.59%) female said that having to teach too many learners was a moderate source of stress. The last 40 (63.49%) respondents said that having to teach too many learners was an 'important' source of stress. Their distribution was 5 (7.94%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that having to teach too many learners was an important source of stress; and 14 (22.22%) males and 17 (26.98%) females who said indicated that having to teach too many learners was a very important source of stress. Most of the educators indicated that having to teach too many learners was a source of stress.

Having to teach too many learners as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator were tested for independence.

**Table 4.30a: Educators stressed by having too many learners**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	3	4	1	0.9558 (N. S.)
Yes	28	28		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9558$ . It is a value less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that having to teach too many learners as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.



#### 4.3.22. Stress associated with being blamed for learner failure

*Table 4.31: Educators stressed by being blamed for learner failure*

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
22. Being blamed for failure (%)	12.70	12.70	7.94	15.87	3.17	6.35	4.76	7.94	22.22	6.35
Frequency	8	8	5	10	2	4	3	5	14	4

From Table 4.31, 16 (25.40%) respondents indicated that being blamed for high failure rate of learners did not cause them stress. These were 8 (12.70%) male and 8 (12.70%) females. The next 21 (33.33%) respondents said that being blamed for learner failure rate caused them stress. From these, 5 (7.94%) males and 10 (15.87%) females responded that being blamed for learner failure rate caused them a minor stress; and 2 (3.17%) males and 4 (6.35%) females said that being blamed for learner failure rate caused them a moderate stress. The last 26 (41.27%) respondents said that being blamed for learner failure rate was an 'important' source of stress. These were 3 (4.76%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that being blamed for learner failure rate was an important source of stress; and 14 (22.22%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that being blamed for learner failure rate was a very important source of stress. A majority of educators said that being blamed for learner failure stressed them. Educators being blamed for learner failure as a source of stress was tested for dependence with gender of an educator in the next chi-square procedure.

**Table 4.31a: Educators stressed by being blamed for learner failure**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	8	8	1	0.9925 (N. S.)
Yes	23	24		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9925$ , which is a value less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that being blamed for learner failure as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

**4.3.23. Stress associated with having too many teaching periods**

**Table 4.32: Educators stressed by having too many teaching periods**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
23. Too many periods / week (%)	11.11	11.11	6.35	9.52	6.35	11.11	9.52	4.76	17.46	12.77
Frequency	7	7	4	6	4	7	6	3	11	12

Table 4.32 shows that 14 (22.22%) respondents indicated that the fact that they have too many periods caused them stress. Of these, 4 (6.35%) were male and 6 (9.52%) female. These were followed by 21 (33.33%) respondents indicated that having to be involved in too many periods caused them stress. From these, 4 (6.35%) males and 6 (9.52%) females indicated that having to be involved in too many periods caused them a minor stress; and 4 (6.35%) males and 7 (11.11%) females said that having to be involved in too many periods caused them a moderate stress. Lastly, 28 (44.44%) respondents indicated that having to be involved in too many periods was an ‘important’ source of

stress. These were 6 (9.52%) males and 3 (4.76%) females who said that to be involved in too many periods was a very important source of stress; and 11 (17.46%) males and 8 (12.70%) females who said that having to be involved in too many periods was a very important source of stress. Most educators were stressed by having to teach too many periods in the school.

The next chi-square test was aimed at establishing the dependence of educators having too many periods as a source of stress and gender of an educator.

**Table 4.32a: Educators stressed by having too many teaching periods**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	7	7	1	0.9932 (N. S.)
Yes	24	25		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9932$ . This value is lower than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that having too many periods as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.24. Stress associated with physical condition of workplace

**Table 4.33: Educators stressed by dilapidated classrooms**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
24. Dilapidated classrooms (%)	12.70	30.16	12.70	4.76	4.76	1.59	7.94	3.17	12.70	9.52
Frequency	8	19	8	3	3	1	5	2	8	6

In Table 4.33, a total of 27 (42.86%) educators said that dilapidated classrooms in their schools caused them stress. Of these, 8 (12.70%) were male and 19 (30.16%) female. Next were 15 (23.81%) respondents who indicated that the fact that their schools had dilapidated classrooms caused them stress. From these, 8 (12.70%) males and 3 (4.76%) females said that the fact that their schools had dilapidated classrooms caused them minor stress; and 3 (4.76%) males and 1 (1.59%) female said that the fact that their schools had dilapidated classrooms caused them moderate stress. The last 21 (33.33%) indicated that the fact that their schools had dilapidated classrooms was an 'important' source of stress. These were 5 (7.94%) males and 2 (3.17%) females who said that the fact that their schools had dilapidated classrooms was an important source of stress: 8 (12.70%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who said that the fact that their schools had dilapidated classrooms was a very important source of stress. Most educators said that dilapidated classrooms caused them stress.

It was determined if having dilapidated classrooms as a source of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent variables.

**Table 4.33a: Educators stressed by having dilapidated classrooms**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	8	19	1	0.0558 (N. S.)
Yes	23	13		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.0558$ . The value is lower than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This is an indication that having dilapidated classrooms in a school as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are also independent.

#### 4.3.25. Stress associated with cold school weather

*Table 4.34: Educators stressed by cold school environment*

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
25. Cold class- & staff rooms (%)	9.52	9.52	12.70	11.11	6.35	9.52	7.94	6.35	14.29	12.70
Frequency	6	6	8	7	4	6	5	4	9	8

In Table 4.34, 12 (19.05%) respondents indicated that cold weather that was prevalent in their classrooms caused them stress. These were 6 (9.52%) males and 6 (9.52%) females. Following these were 25 (39.68%) respondents who indicated that the cold environment in their classrooms caused them stress. These were 8 (12.70%) males and 7 (11.11%) females who said that the cold environment in their classrooms caused them a minor stress; and 6 (9.52%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that the cold environment in their classrooms caused them moderate stress. The remaining 26 (41.27%) respondents indicated that the cold environment in their classrooms was an ‘important’ source of stress. These were 5 (7.94%) males and 4 (6.35%) females who said that the cold environment in their classrooms was an important source of stress; and 9 (14.29%) males and 8 (12.70%) females who said that the cold environment in their classrooms was a very important source of stress. Cold school environments seem to have caused stress for a majority of educators.

The next test was used to test if cold classrooms as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator were independent variables.

**Table 4.34a: Educators stressed by cold school environment**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	6	6	1	0.9876 (N. S.)
Yes	25	26		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9876$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Thus, the conclusion is that cold school environment as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.26. Stress associated with curriculum changes

**Table 4.35: Educators stressed by curriculum changes**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
27. Curriculum changes (%)	15.87	6.35	7.94	9.52	4.76	12.70	7.94	3.17	14.29	17.46
Frequency	10	4	5	6	3	8	5	2	9	11

Table 4.35 shows that 14 (22.22%) respondents indicated that changes in curricula did not cause them stress. The distribution was 10 (15.87%) males and 4 (6.35%) females. The next 22 (34.92%) respondents indicated that curricula changes were a source of stress for them. The distribution was 5 (7.94%) males and 6 (9.52%) females who said that curricula changes were a minor source of stress; and 3 (4.76%) males and 8

(12.70%) females who indicated that curricula changes were a moderate source of stress. At Last, 27 (42.86%) respondents indicated that curricula changes were an 'important' source of stress. They were 5 (7.94%) males and 2 (3.17%) females who said that curricula changes were an important source of stress; and 9 (14.29%) males and 11 (17.46%) females who said that curricula changes were a very important source of stress. There is a clear indication that most educators were stressed by curriculum changes. Curriculum changes as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator were tested if they are independent.

**Table 4.35a: Educators stressed by curriculum changes**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	10	4	1	0.2733 (N. S.)
Yes	21	28		

The calculated chi-square value,  $\chi^2 = 0.2733$ , is lower than the critical value  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that curriculum change as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.27. Stress associated with classroom shortage

**Table 4.36 Educators stressed by shortage of classrooms**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
28. Classroom shortage (%)	19.05	9.52	3.17	7.94	3.17	7.94	7.94	3.17	17.46	20.63
Frequency	12	6	2	5	2	5	5	2	11	13

From Table 4.36 a total of 18 (28.57%) respondents indicated that shortage of classrooms in their schools did not cause them stress. They were 12 (19.05%) males and 6 (9.52%) females. They were followed by 14 (22.22%) respondents who indicated that classroom shortage was a source of stress for them. These were 2 (3.17%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that classroom shortage was a minor source of stress; and 2 (3.17%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that classroom shortage was a moderate source of stress. The last 31 (49.21%) respondents said that classroom shortage was an 'important' source of stress. These were made up of 5 (7.94%) males and 2 (3.17%) females who indicated that classroom shortage was an important source of stress; and 11 (17.46%) males and 13 (20.63%) females who said that classroom shortage was a very important source of stress. Classroom shortage shows to have also caused stress for a majority of educators.

The next chi-square test determines if classroom shortage as a source of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

**Table 4.36a: Educators stressed by classroom shortage**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	12	6	1	0.3468 (N. S.)
Yes	19	26		



The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.3468$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Hence, the conclusion is that shortage of classrooms as a source of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.28. Job dissatisfaction associated with stress

**Table 4.37: Educators stressed by job dissatisfaction**

	0		1		2		3		4	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
30. Job dissatisfaction (%)	14.29	7.94	4.76	4.76	3.17	12.70	6.35	7.94	22.22	15.87
Frequency	9	5	3	3	2	8	4	5	14	10

In Table 4.37, 14 (22.22%) respondents indicated that job dissatisfaction did not cause them stress. Of these, 9 (14.29%) were males and 5 (7.94%) females. They were followed by 16 (25.40%) others who said that job dissatisfaction was a source of stress. These were 3 (4.76%) males and 3 (4.76%) females who indicated that job dissatisfaction was a minor source of stress; and 2 (3.17%) males and 8 (12.70%) females who said that job dissatisfaction was a moderate source of stress. The last 33 (52.38%) respondents indicated that job dissatisfaction was an 'important' source of stress. They were divided as 4 (6.35%) males and 5 (7.94%) females who said that job dissatisfaction was an important source of stress; and 14 (22.22%) males and 10 (15.87%) females who said that job dissatisfaction was a very important source of stress. Job dissatisfaction caused stress for most of the educators.

The following test was used to determine if job dissatisfaction as a source of educator stress and gender of an educator are independent variables.

**Table 4.37a: Educators stressed by job dissatisfaction**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	9	5	1	0.6047 (N. S.)
Yes	22	27		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.6047$ , which is a value less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The null hypothesis is accepted. Thus the conclusion is that job dissatisfaction as a source of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

**4.3.29. Has it crossed your mind a bit in the past 6 months that you want to leave teaching?**

**Table 4.38a: Educators wanting to leave teaching**

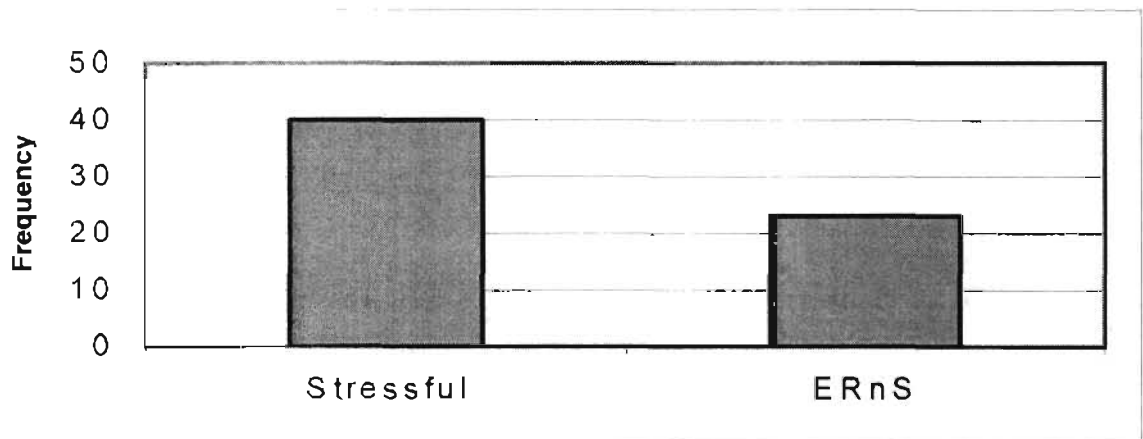
	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	13	15	1	0.9730 (N. S.)
Yes	18	17		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9730$ , which is a value less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that the pressure to want to leave the teaching profession, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.3.30. Please describe yourself

	Stressful	Not stressful
Unpleasant	40	0
Enjoyable and rewarding	0	23

**Figure 4.7: Number of educators in school**



**Key:** ERnS = Enjoyable, rewarding and not stressful

Of the entire 63 educators who responded, a total of 40 (63.49%) respondents said that they found teaching to be either stressful, while 23 (36.51%) found it to be not stressful but enjoyable and rewarding.

#### 4.4: Symptoms of Stress

Key for next table: 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always

**Table 4.38: Signs that show existence of stress**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. Fatigue	7	4	4	7	14	11	4	6	2	4
2. Headache	4	1	3	10	11	12	8	4	5	5
3. Muscle ache	0	3	7	7	13	9	7	6	4	7
4. Chest pains	17	17	2	9	7	4	2	1	3	1
5. Smoking	25	30	2	1	1	1	0	0	3	0
6. Increased eating	11	14	9	4	5	10	6	1	0	3
7. Drinking	18	20	2	9	6	0	5	1	0	2
8. Poor concentration & memory	7	4	8	5	7	16	6	6	3	1
9. Reduced sense of humour	10	13	6	9	11	7	2	2	2	1
10. Anxiety	4	5	5	5	13	13	7	5	2	4
11. Nervousness	5	8	5	8	13	9	7	5	1	2
12. Depression	6	4	5	6	10	17	7	2	3	3
13. Anger	4	2	5	9	14	14	7	6	1	1
14. Frustration	4	6	9	7	10	13	4	3	4	3
15. Loneliness	10	14	11	8	7	7	0	2	3	1
16. Worrying	1	3	2	6	15	15	9	5	4	3
17. Powerlessness	3	8	4	5	14	13	6	3	4	3
18. Impatience	3	5	7	9	11	13	6	3	4	2

##### 4.4.1. Fatigue as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.39: Fatigue as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	7	4	4	7	14	11	4	6	2	4
%	11.11	6.35	6.35	11.11	22.22	17.46	6.35	9.52	3.17	6.35

From Table 4.39, 11 (17.46%) respondents believed that they never experienced fatigue as a symptom of stress in their job. Of these, 7 (11.11%) were male while 4 (6.35%) were female. The next 11 (17.46%) respondents indicated that they experienced fatigue rarely as a symptom of stress. These were distributed as 4 (6.35%) males and 7 (11.11%) females. Another 25 (39.68%) said they sometimes experienced fatigue as a symptom of stress. These were 14 (22.22%) males and 11 (17.46%) females. Ten (15.87%) others claimed that they experience fatigue as a symptom of stress often. Four (6.35%) of these were males and 6 (9.52%) females. The last 6 (9.52%) said that they always experienced fatigue as a symptom of stress. Most educators did experience fatigue at some point in their career.

The chi-square test that follows was used to establish if fatigue as a symptom of educator stress and gender of an educator are dependent or not.

**Table 4.39a: Educators with fatigue as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	7	4	1	0.7199 (N. S.)
Yes	24	28		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.719$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that fatigue as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.2. Headache as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.40: Headache as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	4	1	3	10	11	12	8	4	5	5
%	6.35	1.59	4.76	15.87	17.46	19.05	12.70	6.35	7.94	7.94

Table 4.40 shows that 5 (7.94%) respondents said that headache never signaled to them that they experienced stress, of which 4 (6.35%) were male and 1 (1.59%) was female. Further observation showed that headache rarely signaled experience of stress for 13 (20.63%) respondents. Three (4.76%) of these were male and 10 (15.87%) were female. The next 23 (36.51%) claimed that headaches signaled that they were stressed sometimes, which was made up of 11 (17.46%) males and 12 (19.05%) females. The respondents who said that headaches often served as a symptom of stress for them were 12 (19.05%), 8 (12.70%) of which were male and 4 (6.35%) female. The remaining 10 (15.87%) claimed that headaches signaled stress experience for them always. Of these, 5 (7.94%) were male and 5 (7.94%) female. There is a clear indication that most educators had at one point or the other experienced headache as a symptom of stress.

In the following test the chi-square test was used to test the independence of headache as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator.

**Table 4.40a: Educators with headache as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	4	1	1	0.4177 (N. S.)
Yes	27	31		

The calculated value,  $\chi^2 = 0.4177$ , is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that headache as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.3. Muscular ache as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.41: Muscular ache as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	0	3	7	7	13	9	7	6	4	7
%	0.00	4.76	11.11	11.11	20.63	14.29	11.11	9.52	6.35	11.11

Table 4.41 shows that 3 (4.76%) respondents said that muscle aches had never been a symptom of stress for them, all of whom were female. Fourteen (22.22%) stated that muscle aches rarely served as a symptom of stress for them. The split was 7 (11.11%) each of males and females. The next were 21 (33.33%) respondents who claimed that muscle aches served as a symptom of stress only sometimes. Thirteen (20.63%) were males and 9 (14.29%) females. Thirteen (20.63%) stated that muscle aches served as a symptom of stress often, of whom 7 (11.11%) were male and 6 (9.52%) female. The remaining 11 (17.46%) claim that muscle aches always served as a symptom of stress for

them, of whom 4 (6.35%) were male and 7 (11.11%) were female. Muscle aches have also been a symptom of stress for most educators.

Muscle ache as a symptom of educator stress and gender of an educator were then tested for independence.

**Table 4.41a: Educators with muscle ache as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	0	3	1	0.4577 (N. S.)
Yes	31	29		

The calculated value is  $\chi^2 = 0.4577$ , which is a value lower than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Therefore, muscular aches as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.4. Chest pains as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.42: Chest pains as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	17	17	2	9	7	4	2	1	3	1
%	26.98	26.98	3.17	14.29	11.11	6.35	3.17	1.59	4.76	1.59

Table 4.42 shows that chest pains never signaled to 34 (53.97%) respondents that they had stress, with a split of 17 (26.98%) each from males and females. Next, 11 (17.46%) respondents indicated that chest pains rarely served as a symptom for stress, which were



distributed as 2 (3.17%) males and 9 (14.29%) females. Another 11 (17.46%) respondents stated that chest pains served as a symptom of stress for them sometimes. Seven (11.11%) of these were male and 4 (6.35%) female. Only 3 (4.76%) respondents claimed that chest pains signaled to them that they had stress often, with 2 (3.17%) female and 1 (1.59%) female. The last 4 (6.35%) stated that chest pains served as a symptom of stress always. These were 3 (4.76%) males and 1 (1.59) female. Contrary to previous findings, most educators said that they never experienced chest pains as a symptom of stress.

The next chi-square test was used to test if chest pains as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

**Table 4.42a: Educators with chest pains as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	17	17	1	0.9738 (N. S.)
Yes	14	15		

The calculated value,  $\chi^2 = 0.9738$  is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that chest pains as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.5. Smoking as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.43: Smoking as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	25	30	2	1	1	1	0	0	3	0
%	39.68	47.62	3.17	1.59	1.59	1.59	0.00	0.00	4.76	0.00

In Table 4.43, 55 (87.30%) respondents who said that smoking was not a symptom of stress, 25 (39.68%) of whom were males and 30 (47.62%) females. In 3 (4.76%) others smoking served as a symptom of stress rarely, with a distribution of 2 (3.17%) males and 1 (1.59%) female. Two (3.17%) others experienced smoking as a symptom of stress sometimes. The split was 1 (1.59%) male and 1 (1.59%) female. There were 0 (0%) for respondents who experienced smoking as a symptom of stress often. The last 3 (4.76%), only males, claimed that smoking always served as a symptom of stress. Again, most educators said that smoking had never been a symptom of stress for them.

Next, a chi-square test was used to test if smoking as a symptom of educator stress and gender of an educator, are independent variables.

**Table 4.43a: Educators with smoking as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	25	30	1	0.4879 (N. S.)
Yes	6	2		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.4879$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This leads to the conclusion that smoking as a symptom of stress is independent of gender of an educator.

#### 4.4.6. Increased eating as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.44: Increased eating as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	11	14	9	4	5	10	6	1	0	3
%	17.46	22.22	14.29	6.35	7.94	15.87	9.52	1.59	0.00	4.76

Table 4.44 shows that for 25 (39.68%) respondents, increased eating never served as symptom of stress. Of these, 11 (17.46%) were males and 14 (22.22%) females. Next, 13 (20.63%) experienced increased eating as a symptom of stress rarely, 9 (14.29%) males and 4 (6.35%) females. There were 15 (23.81%) respondents who experienced increased eating as a symptom of stress, with a split of 5 (7.94%) males and 10 (15.87%) females. Seven (11.11%) respondents experienced increased eating as a symptom of stress often. From these, 6 (9.52%) were males and 1 (1.59%) female. The remaining 3 (4.76%) respondents, all of whom were females, experienced increased eating as a symptom of stress always. Most educators said that they experienced increased eating as a symptom of stress.

In the next table a chi-square test was used to test if increased eating as a symptom of stress and gender of an educator are independent variables.

**Table 4.44a: Educators with increased eating as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	11	14	1	0.9301 (N. S)
Yes	20	18		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9301$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This leads to the conclusion that increased eating as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.7. Drinking as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.45: Drinking as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	18	20	2	9	6	0	5	1	0	2
%	28.57	31.75	3.17	14.29	9.52	0.00	7.94	1.59	0.00	3.17

From Table 4.45, 38 (60.32%) respondents never experienced drinking as a symptom of stress, with a split 18 (28.57%) males and 20 (31.75%) females split. Some 11 (17.36%) respondents drank as a symptom of stress rarely, made up of 2 (3.17%) who were males and 9 (14.29%) females. Six (9.52%) respondents, only males, experienced drinking as a symptom of stress sometimes. Another 6 (9.52%) respondents, of which 5 (7.94%) were males and 1 (1.59%) female, experienced drinking as a symptom of stress often. The last 2 (3.17%), all female, experienced drinking as a symptom of stress always. There is a

clear indication that most educators had at some point resorted to drinking as a sign that they had stress.

It was also tested if drinking as a symptom of educator stress and gender of an educator are independent variables.

**Table 4.45a: Educators with drinking as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	18	20	1	0.9880 (N. S.)
Yes	13	12		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9880$ , a value that is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This leads to the conclusion that drinking as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.8. Poor concentration as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.46: Poor concentration and memory as symptoms of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Frequency	7	4	8	5	7	16	6	6	3
%	11.11	6.35	12.70	7.94	11.11	25.40	9.52	9.52	4.76

From Table 4.46, poor concentration never served as a symptom of stress in 11 (17.36%) of the respondents, with a distribution of 7 (11.11%) were male and 4 (6.35%) female.

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Thirteen (20.63%) respondents experienced poor concentration as a symptom of stress rarely, of whom 8 (12.70%) were males and 5 (7.94%) females. Twenty-three (36.51%) respondents experienced poor concentration sometimes, of whom 7 (11.11%) were males and 16 (25.40%) females. Twelve (19.05%), with an equal split of 6 (9.52%), each of males and females, experienced poor concentration as a symptom of stress often. The last 4 (6.35%) respondents experienced poor concentration as a symptom of stress, always. Three (4.76%) of these were male and 1 (1.59%) female. Most educators said that they never experienced reduced concentration and/or memory as a symptom of stress.

The next test was used to test if reduced concentration and/or memory as a symptom of educator stress and gender, of an educator, are independent.

**Table 4.46a: Educators with reduced concentration/memory as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	7	4	1	0.7737 (N. S.)
Yes	24	28		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.7737$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This leads to the conclusion that reduced concentration and memory as a symptom of stress, and gender of educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.9. Reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.47: Reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	10	13	6	9	11	7	2	2	2	
%	15.87	20.63	9.52	14.29	17.46	11.11	3.17	3.17	3.17	1.59

Table 4.47 shows that 23 (36.51%) respondents never experienced reduced sense of humour as a sign of stress. Of these, 10 (15.87%) were male and 13 (20.63%) female. The next 15 (23.91%) said that they experienced reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress rarely. Six (9.52%) of these were male and 9 (14.29%) were female. Eighteen (28.57%) respondents said that they experienced reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress sometimes. Eleven (17.46%) of these ones were males and 7 (11.11%) females. Four (6.35%) others indicated that they experienced reduced sense of humour as a sign of stress often, with a split of 2 (3.17%) males and 2 (3.17%) females. The last 3 (4.76%) respondents indicated that they experienced reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress. Two (3.17%) of these were male and 1 (1.59%) was female. Most educators said that they once or more times experienced reduced sense as a symptom of stress.

The next chi-square test was used to test if reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress and gender of an educator are independent.

**Table 4.47a: Educators with reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	10	13	1	0.9238 (N. S.)
Yes	21	19		

The calculated value  $\chi^2 = 0.9238$ , is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion made is that reduced sense of humour as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.10. Anxiety as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.48: Anxiety as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	4	5	5	5	13	13	7	5	2	4
%	6.35	7.94	7.94	7.94	20.63	20.63	11.11	7.94	3.17	6.35

From Table 4.48, 9 (14.29%) respondents indicated that they never experienced anxiety as a symptom of stress. 4 (6.35%) of whom were males and 5 (7.94%) females. The next 10 (15.87%) respondents said that they have experienced anxiety as a form of stress rarely, with equal males and females of 5 (7.94%) each. A further 26 (41.26%) others indicated that they experienced anxiety as a form of stress sometimes, with a 13 (20.63%) distribution each of males and females. Twelve (19.05%) respondents said they have experienced anxiety as a symptom of stress often, with 7 (11.11%) males and 5 (7.94%) females. The remaining 6 (9.52%), made of 2 (3.17%) males and 4 (6.35%)



females, indicated that they experienced anxiety as a form of stress always. Most educators said that they had experienced anxiety as a symptom of stress.

The following chi-square test was used to test if anxiety as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent variables.

**Table 4.48a: Educators with anxiety as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	4	5	1	0.9923 (N. S.)
Yes	27	27		

The calculated  $\chi^2 = 0.9923$  is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that anxiety as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.11. Nervousness as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.49: Nervousness as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	5	8	5	8	13	9	7	5	1	2
%	7.94	12.70	7.94	12.70	20.63	14.29	11.11	7.94	1.59	3.17

From Table 4.49, 13 (20.63%) respondents, 5 (7.94%) males and 8 (12.70) females, indicated they never experienced nervousness as a symptom of stress. Next, 13 (20.63%) others, 5 (7.94%) males and 8 (12.70%) females, indicated that they experienced

nervousness as a symptom of stress only rarely. Twenty-two (34.92%) others said they experienced nervousness as a symptom of stress sometimes, where 13 (20.63%) were male and 9 (14.29%) female. Twelve (19.05%) respondents said that they have experienced nervousness as a symptom of stress often. Seven (11.11%) of these were male and 5 (7.94%) female. The last 3 (4.76%) respondents said that they experienced nervousness as a symptom of stress always, with only 1 (1.59%) male and 2 (3.17%) females. A majority of educators said that they had experienced nervousness as a symptom of stress.

Nervousness as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, were tested for independence.

**Table 4.49a: Educators with nervousness as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	5	8	1	0.8590 (N. S.)
Yes	26	24		

The calculated value.  $\chi^2 = 0.8590$ , is less than the critical value  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that nervousness as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.12. Depression as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.50: Depression as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	6	4	5	6	10	17	7	2	3	3
%	9.52	6.35	7.94	9.52	15.87	26.98	11.11	3.17	4.76	4.76

From Table 4.50, 10 (15.87%) respondents said they never experienced depression as a symptom of stress. Six (9.52%) of these were male and 4 (6.35%) female. There were other 11 (17.46%) who indicated that they experienced depression as a form of stress rarely, with 5 (7.94%) males and 6 (9.52%) females. Twenty-seven (42.86%) respondents indicated that they experienced depression as a symptom of stress sometimes. Of these, 11 (15.87%) were male and 17 (26.98%) were female. Nine (14.29%) others indicated that they have experienced depression as a symptom of stress often, of which 7 (11.11%) were male and 2 (3.17%) female. The last 6 (9.52%) respondents of 3 (4.76%) each of males and females, indicated that they experienced depression as a symptom of stress always. Most educators indicated that they had experienced depression as a symptom of stress. Based on the next tables a chi-square test was used to test if depression as a symptom of educator stress and gender of an educator, are independent variables.

**Table 4.50a: Educators with depression as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	6	4	1	0.9067 (N. S.)
Yes	25	28		

The calculated value  $\chi^2 = 0.9067$  is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that depression as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.13. Anger as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.51: Anger as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	4	2	5	9	14	14	7	6	1	1
%	6.35	3.17	7.94	14.29	22.22	22.22	11.11	9.52	1.59	1.59

From Table 4.51, 6 (9.52%) respondents of 4 (6.35%) males and 2 (3.17%) females said that they never experienced anger as a symptom of stress. Fourteen (22.22%) others said that they experienced anger as a symptom of stress rarely. They were 5 (7.94%) male and 9 (14.29%) female. Twenty-eight (44.44%), made of 14 (22.22%) each of males and females, indicated that they experienced anger as a symptom of stress sometimes. Thirteen (20.63%) others said that they experienced anger as a symptom of stress often. Of these, 7 (11.11%) were male and 6 (9.52%) were females. The remaining 2 (3.17%) respondents of 1 (1.59%) each of male and female said that they experienced anger as a

symptom of stress always. Most educators said that they had experienced anger as a symptom of stress in the past.

Anger as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, were tested using a chi-square approach to determine if they are independent variables.

**Table 4.51a: Educators with anger as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	4	2	1	0.8465 (N. S.)
Yes	27	30		

The calculated value  $\chi^2 = 0.8465$ , is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that anger as symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.14. Frustration as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.52: Frustration as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	4	6	9	7	10	13	4	3	4	3
%	6.35	9.52	14.29	11.11	15.87	20.63	6.35	4.76	6.35	4.76

Table 4.52 shows that 10 (15.87%) educators, of whom 4 (6.35%) were males and the other 6 (9.52%) females, said that they never experienced frustration as a symptom of

stress. There were 16 (26.40%), 9 (14.29%) males and 7 (11.11%) females, who said that they experienced frustration as a symptom of stress rarely. Twenty-three (36.51%) others, 10 (15.87%) males and 13 (20.63%) females, said that they experienced frustration as a symptom of stress sometimes. Seven (11.11%) said that they experienced frustration as a symptom of stress often, of whom 4 (6.35%) were males and 3 (4.76%) were females. The remaining 7 (11.11%) respondents made up of 4 (6.35%) males and 3 (4.76%) females said that they experienced frustration as symptom of stress always. Frustration as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, were tested for independence based on the following tables. This leads to the conclusion that most educators had experienced frustration as a symptom of stress.

**Table 4.52a: Educators with frustration as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	4	6	1	0.9397 (N. S.)
Yes	27	26		

The calculated value  $\chi^2 = 0.9397$  is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Thus, frustration as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.15. Loneliness as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.53: Loneliness as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	10	14	11	8	7	7	0	2	3	1
%	15.87	22.22	17.46	12.70	11.11	11.11	0.00	3.17	4.76	1.59

From Table 4.53, a total of 24 (38.09%) educators, 10 (15.87%) males and 14 (22.22%) females, indicated that they never experienced loneliness as a symptom of stress. There were 19 (30.16%) other who said that they experienced loneliness as a symptom of stress rarely, of whom 11 (17.46%) were male and 8 (12.70%) female. Fourteen (22.22%) others of 7 (11.11%) males and 7 (11.11%) females indicated that they experienced loneliness as a symptom of stress sometimes. Only 2 (3.17%), made of 2 (3.17%) females only, indicated that they experienced loneliness as a symptom of stress often. The remaining 4 (6.35%) of 3 (4.76%) males and 1 (1.59%) female indicated that they experienced loneliness as a symptom of stress always. Most educators said that they had experienced loneliness as a symptom of stress. The next tables were used to test using a chi-square test, whether loneliness as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator are independent variables.

**Table 4.53a: Educators with loneliness as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	10	14	1	0.8297 (N. S.)
Yes	21	18		

The calculated chi-square value is  $\chi^2 = 0.8297$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . This leads to the conclusion that loneliness as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.16. Worrying as a symptom of stress

**Table 4.54: Worrying as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	1	3	2	6	15	15	9	5	4	3
%	1.59	4.76	3.17	9.52	23.81	23.81	14.29	7.94	6.35	4.76

Table 4.54 shows that 4 (6.35%) respondents, 1 (1.59%) male and 3 (4.76%) females, said that they never experienced worrying as a symptom of stress. Eight (12.70%) others, 2 (3.17%) male and 6 (9.52%) female, indicated that they experienced worrying as a symptom of stress rarely. Thirty (47.62%) others, 15 (23.81%) males and 15 (23.81%) females, indicated that they experienced worrying as a symptom of stress sometimes. Fourteen (22.22%) others, 9 (14.29%) males and 5 (7.94%) females, indicated that they experienced worrying as a symptom of stress often. The last 7 (11.11%) of 4 (6.35%) males and 3 (4.76%) females said that they experienced worrying as a symptom of stress always. Most educators said that they had experienced worrying as a symptom of stress.



Worrying as a symptom of educator stress and gender of an educator were tested in the next tables for independence.

**Table 4.54a: Educators with worrying as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	1	3	1	0.8006 (N. S.)
Yes	30	29		

The calculated value,  $\chi^2 = 8006$ , is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that worrying as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.17. Powerlessness as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.55: Powerlessness as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	3	8	4	5	14	13	6	3	4	3
%	4.76	12.70	6.35	7.94	22.22	20.63	9.52	4.76	6.35	4.76

From Table 4.55, 11 (17.46%) of 3 (4.76%) males and 8 (12.70%) females said that they never experienced powerlessness as a symptom of stress. Nine (14.28%) others, of whom 4 (6.35%) were male and 5 (7.94%) female, said that they experienced powerlessness as a symptom of stress rarely. Twenty-seven (42.85%) respondents of 14 (22.22%) were male and 13 (20.63%) female, indicated that they experienced powerlessness as a symptom of stress sometimes. Nine (14.28%) respondents of 6

(9.52%) males and 3 (4.76%) females indicated that they experienced powerlessness as a symptom of stress often. The remaining 7 (11.11%) respondents of 4 (6.35%) males and 3 (4.76%) female said they experienced powerlessness as a symptom of stress always. Most educators said that they had experienced powerlessness as a symptom of stress.

The following chi-square test was used to test if powerlessness as a symptom of educator stress and gender of an educator are independent variables.

**Table 4.55a: Educators with powerlessness as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	3	8	1	0.1213 (N. S.)
Yes	28	24		

The calculated value of  $\chi^2 = 0.1213$  is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . The conclusion is that powerlessness as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### 4.4.18. Impatience as a symptom of educator stress

**Table 4.56: Impatience as a symptom of stress in educators**

	1		2		3		4		5	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Frequency	3	5	7	9	11	13	6	3	4	2
%	4.76	7.94	11.11	14.28	17.46	20.63	9.52	4.76	6.35	3.17

From Table 4.56, 8 (12.70%) respondents, made up of 3 (4.76%) males and 5 (7.94%) females, indicated that they never experienced impatience as a symptom of stress. The next 16 (25.40%) others indicated that they experienced impatience as a symptom of stress rarely. They were made up of 7 (11.11%) males and 9 (14.28%) females. The other 24 (38.10%) respondents said that they experienced impatience as a symptom of stress sometimes. These were made up of 11 (17.46%) males and 13 (20.63%) females. The other 9 (14.28%) respondents, made up of 6 (9.52%) males and 3 (4.76%) females, indicated that they experienced impatience as a symptom of stress often. Last, 6 (9.52%) respondents of 4 (6.35%) males and 2 (3.17%) females indicated that they experienced impatience as a symptom of stress always.

A majority of educators said that they had experienced impatience as a symptom of stress.

The next chi-square test was used to test if impatience as a symptom of educator stress, and gender of an educator, are independent variables.

**Table 4.56a: Educators with impatience as a symptom of stress**

	Male	Female	df	$\chi^2$
No	3	5	1	0.9175 (N. S.)
Yes	28	27		

The calculated value is  $\chi^2 = 0.9715$ , which is less than the critical value of  $\chi^2 = 3.8415$ . Thus, impatience as a symptom of stress, and gender of an educator, are independent.

#### **4.5. Conclusion**

In the educator profiles, the differences between male and female educators seemed to be minor, and similarities a little more. In general, the symptoms of educator stress were also seen to be common for the male and female educators, and only a few factors showed to be dependent on the gender of an educator. Discussions of findings are given in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### ***DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS***

#### **5.1. Introduction**

This chapter discusses the findings presented in Chapter 4. It discusses the demographics of respondents, sources of stress and symptoms of stress. Tables and graphs were used to describe, explain and compare male and female educators who responded.

#### **5.2. Sources of Stress**

To avoid too much detail when discussing the sources of stress since there are too many items, minor and moderate sources of stress shall be combined as “marginal” sources of stress, and important and very important sources of stress as “serious” sources of stress.

##### **5.2.1. Perceived serious stressors**

This section discusses the perceived serious stressors, which are all the factors/item that most respondents found to be serious sources. It has been indicated if a source identified as serious had the highest count when compared with the combined number of marginal sources and those that were found to be not sources, or had the highest count only when compared with marginal source and not a source individually.

The count for lack of promotion as a serious source gave a count of 63.49%, which is the total overall for counts on this item (i.e., when counts for not a source and marginal source are combined together).

Vandalism as a serious source of educator stress counted for 55.55% of the votes, which gives the total overall when counts for marginal source and not a source are merged together. Lack of equipment as a serious source of stress counted for 50.79% of the respondents, which is the total against combined counts for marginal and item being not a source of educator stress.

Counts for conflict as a serious source of educator stress gave a contribution of 47.62%, a total only when counts for “marginal source” and “not a source” are considered separately. For “having to complete school work at home”, the counts were 52.38% for being a serious source. This is also higher than when other counts are combined.

Inadequate salaries as a serious source yielded 85.71% of the counts, a clear total when other items are combined. Lack of parent support produced a huge 80.95% for being a serious source, also an overall total. Financial insecurity yielded 77.78% responses for being a serious offence, a clear maximum. Working with lazy teachers also gave a lucid 58.73% response for being a serious source, giving an overall majority.

Learner ill-discipline gave a clear total of 46 (73.02%) of responses that were counted for indicating it to be a serious source of stress. Having to teach too many learners too, as a serious source of educator stress, yielded a clear overall majority of 40 (63.49%).

Being blamed for learner failure received a total count of 26 (41.27%) for being a serious source of educator stress, which is less than the other counts combined. Too many periods also received a total for being a serious source at 28 (44.44%), not higher than the combined counts of others. Cold class- and staff rooms received a total count for being a serious source of educator stress of 26 (41.27%), not a majority when the others are combined.

Curriculum change was counted as a serious source of educator stress by a majority on individual counts of 27 (42.86%). Classroom shortage received a majority count on being a serious source of educator stress against other counts at 31 (49.21%). Job dissatisfaction was counted as a serious source of educator stress at a total of 33 (52.38%) counts when compared with other counts combined.

### **5.2.2. Perceived stressors**

The stressors included in this section are those factors that had a total count of marginal sources and serious sources being higher than those factors that did not count as sources of educator stress. Even though these factors included the serious stressors presented in the previous section, they will not be repeated in this section. Thus, all the factors

mentioned as serious sources in the previous section are implied (without being listed) here as well.

The count for respondents who said anxiety was a source of stress was 66.67%, which is the total when counts for marginal source and serious source are considered together, with marginal count of 41.27% and serious count of 25.40%.

Tension was found to be a source of educator stress since 44 (69.84%) of the respondents were counted in being the combined serious and marginal sources. Irritation also counted as a source with 40 (63.49%) respondents indicating it to be a source. Lack of morals was included as a source with a count of 41 (65.08%) respondents.

Inability to control learners is also perceived as a source of stress since marginal count of 39.68% was higher than 26.98% of serious. Their total, 52.55%, exceeded 47.45% of the counts of educators who thought it was not a source of stress.

Being obliged to participate in inclusive education gave a total of 31.75% for being a marginal source, which was higher than 30.10% of being a serious source of stress, and a total of 69.84% for being a source of stress.

Many cultures, with a count of 38.68% of being a marginal source, which is higher than 26.98% of being a serious source, has a total of 66.66% for being a source of stress.



Lastly, having shattered classrooms in the school was included as a source of educator stress with a count of 36 (57.14%) respondents who found it to be a marginal or serious source of stress. This was despite an individual majority of responses that indicated that it was not a source of educator stress.

### **5.2.3. Perceived non-stressors**

The non-stressors are the factors that had counts for not being a source of educator stress that were higher than the marginal sources and serious sources combined.

Boredom had a count of 36 (57.14%) respondents who did not experience it as a source of educator stress. Having shacks around the school too, did not convince to be a source of educator stress. The count was 34 (53.97%) who had never experienced it as a source of stress.

### **5.2.4. Stressors that showed dependence with gender of an educator**

Contrary to what was anticipated earlier, all the items presented demonstrated to be independent of gender of an educator. This study found that in the Soshanguve Primary schools, none of the responses to questionnaire items was found to be related to the gender of an educator.

To conclude the discussion on counts of stressors and non-stressors, a table is presented to summarise the perceptions of the educators with regards to the different items.

**Table 5.1. Summary of perceived stressors and non-stressors**

<b>Perceived serious stressors</b>	<b>Perceived marginal stressors</b>	<b>Perceived non-stressors</b>
	1. Tension	
		2. Boredom
	3. Anxiety	
	4. Irritation	
5. Lack of promotion		
6. Vandalism		
7. Lack of equipment		
	8. Moral decay	
9. Conflict in school		
10. Taking school work home		
11. Inadequate salaries of educators		
	12. Inability of teachers to control learners	
13. No parental involvement and support		
14. Job financial insecurity		
15. Working with lazy teachers		
	16. Inclusive education obligation	
17. Learner ill-discipline		
	18. Teaching learners in a multicultural setting	
		19. The fact that there are shacks around school
20. Having to teach too many learners		
21. Being blamed for failure of learners		
22. Having to attend to too many periods each week		
	23. Shattered classrooms	
24. Cold class- and staff rooms		
25. Curriculum changes		
26. Classroom shortage in school		
27. Job dissatisfaction		

### **5.3. Symptoms of Stress**

In this chapter, “always” and “often” symptoms are collectively classified as regular symptoms while “rarely” and “sometimes” are considered as infrequent symptoms.

#### **5.3.1. Perceived regular symptoms**

No questionnaire items had an overall count for “always” and “often” symptoms that was higher than the overall count for “never” a symptom. There was also no item with counts for “always” and “often” exceeding the overall counts for “rarely” and “sometimes”. Therefore the study did not find any of the items to be a regular symptom of stress.

#### **5.3.2. Perceived symptoms**

In this subsection, items that are listed have shown a combined count of the four levels of symptoms of stress, whether it is a rare, sometimes, often or always type. Listed as high and low, in the order from highest to lowest, they are as follows:

In the high category, the highest items that received count of over 90% respondents were muscle ache as a symptom of educator stress with 60 (95.24%) respondents; then worrying at 59 (93.65%) respondents; headache at 58 (92.06%) respondents; and anger at 57 (90.48%). Items that obtained between 80% and 90% respondents were impatience at 55 (87.30%); anxiety at 54 (58.71%); depression and frustration at 53 (84.13%) each; and fatigue, poor concentration and powerlessness at 52 (82.54%) each. Lastly,

nervousness was shown to be a symptom of stress with 50 (79.37%) respondents. The low category was led by reduced sense with 40 (63.49%) respondents. The last were loneliness and increased eating, which were equal with 38 (60.32%) respondents each.

### **5.3.3. Perceived non-symptoms**

The items considered as non-stressors are those that received higher counts for having not served as symptoms of stress for educators than the counts for having served as stressors. This study found the three items; chest pains, smoking and drinking as non-stressors. In the order of highest to lowest, counts of respondents for having never served as stressors were smoking with 55 (87.30%) respondents who had never smoked as an indication that they had stress. Then it was drinking with 38 (60.32%) respondents and chest pains with 34 (53.97%) respondents. These, respectively, are the items with symptom measures of below 50% in Table 5.2, with measures 12.70%, 38.68% and 46.03%.

### **5.3.4. Symptoms that showed dependence with gender of an educator**

This subsection was intended to report the symptoms of stress of educators that showed to be dependent on the gender of an educator. However, the study found that all the symptoms were independent of educator gender. This means that males and females can be expected to behave in the same way with respect to the symptoms presented when they have stress. This finding was not surprising because there is no implication from literature about genders being affected differently by different stressors.

In order to conclude the discussion on items that were symptoms and non-symptoms of educator stress, the next table summarises the perceptions of the educators with regards to the different items. Symptom count below 50% is interpreted as a non-symptom.

**Table 5.2. Summary of perceived symptoms and non-symptoms**

Symptom counts of over 90%	Symptom counts of 79-90%	Symptom counts of 50-60%	Symptom counts below 50%
	1. Fatigue		
2. Headache			
3. Muscle ache			
			4. Chest pains
			5. Smoking
		6. Increased eating	
			7. Drinking
	8. Poor concentration and memory		
		9. Reduced sense of humour	
	10. Anxiety		
	11. Nervousness		
	12. Depression		
13. Anger			
	14. Frustration		
		15. Loneliness	
16. Worrying			
	17. Powerlessness		
	18. Impatience		

#### **5.4. Conclusion and Recommendations**

Results from the research shows that teachers in the township are experiencing a high level of stress. The problem with these kind of study is that stress differ form one person to the other and as a results one cannot generalize and say teachers in all primary schools

are experiencing stress. Most teachers (above 60 %) indicated that their stress experiences were associated with inadequate salary, heavy work-load, teacher- pupil ratio, disciplinary problems with pupils and lack of parental support.

•What has also become clear from the findings of this study is that as a group of professionals, teachers have too many roles to fulfil. They are expected to act as administrators, counselors, responsible for the pastoral care of children, leaders of extracurricular activities, disciplinarian, to teach and control pupils in the classroom and sometimes to act as parents, responsible for the welfare and needs of the family. In some cases teachers fail to reconcile the conflict generated by too many opposing roles. This results in increased frustration, tension and high level of stress amongst the members of the teaching profession.

A major limitation of this study is that it failed to include questions on coping mechanisms. The other limitation is that due to time constraints, and being engaged in full-time internship, the researcher failed to conduct research in all the townships that are found Pretoria.

#### **5.4.1. Conclusion**

In conclusion, stress in teaching needs to be taken into consideration of which failure to do that may results in increased incidence of sickness, decreased performance and even serious mental (depression) and physical illness. Some of the teachers who are leaving the teaching profession is due to symptoms of intolerable job related stress.

The chapter clarified the items that demonstrated to be sources of stress (including serious sources), the items that were found to be non-stressors, the sources of stress that had dependence with gender of an educator and concluded about those items that were found to be independent of gender. It also explained the symptoms and non-symptoms of stress, the symptoms that had dependence with gender of an educator and those that were independent of gender of an educator.

#### **5.4.2. Recommendations for future research**

In summary, the findings of this study point to scope of actions for future research on teacher stress. Emphasis should be on the topics that can cover the following aspects:

- Teacher stress management
- Differences between stress experienced by teachers and learners.
- Differences between stress experienced by high school teachers and primary school teachers.
- Teacher stress and how it affects their family life.
- Comparison of stress experienced by teachers in township schools, ex-model C schools, private schools, special schools and farm schools.
- Comparison of stress between teachers and school principals.

Further the results of this study suggest that there is a need to provide workshops, stress management programmes and also train teachers on how to cope with stress

The findings of this study have also highlighted the fact that teaching is by its nature a stressful occupation. Some of the obvious reasons cited to support this assertion are that teachers have constant range of demands made upon them by pupils, parents, school administrators and many of which are conflicting and many almost impossible to meet. Future researchers in the field of teacher stress therefore need to concentrate more on the study of teachers' coping behaviours. This implies that the more knowledge teachers have about stressors in teaching environments, the greater their potential for coping in future.



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UMnyango WezeMfundo  
Department of Education

Lefapha la Thuto  
Departement van  
Ondarwus

**Date:** 24 July 2002

**Reference Number:** GDRR 02/07/73

**Name of Researcher:** N.G Thanyani

**Address of Researcher:** Box 39641396  
Garstfontein

**Telephone Number:** (012) 303-2481

**Fax Number:** (012) 303-3679

**E-mail:**

**Research Topic:** The Identification of factors causing stress on Primary School teachers in the Township (Soshanguve)

**Number and type of schools:** 21 Primary Schools

**District/s** D-3 Tshwane North

**Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research**

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

*Permission has been granted to proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met and may be withdrawn should these conditions be flouted:*

1. The District Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that you have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
2. The District Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District Officials in the project.
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that you have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.

Office of the Senior Manager – Strategic Policy Development, Management & Research Coordination  
Room 904, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001 P.O.Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000  
Tel: (011) 355-0475 Fax: (011) 355-0512 E-mail: [SallyR@govg.gov.za](mailto:SallyR@govg.gov.za) Cell: 063 310 1910



4. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principal/s, SGB/s and District Senior Manager/s of the school/s and district/s concerned, respectively.
5. Kindly obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE official/s, principal/s, chairperson/s of the SGB/s, teacher/s and learner/s involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that prefer not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. You may only conduct your research after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Senior Manager (if at a office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when you may carry out your research at the sites that they manage.
7. You may commence your research from the second week of **February** and must conclude your programme before the beginning of the **last quarter** of the academic year.
8. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
9. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising their own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
10. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
11. On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Senior Manager: Strategic Policy Development, Management & Research Coordination with a bound copy of the final, approved research report.
12. The researcher may be expected to provide a short presentation on the findings of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
13. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or district level, the District Senior Manager must also be supplied with a brief summary of the research findings.

The Department wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards,

Sally Rowney: Senior Manager

The contents of this letter has been read and understood by the researcher.

Signature of Researcher:

*[Handwritten Signature]*

Date: 30/01/02



# GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TSHWANE NORTH (D3)

(Soshanguve / Pretoria North / Pretoria Central / Oos-Moot)

GPG Building  
Cnr Pretorius & Bosman Str  
PRETORIA  
0002

Private Bag X925 or  
Private Bag X945  
PRETORIA  
0001


ENQUIRIES:	<u>MS. N.G. THANYANI (Room C412)</u>	TEL. NO.:	<u>(012) 303 2481 072 368 3047</u>
FAX NO.:	<u>012 303 3679</u>	E-MAIL:	<u></u>
REFERENCE:	<u>GDRR 02/07/73</u>		

The Principal

-----  
-----  
-----  
-----

## RE-PERMISSION FOR RESEARCH

1. I kindly request you to allow your teachers to participate in a research on stress.
2. The aim of research is to identify factors that cause stress on primary school teachers in the Township.
3. A short questionnaire will be handed to four teachers, two males and two females are asked to complete the questionnaire.
4. Teachers will complete these questionnaires at their own time or after school, and could you please return them to the district either by post or by hand.
5. Confidentiality is guaranteed. No name is required on the questionnaire.
6. Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

  
-----

N.G. Thanyani

29 July 2002



→ MS GLORIA THANYANI

FAX 012-303-2679

SENDER: DR E.A. CHUMAN

4/10/2002

ONE PAGE ONLY.

University of  
Durban-Westville

PRIVATE BAG X54001 DURBAN  
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03 OCTOBER 2002

**MS. NG THANYANI  
EDUCATIONAL STUDIES**

**RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION**



TEL: (031)204 5000  
FAX: (031)204 4043



ALL CORRESPONDENCE TO BE ADDRESSED  
TO THE HEAD - RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION

Dear Ms. Thanyani

ETHICAL CLEARANCE - NUMBER 02131A

I wish to confirm that ethical clearance has been granted for the following project:

*"Identification of factors associated with stress among Primary School Teachers  
in Sochanguve"*

Thank you

Yours faithfully

Phume Ximba  
MS. PHUME XIMBA  
(for) HEAD: RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION

PS: The following general condition is applicable to all projects that have been granted ethical clearance:

THE RELEVANT AUTHORITIES SHOULD BE CONTACTED IN ORDER TO OBTAIN THE NECESSARY APPROVAL SHOULD THE RESEARCH INVOLVE UTILIZATION OF SPACE AND/OR FACILITIES AT OTHER INSTITUTIONS/ORGANISATIONS. WHERE QUESTIONNAIRES ARE USED IN THE PROJECT, THE RESEARCHER SHOULD ENSURE THAT THE QUESTIONNAIRE INCLUDES A SECTION AT THE END WHICH SHOULD BE COMPLETED BY THE PARTICIPANT (PRIOR TO THE COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE) INDICATING THAT HE/SHE WAS INFORMED OF THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE PROJECT AND THAT THE INFORMATION GIVEN WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL.

cc. Director of School  
cc. Supervisor

## APPENDIX D

### TEACHER STRESS INVENTORY

We sometimes feel stressed by certain activities in our work. You are being asked to participate in a study designed to identify factors associated with stress among township primary school teachers. This questionnaire is anonymous and as such, names of schools and persons will not be recorded. The responses you make will be treated with confidentiality. Your cooperation is appreciated.

#### Section A

##### Demographic Information

1. Age

Years	Months

2. Gender

Male	Female

3. Marital Status

Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed

4. Years of service in teaching profession: -----

5. Highest Qualification-----

6. What is the enrolment of the school where you teach? -----

7. How many educators are there in your school? -----

8. List the subjects, grades, and the number of learners you teach:

Subjects	Grades	No. of learners

9. Promotion (s) achieved in the past 5 years of teaching service-----

10. If you had your life to live over, would you become a teacher?

Yes	No

**Section B**  
**TO WHAT EXTENT ARE THE FOLLOWING SITUATIONS AND ASPECTS OF YOUR WORK SOURCES OF STRESS TO YOU AS A TEACHER?**

1. Indicate your responses to the item below by circling the appropriate number in accordance with the following scale. Please respond to every item.

- 0 Not a source of stress (or the situation does not apply to me)
- 1 A minor source of stress
- 2 A moderate source of stress
- 3 An important source of stress
- 4 A very important source of stress

1. Feeling tense about school work.	0	1	2	3	4
2. Feeling bored during school hours.	0	1	2	3	4
3. feeling anxious, without reason.	0	1	2	3	4
4. Becoming irritated during school hours	0	1	2	3	4
5. Feeling that there are few opportunities for advancement in my career, resulting in uncertainty over my future.	0	1	2	3	4
6. Coping with vandalism and damage to school property.	0	1	2	3	4
7. Doing those aspects of the job for which I do not feel equipped and doing work that I do not enjoy.	0	1	2	3	4
8. Trying to uphold moral standards and values	0	1	2	3	4
9. Working in an atmosphere of conflict among teachers.	0	1	2	3	4
10. Having to do school work at home to meet what is expected of me.	0	1	2	3	4
11. Not having adequate control of my learners	0	1	2	3	4
12. Feeling that there is a lack of parental involvement in solving school discipline problems	0	1	2	3	4

13. Feeling that my job does not meet the financial security I need 0 1 2 3 4
14. Having some teachers who do not carry their share of the load 0 1 2 3 4
15. Having to implement the policy of inclusive education in our school 0 1 2 3 4
16. Working with learners in an environment where there is lack of discipline 0 1 2 3 4
17. Working with learners who come from different cultural background 0 1 2 3 4
18. Shacks surrounding the school 0 1 2 3 4
19. Too many learners in a class 0 1 2 3 4
20. Being blamed for low marks/high failure rate in my subject 0 1 2 3 4
21. Teaching too many periods per week 0 1 2 3 4
22. Having to use buildings with broken windows and missing doors 0 1 2 3 4
23. Cold classrooms and staff room 0 1 2 3 4
24. Being denied promotion 0 1 2 3 4
25. Having to adjust to changes in curriculum 0 1 2 3 4
26. Shortage of classroom 0 1 2 3 4
27. Lack of happiness and job satisfaction 0 1 2 3 4
28. In the past 6 months, has it crossed your mind that you would want to leave the teaching profession?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, how frequently has it crossed your mind?

Almost daily	
At least once per week	

At least once per month	
Occasionally	

29. Overall, how would you describe your work (tick as many as applicable):

Very stressful	
Stressful	
Not stressful	
Enjoyable	
Challenging	
Rewarding	
Other (state)	

### Section C

Items 30-47 were concerned with symptoms of stress. What stress symptoms have you experienced in your job? Please respond to the frequency with which you have experienced the following symptoms. Mark each item with A, B, C, D or E as described below.

**(A) Never; (B) Rarely; (C) Sometimes; (D) Often; (E) Always.**

30. Fatigue	
31. Headache	
32. Muscular aches	
33. Chest pains	
34. Smoking	
35. Increased eating	
36. Drinking	
37. Poor concentration and memory	
38. Loss of sense of humour	
39. Anxiety	
40. Nervousness	
41. Depression	
42. Anger	
43. Frustration	
44. Loneliness	
45. Worrying	
46. Powerlessness	
47. Impatience	

**Thank you for your participation and cooperation.**