Chapter-2
Review of Related Literature
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Review of related literature is an important pre-requisite for actual planning and execution of any research work. The present chapter embodies a brief review of the researches done in the area related to the present investigation. A particular thing should not be neglected because it is of past and a new one should not be accepted because of its newness. It is only with the reference to old that a new thing can be learned. Alternatively, it is necessary to connect previous knowledge with the new idea to be grasped. It means that to learn a new thing our previous knowledge must be brought to the forefront. It is imperative for a review of previous studies on the subject before embarking upon making a fresh study. Thus, a review of the literature is important because, without it, one cannot acquire an understanding of his/ her topic, of what has already been done on it, how it has been researched, and what the key issues are. The Educational Resources Information Center (1982) defines a literature review as an “information analysis and synthesis, focusing on findings and not simply bibliographic citations, summarizing the substance of the literature and drawing conclusions from it”. Further, Fink (1998) defined literature review as a systematic, explicit and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating and interpreting the existing body of recorded work produced by researchers, scholars and practitioners.

A literature review can be just a simple summary of the sources, but it usually has an organizational pattern and combines both summary and synthesis. A summary is a recap of the important information of the source, but a synthesis is a re-organization, or a reshuffling, of that information. It might give a new interpretation of old material or combine new with old interpretations. Or it might trace the intellectual progression of the field, including major debates. And depending on the situation, the literature review may evaluate the sources and advise the reader on the most pertinent or relevant. The focus of a literature review, however, is to summarize and synthesize the arguments and ideas of others without adding new contributions. Literature reviews give an overview and act as a stepping stone to carry research. The review of literature, thus, becomes a link between the research proposed and the studies already done.
In this chapter an attempt has been made to take cognizance of studies, which has relevance to present problem, both in India and abroad. A summary of the research literature in the area of teachers’ occupational stress and its correlates shows that teachers stress has been a subject of several studies both at national and international level. A substantial body of research has accumulated concerning the various factors that affect and cause stress among teachers. Only such studies are reviewed in some depth of details that have considerable bearing on the present investigation, although, some more could be added for the purpose but the investigator has to be selective for obvious reasons. Sometimes the studies reviewed could not be classified into the areas concerned. The review was intended to provide a background to the study that followed and it was thought that such an attempt would be of great help for the formation of hypothesis.

2.1 Teachers occupational stress and demographic variables

Teacher stress becomes problematic and potentially harmful, when the challenges teachers face outpace their perceived ability to cope, or when they perceive that important needs are not being met (Dutta, 2009). Nayak et al. (2009) conducted a study on the correlation of demographic characteristics and the various components of organizational sources of stressors among 100 male and female degree college teachers of Dharwad city, Karnataka. It was found that higher percentage of the teachers (70.5%) was in the low stress category followed by very low stress category (23.5%) and lesser percent in moderate stress category (6.0%). Jeyaraj (2013) surveyed 305 higher secondary teachers in Tamil Nadu and found a majority of 62.30% to have a medium level of stress, 20% a low level of stress and the remaining 17.70% to have a high level of stress. To explore the levels of stress, Durani (2009) carried a study on 450 working women, and observed that among 150 women working as teachers in schools, 39% were having low stress, 20% were having high stress, 15% were having very average stress, 13% were having very high stress, 8% of the respondents no stress, and 5% very low stress and 0% i.e. negligible were abnormal. Mathews (2005) also conducted a study to find out the level of occupational stress among 60 higher secondary school teachers of Idukki and Kotayam districts in Kerala, and evidenced that higher secondary school teachers are not under stress in both these districts in Kerala.
A more clear view has been provided in a study on school teachers’ job stress and job satisfaction, by Mondal, Shrestha, & Bhaila (2011). Investigating the gender differences, they found a significant difference between male and female teachers. Male teachers reported more psychological stress than the female teachers. Also, physical stress was more significant among the males than the females. In the same vein, De Nobile and McCormick (2007) investigated biographical differences in relation to several aspects of occupational stress among 356 staff members of Catholic primary schools in New South Wales, Australia. They reported males to have greater occupational stress generally than their female colleagues. Chaplain (1995) while identifying biographical factors with regard to job stress in U.K. primary schools, also found significant differences between men and women. Male teachers reported more stress than their female counterparts in relation to professional tasks and pupil behavior/attitude, while female teachers scored higher than men on professional concerns. In Algeria, Mokdad (2005) surveyed 126 primary school teachers and reported a significant difference between sex and occupational stress. These findings are corroborated with the results from the study by Olaitan et al. (2010). Kelly (1993) conducted a study on 220 assistant principals (teachers) in Hong Kong secondary schools and observed sex to be significantly related to the stress of these assistant principals. Males were significantly reported to be more stressed than the females. Singh (2012) also reported male secondary teachers to be more occupationally stressed than females. These findings have been echoed by several researchers (Pei & Guoli, 2007; Lau, Yuen, & Chan, 2005).

Contrary to this, female teachers also indicated a higher level of stress as compared to the male teachers in several studies (Abdul Majid, 1998; Gandhi & Sharda, 2013; Jan, Malik & Ahmad; 2013; Murphy, 1986). Ravichandran and Rajendran (2007) administered Teacher’s Stress Inventory on 200 higher secondary teachers and indicated a gender difference on perceived personal stress. Female teachers reported more stress in their study as compared to their male counterpart. Greenglass, Panyton, and Burke (1988) conducted a study with 555 teachers investigating the relationship between work stress, social support and role conflict. The role-conflict scales were used and it was found that role-conflict was significantly higher in women than in men. The results suggested that job stress was related to role-conflict more often for women than for men. However, in a study on
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occupational stress among university teachers, female teachers were discovered to be a noted exception with higher misfit scores than their male counterparts in a study by Blix et al. (1994). Female teachers were more likely to consider job change as a result of job stress.

Research findings have shown the existence of significant relationships between occupational stress of male and female teachers, to this non-parallel result was reported by Siong and Yet (2004). In their survey on 100 government aided Chinese committee primary school teachers (Grade A) in Zone Two urban district area of Kuching, Sarawak, a no significant difference was observed between the level of stress and gender. Similarly, Khatal (2011) surveyed 50 primary teachers working in Z. P. primary school in Akola Taluka, India and showed that occupational stress and sex were not related to each other. Gender was found not to significantly influence teachers’ and principals’ job stress by Darmody and Smyth (2011) when they studied job satisfaction and occupational stress among primary school teachers and school principals in Ireland. On the same note, gender has not caused any variation on the stress level of the elementary teachers in a study by Roxas (2009).

Further, exploring the possible links between teacher stress and gender, Lam Yee Mei (2006) and Tse (1982) found no significant differences between sex and occupational stress in their studies. Thus, these researchers concluded that the stress experienced by the male and the female teachers were more or less the same in Hong Kong. Furthermore, using an ex-post facto design among 392 secondary school teachers working in Ondo state, Nigeria, Jude (2011) found no significant difference between the occupational stress experienced by male and female teachers. On this note, Okeke & Dlamini (2013) used Pearson Product Moment Correlation and observed no significant relationship between work-related stress and gender among high school teachers, Swaziland. These findings are corroborated with the results from the study by Fontana and Abouserie (1993), Johannsen (2011), Yahaya and Nik Husain (2007).

In the same vein, Yahaya, Hashim, and Kim (2006) investigated the stress contributing factors and the level of occupational stress among 92 technical teachers in Johore, Malacca and Negeri Sembilan. A no significant difference of work stress was noted among the respondents based on gender. Further support to this is provided
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by Adebiyi (2013) who showed that sex has no significant difference on stress experienced by male and female lecturers of Ekiti State University, Nigeria. Also, Adeoye and Okonkwo (2010) examined gender as one of the factors responsible for job stress among 250 workers (male and female) in Nigeria Universities, and found no significant difference in job stress and gender. Spielberger and Reheiser (1994) conducted a study with 1781 working adults, measuring gender differences in occupational stress using the Job Stress Survey (JSS) in American University and corporate settings. It was found that there were no significant differences in the overall stress levels for the two genders. These findings are corroborated with the results from the study by Kinman (1998) carried on 782 academic and academic-related staff employed within the old and new universities and other higher education institutions (HEIs) in the U.K.

The early years of teacher’s career have been recognized as being stressful. Some of the causes of anxiety may be the same for experienced teachers – like, concern with discipline, motivating pupils, dealing with individual differences; but some may be unique to inexperienced teachers – like, concern about classroom management. Based on their study of beginning teachers in Hong Kong, Cooke et al. (1990) reported that the first year of teaching was not at all easy. About 45% of the sample considered their first year experience as difficult or extremely difficult. Teaching experience and age were found to significantly influence stress level by Yahaya and Nik Husain (2007) when they studied the factors influencing stress level among 400 secondary school teachers in four states. Ravichandran and Rajendran (2007) found that variables like age and years of teaching experience differ significantly, and directly contribute to sources of stress among Chennai teachers Personal Stress.

On this note, Abdul Majid (1998) showed that less experienced teachers rated a significantly higher level of stress compared to the group of more experienced teachers. Contradict to this, Mondal, Shrestha, and Bhaila (2011) indicated that the school teachers in Nepal having >10 years of experience showed more Physical Stress and the teachers having >5 to ≤10 years of experience showed more Psychological Stress. Primary and junior high school teachers’ with long teaching experience have been reported to have high work stress (Wang, 2012). In opposition, Kelly (1993)
indicated that the assistant principals who had been in the assistant principal-ship for over 15 years were more satisfied with their present job. On the other hand, assistant principals with less teaching experience appeared to be more dissatisfied with their jobs.

Alternatively, Holeyannavar and Itagi (2010) reported that the stressors as well as overall stress of teachers had negatively and highly significant relationship with age and work experience. On the same note, Nayak (2008) investigated age and total service to be negatively and significantly correlated with different components of employment organization sources of stressors viz. work, role, personal development, interpersonal relation, organizational climate and total stressors. Further, analyzing the impact of age and management experience on occupational stress of academic managers in higher education institutions of Pakistan, Mahmood et al. (2013) revealed a significant negative relationship between the variables. Khurshid, Butt, and Malik (2011) indicated an inverse relationship between the age and occupational role stress. Interestingly, they also reported a gradual increase in level of occupational role stress with the increase in age of teachers (N=500) of both public and private sector universities. They observed that the senior teachers of the private sector universities experience more occupational role stress than senior teachers of public sector.

No significant differences among the stress level of primary (Siong & Yet, 2004; Mokdad, 2005) alongwith elementary (Roxas, 2009) school teachers and years of teaching experience have also been shown. Further, Lam Yee Mei (2006) in a quantitative research of teacher stress on primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong found that there is no correlation between the number of years of teaching experience and the reported stress level. Also, no correlation between the age of the teachers and the stress experienced was noted by them. In another study, Johannsen (2011) made a correlation study to determine the link between stress factors and years of teaching experience, and identified no differences in stress based upon years of teaching experience. Secondary school teachers in a study by Shukla (2008) have shown that their stress and teaching effectiveness on the basis of experience and age of teachers are not related. Tahir (2011) in his study on stress level in teaching job of 106 college teachers in Pakistan reported no statistical significance between level of academic performance for different cadres of college teachers and their teaching.
experience. Also, Adebiyi (2013) revealed no difference in stress outcomes of Nigerian lecturers who have spent long years (>=11 years) and those with lesser years (<11 years).

Teachers’ qualification as a source of stress was found to be significant on Personal Stress by Ravichandran and Rajendran (2007). Singh (2012) also showed undergraduate teachers to be less occupationally stress than the post graduate secondary teachers. Researchers (Mondal, Shrestha, & Bhaila, 2011) on the relationship between teachers occupational stress and their qualification have shown that postgraduate teachers were having significantly less job satisfaction on job role item than the Undergraduate and Graduate teachers. On the contrary, Hong Kong teachers without finishing professional training and of junior rank reported themselves to be more burned out in a study carried by Lau, Yuen, and Chan (2005). They observed teachers rank to be the best predictor for personal accomplishment. Ling (1991) also found that teachers of lower forms and of higher professional rank suffered from high level of strain in job dissatisfactions. De Nobile and McCormick (2007) in their study linked general occupational stress by position and found that, while classroom teachers reported the highest levels of general stress, teacher’s aides appear to be the least stressed, by a wide margin, compared to classroom teachers, executive staff and other non-teaching staff.

Nayak (2008) showed designation to be significantly and negatively correlated with work role, personal development and total stressors among the degree college teachers of Karnataka, India. Khurshid, Butt, and Malik (2011) observed qualification to be a significant factor that affected the level of occupational role stress of 500 university teachers. The results showed that the master’s degree holder exhibit less occupational role stress than the Ph.D. degree holders. Chand and Monga (2007) on examining the correlates of job stress and burnout among 100 teachers from two universities of Himachal Pradesh, India found that maximum job stress was reported by Professors and minimum by the Assistant Professors.

Jandaghi et al. (2011) also investigated the relationship between job traits and stress in Shahed University’s comprehensive plan with 123 subjects (45 professors and 78 employees). They reported a positive and significant relationship between job major aspects and job stress of professors, while there was no significant and positive
relationship between job major aspects and job stress of employees. Siong and Yet (2004) in their study on 100 primary school teachers in Kuching, Sarawak, reported no significant difference between the level of stress and academic qualification. No significant difference was also observed between trained and non-trained Algerian primary school teachers in a study by Mokdad (2005). In a similar way, Yahaya, Hashim, and Kim (2006) also demonstrated no significant difference of work stress and highest academic qualification when they surveyed 92 teachers from nine technical schools in three states (Johore, Malacca and Negeri Sembilan).

Seenivasan (2007) chose higher secondary school teachers and found all the teachers (secondary grade teachers, graduate and postgraduate teachers) to be satisfied with their job irrespective of their qualification. A study on occupational stress as perceived by assistant principals in Hong Kong aided secondary schools was done by Kelly (1993). Results of the data collected from 220 assistant principals revealed no significant difference between stress and academic qualifications of these assistant principals. Shukla (2008) surveyed 93 English medium secondary school teachers and reported that relationship of teaching effectiveness as perceived by teachers and burnout did not make any difference between qualified or over-qualified teachers. Further, using Pearson Product Moment Correlation, Okeke and Dlamini (2013) reported no significant relationship between work-related stress and qualifications among high school teachers. Also, no correlation between the teachers’ qualification and the stress level was reported by Lam Yee Mei (2006), when she carried out a quantitative research of teacher stress on primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong.

Satisfaction of teachers is knitted closely to their occupational stress, and salary is an important determinant of teachers’ satisfaction. Finding a limited research on teachers’ occupational stress and salary, the researcher has mainly discussed the related studies based on teachers’ satisfaction and salary in this section. Salary was found to affect job satisfaction of both male and female teachers in a study by Tasnim (2006). Also, the timely payment of salaries and school expenditures were shown to be positively linked to teacher satisfaction by Sargent and Hannum (2003). A cross-sectional study among 392 teachers in private secondary schools by Ofili, Usiholo, and Oronsaye (2009) identified poor salary to be the major cause of job dissatisfaction.
and intention to quit in Nigeria. Khurshid, Butt, and Malik (2011) showed that the university teachers with low income, experience more occupational role stress than teachers with higher income level. On the same note, monthly income was negatively and significantly correlated with different component of employment organizations stressors viz. work, role, personal development, interpersonal relation, organizational climate and total stressors by Nayak et al. (2009).

Researchers have also indicated significant differences among teachers occupational stress and the various subjects taught by them. Mehra and Kaur (2011) worked on job satisfaction among 300 government and 300 private secondary school teachers of various academic streams, and found that Social Science teachers exhibited better job satisfaction than Language, Mathematics and Science teachers. Regression analyses were conducted by Hodge, Jupp, and Taylor (1994) to investigate which work stressors, attitudinal and demographic variables predicted the reported emotional distress (anxiety, depression and physical symptoms) and burnout (emotional exhaustion, use of depersonalization and feelings of personal accomplishment) of Music and Mathematics teachers working in secondary schools. Results showed that Music teachers were substantially more distressed and burnt out than Mathematics teachers. Hui and Chan (1996) found that the perceived stress level of guidance teachers was significantly higher than non-guidance teachers. With regard to student abilities, Byrne (1991) found that teachers of students in regular, academic mainstream reported significantly higher emotional exhaustion than teachers of vocational students.

On the other hand, Shukla (2008) conducted a study on stress, burnout and teaching effectiveness among 93 secondary school teachers and found no significant difference in the relationship between perceived burnout and teaching effectiveness as perceived by teachers on the basis of subjects taught (Language, Social Science, Science). Working with job satisfaction and stress of Home Economics teachers, Holley and Kirkpatrick (1987) mailed questionnaires including a teacher profile, the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the New York State Teachers Survey on Teacher Stress, to 150 teachers. Respondents included 100 currently employed consumer, homemaking and occupational home economics teachers. They also found no relationship between stress and job satisfaction, or
between stress and any demographic variables. However, they reported significant
difference in job satisfaction for the demographic variables of number of pupils
taught, years as a teacher and marital status.

2.2 Teachers occupational stress and job satisfaction

A considerable level of impact of stress on job satisfaction and job
involvement among teachers has been reported (Muthuvelayutham &
Mohanasundaram, 2012). Ayan and Kocacik (2010) proposed a study to establish the
relationship between the level of job satisfaction of 482 high school teachers and
types of personality. It was seen that teachers were satisfied with their jobs near to an
intermediary level. It was also found that their job satisfaction showed significant
differences in terms of characteristics of liking competence, being ambitious in the
social area and occupation, getting angry easily, and hiding their feelings. Hollifield
(2005) examined the relationship between teacher job satisfaction, work-related stress
and organizational culture in three school districts. A total of 136 teachers drawn from
elementary, middle and high schools were included in the study. Results of this study
indicated that teachers who had positive perceptions of school effectiveness were
more likely to significant differences found for job satisfaction or work-related stress
indicating that teachers at each building level were experiencing moderately high
levels of job satisfaction and low levels of work-related stress. These findings are in
line to Kayastha and Kayastha (2012) that showed a significant relationship between
job stress and job satisfaction among higher secondary level school teachers in Nepal.

Chaplain (2001) reported levels of perceived stress and job satisfaction among
primary headteachers. Sources of stress and job satisfaction were examined under four
headings: managing oneself and others, managing finances, managing the curriculum
and managing change. The highest levels of satisfaction came from personal factors
and organizational factors. School organization was noted to be a source of stress and
of satisfaction. The lowest level of satisfaction was with the level of social support.
Two subgroups reporting ‘very high’ levels of stress differed markedly in levels of
job satisfaction– one ‘very satisfied’, the other ‘not satisfied’. These differences were
related to gender, interestingly, and perceived as sources of job satisfaction and stress.
Further, investigating the prevalence of stress and the level of job satisfaction among 844 primary school teachers in Maltese state schools, Borg and Falzon (1989) revealed significant negative correlations between self-reported teacher stress and job satisfaction. De Nobile and McCormick (2005) investigated the relationships between job satisfaction and occupational stress among Catholic primary schools in New South Wales, Australia. Their study on 356 staff members from 52 primary schools of six Catholic school systems found that four stress domains (information domain, personal domain, student domain and school domain) were predictors of job satisfaction. Moderate to strong correlations existed between most of the job satisfaction and occupational stress variables.

Borg and Riding (1991a) investigated the relationships between occupational stress and job satisfaction among 545 teachers in Maltese secondary schools. They found that teachers who reported greater stress were less satisfied with teaching. Smith and Bourke (1992) in Australia explored work-related stress and job satisfaction among secondary school teachers and identified four aspects of teacher stress: staff tensions and conflict, time pressure, students and classroom conditions, and lack of rewards and recognition. Teaching context, workload and satisfaction were found to affect stress directly. Their findings are corroborated with the results from the study by Fisher (2011). In three multiple regression tests, stress and burnout were found to be statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction; years of experience, job satisfaction, and burnout were statistically significant predictors of stress; and job satisfaction, preventive coping skills, and stress were statistically significant predictors of burnout.

Kelly (1993) conducted a study on 220 assistant principals in Hong Kong and observed a statistically significant and positive correlation \( r = 0.4549 \) between self-reported occupational stress and overall job satisfaction score. The study further examined that about 70% of the assistant principals were generally satisfied with their jobs and that an increase of occupational stress would lower job satisfaction of the assistant principals. The findings revealed that female assistant principals appeared to be more satisfied with their jobs than male assistant principals. Tse (1982) proposed a study to identify levels of occupational stress and job satisfaction among 182 Hong Kong secondary school teachers of both government and subsidized sectors. The
findings showed that almost half of the teachers rated their job as either very stressful or extremely stressful. Further, in the area of job satisfaction, overall responses indicated satisfaction, with some tendency toward greater satisfaction on the part of government teachers. Work load and bad behavior of pupils were identified as the main sources of stress experienced by the teachers.

Borg, Riding and Falzon (1991) studied occupational stress and its determinants among 710 Maltese primary school teachers, through a questionnaire survey. Their results also showed that teachers who reported greater stress were less satisfied with their job and less committed to choose a teaching career if given a second chance. The investigators discovered that among the four environmental factors, ‘professional recognition needs’ were found to have the strongest inverse relationship with job satisfaction and career commitment. Sutton and Huberty (1984) administered the Wilson Stress Profile for Teachers to 20 school teachers in public and private schools and observed an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and stress levels. Similarly, Brewer and McMahan–Landers (2003) examined the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among a random sample of 133 industrial and technical teacher educators. Correlational analysis revealed a strong inverse relationship between the constructs, with stressors related to lack of organizational support being more strongly associated with job satisfaction than stressors related to the job itself were. There also were significant differences in correlations between job satisfaction and frequency of stressors and correlations between job satisfaction and intensity of stressors, suggesting that frequency of stressors had a greater impact on participants’ job satisfaction than did intensity of stressors.

Educational researchers have long been concerned with role stress among teachers. In education, research on the consequences of such role stress for teachers has largely concerned with outcomes valued by individuals such as job satisfaction and reduced stress. Using a sample of elementary and secondary teachers, Conley and Woosley (2000) empirically examined, first whether three role stresses—role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload were related to two individually and two organizationally valued states and second, whether teachers higher-order need strength moderates these role stress-outcome relationships. They found that role
stresses were related to individually and organizationally–valued outcomes among both elementary and secondary teachers. Usman et al. (2011) examined the relationship between role conflict, role ambiguity and attitudinal outcomes of the job i.e. job satisfaction and organizational commitment of 160 teachers in the Punjab University of Pakistan, by using personally administered questionnaires. The findings of the study suggested a positive and significant relationship between role stress i.e. role conflict and role ambiguity and work stress. However, work stress was negatively and significantly associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the teaching staff of the university under examination.

Gursel, Sunbul, and Sari (2002) used Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to measure the dimensions–Emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment, of high schools headteachers’ (N=80) and teachers’ (N=210) burnout in Turkey. They found that headteachers had more job dissatisfaction, personal accomplishment and depersonalization than teachers, showing a significant difference on two of the three dimensions of burnout. However, differences in job situation according to their roles (teachers and headteachers) were not significant on emotional exhaustion. Chenevey, Ewing, & Whittington (2008) designed a study to consider the relationships between job satisfaction, occupational stress, personal strain, personal coping resources and burnout among agricultural education teachers. A random sample (N=388) of the population (N=628) received a mailed questionnaire (37% response, N=145) by them. They found that the majority of agricultural education teachers in the study possessed high levels of job satisfaction, low levels of occupational stress and personal strain, and high levels of personal coping resources. However, teachers in the study indicated a moderate level of frequency of burnout and a moderate to high level of intensity of burnout.

A total of 153 elementary resource room teachers in Taiwan were questioned using a self-report questionnaire by Cheng and Ren (2010) to investigate how well the job satisfaction may be predicted through an understanding of their job stress and demographic characteristics. Following the questionnaire, 10 veteran resource room teachers were asked to provide further insight into their work. Results for the 135 participants exhibited that both the working condition dimension of job stress and
education level were significant predictors of job satisfaction. Matsushita et al. (2011) examined the levels of occupational stress/job satisfaction among 173 nursing teachers working in 17 Japanese universities. The results showed that nursing teachers have different levels of occupational stress/job satisfaction from clinical nurses and other working female. The association between self-reported teacher stress and three response correlates of teacher stress-job satisfaction, absenteeism and intention to leave teaching was investigated by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979a) among 218 teachers in England. It was found that self-reported teacher stress was negatively associated with job satisfaction (r = -0.27).

On a similar note, a descriptive research approach was utilized by Watson and Hillison (1991) to examine the relationships among satisfaction, temperament types and demographic variables. They found 63 agricultural education teachers to be generally satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs. No extrinsic factor scored as high in satisfaction as the lowest intrinsic factor (i.e. chance to tell people what to do). Conversely, just over one-third of all teachers were found to be satisfied with their job by Chaplain (1995). Teacher stress and job satisfaction were found to be negatively correlated, with high reports of occupational stress related to low levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Pelsma and Richard (1988) found job satisfaction and teacher stress to be strongly correlated. They also noted that the amount of stress and degree of job satisfaction experience by teacher directly influence the quality of teacher work life. Using a questionnaire survey on 204 teachers in secondary schools of Malacca, Abdul Majid (1998) also found a negative but significant correlation between overall stress and job satisfaction (r = -0.3882), and between human relations stress and job satisfaction (r = -0.3409).

Ahsan et al. (2009) investigated the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among 203 public university academics from Klang Valley area in Malaysia. The results showed a significant negative relationship between the job stress and job satisfaction. Besides, Ismail, Yao, and Yunus (2009) reported a significant correlation firstly, between physiological stress and job satisfaction, and secondly an insignificant correlation between psychological stress and job satisfaction. Their study on 80 academic employees in private institutions of higher learning in Malaysia demonstrated that level of physiological stress had increased job
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satisfaction, and level of psychological stress had not decreased job satisfaction. The study further confirmed that occupational stress does act as a partial determinant of job satisfaction in the stress models of the organizational sector sample. Most interestingly, using Pearson correlation, Chaudhry (2012) demonstrated no relationship between the occupational stress and overall job satisfaction in case of both male and female faculty members of Pakistani universities.

2.3 Teachers occupational stress and work values

A considerable amount of literature has emerged on the factors influencing occupational stress among school teachers, yet it is equally true that there is a paucity of recent, comprehensive empirical research in the area citing relationship between teachers stress and work values. Work values are goals that one seeks to attain to satisfy a need; they may be satisfied by more than one kind of activity or occupation. In view of this, Kokkinos (2007) measured the relationship between job stressor and burnout in primary school teachers by using 63 job stressor which had 11 subscales of work stress- student’s behaviour, managing student’s misbehavior, decision making, relationships with colleagues, role ambiguity, poor working conditions, appraisal of teachers by students, work overload, appraisal of teachers, time constraints, specific teaching demands. The study ran correlation analyses and showed that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were significantly positively correlated with all job stressor while work stressor was negatively correlated with personal accomplishment.

Allida (2005) investigated the work values, occupational stress, and teaching performance of 140 teachers and 12 principals of SDA secondary school teachers in Luzon. Religious, Occupational, and Intellectual Achievement-oriented work values were identified as the three very important primary work values by the researcher. Workload and Time Pressure, managing Students Behaviour and Learning, and Financial Security were found to be the three major stressors of the respondents wherein they experienced moderate stress. Female teachers were reported to have a significantly greater preference towards Interpersonal and Religious work values than the male teachers. In all, the author explored significant relationships between work values and occupational stress. In the same vein, Canova and Porto (2010) conducted a study to determine the organizational values as predictors of the occupational stress
level among 321 secondary school teachers. The stress factor analysis pointed out two factors and the multidimensional scaling of the Organizational Values Profile Inventory presented 5 motivational types: ethics and concern with the community; domain, organizational prestige and accomplishment; autonomy and employees well-being; conformity; and tradition. The authors suggested an inverse relationship that, the more the teacher was aware of autonomy and employees well-being and ethics and concern with the community, the less he reported occupational stress. Organizational values were significantly reported to influence occupational stress.

Ahghar (2008) studied the influence of the organizational climate of a school on the occupational stress of 220 secondary school teachers in Tehran. A 27-item questionnaire on organizational climate, along with a 53-item occupational stress questionnaire, employing 11 scales, was used as the main instruments to gather data. The predictability rate of occupational stress among teachers was found to be highest for the open climate and gradually decreases through the engaged, and disengaged to the closed climate. Among the teachers working in the disengaged and closed climate, the rate of occupational stress significantly exceeds that recorded among the teachers working in the open climate.

A causal comparative and co-relational type of descriptive research among 150 secondary level female teachers was conducted by Singh (2005) in Allahabad to find out the relationship between stress and work values. The data collected on Teachers Stress Scale and Work-Value Differential suggested that stress is negatively related to five work values namely- economic return, social service, power, independence and adventure. The values of product moment coefficients of correlation between work values and stress among secondary level female teachers also revealed six non-significant correlations. So, it can be concluded that stress is not related to intellectual challenge, chances of progress, material handled, associates, surrounding and variety work values.

Mufti et al. (2012) designed their study to identify the stressors causing stress in the faculty members of public and private sector universities of Pakistan. Questionnaire instrument was designed and data was collected that resultantly showed that student/faculty interaction, leadership style, and collegial/social interaction were the most important occupational stressors identified by these faculty members. Also,
Paschoal and Tamayo (2005) administered the Work Stress Scale and the Work Values Scale to 237 workers of a banking institution and found no relation of work values with occupational stress.

Social support as one of the major work values includes administrative and collegial support, and is often viewed as crucial to the buffering of the experience of stress (Adams, 2001; Engelbrecht & Eloff, 2001; Jonas, 2001; Van Dick et al., 1999). Griffith, Steptoe, and Cropley (1999) surveyed the coping strategies of 780 primary and secondary school U.S. teachers and reported active planning and seeking social support to be more successful in moderating stress. High job stress was found to be associated with low social support at work and greater use of coping by disengagement and suppression of competing activities. Schwarzer and Greenglass (1998) pointed out that there is a difference between perceived and actual levels of social support, and that the relationship between social support and stress can also be explained by reverse causation: that is, that highly stressed individual are less likely to form or maintain supportive workplace relationships. On the contrary, Hogan, Carlson, and Dua (2002) found no support for the hypothesis that social support is an important moderator of stress.

Boyle et al. (1995) undertook a structural modeling of the causal relationships between the various latent variables and self-reported stress on a sample of 710 teachers. Although, both non-recursive and recursive models incorporating ‘Poor Colleague Realtions’ as a mediating variable were tested for their goodness-of-fit, a simple regression model provided the most parsimonious fit to the empirical data, wherein workload and student misbehavior accounted for most of the variance in predicting teaching stress. On a similar note, the overall findings of the study by Chand and Monga (2007) suggested that 100 university teachers, with internal locus of control, high social support and high job involvement experienced less stress and burnout. Supervisor and co-worker support was negatively and significantly correlated with job stress in needs deficiency by Ling (1991) in a study on Hong Kong aided secondary school teachers. The findings showed that social support had main or additive effect on teacher stress and strain.
Darmody and Smyth (2011) explored the association between teacher stress and relationships with other staff members, and stress levels of the principal in the school. They found poor administrative support to be associated with higher stress levels among principals. Most interestingly, principals were more likely to report feeling stressed when they considered teachers in their school to be less open to new developments and challenges. Raschke et al. (1985) designed a study to identify specific factors that elementary teachers deemed most responsible for both their job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. 230 K-6 public school teachers in the central Midwest were administered an open-ended questionnaire. As opposed to strictly monetary rewards, the results revealed that almost three-fourths of the respondents indicated their primary job satisfaction to be derived from the intrinsic benefits that accrued from working with children. Saunders and Watkins (1980) in their study concluded that the recent and continuing economic concerns of teachers have contributed to their stress. They, therefore, conjectured that when economic times become more positive, the degree of stress felt by teachers may decrease.

Lopez et al. (2010) from an integrative approach identified the main predictors of different manifestations of occupational malaise (stress, burnout and job dissatisfaction). The results from statistical analysis conducted (correlation and regression) on a sample of 1,386 secondary education teachers strongly supported the existence of (personal, psychosocial and contextual) determining factors common to all three phenomena. Specifically, support by colleagues, optimism, hardiness, daily hassles and life events were explored to be the valid predictors of stress, burnout and job dissatisfaction in these secondary school teachers by them. Other variables like-type A behavioural pattern, family support, conscientiousness also showed that account for the specificity of each of the phenomena.

Ahsan et al. (2009), through the multiple regression analysis showed that the association between homework interface and job stress was significant with $\beta = 0.218$. At the level of institution, factors such as social support amongst colleagues and leadership style have been found to be important in affecting levels of stress. Dussault et al. (1999) assessed isolation and stress in 1110 Canadian teachers and found a strong positive correlation. Similarly, the study by Jonas (2001) among 104 black educators in the Pietersburg area also indicated the relationship between stress and the
perceived social support of friends and family members. While, Salaam, Alawiye, & Okunlaya (2013) revealed that uncooperative attitude of the staff is the major cause of stress among the university librarians. Although such studies indicate colleague support can buffer stress reactions among educators, the study carried out by Jacobsson, Pousette, and Thylefors (2001) revealed that colleague and principal support were not among the more important stress buffers, as expected. Ahsan et al. (2009) also observed that relationship with others had no significant effect on job stress while, workload pressure, role ambiguity and performance pressure were the significant predictors that directly affected job stress. Moreover, Saunders and Watkins (1980) concluded that teacher-teacher relationships as well as teacher-administrator relationships are not perceived as sources of teacher stress in the system.

A study by Seenivasan (2007) found the low experienced group of 41 teachers to be dissatisfied with factors- salary, interaction in the work group, opportunity for advancement and nature of communication, while the high experienced group was observed to be dissatisfied on factors like- personal benefits, working condition, work itself, opportunity for advancement and curricular issues. Using a questionnaire, Archibong, Bassey, and Effiom (2010) gathered data from a sample of 279 academic staff and showed that career development was the greatest source of stress to academic staff. Also, sourcing funds for career development was reported to be highest with respect to career development.

2.4 Teachers occupational stress and pupil control ideology

Teacher–student attachment and teachers’ attitudes towards work appear critical in promoting and maintaining positive teacher behaviors. Communication connects students with teachers, improving the classroom atmosphere. Teachers who communicate effectively with their students can give them appropriate and helpful feedback. Teacher–student interaction is extremely important for a successful relationship through the entire school year (Ahmad & Sahak, 2009). In the same vein, Farber (1999) also notes that, “it is the student-teacher relationship that offers the greatest opportunity for stress as well as the greatest opportunity for reward and gratification”. Kinman (2001) in the tertiary section suggested that contact with
students may protect teachers from stress. She noted that professionals can find some aspects of their work intrinsically satisfying, despite high levels of stress and dissatisfaction with other extrinsic aspects—like workload and pay. She also reviewed the findings indicating that academic staff in universities are generally enthusiastic about their work and find it rewarding and satisfying despite also reporting high levels of workload and burnout.

In the study on Irish teachers and principals, Darmody and Smyth (2011) found teachers to be more satisfied when their students were well behaved and parents were more involved in school life. They observed that, the more pupils with emotional/behavioral difficulties there were in the school, the higher were the stress levels experienced by the principal. Their findings are corroborated with the results from the study by Archibong, Bassey, and Effiom (2010) conducted on 279 academic staff. They have reported students to be the greatest source of stress to academic staff with respect to interpersonal relationships. Hastings and Bham (2003) indicated that several researchers found that teachers identify student misbehavior as a source of stress. Bilbou–Nakou, Stogiannidou, and Kiosseoglou (1999) reported that difficulty in managing disruptive children have been presented as one of the major cause of burnout.

Investigating the functioning of primary school classroom management Konti (2011) explored the application methods of class and branch teachers in primary schools, qualities of these methods, plan and program preparations, how the teachers manage the relationship in their classrooms, how they prepared teaching environment, whether the teachers control the target aims are gained to the students or not, how the teacher prevent occurring misbehaviors in the classroom, reasons of misbehaviors occurring and methods adopted by the teachers to prevent misbehaviors in the classroom. Findings of the study showed that teachers need classroom management training. Likewise, Hosotani and Imai–Matsumura (2011) investigated the emotional experience; expression, and regulation processes of high-quality Japanese elementary school teachers while they interacted with children, in terms of teachers’ emotional competence. It was found that teachers considered emotion expression in front of children as a skill, and their emotion regulation processes involved considering various purposes, appropriately using emotion expression, and ideal teacher images.
Interestingly, a study by Crocker and Brooker (1986) sought to identify dimensions of classroom control derived from factor analysis of selected classroom process variables, to interpret these dimensions in relation to two contemporary models of classroom control, and to explore the relationships between dimensions of control and certain cognitive and affective outcomes. Data used in the study were drawn from a larger data base developed for some 30 hours of observation per classroom, pre-and post-testing, teacher interviews, and other data sources in a sample of 36 second grade and 39 fifth grade classes. Results of the study indicated that dimensions of boundary control and disruptive behavior were readily identifiable but, contrary to what have been suggested by other authors, warmth or emotional climate could not be clearly separated from disruptive behavior or discussion – recitations.

Agoglia (1998) proposed a study to examine the differential effects of the predictor variables of 117 teachers’ locus of control, pupil control ideology and perceived occupational stress on the criterion variable of attitudes toward inclusive education. Significant direct relationships were found between pupil control ideology and occupational stress. Alternative path models provided more parsimonious fits to the sample data, wherein pupil control ideology and locus of control accounted for most of the variance in attitudes toward inclusive education. These models suggested that teachers’ control beliefs (i.e., locus of control and pupil control ideology), independent of occupational stress, significantly affected attitude formation.

Helwig (1997) analyzed the relationship between student-related stress, teacher efficacy, pupil control ideology (PCI) and intent to leave teaching for 957 Oregon school teachers. He found that teachers intending to enter school administration were more humanistic than their colleagues. Teachers who intended to leave the classroom for positions outside of education were found to be under more stress from students, less efficacious and more custodial than those teachers intending to remain in the classroom. Using an experiential learning methodology based mainly on humanistic psychological theory, Hall, Hall, and Abaci (1997) reported the outcomes of a two-year, part time Masters’ programme in human relations. The learning style preferences of 42 experienced teachers were considered as independent variables. Also, a control group of 42 was established with similar demographic characteristics. Prior to the course, the experimental group and the control group were
given the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Pupil Control Ideology Form. A sample of 32 from the experimental group was given semi-structured interviews relating to changes in their professional and personal lives. The results indicated that, following the training, there was a reduction in reported stress, indications of a more humanistic orientation towards pupil control and an increase in a sense of an internal locus of control.

The study by Brame (2007) also examined a hypothesized relationship among teacher beliefs, teacher behaviors, classroom climate, student engagement, and student outcomes. The researcher used teacher (N=6) and student (N=12) interviews, observations, and the mining of documents and material culture to collect data. The finding revealed that humanistic teachers operated in an atmosphere of student empowerment and high levels of student engagement while custodial teachers operated in an atmosphere of student compliance and low levels of student engagement. Outcomes, (grades, office referrals, and accountability scores) were more positive in humanistic classrooms than in custodial classrooms.

Correlations with outcomes were generally consistent with these found in other process-product studies. Baloglu (2008) examined the relationship between prospective teachers’ preferred strategies for coping with stress and their perceptions of student control by use of a relationship survey model and determined the relations between these concepts. Pearson moment correlation was used to analyze the data collected from 267 prospective teachers in Turkey. Findings showed that there was a noticeable meaningful statistical relation between the variables. Quite opposite to this, some studies have also shown negative results like that of Suzanna Zavaleta (2009). Exploring the relationship between classroom behavior management, self-efficacy and occupational stress of head start teachers, she found a negative relationship between teachers with children and their reported self-efficacy in classroom behavior management.

A sample of 376 elementary school teachers in Turkey reported their student control ideologies and their perceived burnout levels using the Student Control Ideology Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory in a study carried by Bas (2011). Pearson moment’s correlation coefficient analysis showed some negative significant correlations among teachers student control ideologies and their perceived burnout
Review of Related Literature

levels. It was also found that teachers’ student control ideologies were significant predictors of their burnout levels and approximately 17% of the total variance for teachers’ burnout was explained by their student control ideologies. Sava (2002) analyzed the data from 109 teachers and 946 high school pupils using path analysis, and suggested that, teachers who preferred a custodial approach of controlling pupils, who had lower morale due to school climate conditions and who were less likely to burn out, tended to adopt conflict-inducing attitudes towards pupils.

The study by Harris, Halpin, and Halpin (1985) supports the bivariate and multivariate relationships between the dependent variable of pupil control orientation, and the independent variables of the dimensions of teacher stress, sex and age. They surveyed 130 full–time teachers from three states and found that all of the correlations between the PCI and the stress factors were negative. Results obtained on the bivariate analyses indicated that an authoritarian orientation was significantly related to higher scores on four of the five stress factors. Also, no significant relationship existed between sex and the five stress factors, although female teachers tended to have a more humanistic orientation.

Sari (2011) surveyed 75 female teachers working in elementary schools in Turkey and indicated that gender roles of women teachers had important effects on their educational practices. Stress, close relationships with students and parents, and lack of authority and issues of confidence came out to be the few main points in teachers’ explanations that how their gender roles affected their profession mostly. Friedman (1995) examined how typical student behavior patterns contribute to predicting burnout among teachers. The findings showed that the typical student behaviors – disrespect, inattentiveness and sociability – accounted for 22% of teacher burnout variance for the whole sample and for 33% of burnout variance in teachers in religious schools. Humanistic teachers were affected mainly by disrespect, whereas custodial teachers were affected mainly by inattentiveness. Burnout among male teachers was mainly affected by students’ inattentiveness, whereas burnout among female teachers was mainly affected by students’ disrespect.

An investigation of teacher stress by Harris (1984) focused upon teachers’ personality, ideology, gender, age, locus of control, and pupil control orientation. Teacher responses obtained from the Pupil Control Ideology Form, Teacher Locus of
Control Scale and Teacher Occupational Stress Factor Questionnaire investigated professional inadequacy, principal-teacher professional relationship, collegial relationships, group instruction, and job overload as the factors frequently implicated in teacher stress. Findings indicated that an authoritarian pupil orientation was associated with high stress for four of the five stress factors. Further, an external locus of control was associated with stress for three of the five factors, and male teachers tended to have a more authoritarian approach than female teachers. Using factor analysis, item response modeling, systems of equations and a structural equation model on a sample of 1,430 practicing teachers Klassen and Chiu (2010) also found teachers with greater workload stress to have greater classroom management self-efficacy. Female teachers reported greater workload stress and greater classroom stress from student behaviors, and lower classroom management self-efficacy.

2.5 Summary

The relationships between teachers’ occupational stress and demographic factors, job satisfaction, work values and pupil control ideology in the literature review show mixed results. Reporting the demographic factors, several studies have shown significant difference while others have indicated no significant difference. Some independent variables were more significant or correlated compared to others, for example, many studies reported males experiencing more occupational stress than females, while females facing more occupational stress than males were also reported in other studies. Contrary to the aforementioned findings, there were studies which reported no significant differences between male and female teachers occupational stress. Generally, a large number of researches reported that teachers experience stress mainly in the beginning years of their career. Few studies show years of experience differ significantly and thus, contribute directly to teachers stress. Some of the researches deal with an evidence of older/ more experienced teachers to face higher levels of stress, while a significant portion stated no differences in stress based upon years of teaching experience. Further, teachers of junior rank possessing less qualification reported themselves to be more stressed out; while there have been enough evidences where higher degree holders exhibited more occupational stress. Quite opposite to this, there were studies which observed no significant difference between academic qualification of teachers and their occupational stress.
The literature review shows a paucity of studies on occupational stress and salary/subjects taught. Poor salary is negatively correlated with teachers stress, and has been identified as the major cause of dissatisfaction among teachers. A little indication has also been given where salary provided satisfaction for both male and female teachers. Besides, studies that are specific to significant differences between subjects taught and teachers’ occupational stress were also addressed. Although, no significant differences have also been shown between various streams of teachers and their stress levels, yet these studies were not found to be many, and a need requires for information regarding the population of teachers serving students with different subjects. A range of results were also found among the job satisfaction, where it was seen through few studies that teachers reporting greater stress are less satisfied with teaching, normally. Whereas, other reported studies of job satisfaction among teachers indicate that as an occupational group teachers report relatively high levels of satisfaction to partly/intermediary satisfaction levels. Specially, gender role strongly affects job satisfaction of teachers. Due to cultural differences, it was also seen that job satisfaction differs between male and female based on regional differences.

Specific factors that contribute to stress levels among teachers were also examined through various work values. Mainly these factors affecting the teachers’ stress are termed as pay, job security, working conditions, social support among co-workers and management, supervision, career advancement opportunities, promotion, work itself and supervision. Based on an analysis of the literature, it is evident that significant relationships do exist between teachers work values and their occupational stress. In the gender realm, female teachers show a greater preference towards work values and depict a higher level of work values than the male teachers. A large number of researches echoed that stress is negatively and significantly related to work values (supervisor and co-worker support, teachers salary and economic status of schools) while some showed no relation of work values with occupational stress. Research further suggests a relationship exists between occupational stress and how teachers behave in the classroom, i.e. their pupil control ideologies. The literature cited provides enough evidence that no matter how positive a classroom environment, children sometimes do misbehave, thereby causing stress among teachers. As a result, teachers often resort to punishment. Many of the reported studies showed that pupil control ideologies are significant predictors of teachers stress levels with an
association of authoritarian pupil orientation, generally, with high teacher stress. It is also reflected in few studies that effective training may influence these variables in a positive direction.