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**Teacher stress among Tawjihi teachers in Jordan and  
their adopted coping strategies to reduce stress**

**BY**

**SAWSAN ATALLAH ALGHASWYNEH**

**A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**University of Huddersfield**

**March 2011**

## **DECLARATION**

I declare that this thesis is the product of my own work, which has not, whether in the same or a different form, been presented to this or any other university in support of an application for any degree other than that of which I am now a candidate.

**Signed.....**

**Sawsan Alghaswyneh**

**March 2011**

## ABSTRACT

There has been increasing interest in occupational stress during the last two decades. While studies have been carried out in developed countries, few have been conducted in developing countries, particularly in the field of education. Since 1970s, the topic of teacher stress has generated more interest among researchers who initially studied stress in teachers in different school settings all around the world.

This research study was necessitated by a general lack of knowledge about teacher stress in general, and stress in Tawjihi teachers, particularly in Jordan. The study was conducted with Tawjihi teachers (12<sup>th</sup> grade), in the city of Karak, Jordan to explore levels of stress and the main sources of stress. It also explored coping strategies adopted by them and actions that should be taken by schools and the MOE to reduce teacher stress. This research consisted of two phases. Phase one was a survey using a self-administered questionnaire involving a sample of 513 Tawjihi teachers (229 male teachers and 284 female teachers), where 314 Tawjihi teachers replied to the questionnaire with a response rate of 73.68%. Phase two was a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews based on an open-ended interview schedule. Twelve Twajihi teachers, as well as sixteen other education staff, have been interviewed, which resulted in a 60.87% response rate.

Overall, results indicated approximately 95% of Tawjihi teachers revealed their work as a Tawjihi teacher was extremely to mildly stressful. Only 4.8% of Tawjihi teachers reported being a Tawjihi teacher was not stressful. The findings also showed some sources of stress Tawjihi teachers revealed were limited to them, and yet others were common among teachers in other countries. Results also showed some of the adopted coping strategies were limited to Tawjihi teachers, while others were shared with teachers in other countries. The finding regarding coping strategies also showed that Tawjihi teachers tend to use indirect actions more often than direct actions.

No significant differences in the level of stress in Tawjihi teachers due to gender, age, teaching experience, qualification and marital status were found. Moreover, significant positive

correlations were found between the level of stress and each main source of stress.

Tawjihi teachers also revealed the actions they desire schools and the MOE to take to help them reduce stress.

The increased understanding of the levels of stress, its sources, adopted coping strategies and the actions that should be taken by schools and the MOE to reduce stress will hopefully make a significant contribution to the knowledge of teacher stress, not only in Jordan particularly, but in other countries generally.

## **Acknowledgment**

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Thanks to my husband, children, brothers, sisters, friends and family in-law for their ongoing support, encouragement, understanding and assistance.

## **Dedication**

### **In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most merciful**

I would like to dedicate this work to the most influential people in my life

To the soul of my mother who passed away and was praying for me to get my PhD as she knew that it was my dream. She taught me not to give up on my dreams.

Mom, to you I lift my eyes and heart in thanks for being the best teacher I ever had. Through your love, guidance, gentle pushes in times of despair and repeated messages of encouragement, I found the strength to persevere.

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# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to explain the background of the study, its purpose, significance as well as clarifying the parameters of the study and the structure and organisation of the thesis. .

Some developing countries have a national examination system to assess and evaluate the performance of students at schools, such as Taiwan and Jordan (Shu, 2003; Dowd, 2003). In Jordan, students must receive a General Secondary Education Certificate (GSEC), formally known as the Tawjihi certificate, in order to graduate from high school (Raouf, 2007). This thesis concerns the stresses Tawjihi teachers face in Jordan. It also examines the levels and sources of stress, coping strategies and actions taken by schools and the Ministry of Education (MOE) (the body which administers all aspects of school education) to reduce teacher stress. Seyle (1956, 1979, p1) defines stress as: “*A neutral physiological phenomenon, in terms of the non-specific response of the human body to any demand.*” (for more definitions see section 4.2)

Over the last forty years, many researchers have developed a growing belief regarding the amount of stress experienced by different people doing different types of jobs. For example, within the teacher profession in the 1960's, researchers started to pay attention to teachers' work life, concerns and anxieties (e.g. Isyanov and Calamari, 2004). Research topics ranged from job satisfaction and sources of dissatisfaction (e.g. Butt and Lance, 2005) to 'teacher stress' or 'stress in teaching', which started to appear by the mid 1970s (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1977; Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b). Since then, the field of teacher stress studies continues to steadily grow (Kyriacou, 1987; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Kyriacou, 1997a; Shu, 2003; Kyriacou, 2005; Madini, 2005; Meng and Liu, 2008).

Kyriacou (2001) is one such researcher who began reviewing teacher stress material from 1977. At that time, the term 'teacher stress' began garnering media attention, appearing in the title of articles, papers and news media. Since that time, teacher stress has become a major topic of

research. For example, in Western (developed) countries such as UK, Canada and USA, the incidence of stress among teachers has received considerable attention (Tellenback *et al.*, 1983; Kyriacou, 1987; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Younghusband *et al.*, 2003; Younghusband, 2006), and now extends to Eastern and Middle Eastern (developing) countries such as Taiwan and Saudi Arabia (Shu, 2003; Madini, 2005). Although teacher stress has become a global issue, the results sometimes differ from one country to another, depending on factors such as: the education system, available resources, culture and economic condition (Kyriacou, 2001, 2005). However, multiple studies (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1977; Kyriacou, 1987; Dunham, 1992; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Shu, 2003; Kyriacou, 2005; Madini, 2005) consistently identify the teaching profession as one of the highest stress jobs.

## **1.2 Background of the Problem**

### **1.2.1 Tawjihi Examination and its related stress**

The educational system in Jordan has had Tawjihi examinations for over 50 years (Raouf, 2007). Having a good result on the Tawjihi (12<sup>th</sup> grade) examination is vital to the students' educational opportunities, as access to higher education is opened only to students who pass the General Secondary Education Examination (Tawjihi) (Raouf, 2007; Madbouh, 2011). If a student performs inadequately, on this exam it will limit her/his access to a university or community college. However, students who achieve 65% or more as an overall average on the Tawjihi examination have the opportunity to apply to public universities, while students who achieve less than 65% have the right to only apply to government community colleges, private universities and private community colleges (Country report, 2000). Madbouh (2011) argued that this deep concern of achieving high results drives the Tawjihi teachers and students towards studying for the test demands only.

When the Tawjihi examination approaches, the stress of parents and students intensifies. Madbouh (2011) pointed out that many changes affect the lives of the students and their families. This time of year involves tension for the students' families as homes become strictly quiet and the students need to follow a rigid schedule in terms of sleep time, study time and eating.

From a parents' perspective, stress will cause them to do anything for their children, such as creating an environment where their children will focus on passing the test and studying hard to obtain high grades in Tawjihi. A parent of a Tawjihi student said:

*“This year is a very important year for my son’s future and for me too. He has to take this year seriously: he has to study hard, do his best and stop all activities that he used to do in previous years: no visiting, no TV, no trips, there is a list of prohibitions. This list is not just for my son, it is for the whole family, including me. I am studying hard with him and if I were given the exam, too, I would pass. He has to win the battle.”* (Al’anbat newspaper, 2006).

Some Tawjihi students have different perspectives than their parents, disliking the enclosed test parameters their parents put upon them, particularly because they do not work well under the added strain, as one Tawjihi student comments:

*“My stress increased in this specific year because my parents made a ban around me. I am not allowed to do anything which puts me under pressure and I am afraid that this will affect my performance. I hope my parents do understand that.”* (Al’anbat newspaper, 2006).

Tawjihi students also consider the Tawjihi examination as a major battle that they have to win, as another Tawjihi student remarked:

*“This year is the most important year in my life and the first battle in my life. It is a challenge for my mental, emotional and physical abilities. I study hard since the first day of the academic year, as well as the year before to be ready to win the battle.”* (Al’anbat newspaper, 2006).

The Tawjihi examination is considered stressful not only for students, families and teachers, but for the whole of society (Madbouh, 2011). However, people suggest that if the MOE could create a system in which university admission is not totally dependent on the Tawjihi scores, part of the stress caused by Tawjihi would reduce. Another suggestion to possibly reduce stress for teachers, students and families, focuses on taking the student’s yearly school work into account when calculating Tawjihi scores. As a result, this could reduce the importance of the Tawjihi as well as enable students to have a greater opportunity to choose the major they prefer (Raouf, 2007).

In order to reduce the enhanced Tawjihi pressure, some wealthier parents enroll their children in

a foreign educational system which applies to some private schools in Jordan (those schools are confined to the capital Amman). Those schools do not have the Tawjihi system but rather follow the UK or USA educational system examinations (e.g. IGCSEs, SATs). Students find this ination to be better and easier because they study for years in private schools that follow American and British curricula.

The problem with such systems results in students being treated as foreign students, causing parents to pay international fees which most Tawjihi students' parents struggle to afford. Furthermore, these systems are conducted in the English language, which limits those Tawjihi students who know English only as a second language. In fact, the English Language is the subject that most Tawjihi students fail (Raouf, 2007). As a result, most Tawjihi students' parents disallow children to engage with such systems. In any case, the Tawjihi system is still the most common and continues to present overwhelming pressure for most students, parents and teachers (For more details see Chapter 3).

### **1.2.2 Tawjihi teachers**

During ten years as a Tawjihi public school teacher, the researcher heard many complaints from teachers regarding the difficulties facing them in schools. In addition, Travers and Cooper (1996) confirmed that teachers face various problems with their professional life as well as feeling unappreciated by the society around them; they feel society perceives teaching as an easy job that anyone can do. This has lead many teachers to feel stressed, frustrated and to contemplate leaving the teaching profession. Teachers are also dealing with students from different backgrounds, moods and abilities, thus causing further issues. Oplatka (2007) argued teachers in developing countries are usually overburdened because they teach many grades, for example, their work environment is poor, in addition to inadequate facilities and a centralised-control organisational structure, all of which have negative consequences for teaching quality and students' performance. Their MOEs, supervisors and head teachers expect them to strictly obey rules, instructions and guidelines set out by top managers and to transmit knowledge and values prescribed by these managers.

The researcher started her study reviewing literature about teacher stress in relation to Arab



countries before concentrating on Jordan specifically. The researcher was concerned due to the lack of teacher stress material available in Arab countries. The researcher also found no study had been pursued in relation to recognising the reality of stress facing Jordanian Tawjihi teachers. Therefore, the researcher started delving into this subject, because her experience led her to suspect there was a problem and recognised general teachers and Tawjihi teachers especially, are under pressure. They are still facing different job aspects that make them stressed, some of these problems are common among teachers globally, and some of them are facing Tawjihi teachers in Jordan specifically.

There is a range of roles that teachers may be expected to fulfill, such as educators, disciplinarians and preparing students to be responsible citizens (MOE, 2002, 2004). As a result, teachers have a very important role to play in students' development (Shu, 2003). Shu pointed out that the developmental psychologist (such as Erickson, 1963 cited in Shu, 2003), assured that teenagers experience different kinds of changes; these changes happen in their body and mind. They want to make decisions about their future and to behave and think as adults at the same time. However, they are not adults and they lack maturity and experience and can potentially make wrong decisions which affect their future. Thus, teachers must bear the responsibility to provide students with the right help and guidance to enable them to make the right decisions, especially because students spend most of their time at school with friends and teachers.

Additionally, teachers are the main source of information and knowledge, have major influence on students and affect their personality development. Such responsibility could put teachers under added pressure. Moreover, they play vital role in students' academic future, as they have to help students to success academically. Their responsibilities are not confined to academic achievement, but also to students' social development (Shu, 2003). This particularly applies to Tawjihi teachers, as they deal with high school students as well. Tawjihi teachers are expected to teach and focus solely upon teaching academic subjects, such as: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Geography and Language. Tawjihi teachers are also responsible for the success/failure rate of their students, which is measured by the academic achievement of their students on the Tawjihi examination, which has effect on Tawjihi teachers' evaluation report and consequently their promotion. Therefore, Tawjihi teachers are the first to be questioned in relation to any problems the students encountered because access to higher education is based on

the students' performance on the Tawjihi examination (Alra'i newspaper, 2006c).

Parents also put pressure on teachers because they want their children to get high grades in order to easily access the public university. Teachers put themselves under further pressure due to the following reason: they must exert every effort possible to make their students successful as well as for their own reputation. On the other hand, if students do receive high grades, their teacher will have the reputation of a good and effective educator (Al'anbat newspaper, 2006). As a result, they are answerable to their head teacher, supervisor, head of Education and Teaching Directorate and parents. Madbouh (2011) argued that Tawjihi teachers exert every effort to help their students. In addition, he added that due to the significant role Tawjihi plays in students' future, this period is considered of high importance because it affects both the students' and teachers' psychological state.

This thesis, therefore, focuses on the particular stressors faced by Jordanian Tawjihi teachers.

### **1.3 The need for this study**

Teaching, as any other human service profession, is a stressful occupation (Bataineh, 2009; Jurado *et al.*, 1998); hence, this issue has been a focus of study within the last two decades (Jurado *et al.*, 1998). School teachers who have been considered under stress suffer from depression and anxiety due to teaching (Hammen and deMayo, 1982; Beer and Beer, 1992) and even experience burnout (Kyriacou, 1987; Beer and Beer, 1992; Bataineh, 2009). Manifestations of stress in teachers can include: anxiety and frustration, poor performance and ruptured interpersonal relationships at work and home (Travers and Cooper, 1996; Kyriacou, 2001).

Much research has tried to identify the specific stressors in teaching and their impact on health and well-being (e.g. Wilhelm *et al.*, 2000; Butt and Lance, 2005). These stressors have been associated with increased depression (Schonfeld, 1992; Jurado *et al.*, 2005). Tang *et al.* (2001) found that stress resource factors were directly linked to mental health status among teachers. These findings appear consistent with the findings of Travers and Cooper (1996), who uncovered that high levels of anxiety and depression among teachers is caused by high stress.

Teacher stress is not a new phenomenon; actually it is a common phenomenon that is unconfined to a specific country (Kyriacou, 2001). This phenomenon affects teachers' work life - some

researchers within the teacher stress field argued that study of teacher stress should be conducted in all countries. For example, Kyriacou and Chien (2004, p86) stated that:

*“Social, cultural, economic and educational differences between countries mean that one must be very cautious in generalising from research done in one country to another. As such, there is an important need for basic research on teacher stress to be carried out in many countries, where the local circumstances can be taken into account in the design of the study.”*

Kyriacou (2001) also suggested that research on stress, its sources and coping strategies need continual updating to keep information and data as current as possible.

After reviewing previous research into stress and coping strategies, the researcher found most of these studies have only been conducted in developed countries. Studies on teacher stress and coping strategies are relatively few in developing countries. At present, the researcher's knowledge revealed that no similar study has been undertaken in examining teacher stress and coping strategies in Jordan. Moreover, stress and coping strategies and its theories and models have been developed in developed countries, but none of them considered developing countries' cultures. Some research found that there are differences of stress, measurements, coping strategies and expression of distress between developing and developed countries due to cultural differences (e.g. Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Gaziel, 1993; Brown and Uehara, 1999; Kawakami and Tsutsumi, 2000). Therefore, due to the shortage of these studies in developing countries and in Jordan particularly, and due to the differences in culture, there is an actual need to conduct this study in the context of Jordanian culture. In this vein, Kawakami and Tsutsumi (2000) and Brown and Uehara (1999) recommended more research to investigate the affect that culture has on stress and coping strategies. Tennant (2007) suggested further research in teacher stress and coping strategies at all educational levels in New Zealand. Wilhelm *et al.* (2000) stated that teacher research should focus on psychological variables and stressors outside of the workplace as well as highlighting pressures within the workplace. Wilhelm also suggested research should extend towards why being a new teacher is often related with being frustrated and stressed.

By reviewing 71 articles concerning teacher stress Hiebert and Farber (1984 cited in Travers and Cooper, 1996) emphasised that teachers could be more vulnerable to stress-induced disorders, and that the teaching profession is considered one of the most stressful occupations. However,

they argued that a lack of empirical data exists to support said claim. In the same context, Travers and Cooper (1996) pointed out that there is a shortage of research about teacher stress and school psychology. Therefore, there is a need for more experimental research in this area. They are confident that all teachers will experience stress to some extent in their working life. Travers and Cooper (1993) indicated that the increased number of teacher absenteeism, turnover and early retirement are factors that should encourage researchers to explore more regarding the phenomenon of teacher stress.

Helping teachers to cope with stress garnered less attention and researchers confirmed that this issue is a necessity when studying teacher stress. Focusing on the issue of teachers under stress is less important than helping them deal and cope with their working life stress. Green and Ross (1996) argued that research in coping and its relationship with effectiveness of teachers to deal with stress received less attention. Therefore, teacher stress research in the future should pay more attention to the research done on this topic as well as strategies in aiding teachers with stress related difficulties. In addition, it should concentrate on psychological literature to enrich the researched theories on stress and coping to offer a better overview regarding this critical matter (Green and Ross, 1996). In his study, Arikewuyo (2004) pointed out that research has focused only on the sources and causes of stress, and ignored studying how teachers cope with their stress at work. Due to limited information on the relationship between teacher stress and coping responses, Griffith *et al.* (1999) argued that the first and main aim of their study was to assess this relationship.

The ability to reduce stress and its related illnesses will help to reduce the financial and physical costs of teacher stress to society. Moreover, this will reduce the lost productivity due to absence from work because of stress and the cost of providing medical care to treat such stress-related illness (Bartlett, 1998). Kyriacou (1989) mentioned that having a good understanding about the extent, nature and sources of stress will help in developing practical strategies that help teachers to cope with stress and to reduce its effect on teachers and schools in general.

After reviewing the literature in Arab countries, the researcher found very little that explored the issue of teacher stress (e.g. Youssef *et al.* 1998). For example, Al-Sebae (2001) cited in Madini (2005) argued that the Arab libraries lack studies related to the work pressure of teachers.

Because of a lack in said material, researchers began to pay more attention and study this issue in Arab institutions and organisations with more detail. Madini (2005) is one of the few researchers who dealt with teacher stress in Arab countries. She studied stress in Saudi Arabian kindergarten teachers. Therefore, more information is needed to fill in the missing gaps related to teacher stress not only in Arab countries, but particularly Jordan.

#### **1.4 Research Objectives**

It could be argued that this study is an exploratory attempt conducted in the context of the Jordanian education system which aims to include more, enrich and fill the gaps in the literature of teacher stress in Arab countries. This study, conducted in Jordanian school settings, aims to explore the current level and extent of teacher stress and the adopted coping strategies in Tawjihi teachers. The study also observes the actions from the MOE and schools to reduce teacher stress. Therefore, this study is specifically concerned with answering the following research questions:

1. To what extent does stress exist among Tawjihi teachers in Jordan?
  - i. Do significant differences exist in the levels of stress in Tawjihi teachers due to gender, age, teaching experience, qualification and marital status?
2. What are the factors that cause stress in Tawjihi teachers in Jordan?
  - i. What is the relationship between the levels of stress and the sources of stress?
3. What are the coping strategies that Tawjihi teachers in Jordan adopt to reduce stress?
4. To what extent do Tawjihi teachers use these coping strategies?
5. What are the actions that should be taken by schools and the Ministry of Education to reduce stress in Tawjihi teachers in Jordan?

#### **1.5 Parameters of the Study**

This research concentrates on Tawjihi teachers because this stage is connected with the universities admissions and considered the gateway to a higher education. Moreover, the researcher was a Tawjihi teacher and is familiar with the school environment, and as a result was very concerned about the Tawjihi teachers' work life.

The study took place in Karak, the biggest southern city in Jordan. It comprises of four Education and Teaching Directorates (the body that runs the school education, is distributed in

each city in Jordan and controlled by the MOE). These Directorates have male and female schools, urban and rural schools and academic and vocational schools. Some of these schools are close to this city and others are farther in proximity. Additionally, the researcher herself lived, grew up and worked in the city of Karak, so the researcher was familiar with the city which in turn facilitated gaining access and obtaining the cooperation of the participants.

The fieldwork was conducted using two types of methods; self administered questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The self-administered questionnaires targeted only the Tawjihi teachers; however, the semi-structured interviews targeted the Tawjihi teachers and other education staff (see Methodology chapter for details).

## **1.6 Organisation of the Study**

This thesis contains twelve chapters and is explained as follows:

*Chapter One: 'Introduction'*. This chapter provides an overview of the study background, presents the research objectives and questions and identifies the true lack of previous studies in teacher stress in Jordan. Also, it discusses the need for this research as well as the parameters of the study.

*Chapter Two: 'The Context of the Research'*. This chapter briefly discusses the education system in Jordan (appendix 1 has more details to help the reader understand the perspectives and the context of the study, particularly for those who are unfamiliar with the education system in Jordan). Some other issues related to the research study were discussed, such as school curriculum, training, teacher status and school environment.

*Chapter Three: 'Tawjihi system'*. This chapter provides details about Tawjihi examination and its related problems. Issues such as secondary education (academic and vocational), the need for changing the Tawjihi system and private tutoring are discussed in detail.

*Chapter Four: 'Teacher Stress'*. It provides a review of the literature related to teacher stress, its sources, definitions, theories, models and any other related theme raised to give more

understanding to the research topic.

*Chapter Five: 'Coping Strategies'*. It provides a review of the literature related to coping strategies, its definitions, theories, models and any other related theme raised to give more understanding to the research topic.

*Chapter Six: 'Research Methodology and Design'*. This chapter starts with an overview of the research design and philosophy. This includes the approaches of research, followed by justifications for the chosen study research methodology and design, including the population and the sample. In addition, the two main data collecting methods, the semi-structured interviews and personally administered questionnaires were discussed in terms of their design, structure, content and all other issues related to each method. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion and justification of the statistical methods and techniques that were used to analyse the research data.

*Chapter Seven: 'Teachers' Background'*. This chapter presents the demographic background of Tawjihi teachers who responded to the questionnaire, and those who took part in the interviews, such as, age and gender. It also presents the remaining education staff who took part in the interview regarding: the position held, experience, gender, and qualification. This chapter also presents the findings related to the level of stress among Tawjihi teachers who participated in the questionnaire and interviews. Moreover, the association between the level of stress and the demographic variables of gender, age, experience, qualification and marital status.

*Chapter Eight: 'Factors related to relationships at schools'*. This chapter presents the questionnaire findings related to the relationships with the administrators, supervisors, colleagues, parents and community and the teachers' personal circumstances as sources of stress. It also presents all the issues related to these relationships and raised by Tawjihi teachers through the interviews. Furthermore, comparisons with other related studies are provided in this chapter.

*Chapter Nine: 'Factors related to school environment, teaching difficulties, educational system regulations and work'*. This chapter provides a discussion for the results related to each factor

which had emerged from both data analysis (the questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews). Additionally, it investigates the relationship between stress and the main sources of stress. Moreover, this chapter provides comparisons with other related studies.

*Chapter Ten: 'Coping strategies'.* This chapter presents the findings regarding the most effective coping strategies that Tawjihi teachers used to reduce stress and how often Tawjihi teachers used these coping strategies. Additionally, the chapter links these findings with the other research findings that related to teachers' coping strategies.

*Chapter Eleven: 'Actions by Schools and Government'.* This chapter presents the actions that Tawjihi teachers wish that schools and the MOE would adopt in order to help them reduce stress. Also, the chapter links these findings with the other research findings that related to actions that schools and government should take to help reduce stress among teachers.

*Chapter Twelve: 'Conclusions and Recommendations'.* This chapter summarises the major findings of this study and the conclusions derived from the main findings. In addition, it presents the limitations and strengths and provides some recommendations. Finally, it offers suggestions for further research to help improve, develop and expand research in teacher stress.

## **1.7 Summary**

This chapter includes five sections. The first section provided an introduction to the study. The second section provided a background to the study of why the Tawjihi stage was chosen, and the rationale for this research by highlighting the problems Tawjihi teachers face. The third section discussed the need for this research and study. The fourth section presented the research aims and objectives. Lastly, the fifth section presented the structure of the study.

The next chapter will present an overview of the Jordanian education system and its related issues. The background information provided will help give more understanding to the research study and the problems of this study. The overview is to help establish the background of this study and the reasons for this present study.



## **Chapter Two**

### #

## **The context of Jordan**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides background information on Jordan and describes the general pattern of education.

The educational objectives of any country cannot be explained without a brief reference to its geographical, historical and cultural background. This information will serve to provide pointers to the conditions and considerations-political, social, cultural, ethical, economical, environmental, educational and religious-within which education is developed, planned, implemented and delivered in Jordan.

### **2.2 The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan**

Jordan is one of the small, developing countries of the Arab world (lies in the Middle East region). It is located in the middle of the Arab homeland near the Mediterranean. It lacks oil and natural-gas resources (Imaddin, 2004; Masri, 2004) (See appendix 1 for more details about Jordan).

### **2.3 The Educational System in Jordan**

Jordan has directed great attention towards education. The educational system in Jordan plays the leading role in preparing the individual in a balanced and complete manner (Mryyan, 2003). The structure of Jordan's educational system has four levels administered by the MOE: pre-school education, basic education, secondary education and higher education (See appendix 1 for more details about the education system).

### **2.4 School Curriculum**

The school curriculum is considered a tool aimed at developing the educational system. Improving the school curriculum is considered one of the main imperatives in improving the quality of education (Al-Sulayti, 1999). The MOE has designed and decided the school curriculum centrally. The curriculum has been changed to meet the country's aims and

educational facilities. It is revised and evaluated by the MOE more than ever before. Teacher training is considered one of the main priorities to improve the delivery of the curriculum and to improve teaching methods in schools (MOE, 2002). All Jordanian schools and at all levels have to follow the same curriculum that is set by the MOE. Private schools may teach additional courses subject to the Ministry's approval (MOE, 2002).

## **2.5 Teacher Training**

The educational process cannot achieve its aims without qualified and well-prepared teachers. Teacher training aims to upgrade teachers' information about current developments in education, upgrade teachers' skills and keep up with rapid technological changes. Therefore, training has become necessary to keep up with the new needs of the labour market, to raise productivity and to maintain the desired standards of proficiency. The training providers are driven by the financial benefit rather than by the quality or appropriateness of training (Mograby, 1999). Educational supervisors are responsible for training teachers. They are also required to follow up and oversee the implementation of the teachers' training, teachers' plans and evaluating teachers' performance (National Report, 1996; AL-Magableh, 2010).

According to Hasan (2001), training lacks time and funds, and the trainers themselves need training. Training time is not appropriate as it is conducted on Saturdays. Many training places are poorly equipped without necessary equipments, tools and facilities. Training materials are inadequately related to the actual training needs of teachers because the training is based on the expected training needs for teachers not on the actual training needs. Davies (1999) added that training is viewed as a waste of money and time because of the lack of systematic planning, implementation and the evaluation phases.

Anderson (1991) argued that in-service training will be more effective when the skills and knowledge used to train teachers will be based upon the teachers needs as identified by the teachers themselves. These skills and knowledge need to be linked to what teachers can do and what is available to them as well as to their ability to apply and practice these skills and knowledge in the classroom (AL-Wreikat and Bin Abdullah, 2010).

## **2.6 Teacher training in computer technology**

Recently, the MOE has started providing teachers with an appropriate level of consistency and quality in computer training to implement and support technology at schools. The MOE offers teachers who completed training an International Computer Driving License (ICDL), World Links or Intel Teach certification. These certifications are linked to the formal MOE teachers' ranking and promotion scheme. Lack of access to computers and internet at schools, and lack of on-going technical support after training, are some problems teachers face after finishing these training programmes (World Economic Forum, 2004).

Therefore, the World Economic Forum (2004) recommended that monitoring and evaluating the impact of training programmes at schools should be affected at a very early stage. Other aspects also involving the school community include: school administration, parents and students, since they also play a very important role in maintaining and sustaining the training programmes.

Therefore, the MOE should benefit from other experience in this field. For example, teachers in Wilhelmsen's (2002) study acknowledged the importance of using ICT in their own teaching. Furthermore, the majority of teachers reported lack of confidence in using ICT in their own teaching, while other teachers stated that their motivation and inspiration to use ICT increased after training programmes. Wilhelmsen indicated this could be referred to the way in-service training programmes were delivered to teachers so that it catered to suit their needs and demands.

## **2.7 Teacher status**

Good and productive teachers need to feel a sense of respect; they need the freedom to practice their job. Teachers want their opinions heard and respected. Teachers know that teaching is a demanding job, and they need others to also know that. In so doing, they are willing to make the effort and do their best. They seek dignity, autonomy and support (Davies, 1999). In the same context, Hoerner (2000) argued that teaching is a social profession; it involves working with others, for others and to help others, specifically students.

However, Caillods (2004) pointed out that most of the teachers in Latin America seek early retirement because of low salary and because the teaching profession has lost its societal value.

Davies (1999) indicated that in most countries, lecturers in colleges and universities have high status, high income and good working conditions, whereas school teachers have low status, low income and bad working conditions. Such disparity reveals the inequality between social status and compensation regarding both types of teachers.

In Jordan, teachers not only have low societal standing, but also garner minimal respect. Teachers' unions do not exist and plans for establishing one do not exist either. Although teachers made many requests to the government, the answer is unfortunately always no. This makes teachers feel that they are not respected, or perhaps even defenseless and powerless, as there is no teachers' union to defend and back them up (Adostour newspaper, 2006a).

Teachers' salary is low, making their life difficult and hard. Most teachers, especially male teachers, usually look for other sources of income to face life's expenses. Therefore, the education sector rarely attracts males, and yet is mostly accepted by females (Mryyan, 2003). For instance, the ratio of male teachers to female teachers who declined to work in the education sector for the academic year 2006/2007 was 40% out of 13,452 teachers (3694 male and 1705 female) (Alra'i newspaper, 2006d; Alghad newspaper, 2006c; Adostour newspaper, 2006b).

Tesdell (2007) pointed that low income and low privileges make teachers not always intrinsically motivated. Therefore, teachers give priority to supply their own family, who are usually underprivileged as well, with their daily needs. Their salary is insufficient for any other life's expenses, such as a monthly house rent. As a result, the education system suffers because teachers suffer and do not get adequate support (Almehwar newspaper, 2006). Many of the best teachers have chosen to work abroad, such as in Gulf countries and Saudi Arabia, because these countries offer better salary, while others have chosen to leave the profession.

## **2.8 School environment**

According to Anderson (1991) and Berry (2002), there are two kinds of classroom environments: physical environment and psychological environment. The former includes: the classroom arrangement, equipment and material, numbers of students and seats and the size of the school building. The latter includes the location of school and climate of the class or school as a social

group. Both kinds play a crucial role in enhancing the teaching process.

Tesdell (2007), who focused on the education system in Jordan, argued that some classrooms are small and insufficient for the number of students in the class. He added that some schools lack a teachers' room, drinking water facilities, heating, continuous maintenance, adequate furniture and enough desks for all students. This is consistent with Al-qatameen in Alghad newspaper (2006b) who reported that many classrooms in some schools are too small to fit the high number of students. For example, Bataineh (2009) argued that the number of students in some classrooms can reach fifty students. Additionally, some schools lack teaching aids. For instance, teachers still use blackboards and chalks in spite of some teachers who are allergic to chalk and dust, and thus affects their health. From the other side, there are some schools with a proper building and furniture, but these are few and most of them are located in cities and urban areas (Tesdell, 2007). Moreover, Kassih (2006) argued that Jordanian schools in urban areas were built relatively recently and have beautiful grounds and excellent facilities; while most schools in rural areas were built decades ago and have small playground of cracked cement and dismal laboratories and libraries.

## **2.9 Other issues impacting the Jordanian educational system**

Although the educational system in Jordan has made good progress over the last few decades, it still undergoes and suffers from various internal and external influences which reflect negatively on the quality and variety of all levels of education. The ongoing Arab-Israeli conflict, the Gulf war and other conflicts in the Middle East have made huge impacts on the economy of Jordan. For example, in the 1990s, two political events had an important impact on Jordan's economy. First, the Gulf Wars forced a large number of workers and their families to return from Kuwait to Jordan. Second, the Jordanian-Israeli peace treaty of 1994 generated expectations of rapid economic developments (Sha'ban *et al.*, 2001).

Since the Iraq War in 2003 many fleeing Iraqis have settled in Jordan; latest estimates indicate between 700,000 and 1.7 million Iraqis are living in Jordan, mainly in the capital of Amman (Prados, 2006; Prados and Sharp, 2007; DOS, 2007). This is considered a major recurrent problem. From one side, it puts the educational system under the pressure of serving additional students who are coming from Iraq and Lebanon, as well as causing delays in construction and

technical assistance (World Bank, 2000). From the other side, Jordan spent a lot of money to prepare armed forces to maintain national security; leading to further decrease in educational spending (Shuna, 1993 cited in Bani Khalaf, 2001).

The Country Report (2000) has argued that the fast and sometimes unexpectedly growing population will cause unbalanced educational spending from the public budget; for example, the MOE has put the sum of 200,000 JD to provide schools with heaters and gas in winter time, but this sum is not enough to provide all schools. As a result, the teachers and students in the schools that already have central heating (only 70 schools in the whole kingdom) have to pay what is called “heating allowance” to cover gas expenses (Alghad newspaper, 2006b). There are some serious deficiencies in the educational system:

- There are continual and rapid changes in the Jordanian government, including the Ministers of Education (Jordan witnessed 89 government changes from 1921-2010), this lead to minimal opportunity for Ministers to implement and apply their educational policies and plans consistently. On one hand, this will negatively reflect on the quality of education and the development of the educational system (O’baydat, 1993). And yet on the other hand, this will affect teachers because they need to cope with the continuous changes in the educational system, which affects their work life.
- The MOE suffers from serious budget shortfalls, which makes it difficult to maintain and offer all the facilities (World Bank, 2000). Most Jordanian schools are in poor conditions and do not have most of the necessary educational facilities, such as libraries and laboratories. This is common in rural schools more than urban ones. Some of these schools are rented and do not meet the general standard criteria for schools (O’baydat, 1993).
- Teachers feel that not having a teachers' union is unjust and unfair because all other professions in Jordan have syndicates. Teaching is the most noble profession and teachers should be accorded the due recognition and respect they deserve (Adostour newspaper, 2006a). The teaching sector is considered the biggest service sector in Jordan. Therefore, teachers need somebody to convey their rights and duties on their behalf.
- There is no work experience prerequisite for those wanting to be teachers. The education system in Jordan does not pay attention to skills that might be gained from work

experience or training (informal education). It only recognises skills that are gained from formal education and the only criteria for hiring staff are their qualifications (Mryyan, 2003).

## **2.10 Summary**

This chapter provided a brief background about Jordan and its education system. The chapter provided background about curriculum, in-service training and training in computer technology, teachers' status and school environment. The chapter also discussed how issues have an impact on the educational system in Jordan as well as the problems that face it.

The next chapter will provide the reader with information about the Jordanian Tawjihi system and the issues related to said system

## **Chapter Three**

### **General Secondary Education Examination (GSEE)**

#### **(Tawjihi)**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to show the Tawjihi stage of the whole education system in Jordan and to illustrate the place of this stage within this system. This chapter also provides the reader with issues related to the Tawjihi system in detail.

The secondary education and the types of secondary education addressed by this study will be discussed in detail. The chapter also addresses the problems that face the Jordanian Twajihi system.

### **3.2 Secondary Education**

The main purpose of the secondary education is preparing students to access higher education (MOE, 1987, 2008; Raouf, 2007; Ajlouni, 2011). It is considered the link between basic and higher education. All students who complete the basic stage successfully are classified into one of two major programmes: the comprehensive secondary or the applied secondary education (O'baydat, 1993; MOE, 2002, 2008).

**3.2.1 The comprehensive secondary** includes one of two major streams: the academic streams and the vocational streams. Students are assigned to one of these two streams based upon their choice and academic abilities. Students who achieve the highest grades are placed in the academic stream, while those who achieve the lower grades (approximately 50-65%) are placed in the vocational streams (Nasrallah, 1992, 1993; O'baydat, 1993; MOE, 2002, 2008). Those who enter the academic streams can easily transfer to the vocational ones. The reverse is difficult and only possible if the grades are high enough (Country Report, 2000). The secondary students absorb 27% of the Vocational education, 6% of students are assigned to the applied secondary education and the remainder of secondary students are assigned to academic education (Mryyan, 2003).

#### **3.2.1.1 Academic Education**

The purpose of the academic streams is to prepare students for professional work (O'baydat, 1993). The academic streams include Scientific, Literacy and Information Management and



covers academic and professional fields. Starting from the scholastic year 2007/2008, the academic education expanded its streams to include the nursing stream while changing its name to Health Education; this caused a higher increase in student enrolment (Al-Baqa' Applied University Report, 2004).

### **3.2.1.2 Vocational Education**

Unemployment and poverty rates are relatively high in Jordan, so Jordan depends heavily on human resources. Vocational education and training is becoming more regarded as an effective and supportive way for combating poverty and unemployment (Country Report, 2000). The MOE has decided to introduce the vocational streams such as Industrial, Agriculture, Home Economics and Nursing, and to train and provide students with skills they need in the labour market. The MOE introduces vocational education starting with the basic education level (Nassrallah, 1993).

Recently, the MOE improved vocational education to suit students according to their abilities and motivations to reduce the waste of human resources (Nasrallah, 1992, 1993). The MOE devised many plans to help students and parents to make the decision regarding joining the vocational streams and to change the negative attitudes toward the vocational streams (MOE, 2006). In spite of that, vocational education still has many problems, namely:

1. Most of the vocational schools are located in cities and not in the villages due to the cost of building and equipment (Nasrallah, 1992, 1993; O'baydat, 1993). Therefore, students have to commute to the city every day to get to school. Travelling daily makes students tired, especially since Jordan's public transportation is overcrowded and not always available. Travelling is also an expensive cost for parents (National Report, 1996), especially since most of the students come from families with low economic status and low education levels (Rehaneh *et al.*, 1997).
2. All private schools are academic schools because establishing private vocational schools is too expensive (O'baydat, 1993).
3. Equipment and tools for the vocational streams are too expensive, in addition to a lack of local funding for the improvement of vocational education (O'baydat, 1993; Country Report, 2000). To compensate, the MOE allows vocational schools to carry out

productive projects and invest the profit to improve the schools (e.g. selling milk, yoghurt, fruit, vegetables) (MOE, 2008; Country Report, 2000) and help buy tools and equipment.

4. School counsellors are ineffective when it comes to convincing parents of the importance of vocational education as well as guiding students to choose the stream that suits their abilities (Melkawi, 1995; Rehane *et al.*, 1997).
5. There is inadequate communication between vocational education, training institutions and the labour market (Country Report, 2000).

A disparity exists between the number of students who join the academic streams and those who join the vocational streams (Nasrallah, 1992, 1993; O'baydat, 1993). Melkawi (1995) explains that the reasons behind this are as follows: Firstly, the opportunity to access universities is higher in academic streams than in vocational streams; secondly, parents and students feel that the vocational streams are not as important as academic streams; finally, parents and students feel ashamed of joining vocational streams because society places less value towards vocational streams than academic streams. Therefore, most students are left with two choices; to either join vocational streams or stay at home, and as a result, students' feel forced to join vocational streams. And yet another reason for low enrolment in vocational education is the everyday commute to vocational schools (Shehan newspaper, 2006a).

To reduce the gaps between students' abilities and encourage inter-access between the two streams and universities, the MOE gave the vocational education graduates the opportunity to use additional shared subjects (Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Mathematics) between the two streams. The vocational stream students who pass the Tawjihi examination, obtain a score of 65% or more and pass the additional subjects from academic streams, have the opportunity of apply to universities. However, they compete with academic stream graduates to study in different schools, such as science, agriculture and nursing, but not medicine, dentistry, pharmacy and engineering. In fact, this strategy increased the opportunity for vocational stream students to access universities. In the past, students could only apply to community college because they did not have the opportunity to access universities

Furthermore, since the academic level of the majority of the students' is low, the MOE makes the

vocational textbooks and the examination questions easier to help students' achieve better grades. As a result, those students who join the academic streams may not get good grades because the academic textbooks and examination questions are more difficult. Although this helped increase the percentage of vocational education students, it did not change society's negative attitude towards vocational education (Nasrallah, 1992, 1993; Imaddin, 2004; MOE, 2004).

**3.2.2 The applied secondary education.** This is two years of training after passing the basic stage. It provides students with vocational training and apprenticeship. Students with low achievement on the basic education join this programme. Students who finish this training are awarded only a Certificate of Attendance. The graduates have access to the labour market but not higher education. In order to be awarded the Tawjihi certificate they must take the Tawjihi examination after the two years of training. Vocational Training Corporation under the control of Ministry of Labour provides this type of education (Nasrallah, 1992, 1993; O'baydat, 1993; MOE, 2002).

### **3.3 Tawjihi Examination**

As mentioned in chapter one, Tawjihi, the General Secondary Education Certificate, is the official and accredited government secondary education examination in which students cannot graduate from high school without passing. 12<sup>th</sup> grade students sit for the Tawjihi examination in all subjects except Physical Education, Music and Art (Nasrallah, 1993). Tawjihi examination is standard. All Tawjihi students have examinations in the same subject, at the same time and date of the year. The Tawjihi examination lasts for almost one month. Muslim students have one more subject than other students due to an Islamic Education exam. The examination questions are written by a committee of experts, supervisors, professors and teachers who do not have children in the 12<sup>th</sup> grade and do not teach 12<sup>th</sup> grade students in order to ensure that the examination's questions remain safe and unknown. The committee is supervised by the General Directorate of Examinations and Tests in the MOE. Students pass if they get a grade of 50% or more in total. The students who do not succeed are allowed to retake the examination in December. Those who pass without getting good results may retake the examination the following scholastic year to improve their outcome (MOE, 2008). Generally, the most poorly performed subjects in academic streams are English, Mathematics, Chemistry, Physics and Accounting; and in vocational

streams, such as nutrition and diseases (Alfareh, 1994).

All teachers are allowed to invigilate the examination and only Tawjihi teachers mark the Tawjihi examination papers. The results are sent back to the Education and Teaching directorates who then distribute them to their schools. The number of students who take the Tawjihi examination is usually high and increases from year to year. For example, the number of Tawjihi students for the 2008/09 academic year was 93,244 (Alra'i newspaper, June, 2009) and 118,000 students for the 2009/10 academic year (Alra'i newspapers, June, 2010). Also, the number of Tawjihi students for the academic year 2010/2011 was 151,916 students (Alra'i newspaper, February, 2011).

### **3.4 The need for changing the Tawjihi system**

The majority of people, and not just the people involved in it, complain about the Tawjihi system. People feel that a system like Tawjihi cannot fairly evaluate students' academic ability. They feel that one examination in each subject cannot properly evaluate whether the student is good or not, especially when most of these questions are based on a student's ability to memorise information and not on understanding (Dowd, 2003).

Dowd (2003) argued that in developing countries the NCEs, the equivalent to Jordanian Tawjihi examinations, are considered as a gatekeeper for higher education and serve much the same purpose. For example, students' scores on the NCEs determine their academic or career future. Therefore, NCEs hinder educational reform, consequently hindering the political and economic reform.

Teachers, students and parents are all stressed by the Tawjihi examination. Teachers feel pressure because the students' performance reflects on them. They are under pressure because of the Tawjihi system itself, continuing change of educational legislation, regulations, teaching methods and societal attitudes, especially students and parents (Madbouh, 2011; Alra'i newspaper, 2006a). Teachers complain about their accountability for students and performance on the Tawjihi examination (Alra'i newspaper, 2006a). The families are preoccupied with their children's success on the Tawjihi, specifically because failing the Tawjihi examination brings shame upon the parents and students. This puts Tawjihi teachers under even more pressure and represents their failure (MOE, 1987).

Most students are very stressed because of the Tawjihi pressure. Tesdell (2007) argued that a professor of sociology at the University of Jordan argued that Tawjihi is a difficult experience for students because it is the only criteria for acceptance into university. If a student fails one subject, he/she fails the whole year, regardless of his/her achievement in the rest of the subjects, or the previous academic years. Tawjihi system also forces students to memorise and discourages creativity, which affects their ability to think carefully about their future education, and the university suffers from unprepared students. The pressure to obtain a high Tawjihi result affects students negatively. Potential psychological problems could result, such as stress, depression and anxiety. The entire family continually feels pressure when their child is studying for the Tawjihi. Therefore, they need to treat a Tawjihi student carefully because of the pressure the Tawjihi creates. Parents restructure their daily life to make everything as smooth as possible for their children (Tesdell, 2007; Madbouh, 2011). Tesdell (2007) also pointed out that economists argued that the Tawjihi is not to blame, but rather the rules and the system built around the Tawjihi, which makes the problems run deeper.

The increasing gap between public and private schools creates further tensions among society in general, and Tawjihi teachers and students, particularly because many private schools teach foreign educational programmes (Tesdell, 2007) and the students' performance on these foreign examinations is usually better than the students' performance on Tawjihi. For example, statistics show that in 2006, 85% of students passed the SAT exams, while 63.6% of students passed the Tawjihi (Raouf, 2007). The percentage of students who passed the winter period for the 2010/11 academic year was 77%; the academic stream percentage was about 80% while the percentage of the vocational streams was about 57% (Alra'i newspaper, February, 2011).

Mokbel (1991) argued that the Tawjihi system makes students study some subjects in order to pass. This has a negative effect because these subjects do not count towards the students' success in the Tawjihi examination; therefore, the students do not take these subjects seriously, and thus affects teachers.

Mokbel (1991) indicated that some teachers teach more than one subject, more than one class, more than one level. Dealing with different ages and different levels requires teachers to change their teaching methods from class to class, from one level to another, rendering them exhausted

and frustrated. He also pointed out that the weekly hours for some subjects (e.g. Mathematics, Physics) are not enough to enable teachers to finish the subjects, so it forces teachers to work harder and requires extra periods to complete the subjects on time. Sometimes teachers have to work on weekends or after-school, and may feel overburdened as a result.

Many schools are ranked based on the performance of their students on the national exams. For example, in Jordan, the quality of schools is judged by the number of students who pass the Tawjihi examination with high results. In other words, the number of students accepted at university, especially the public ones.

Another problem with national testing stems from using the same examination for many purposes. For example, Jaradat (1985) cited in Dowd (2003) also argued that Tawjihi results are used as acceptance criteria at universities or colleges and did not provide better predictors for students' university grades. In other words, the student who scored well in Tawjihi will not necessarily do well in university or college. The multiple purposes of the examination affect the validity of the examination as a predictor for future performance in higher education. Tawjihi is also used as an evaluation tool for Tawjihi students' performance and Tawjihi teachers' efforts.

### **3.5 Problems of Tawjihi System**

The following are some problems related to Tawjihi system:

- Connecting the university admission with the student's score on the Tawjihi examination.
- The constantly changing school curriculum and Tawjihi system affects teachers, students and parents. It affects teachers and puts them under time pressure, because the new curriculum requires training. It affects students, because the MOE usually introduces the new school curriculum late which puts them under time pressure. It affects parents because they need to buy new textbooks which are usually expensive.
- The Tawjihi system neglects the teacher's efforts the whole year and assesses him/her only on the students' performance on the Tawjihi. This is unfair and unpractical criteria for assessing the teacher's effectiveness. They also feel that the effort they exhibited

throughout the school year equates to just wasting time.

- The Tawjihi system also neglects the student's efforts throughout the academic year. The student may for some reason not do well on the exam, for example, dealing with the death of a loved one, despite having worked hard and done well throughout the year. This is also unfair; therefore, the MOE should include the students' entire yearly academic performance. This will not only help students raise their grade, but incite more interest in the school examinations as well as give Tawjihi teachers some means of control over students.

### **3.6 Reform the Tawjihi System**

In 2009, Khetam Malkawi and Wafa Samara wrote an article in the Jordan Times stating the MOE has proposed a new plan for the Tawjihi exams. This proposed plan includes the following:

- Splitting Tawjihi over four semesters (two years) instead of two (11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grades).
- Cancel all the streams at the secondary stage.
- The Higher Education Council would divide university majors into several categories, including scientific, administrative and other fields.
- Each field would require certain subjects to be passed in the Tawjihi to allow students to determine their academic futures at the secondary stage (e.g. Biology is a subject in the medicine field while accounting is in the business field).
- The MOE would issue an official certificate which would allow every student who has completed the 11th and 12th grades to work in both the public and private sectors.
- The Tawjihi will be used as an admission test for universities after passing a standard admission exam.

The MOE argued that the suggested system requires comprehensive study and evaluation before it is implemented. Furthermore, it requires changes to the curriculum to match the new system, implementing teacher training and improving the environment in schools. The suggested system may lessen the academic and psychological pressures on teachers, students and families, but

students, parents and even teachers are not yet prepared for this system, and in fact may need many years to be successfully applied in order for it to run smoothly. Additionally, it requires a high level of cooperation between the schools and other academic institutions. This plan is still under study; therefore, Tawjihi current system is still the common used system.

### **3.7 Private tutoring**

Private tutoring is another issue related to Tawjihi. The majority of students get private tutoring in the Tawjihi year or even the year before. Madbouh (2011) argued that Tawjihi students start taking private lessons the year before the Tawjihi, beginning even during the summer vacation. However, instead of summer vacation being a relaxing time, it becomes a heavy burden on students, families and the whole society. Alkhateeb *et al.* (1982) argued that 64.7% of scientific stream students get private tutoring in the subjects of Mathematics, English, Physics and Chemistry, while 35.3% of literary stream students get private tutoring in the subjects of English and Arabic. One of the reasons for getting private tutoring is receiving a high grade in the Tawjihi, especially since some subjects are difficult and students need additional help. The other reason is that those students who use private tutors may have lost their trust in schools, school teachers and their ability to teach them, which makes them misbehave towards school teachers in the classroom and keep them away from colleagues and teachers (Alkhateeb *et al.*, 1982).

Private tutoring does not guarantee passing the Tawjihi examination. For instance, some Tawjihi students get good grades without private tutoring and vice versa (Raouf, 2007; Alfareh, 1994; Alkhateeb *et al.*, 1982). Alfareh (1994) argued that private tutoring affects teachers because it weakens the relationship and causes distance between teachers and their students. Unfortunately, some private tutors consider this an opportunity to sever the relationship between school teachers and their students and build their own reputation while gaining parents and students' confidence. As a result, this causes the students to ignore their school teachers' efforts which end up affecting the teachers psychologically and emotionally.

Alkhateeb *et al.* (1982) and Alfareh (1994) argued that private tutoring also affects parents and puts them under financial pressure. Alfareh and Alrawashdeh in Alghad newspaper (2006b) pointed out that tutoring waste students' time. Alrawashdeh added that private tutoring makes students feel confused between the instructions of the school teacher and the private tutor.



Therefore, studying becomes disjointed rather than cohesive.

Alfareh recommended that the MOE should pay more attention to this dilemma and change the Tawjihi system to not make it the sole criteria for being accepted into a university. The MOE should reduce the Tawjihi teachers' workload so they can direct more attention to students who need help. The MOE should minimise the annual changes in curriculum and teachers. Finally, parents should be more cooperative with schools and increase their awareness of the importance of having a good relationship with their children's teachers.

Alkhateeb *et al.* (1982); Alfareh (1994) recommended establishing after school learning centres in each city/town to help students' in difficult subjects. These centres should also charge students a reasonable amount. The teachers who teach in these centres should be the students own school teachers rather than outside private tutors. This will help teachers financially and, at the same time, reduce the stress that they feel from private tutoring. This will also help students remove the confusion they feel between school teaching and private tutoring. Lastly, it will eliminate the competition between schoolteachers and private tutors for students.

### **3.7 Summary**

This chapter focused on the two types of secondary education, the academic education and the vocational education. It illustrated the place of this stage within the Jordanian educational system. It also addressed the Tawjihi system and its related issues, such as the challenges facing Tawjihi teachers. It explained the problems faced by Twajihi teachers, such as private tutoring and offered some solutions.

The next chapter will provide the reader with information about stress. It will provide the definition of stress, its models, sources of stress in general, and teacher stress specifically.

## Chapter Four

### Teacher Stress

#### 4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to review the theoretical premise of the study. It examines stress and its sources and stressors prevalent within the teaching setting.

The origin of the word 'stress' comes from the Latin words '*strictus*' which means strict and '*stringere*' which means to draw tight (Younghusband *et al.*, 2003). The term 'stress' is not new, as it was used in social science by Selye in the 1950s (Hobfoll, 1998). Selye (1956, 1979) described four types of stress individuals experienced: overstress or (Hyperstress); under stress or (Hypostress); bad stress or (Distress); good stress or (Eustress). He suggested that organisms respond to stress in three stages: the alerting response, the resistance response and the exhaustion response.

Selye (1956, 1979) argued that everyone experiences some degree of stress all the time. He suggested that stress does not have specific causes, as it can stem from a serious disease, intensive physical or mental injury, or simple and mundane activities such as a car breaking down. Furthermore, even experiencing joy can produce stress to some extent. People experience stress differently. For example, stress can develop into an illness for one individual yet be a stimulating experience for another. Moreover, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) asserted that when individuals perceived and interpreted an event as stressful, stress increases. They also pointed out that an individual reacts in different ways to certain environmental demands and pressures, which in turn produce different levels of stress. Individuals differ in their sensitivity and vulnerability to stress.

Selye (1974) argued that individuals sometimes need to experience stress to spark creativity and enhance good performance. However, if this stress exceeds certain levels it will be harmful for the individual's well-being (Selye, 1974; Di Martino, 2003), which could then lead to physical illness and psychological disorders (Bartlett, 1998). Some stress is normal and necessary and some is abnormal and unnecessary (Di Martino, 2003). Di Martino pointed out that individuals under normal conditions might be able to find responses to the new situation by using their

reaction mechanisms. Stress could be bad or good for individuals (Travers and Cooper, 1996) with either positive and/or negative consequences (Travers and Cooper, 1996; Folkman and Moskowitz, 2000).

The teaching profession in particular is considered a highly stressful job (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Cosgrove, 2000). School teachers experience different levels of stress from time to time (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b; Kyriacou, 1987; Borg, 1990; Beer and Beer, 1992; Wood, 2002; Kyriacou, 2005). Dunham (1992) pointed out that teachers have always worked under pressure, which sometimes exceeds their coping abilities, causing teachers to feel stressed. Kyriacou (1980a, 1997a); Travers and Cooper (1993) argued that teachers revealed that they experienced higher levels of stress compared to other professional groups

Issues regarding teacher stress have been investigated, such as: its effect on health and well-being (Tang *et al.*, 2001; Di Martino, 2003; Parslow *et al.*, 2004), job satisfaction (Borg *et al.*, 1991; Bishay, 1996; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Alghaswyneh, 2000; Miller and Travers, 2005), burnout (Kyriacou, 1987; Beer and Beer, 1992; Harden, 1999; Tang *et al.*, 2001; Wood, 2002; Colangelo, 2004), leaving the profession (Wilhem *et al.*, 2000; Ladebo, 2005; Kersaint *et al.*, 2007), retention and recruitment (Cockburn, 2000), teacher's perspective on teaching (Kyriacou *et al.*, 2003) and motivation to be a teacher (Kyriacou *et al.*, 1999). Prevalence of teacher stress, sources and symptoms of teacher stress and coping strategies has also been investigated too (e.g. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1977; Bertoch *et al.*, 1988; Griffith *et al.*, 1999; Schroeder, 2001; Hudson, 2004; Austin, 2005).

Many researchers focused on specific groups of teachers, such as: primary school teachers (Borg *et al.*, 1991; Cockburn, 2000), student teachers (Kyricaou, *et al.*, 1999; Kyricaou *et al.*, 2003), high school teachers (Loh, 1994; Chan, 1998) and school counsellors (DeMato, 2001).

Stress has been associated with increased depression and anxiety (Folkman and Lazarus, 1986; Isyanov and Calamari, 2004), psychological distress (Chan, 1998; 2002), burnout (Kyriacou, 1987; Beer and Beer, 1992; Harden, 1999; Tang *et al.*, 2001; Wood, 2002; Colangelo, 2004) and absenteeism (Brown and Uehara, 1999).

## 4.2 The definition of stress

Attempts to define stress have been many and varied from researcher to researcher based on his/her perspective. The researcher reviewed different definitions of stress to determine a clear definition and to explain the basis on which this research has been developed and expanded. Travers and Cooper (1996) argued that the variety of methods used to study stress, its existence and its nature led to a variety of conceptualising stress. Selye (1956, 1979, p1) defined stress as:

*“A neutral physiological phenomenon, in terms of the non-specific response of the human body to any demand”*

Selye argued that to understand stress we should understand both the demand itself and the individual response to this demand. In this context, stress could be a threat or stimulus, positive or negative, bad or good (Johnstone, 1989). In the same vein, Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p19) define stress differently:

*“Psychological stress is a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangered his or her well-being”*

From their point of view, the definition of stress distinguishes between two components of stress: the pressure imposed and the adaptive resources of the person to tolerate the pressure (Wilson, 2002). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) looked at stress in the same way Selye explained the meaning of negative stress. This suggests that negative stress is more common than positive stress. Burchfield (1985) cited in Bartlett (1998, p5) defined stress as:

*“Any transactional process in which the organism experiences an alteration of psychological homeostasis”*

The Royal College of General Practitioners (RCGP) defines stress (cited in Cosgrove, 2000, p28) as:

*“The physical, emotional and mental strain resulting from the mismatch between an individual and her/his environment which results from a three-way relationship between demands on a person, that person’s feelings about those demands and their ability to cope with those demands”*

Tyrer (2003, p6) defined stress as *“the reaction of the mind and body to change,”* broadening his

definition to include all kinds of changes, such as pleasant, unpleasant, exciting and boring. In teaching, Dunham (1992) suggested that there are three approaches to stress and understanding the nature of stress. These are:

- **The engineering model** looks at stress as the load or demand put upon individuals, such as teachers. Stress can be tolerated up to a point, but when it becomes intolerable this causes either psychological or physiological damage, or both. Wilson (2002) argued that in this definition, teachers are subjects rather than actors.
- **The medical approach** looks at stress as the forms of teachers' responses to the pressures put upon them. These may include emotional and bodily manifestations, such as headaches. In this definition, Wilson (2002) stated that teachers are the respondent when it comes to the conditions rather than the initiator.
- **The inter-actionist approach** is concerned with stress, pressure and responses from one side, and coping resources that are available to teachers from the other side. Wilson (2002) pointed out that this definition recognises that teaching as a profession could cause stress in teachers, and individual teachers react in different ways and use adaptive resources to cope with stress.

These approaches helped Dunham (1992, p3) to define his definition of stress as:

*“a process of behavioural, emotional, mental and physical reactions caused by prolonged, increasing or new pressures which are significantly greater than coping resources”*

Barllett (1998) divided the various proposed definitions into three categories:

- **Stimulus-based definition.** It looks at stress as an aspect of the environment, which causes a strain response in the person exposed to the stressful stimulus. This strain response leads to ill health. The stress-strain relationship viewed stress in terms of the demands placed upon the person from the environment.
- **Response-based definition.** It is based on the work of Selye's (1956, 1979), where stress is seen as a non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it. The response is often viewed in terms of a physiological response pattern that leads to an interruption

of the body's systems and prohibits them to work normally.

- **Interactional definition.** It is a combination of the stimulus and response models, in which stress is viewed as the response of the body to stressful stimuli in the environment according to its physiological changes. It also refers to the degree of mismatch between the person and environment, sometimes called the person-environment fit, or P-E fit (for more detail about the P-E fit, see the model of stress section).

Cockburn (1996a) differentiated between five types of stress, and suggested the following:

1. Here and now stress: this happens when a person finds him/herself in a situation that makes him/her stressed, such as examination time.
2. Stress of anticipation: thinking of a specific situation will make the person frustrated. For example, the thought of a driving test.
3. Imaginative stress: the person's imagination could drive him/her to frightening situations, which makes him/her think about many negative possibilities. For instance, hearing noise while he/she is alone.
4. Reactive stress: when a person calls to mind events that happened in the past. The intensity of the reactive stress experienced is determined by how stressful the events were as well as how frequent he/she is in recalling these events.
5. Chronic stress: is a negative stress which develops throughout a period of time. Stress could manifest over the course of days, weeks, months, or even years. It may be attributed to a single source, or from a combination of different opaque and diverse sources (Cockburn, 1996a).

Cockburn (1996a) argued that each person might experience at least one of these types of stress at various time, but the frequency, severity and intensity of the stress differs from one person to another. Knowing which type of stress an individual is suffering from is very important, and this could be the first step in dealing with the stress.

Currently, the most widely used definition of teacher stress was developed by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b, p159). They defined “teacher stress” as:

*“A response syndrome of negative affects (such as anger or depression) resulting from a teacher’s job.”*

Kyriacou (2001, p28) has redefined “teacher stress” as the:

*“Experience by teachers of unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher.”*

This definition is related to the interactionist approach and interactional definition of stress mentioned above, which focuses on the negative reactions of the pressure of the teaching profession and what kinds of reactions are included.

The different approaches taken in defining the general term of stress, and in teaching specifically, reveals how researchers look at stress from different perspectives. Some of them look at stress as a demand on a person; some of them see stress as a response to this demand, and others as a relationship between the demand and response while using available coping strategies. The most appropriate definition of stress included above that would suit the purpose of this research is Kyriacou’s (2001) definition. From the researcher’s opinion, stress can either be positive or negative. Positive stress motivates teachers to work and perform well, but extreme stress can induce a teacher to perform badly, which in turn becomes negative. According to Jonstone (1989), the role of positive stress to enhance performance and maintain motivation and creativity has been overlooked in current research. Therefore, this research is focused on stress as a negative phenomenon in terms of its level and how it affects teachers.

### **4.3 Ways of measuring stress**

A main problem that researchers faced dealt with how to measure teacher stress. The most commonly used approach by researchers is the self-report stress questionnaire. Some of these questionnaires contained simple and direct questions for teachers to report their overall level of stress on a response scale (Kyriacou, 2000), such as: “How stressful do you find being a teacher?” (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1977). Others contained questions about the frequency and

intensity of sources of stress and/or symptoms of stress. Afterward, the overall level of stress from teachers' response is computed. The second approach to measure teacher stress looked at physiological, behavioural and psychological symptoms of stress (e.g. absenteeism, leaving the profession, depression and anxiety) (Kyriacou and Pratt, 1985; Parslow *et al.*, 2004; Di Martino, 2003; Tang *et al.*, 2001; Colangelo, 2004).

Wilson (2002) argued that we should not dismiss the self-report inventory but rather be aware of the limitation of such methods (Borg, 1990). Wilson advised to triangulate sources of data to increase the validity of the findings. According to Reese (2002), using self-report questionnaires are strongly criticised. He explained that using a onetime questionnaire assumes that stress is a relatively stable state, does not consider the gap between the time of the stressful situation and the questionnaire response, and collects isolated facts about stress with little guidance from relevant theories.

Another way to measure teacher stress is to compare the teaching profession with other professions (doctors, nurses and social workers), while using high self-report ratings. However, the problem with this approach is the difference between how each profession understands stress. For instance, a general consensus does not exist regarding how stress is defined within the teaching profession, its application to medicine or psychology (Kyriacou, Sutcliffe, 1977), or how it may be understood in different ways depending on an individual's perception to this term (Johnstone, 1989).

Measuring teacher stress has developed into using new techniques. Wilson (2002) and Johnstone (1989) reported considerable development using observations, diaries and log books to help teachers record every event that makes them feel stress. Reese (2002) argued that these new techniques help teachers to record their thoughts, feelings and strategies to cope with stressful events as soon as the situation occurs.

According to Johnstone (1989), some studies used pretending stressful situations and asked teachers if these situations applied to them or not. Moreover, some questionnaires have a case study of stressful situations that some teachers may not have experienced, and thus affect how their answers.



All of these approaches of measuring teacher stress have their strengths and weaknesses. Self-reported questionnaires have provided useful information about teacher stress, its sources and symptoms. It has promoted researchers to make a comparison between subgroups and help others to build models of stress. However, researchers need to take into account the subjectivity in such questionnaires and apply caution when interpreting the findings (Kyriacou, 2000). Kyriacou (1987, p147) argued that:

*“Each type of measures has its own weaknesses and strengths, but overall self-report measures have proved to be the most useful”*

In the same vein, Travers and Cooper (1996, p3) argued that:

*“Although there have been many attempts to investigate the real causes and symptoms of teacher stress, often the findings of such studies have not been consistent. A major problem has been the variety of ways in which people have studied the phenomena of teacher stress, and also the fact that teachers are often reluctant to admit the extent to which they experience stress due to the fear that it may be seen as a weakness.”*

As a result of the above discussions and opinions, more than one approach of measuring stress could help increase the validity and reliability of these methods and give researchers more confidence when discussing and interpreting the findings. For these reasons, the researcher used the quantitative and qualitative approaches to measure stress (see the Methodology chapter for more details).

#### **4.4 Why study teacher stress**

Researchers debated that the effects of stress in teaching falls mainly on individual teachers and results in illness and absence. According to Colango (2004), teacher stress appears to be related to an increase in teacher absenteeism and/or early retirement, thus causing teachers to lose their love for teaching. According to Kyriacou (1997a), teacher stress is considered a problem because experiencing stress over long periods could lead to burnout, job dissatisfaction, lowered morale and enthusiasm for teaching, stress-related illness, sickness absence and completely leaving the teaching profession. Johnstone (1989) argued that absenteeism, illness, early retirement and teacher turnover are further indicators of stress in teaching. As Cooper and Crump (1978) cited in Travers and Cooper (1996) argued, dealing with people is more stressful than dealing with

things.

Wilson (2002) argued teacher stress could affect the individual teacher, schools, students and society. It has an economic effect on the education system regarding the cost of replacement teachers, lose of teaching time and absenteeism. The impact of teacher stress is not easy to calculate, as some teachers could use coping strategies while others are not necessarily stress free even if stress symptoms go unreported. Wilson (2002) argued that the number of teachers who report stress issues has increased and it is difficult to believe that their stress does not affect their interaction in the classroom or their students.

Kyriacou (1997b, 2000) indicated that teacher stress may undermine job satisfaction and the quality of a teacher's relationship with their students in the classroom. Having a positive classroom environment and good rapport with the students will reflect on effective teaching, while feeling stressed will make teachers have difficulty dealing with their problems and react with less composure or anger. Experiencing stress for some teachers affects their efficiency, as this can result in less formulated lesson plans.

Research also indicates that teacher stress is participating in both mental and physical ill-health (Kyriacou and Pratt, 1985). Kyriacou (1997b) argued that there are three key facets to explain this perception: the demands made upon teachers, a teachers' inability to meet these demands and the failure to meet these demands, will damage their mental or physical well-being.

According to Travers and Cooper (1996), the study of stress is important for two reasons: stress is related to some physical and psychological ill health, the necessity of knowing how stress causes illness, and a need to know the economic cost of providing health care to people who suffer from stress. They argued that as a result of stress, the last few years have witnessed an increased rate of absenteeism, turnover and early retirement. This led in some way to the phenomenon of "teacher-less classes", because this implies the loss of well-trained or experienced teachers. Therefore, it is important to investigate and identify the reasons behind teacher stress. Furthermore, they also indicated teacher stress increased the turnover at school and this will further affect the school stability and the relationship between teacher and students. Because of stress, the high level of teacher turnover increases the level of recruiting needed for

new teachers. Those new teachers are often temporary and inexperienced and as a result leave a negative effect on the school, not only financially, but damage the school environment as well. The researchers also argued that the effect of teacher stress on students within schools needs further research due to the difficulty in gathering the required information. Nevertheless, children require consistency in education, and having teachers continuously absent from school due to stress-related illnesses negatively affects the students' education. Negative reactions result because the students will need to constantly adjust to different teaching styles. Sometimes students reach a point of losing the confidence in their teachers' ability, weakening the role-model image of their teacher. The Independent (1990) cited in Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated that the number of retired teachers in the UK rose from 7,594 to 12,343 between the 1987/88 and 1989/90 academic year. Moreover, Brown and Ralph (1998) cited in Troman (2000) estimated that during 1998, the cost of teacher stress in the UK was 230 million pounds. Consequently, to help teachers reduce stress, we need to obtain a clear understanding and definition of teacher stress, the causes of teacher stress, in addition to its effects and symptoms.

#### **4.5 Prevalence of teacher stress**

The incidence of teacher stress has received considerable amount of attention over the past few years (Travers and Cooper, 1993; Cockburn, 1996b; Kyriacou, 2001). Many researchers who are interested in stress in teaching have attempted to estimate the percentage of teachers who actually experience high levels of perceived stress. These studies help us get to know how stressful teaching is as a profession (e.g. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978).

In 1990, Borg reviewed a multitude of research on stress in the British educational settings. He concluded that a substantial number of teachers in British schools considered their job either very stressful or extremely stressful. In an international review of teacher stress and burnout, Kyriacou (1987) indicated that teacher stress was not only widespread throughout the UK, but common in other countries as well: the USA, Israel, Canada and New Zealand. He concluded that teacher stress is not just a British phenomenon, but a worldwide phenomenon. Unfortunately, Travers and Cooper (1996) conceded that stress describes exactly what most teachers currently experience in schools throughout the UK.

Research carried out in different countries dealing with teacher stress revealed that up to one third of teachers surveyed reported their job as stressful or extremely stressful (Madini, 2005). For example, Loh's (1994) study showed that , 65% of teachers in Hong Kong felt considerable to extreme stress, while Shu's (2003) study reported tutor-teachers experiencing high levels of stress. American studies have found that teachers experience slightly higher levels of perceived stress (Hudson, 2004). Furthermore, Jaoul's *et al.* (2004) study indicated teachers considered themselves stressed. Tenant (2007) argued that literature clearly indicates teaching is a stressful occupation on all levels. According to Jurado *et al.* (1998), 34.9% of teachers in public schools and 21.3% of teachers in private schools in Spain were considered depressed.

In contrast, Arab countries reveal a shortage of research in teacher stress. However, some Arab researchers investigated stress within the educational setting and studied only specific groups of educational staff. For example, in Saudi Arabia, Madini (2005) reported that 90% of kindergarten teachers stated their job as either moderately or very stressful. In Bahrain, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos' research (1996) indicated that 71.45% of teachers stated that teaching profession is a stressful job. Benmansour (1998) established that over half of Morocco's high school teachers revealed they experienced high levels of stress. Gaziel (1993) indicated that Arab and Jewish teachers acknowledged the existence of stressful situations and conditions within their school settings. Currently, there is an increased attention to the study of stress in teachers in Jordan. For example, Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) found that teachers suffer from psychological stress. Abu Hmaidan and Al-azzawi (2001) found that stress increases throughout time when comparing the level of stress in the past with its level currently and the expecting level in the future.

#### **4.6 Model of Stress**

Some researchers investigating stress focused on studying the models of stress. The first model is the P-E fit. French *et al.* (1982 cited in Verdugo and Vere, 2003) mentioned that the person-environment fit (P-E fit) theory focuses on the relationship between individuals and their work. According to this theory, stress results from the lack of a connection (fit) between individuals and their work, as well as to what extent employees' use their own skills and knowledge towards their work.

A second model is the demand-control theory espoused by Karasek cited in Di Martino (2003). This model is based on three variables:

- Demand (psychological demands): is a result from the pressure put on the person by the work environment, such as workload and long working hours.
- Control (decision latitude): it includes: autonomy, responsibility, skilfulness, training and experience that gives a person the freedom to respond to his/her work demands and pressures.
- Support (social support): such as: organisational culture, work environment, management style, help from co-workers, involvement, participation and team work.

Four situations can be identified by combining control and demand:

- Passive- Low control/Low demand: when an employee has little control combined with low demand, stress will be experienced in the form of monotony and boredom.
- High Strain- Low control/High demand: when an employee has little control with high demand, leading to high stress.
- Low Strain- High control/Low demand: when an employee has a lot of control and low demand, stress is minimal.
- Active- High control/High demand: when an employee has a high demand for his services and high control. This leads to stress with the feeling they can somehow manage this stress.

Turning to teacher stress, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978a) developed a model for teacher stress. In this model they differentiate between the potential sources of stress and the actual sources of stress. The teacher's perception of the potential sources of stress as a threat to their well-being or self-esteem turns the potential sources to *actual* sources of stress. Also, biographical characteristics, situational demands, past experiences, as well as differences in the appraisal process in an individual can make a potential stressor an *actual* stressor. Personal characteristics

of teachers, such as their personality, attitudes and their ability to cope with demands affects the way they appraise the potential sources of stress and their coping behaviour. In their model, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978a) explained teacher stress is directly related to what degree teachers appraise the threat and their inability to deal with the actual stressors using their coping mechanisms.

#### **4.7 Who is stressed?**

Kyriacou (2000) argued that teachers differ in the levels of stress they experience. In addition, Johnstone (1989) argued that good teachers are just as likely to be stressed as poor teachers. Furthermore, we should rephrase the question from who is stressed, to who admits to stress? Some factors should be taken into account when talking about admitting to stress.

##### **4.7.1 Stress and biographical factors**

###### ***4.7.1.1 Male/female differences***

Women are considered to be more stressed, or more able to admit to stress (Johnstone, 1989). Women also have higher levels of stress than men according to (Griffith *et al.*, 1999; Antoniou *et al.*, 2006; Ravichandran and Rajendran, 2007). According to Schonfeld (1992), female teachers experience above average levels of psychological distress, while Antoniou *et al.* (2006) commented that stress in female teachers was influenced by interactions with students, colleagues, workload and students' progress.

###### ***4.7.1.2 Age differences and teaching experience***

Age and experience of teachers are also related. Hence, these factors need to be considered when studying them together (Johnstone, 1989). In addition, new teachers are more likely to admit to stress (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1977; Yagil, 1998; Admiraal *et al.*, 2000).

##### **4.7.2 Stress and location factors**

###### ***4.7.2.1 Type of school***

The types of school (e.g. special education; large schools) are the places to find stress. Indeed, some locations (e.g. close to noisy place) may seem intrinsically stressful (Johnstone, 1989). McCormick (1996) found that rural teachers experience slight stress. Schools where parents experience financial hardship produce significant levels of stress among teachers (Pratt, 1978).

#### ***4.7.2.2 Role in the school***

The demands of specific managerial and administration roles, role conflict and role ambiguity play a role in teacher stress (Johnstone, 1989).

#### **4.7.3 Personality factors affect admitting to stress** (Johnstone, 1989), such as:

##### ***4.7.3.1 Locus of control***

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979b); Kyriacou (1980b, 2000); Wah (2001) found that teachers with an internal locus of control personality were less stressed than those who are external locus of control. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979b); Kyriacou (1980b, 2000) explained that teachers with an internal locus of control personality see themselves as in control of their lives and have power over events that affect them. In contrast, teachers with external locus of control personality see themselves as powerless when exposed to problems that need to be managed.

##### ***4.7.3.2 Neurotic personality***

Travers and Cooper (1996) pointed out that teachers who admit to stress are those who have a naturally neurotic disposition. Kyriacou (2000) pointed out that teachers with a neurotic personality always worry about things, consistently projecting their problems at work towards their own life.

##### ***4.7.3.3 Type A and Type B personality***

Teachers who exhibit Type A personality tend to overload themselves with hard work and leave every task to the last minute, are prone to stress, heart disease and stroke (Travers and Cooper, 1996; Cockburn, 1996a; Kyriacou, 2000). In contrast, teachers with Type B personality are calm, easy-going and not highly ambitious (Cockburn, 1996a; Kyriacou, 2000).

#### **4.8 What are the main sources of teacher stress?**

Sources of stress differ from one job to another. Researchers investigated causes of stress by using questionnaires and interviews (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1977). Kyriacou (2001) argued that sources of stress may differ from one teacher to another. For example, what makes one teacher stressed will not necessarily make another teacher stressed; it depends on the personality, perception, skills and circumstance.

In more detail, Kyriacou (1997b, 2000) argued the following question: Why do some teachers who experience the same situation experience high levels of stress while others experience low levels of stress? He explained that experiencing stress heavily depends upon how teachers view their circumstances. For one teacher it may be maintaining class discipline, whilst for another it may be teaching too many periods per week. There are also differences between teachers in the extent that they feel they can control the situation they are faced with. Some teachers perceive some situations as threatening to their self-esteem and well-being which causes stress, while others perceive they can deal with such situations successfully. Individual teacher's appraisals of what the situation means to them is a main factor in causing stress.

Harlow (2008) argued that teachers everywhere face the same kinds of stressors. He found teachers experience three main kinds of stressors: role stress, such as extra work and lack of materials and resources; life stress, related to all areas of teachers' life; and task stress, such as discipline problems and paperwork. Cosgrove (2000) assured that causes of stress in teaching are the same everywhere, and identified this repeatedly in study after study. These causes are: ill discipline, poor motivation, disruptive students, poor working conditions, time pressures and low status. Faure (1973) cited in Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated the main problem that faces teachers is the preparation of students for a future society that does not yet exist.

Travers and Cooper (1993) mention that the main sources of teacher stress are: student-teacher interaction, management/structure of school, overcrowding in school, changes taking place within education, appraisal of teachers, the concerns of management, lack of status/promotion opportunities, cover and staff shortage, job insecurity and ambiguity about the teacher's role.

Travers and Cooper (1996), after reviewing much research in teacher stress, found the main sources of stress to be: physical working conditions, work overload, work underload, working long hours, role ambiguity, role conflict, responsibility for others, poor relationship with colleagues, students and administrators, the type of school, career development, organisational structure and climate, the home/work interface, the personality of individual teacher and social support. Travers and Cooper (2003) later added the following as sources of stress in teachers: lack of support from the government, lack of a professional status, low salary, lack of promotional opportunities, students' behavioural problems, lack of non-contact time and the need



to assess the students.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b) indicated that the main sources of stress teachers reported were: trying to uphold/maintain values and standards, poorly motivated students, covering lessons for absent teachers, an abundance of work and lack of time for marking. Kyriacou (1987) added: disruptive students, students' poor attitudes to work and an extra heavy workload. According to Borg (1990); Borg *et al.* (1991) and Kyriacou (1997a, 1997b), the sources of teacher stress were classified into seven major categories:

- Poor student behaviour, e.g. low motivation level, student discipline.
- Time pressure and workload (Borg, 1990; Borg *et al.*, 1991; Kyriacou, 1997b).
- Poor school ethos, e.g. poor relationships with the head teacher and between colleagues.
- Poor working conditions (e.g. lack of school facilities and resources).
- Poor promotion and inadequate salary (Borg *et al.*, 1991; Kyriacou, 1997a, 1997b).
- Coping with change (Kyriacou, 1997a, 1997b).
- Students with poor attitudes towards work (Borg *et al.*, 1991; Kyriacou, 1997a).

Kyriacou (2001) added role conflict, role ambiguity, being evaluated by others, self-esteem, status, poor administration and management as further sources of stress.

As Johnstone (1989) argued, the more detail the teacher provides about stress, the more difficult it becomes to give a brief and non-personal list of causes. She argued that many researchers concur in finding the major causes of stress in teaching such as:

- Students' failure to work or to behave.
- Poor working conditions, generally in terms of relations with colleagues.
- Workload, in terms of overload and underload. Routine work may be viewed as boring and repetitive. An underload of work may be just as stressful as an overload.
- Poor school ethos.

She added that structural factors, for instance, role conflict, role ambiguity and everyday hassle such as: completing work, daily paperwork and class discipline are more stressful than infrequent arguments with students or colleagues. Shu (2003) identified the main sources of stress that faced tutor-teachers in China as the following: long work hours, performance standards evaluated by their relation to students, parents and class performance, poor inter-personal relation between

teachers and poor physical conditions such as: large class size, lack of a personal office and poor pay. When reviewing the literature in teacher stress in the UK, Wilson (2002) found that researchers agreed that the main sources of teacher stress were: workload, poor school conditions, students' behaviour, change, raising standard and school merger.

Dunham (1992) mentioned that teachers reported the following as the main sources of stress:

- **Role conflict and role ambiguity:** Role conflict occurs, for example, when parental expectations of their children's achievement, behaviours and attitudes conflict with staff expectations. Role ambiguity occurs when there are doubts and uncertainties about teachers' roles, their responsibilities and lack of information regarding how their work is being assessed.
- **Pressures of children's behaviour,** such as: arriving late, smoking in the toilets, refusing to work, joking remarks to the teacher, open abuse to the teacher, talking when the teacher is talking, packing up early, failing to bring homework, refusing punishment and leaving the class early.
- **Difficult working conditions,** which can generate three kinds of pressures: physical, financial and organisational. The **physical aspects** could be: badly constructed buildings with inadequate sound-proofing, high noise levels, split-site school with consequent difficulties of commuting between buildings, which make the communication between colleague's poor, broken windows, blinds and unpainted walls. The **financial aspects** could be: small school budgets that lower levels of expenditure on equipment, textbooks, possible redeployment of teachers, poor promotion opportunities and awarding teachers. The **organisational aspects** include: poor communication between school staff, poor time planning, heavy workloads, inappropriate leadership styles, poor co-operation between the academic and administrative staff and a constantly changing school policy.
- **Organisational and curricular changes,** which include using new methods to assess teacher work, new teaching methods, new curriculum and development plan to help students and parents.

Moreover, Cockburn (1996a) indicated that a head teacher is considered a source of stress. Cockburn (2000) further added that students' progress (academic and social), relationship with colleagues and support when needed, are other sources of stress. She argued inspectors are one of

the factors that make teachers feel uncomfortable. It is considered a kind of violation that somebody is watching you teach and evaluating you, rather than giving you feedback, especially for novice teachers. Paulse (2005) indicated the main sources of stress in South African teachers were: administration, support, student behaviour, the classroom, parents, professional competency and personal competency. The major sources of stress mentioned by Tennant (2007) were: workload, time pressure, organisational and educational changes. Loh (1994) indicated the main sources of teacher stress in Taiwan were: marking work, students' discipline and students' performance in public examinations. In Ghana, Schroeder *et al.* (2001) indicated the most stressful events teachers experienced in teaching were: lack of accommodation for teachers, lack of free education for teachers' children and low salaries. While in Nigeria, Duyilemi (1992) cited in Arikewuyo (2004) indicated the main sources of stress among teachers were: lack of resources for teaching, delay in promotion, students coming to classes without necessary writing materials, having to teach large classes and poor student attitudes towards work.

In Arab countries, some researchers tried to identify the most common and significant sources of stress among teachers. In Bahrain, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) found the main sources of professional frustration in teachers were: lack of professional status, low salary and promotional opportunities, poor suitability of educational rules and regulation to teachers, lack of support, non-existent teachers' union, workload and low level of students' motivation. In Palestine, Hilo (2004) indicated most sources of stress facing secondary school teachers are: physical incentives (salary), moral incentives, workload, job environment, role ambiguity and relation with colleagues. In Jordan, Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) found the main sources of psychological stress in teachers were: low income, relationship with local community and parents, extra curriculum, school environment and the teaching process. Abu Hmaidan and Al-azzawi (2001) found the main factor affecting teachers was economic status. In the West Bank, Al-Khohen (2001) found the main sources of stress facing special education teachers were: income, student's characteristics, relations with handicapped student and his/her parents, relations with administrators, curriculum, professional development, social status, working with handicaps, work overload and relationship with colleagues. Madini (2005) identified the following as main sources of stress facing kindergarten teachers in Saudi Arabia: unsuitable working environment, including the building and equipment, lack of space, both for classroom and playground,

insufficient equipment and materials, renovation, maintenance and feeling undervalued by their organisation. Benmansour (1998) indicated the main sources of stress among Moroccan high school teachers as: curriculum-related, student-related, classroom-related and work load. Wraikat and Ja'rah (1994) identified the following as the most common problems facing kindergarten teachers in Jordan: lack of clear kindergarten philosophy, high expectations of parents which do not coincide with the children's ability, teaching long hours, lack of kindergarten educational expertise and shortage of educational games. Alkhrisha (2002) cited in Bataineh (2009) found that the major sources of stress of teachers in Jordan are as follows: workload, low salary, lack of self-esteem, lack of in-service training opportunities and lack of access to new information and knowledge.

After reviewing the research literature, it is noticeable that sources of stress are many and varied based upon the study context. Also, the current sources of stress seem to have changed from the sources of the past. Borg (1990) further explained this may be because of the life changes in the country. Additionally, there are similarities between the causes of teacher stress in both the Eastern and Western countries, such as: poor student behaviour, poor school ethos, poor working conditions, workload, poor promotion, inadequate salary and status (Madini, 2005). Factors related to culture, education systems and work environment in each country also create differences among teachers (Gaziel, 1993; Madini, 2005).

When reviewing literature in Arab countries, the researcher found limited sources aimed at identifying the sources of stress in Tawjihi teachers. However, those Arab researchers who studied teacher stress focused more on sources of stress in teachers generally rather than Tawjihi teachers. For example: Madini (2005) studied kindergarten teachers; Al-Khohen (2001) and Bataineh (2009) studied special education teachers; Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) and Hilo (2004) and Benmansour (1998) studied high school teachers. Currently, Madbouh (2011) studied how Tawjihi examination affects the teachers' teaching methods as well as students' learning methods in relation to how both prepare for the examination.

As the researcher noticed, each researcher tried to make his/her work appear different from others. Each researcher classified these sources of stress into different main factors, in spite of the fact that most causes of stress are similar in different countries. It is important to identify the

main and most common sources of stress in Jordanian Tawjihi teachers. Based on the classification from previous studies and the pilot study, causes of stress in Twajih teachers can be classified by the following factors:

1. Factors related to school environment and facilities.
2. Factors related to administrators.
3. Factors related to supervisors.
4. Factors related to colleagues.
5. Factors related to education system regulations and policy.
6. Factors related to teaching difficulties.
7. Factors related to the students.
8. Factors related to the parents and community/public.
9. Factors related to work.
10. Factors related to personal circumstances.

#### **4.9 The Negative Aspects of Stress**

Stress affects people differently. According to Kyriacou and Sutcliff (1977); Dunham (1992) and Jurado *et al.* (1998), the manifestations of stress are: physical (e.g. peptic ulcers, cardiovascular, hearts disease, fatigue); behavioural manifestations (e.g. appetite disorders, excessive smoking and alcohol, violence or sleep disturbances, absenteeism, leaving the profession); and psychological or emotional manifestations (e.g. depression, anxiety, dissatisfaction, low self-esteem and burnout). Dunham (1992) also added mental symptoms such as, lack of time available to devote to the problems and being indecisive about most of the problems.

Teachers in Dunham (1992) reported that their first reaction to stress is frequently frustration, which causes an array of feelings such as irritation and aggression. According to Kyriacou (2000), teachers reported the most common symptoms of stress at work as: irritability, depression, feeling unsettled, short temper, feeling off colour, stomach complaints, general aches and pains, compulsive thoughts about work, feeling tense, feeling tearful, sleeplessness, loss of sex drive, feeling tired, mouth ulcers, indigestion and panic attacks. Loh (1994) indicated that around 60% of teachers reported they had thought of quitting teaching and even changing to another field of work. Kyriacou (1987) argued that because of stress the number of teachers

retiring early has increased.

In some cases when stress continues and is cyclical, stress-related illnesses may lead to simple symptoms such as headaches, to an extreme symptom, such as burnout (Kyriacou, 2000; Colangelo, 2004), or job dissatisfaction (Travers and Cooper, 1996). Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) found that teachers who experienced stress were dissatisfied with their teaching job.

#### **4.10 Summary**

The word stress has been used by many people in many different ways. Generally speaking, most people regard the experience of stress at work as something to do with anxiety or depression caused by having to work under pressure; therefore, this chapter provided different researchers' perspectives on the definition of stress. Selye (1956, 1979) was the first to use stress in social science and provided the four types of stress. Psychologists Lazarus and Folkman (1984) used the term stress in their field (1984). Dunham (1992) studied stress in teaching and recognised stress as different reactions caused by increased pressure and lack of coping resources. Travers and Cooper (1996) identified stress as environmental factors that act as a stimulus. Kyriacou (2001) also studied stress in teaching and introduced a more specific definition of stress. His definition in (2001) considered the most appropriate definition to apply to this study and helped in gathering the required data.

Furthermore, this chapter introduced the previous research that dealt with sources of stress in teaching and the negative aspects of stress. Different ways of measuring stress in teaching were considered in order to assess the appropriate ways to collect the data for this research study. Models of stress were discussed in this chapter as well. The affect of stress on teachers, students and the whole school opened the way to explain the reasons behind studying stress in teachers. In addition, this chapter illustrated that most of the literature identified increasing stress levels among teachers, although it differed from country to country, due to culture and education systems. Therefore, the researcher considered that as one of the justifications to study stress in Jordanian Tawjihi teachers.

The next chapter will deal with the literature of coping strategies that teachers could use to reduce stress.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Coping Strategies**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to review the theoretical premise of the concept of coping with stress. In order to tackle the existence of stress in teaching, the issue must be acknowledged. Unfortunately, some teachers associate their admitting stress with personal weakness and professional incompetence (Dunham, 1992). Therefore, they do not ask for help or discuss professional problems with others (Dunham, 1992; Kyriacou, 2000).

Lazarus and Folkman (1987) indicated the interest of studying coping strategies started in the 1970s along with the growing interest in stress. Folkman and Lazarus (1988) indicated that research in stress proved that stress itself doesn't just influence the individuals' well-being, social function and ill health, but also the strategies individuals use to cope with stress. Gaziel (1993) argued that the recent surge in studying coping strategies is becoming very important in helping deal with stress, as stress not only affects stressed teachers, but also affects the whole school community. From his perspective, Dunham (1992) identified that coping has two purposes: firstly, changing the stressful situation either by being aware of the stressful situation, or changing the person's perception of the situation. Secondly, dealing with the thoughts, feelings and bodily reactions (e.g. emotionally and physically reactions) to stress, rather than changing the stressful situation. Moreover, Travers and Cooper (1996) argued that coping helps people to deal with stress either by attempting to modify the environment, or to learn different ways to change the way a person responds to a specific situation.

In order to deal with stress, immediate action should be taken to more effectively and successfully relieve stress. The faster an individual confronts stressful situations the ability to effectively deal with stress becomes easier, therefore lessening how stress impacts the body (Kyriacou, 2000). He also indicated that teacher's ability to deal with stress helps maintain a high quality of teaching, as coping effectively with work stress is a big challenge, not just for individual teachers, but for the teaching profession as a whole. Moreover, Yagil (1998) argued that teacher's experience may influence the success of coping strategies. He explained that inexperienced teachers do not have opportunities to develop effective coping strategies, and at

the same time they are unaware of the potential causes of stress. Therefore, they do not have the ability to distinguish between stress factors that they are able to change and the ones that they are unable to easily change. On the other hand, acknowledging the specific actions that help them to cope with stress.

## **5.2 Definition of coping strategies**

Bartlett (1989) states that coping is a wide-ranging concept as it can involve anything the individual can do in order to help him/her deal with stress. Lazarus (1993) pointed out that coping strategies describe what people do, act and think to cope with stress. In their pioneering work, Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p 141) defined coping as:

*“Constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person.”*

According to this definition, coping with stress could result from a number of things, ranging from attempting to control or change the stressful situation, to controlling the person’s emotions, feelings and behaviours.

According to Hobfoll (1998), coping is the behavioural way a person deals with stress. Carver *et al.* (1989) looked at coping as a characteristic of people because people display a wide range of coping behaviours in different situations.

Kyriacou (1997b) defined coping as actions that teachers can adapt to reduce stress, while Schweizer and Dobrich (2003) considered coping as the behaviour that can be selected from various strategies to cope with stressful situations or events, which can then vary according to their consequences.

From the researcher’s point of view, coping with stress relates to all techniques or actions that any person uses to help reduce stress or minimise the negative effects of stress. These actions could be taken individually, or by the organisations or government, since researchers found that a teacher’s ability to deal with the causes of stress affects the level of stress he/she experiences.



### **5.3 How to measure coping strategies?**

Although there was an increase in the number of research studies of stress and coping strategies, there still exists a lack of suitable methods to measure coping (Folkman and Lazarus, 1988). Folkman and Lazarus developed a measure to study different coping processes (actions and thoughts), that individuals adapt to deal with stressful situations. This measure is called Ways of Coping (WOC) (Lazarus and Folkman, 1986, 1988). It consists of a series of predicates, each of which describes coping thoughts or actions that people sometimes engage in when under stress. Respondents indicate whether they used one or more of these responses in a given stressful transaction.

Self-reported symptoms of stress is another technique teachers used to tackle stress, such as tearfulness, apathy, passivity, withdrawal and displaced aggression. Even when teachers' report in the self-report that he/she has no stress, this may indicate that the teacher is coping with stress by denying its existence (Johnstone, 1989). Folkman *et al.* (1986) argued that using the self-report as it is, is the only way to obtain certain information for some kinds of psychological processes.

COPE was developed by Carver *et al.* (1989) and is another measurement to assess the coping strategies used by a person in different stressful situations. The COPE has overlaps with the WOC, and also includes other new strategies, such as suppressing activities and turning to religion. The full COPE is a 60-item instrument with four items per scale. Because of its length and the redundancy that make the respondents impatient to complete the COPE, the Brief COPE was developed, containing 14 scales of two items each (Carver, 1997).

### **5.4 Type of coping strategies**

According to Kyriacou (1997a, 1997b, 2001), coping actions can be classified into two main categories: direct action techniques and palliative techniques.

Kyriacou (2000) categorised the direct action techniques into five categories: direct attack, enhance your skills, the ability to act, adapt to the situation, remove the source of stress and seek

colleagues' help. In the direct attack, teachers use the actions they have already acquired and have the ability to deal successfully with the source of stress. Enhance your skills and the ability to act: teachers need to improve and update their actions, skills and abilities, or even develop new actions and skills to deal with the source of stress. Teachers who adapt to the situation developed actions to suit the source of stress they faced. Teachers who remove the source of stress need to remove the source of stress or avoid the triggers in some way. Seeking help from colleagues could offer real help to deal with problems and receive practical advice.

Palliative strategies include two approaches: mental techniques and physical techniques. Mental techniques include: putting things into perspective, seeing the humour of the situation, thinking of positive things and using emotional control; physical techniques include: listening to music, going out for a walk and engaging in different kinds of sport, such as tennis.

Indirect active strategies include talking to others about the source of stress or seeking social and emotional support (Austin *et al.*, 2005). Teachers could possibly reduce stress by discussing the stressful situation with a trusted colleague or friend. Usually, people feel less stress after talking to colleagues, especially if their colleagues can suggest solutions for the problem. Brownell (2006) argued that choosing the person who you discuss the problem with is very important. Moreover, a trusted person who can keep confidence and see the bright side of the stressful situation will provide further source of support. Changing the way people perceive the source of stress (Brownell, 2006), involve: other activities, seeking social life outside of school, finding hobbies and exercising, provide helpful ways to emotionally and mentally take teachers away from work (Kyriacou, 1997b ; Brownell, 2006). This gives teachers the chance to find the time to enjoy themselves when involved in exercising or engaged in another activity (Brownell, 2006).

In the same context, Lazarus and Folkman (1984, 1987) and Lazarus (1993) divided coping into two types: First, emotion-focused coping strategies which are used to reduce and manage the emotional distress associated with stressful situations. It includes strategies such as: avoidance, minimisation, distancing and selective attention. Individuals who feel they have little or no control over the situation are more likely to use these kinds of strategies; they try to ignore the problem until they can find a solution. Second, problem-focused coping strategies are used to solve the problem by determining exactly what the problem is, such as producing alternative

solutions to solve the problem; comparing these alternatives in terms of their costs and benefits; choosing among them and acting. Individuals are more likely to use these kinds of strategies when they feel they have high control over the situation and are able to look for a solution and find it. These kind of coping strategies are more effective.

## **5.5 Coping with changes**

Enormous changes have taken place in teaching within the last few years (Travers and Cooper, 1996; Cockburn, 2000). These changes required teachers to be trained to equip them and make it easier to deal with them. It is not only that the majority of the changes are basically defective, but that the individual teachers have been unable to cope with the rate and extent of the change, particularly because most of these changes have been introduced without piloting or adequate preparation. Kyriacou (2001) suggested paying more attention to coping with change, as change constantly occurs within education systems, curriculums and assessment procedures, thus imposing further stress upon teachers.

Change occurs not only in regulations, but potentially attitudes as well. Travers and Cooper (1996) mentioned changes in societal attitudes toward teachers and teaching, and in regards to a teacher's role. For example, nowadays teachers are expected to fulfil the role of an educator, deputy parent, disciplinarian, friend, helper and social worker. Teachers' responsibility has increased, while the family and community role has decreased in regards to taking responsibility for pupils (Travers and Cooper, 1996). These changes resulted in disappointed teachers who feel the need to express their concerns and bring the issue of teacher stress into the spotlight.

Travers and Cooper (1993) suggested the following to help teachers deal with changes as a source of stress:

- Changes should be tested before implemented on schools, teachers and students.
- Changes should be introduced at a gradual rate as existing practices are disregarded or totally replaced.
- Those who designed changes should spend time in schools to see the current teaching practices and be in touch with daily activities in order to make the right changing decisions.

- Adequate resources should be available in order to implement the changes successfully.

### **5.6 Teachers' adopted coping strategies**

Attention has been paid to coping strategies that teachers may adopt. For instance, the researcher reviewed the literature related to coping strategies teachers used in order to deal with work-related stress. This topic was well cited in previous research studies, such as Kyriacou, 1980b; Cockburn, 1996a,b and Murray-Harvey, 1999. Kyriacou (2000) argued that all jobs involve stress, and teachers experience stress from time to time as a part of their job. Therefore, the most important skill that teachers need to have is to have effective coping strategies. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) argued that the person is called resourceful if he/she has the resources and the ability to find the resources to cope with stress. Arikewuyo (2004) and Wootton (1992) argued that no single approach could help all situations or all individuals. Thus, a range of coping strategies is required to help teachers cope with stress.

Wootton (1992) suggested three ways to help teachers deal with stress: first, trying to resolve or change the stressful situation. Second, sharing experience with colleagues. Third, developing effective strategies to cope with stress. Vigil (2005) argued that it is necessary to give individuals opportunities to learn the strategies required to manage stressful situations in order to improve their performance and enhance their well-being.

Kyriacou (1980b, p58) indicated that teachers reported the following as the most frequent coping actions:

- Try to keep things in perspective.
- Try to avoid confrontations.
- Try to relax after work.
- Try to take some immediate action.
- Stand back and rationalise the situation.
- Try to nip potential sources of stress in the bud.
- Try to reassure yourself everything is going to work out all right.
- Do not let the problem go until you have solved or reconciled it satisfactorily.
- Make sure people are aware that you are doing your best.

- Think objectively about the situation and keep your feelings under control.

Kyriacou and Pratt (1985) mentioned the most frequent coping strategies that have been used by teachers were: trying to stay calm, sharing problems with others, keeping things in perspective, avoiding confrontations, praying, being well prepared, relaxing after school and using breathing exercises and relaxation techniques.

Cockburn (1996a) indicated that teachers usually used the following actions to reduce stress:

- Reduce the odds.
- Ignore the problem.
- Avoid the problem.
- Acknowledge and anticipate the needs.
- Compartmentalise.
- Acknowledge and live with the situation.
- Reduce the physical sensations.
- Change your perceptions and understanding.
- Tackle the situation.

Cockburn (1996b) mentioned other strategies teachers reported:

- Participating in physical exercise during the school day.
- Playing music in the classroom.
- Reading books about stress.
- Taking time to enjoy the job.
- Being realistic about goals.
- Concentrating on one thing at a time.

Furthermore, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) indicated that the most frequent actions used to cope with stress include: relating well with a spouse or partner, relating with friends, completing a task, feeling healthy, getting enough sleep, eating out, meeting responsibilities, visiting, telephoning or writing to someone, spending time with one's family and having pleasurable activities at home. Loh (1994) found that talking to friends or family members was the most popular way of relieving stress, followed by listening to music and shopping.

Murray-Harvey (1999) mentioned the coping strategies identified by students teachers classified themselves into:

1. Personal Coping Strategies. These include:
  - Cognitive strategies, such as: positive thinking and setting realistic expectations.
  - Physical strategies: could be active actions, such as, recreation or sport, or inactive, such as listening to music, watching TV, reading or relaxing.
  - Behavioural strategies such as: housework, eating and drug-taking (e.g. alcohol, tobacco).
2. Emotional strategies, such as use of self-deprecation:
  - Time organisation strategies, such as having a balance between work and social life and finding the time to relax.
3. Professional coping strategies include:
  - Knowledge of the curriculum and subject that they are going to teach and knowing the structure, organisation and culture of the school.
  - Self-management skills, such as preparation, planning and organisational skills.
  - Professional qualities, such as planning weekly lessons in a subject that both teacher and students enjoy.
4. Social coping strategies include:
  - Seeking family and friend support in times of problems.
  - Socialising with staff and other students.
  - Involvement in social events in and after school.
  - Institutional Coping Strategies, such as the support of supervisors, colleagues and head teacher.

From the other side, Dunham (1992) identified coping resources that teachers use to reduce stress:

- **Personal resources** include work strategies such as: being organised, efficiency and spreading the workload. Positive attitudes such as: awareness of the dangers of stress and involvement in different activities. Positive pressures such as, enjoying the work. Out-of-school activities include gardening, painting, walking, cooking, baking, cycling and praying.
- **Interpersonal resources** include social relationship with friends and family.

- **Organisational resources** include good communication between teachers and administration staff, good relationship with colleagues and availability of material resources at the organisation, such as money and services.
- **Community resources** include community activities such as football and sailing.

Anderson (1991) mentioned that preventative actions could be taken to prevent stress and reduce stress when it happens, such as class management and organisation, set clear and appropriate classroom rules from the beginning of the scholastic year; remind students of the rules from time to time; benefit from previous mistakes that teachers might make and use them as resources of experiences and learning for future; sharing with other teachers the success and even the failure to benefit from others' experience and learn from them. Finally, listen to teachers' during in-service sessions or supervisor school visits.

Moreover, Kyriacou (2000) argued that research in teacher stress confirmed that teachers who experience stress often leave the profession, change their job within the school or retire early. Taking these actions empowers the teachers and makes them feel as though they were able to deal with stress. Nagel and Brown (2003) pointed out the ABC's teacher stress management system, which includes Acknowledge (A), Behaviour Modification (B) and Communication (C), could be used to help lessen teacher stress and lessen its impact.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) indicated the following factors could serve as constraints against coping resources:

1. **Personal constraints:** cultural values and beliefs have important roles to determine the kind of coping strategies that can be adapted by individuals.
2. **Environmental constraints:** environment could prevent a person to use coping strategies effectively because the resources are unavailable, i.e. material resources.
3. **Level of threat:** a high level of threat causes the person to avoid, rather than effectively cope with stress. While in the case of low a level of threat, a person could be able to effectively use coping strategies.

Thus, culture plays a main role in determining the coping strategies that an individual can use. These strategies differ from person to person based on his/her beliefs, norms, values, pattern of

thought and behaviours (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Gaziel, 1993). Gaziel (1993) found that cultural factors do have an influence on coping with occupational stress.

The following are the coping strategies were well cited by researchers and that can be adapted by individuals:

**1. Religious therapy:** Mahmoudi *et al.* (2007) indicated that religious coping reflects religious beliefs and concepts and helps to overcome the problems and mental pressures. In the Arab world Islam is the way of life, so religious therapy is based on Islam and its principles (Al-Sebae, 2001 cited in Madini, 2005). Moreover, Muslims believe that everything comes from Allah (SWT) (God) and that Allah is the only one who gives us faith and strength. All these beliefs are considered valuable sources that give Muslims the faith, strength and source of comfort to help deal with depression, anxiety, stress and loss and grief (Mehraby, 2003).

Religious therapy focuses on strengthening the persons' spiritual resources to help deal with stress and any kind of psychological problems. Saker (2004); Higan (1998 cited in Madini, 2005); Mahmoudi *et al.* (2007) indicated that reading and listening to Holy Qur'an and Hadith (saying or action of prophet Muhammad (saw)), praying, making Duaa' (Supplications), are some practices that Muslims do when they go through hardship, grief, sadness, anxiety and other potential problems. Furthermore, Saker (2004) pointed out that reciting Qur'an makes the person feel relaxed, peaceful and experience happiness and serenity within him/herself. This kind of coping strategy is rarely used in western cultures or studies.

**2. Personality Change:** lack of self-confidence and self-assurance cause individuals to hold negative attitudes toward life and work. Thus, said person could be advised to make changes in her/his personality to help cope with stress. Higan (1998) cited in Madini (2005) argued that the change in personality is based on personal actions and strategies that should be taken towards a change in his/her attitudes.

**3. Fixing goals and priorities:** Fixing goals and priorities is a pressure related skill, so teachers are well-advised to adopt this skill to help reduce this pressure (Al-Tariry, 1994 cited in Madini, 2005). He also argued that time management and organised work help in reducing work pressure.

**4. Social Support:** Bishop (1994) and Vigil (2005) defined social support as any form or aid and



help that individuals receive from others. Vigil (2005) indicated (Caplan *et al.* cited in Liu and Spector, 2005) dividing social strategies into two kinds: *emotional* and *instrumental*. *Emotional* support includes family, friends and colleagues who provide encouragement and acceptance whenever a person needs it. This makes the person feel better about him/herself, and enhances the individual's well-being and self-esteem. The *instrumental* support includes providing financial aid, needed services, or material resources. Kyriacou (1997b; 2000) argued teachers need social support because they go through many challenges and changes throughout their working lives. Saker (2004) indicated that social life and support will help in avoiding loneliness and preventing psychological illness.

**5. Physical Exercise and relaxation technique:** It is one of the most familiar coping strategies in western and eastern culture. Harim (1997) cited in Madini (2005) indicated that people who do not participate in physical exercise are more likely to be under pressure than people who do exercise. Saker (2004) indicated that daily exercise will help in dealing with depression. Sparks (1983); Wootton (1992); Lapp and Attridge (2000); Tyrer (2003); Shu (2003) indicated that relaxation techniques (e.g. Yoga) and relaxing the body are also useful ways to deal with stress. Sparks (1983) indicated that relaxation techniques are based on the relationship between thoughts, feelings and physiological responses. The Islamic religion also pays attention to physical exercise and sport, such as: swimming, archery, running and horse riding.

**6. Seeking professional help:** a person experiencing extreme stress needs to seek professional help, either psychiatric or doctors (Al-Sabae, 2001 cited in Madini, 2005). Kyriacou and Pratt (1985) reported teachers receiving medical care and taking stress relief and pills.

Madini (2005) mentioned researchers studied coping strategies and gave the following suggestions to alleviate work stress:

**1. Improving the organisational environment and work conditions:** This could be done by fairly controlling people's performance as well as improving salaries, promotions and incentives plans (Madini, 2005). Younghusband (2006) argued that providing a staff room where teachers can work, relax, socialise, provide teachers with a lockable desk, a comfortable office and chair

in each classroom, as well as provide adequate physical, intellectual and professional resources are all important to reduce stress. Madini (2005) argued that availability of health and safety at work and improved work conditions also reduce the level of stress. Sparks (1983) argued that reducing overcrowded classrooms, violence in schools and adequate resources could further help reduce stress, especially areas teachers have no control in.

**2. Participation in the decision-making process:** Gulcan (2008) recommended employees' opinions should be taken into consideration in a given decision, as this will increase their performance and productivity. In education, Colangelo (2004) argued that teachers who are involved in the decision making process have higher morale, motivation and self-esteem; while teachers who are less involved in the decision making process have lower morale and self-esteem, lack of job satisfaction and loss of control. Maher (1991) cited in Madini (2005) indicated that employees who do not participate in the decision making process become more stressed because they feel separated. Sparks (1983) also pointed to the importance of teachers' participation in the decision making process. Therefore, Kyriacou and Chien (2004) and Cosgrove (2000) argued that the education policy makers should allow teachers to share in decision making. Al-Mazraw (1998) cited in Madini (2005) argued that teachers' participation in the decision making process increases teachers' confidence, commitment, job satisfaction, improves the quality of decisions, increases the decision' acceptance and implementation and strengthens the moral frame-work on which trust is built.

**3. Designing training programmes:** Many stressful situations could arise because teachers do not have enough adequate training, preparation and required skills and knowledge to do their work as teachers (Sparks, 1983). Therefore, Sparks (1983); Wilson (2002) and Arikewuyo (2004) recommended having well-designed, comprehensive staff development programmes and programmes of behavioural therapy or counselling services to help teachers deal effectively with stress. Austin *et al.* (2005) added that training programmes could include communication skills, relaxation techniques, effective time management and assertiveness techniques. Austin *et al.* (2005) also recommended providing teachers with training in human relationships as part of both in-service and initial teacher training programs, as this will help teachers understand others more, and adopt different types of coping techniques to reduce stress (Hall *et al.*, 1997). They found

that teachers who were provided training in human relationships reported lower stress levels, more humanistic approach to student control and a greater sense of control over their own lives. Arikewuyo (2004) advised teachers to see stress as a matter of challenge to their maturity and determine effectiveness in their work. Lapp and Attridge (2000) found that having intervention workshops in stress and stress management has a small but positive impact on reducing stress.

**5. Social and entertainment:** Kyriacou (1997b) and Danham (1992) indicated the important role of out of school and healthy family activities; Al-Hindawi (1994 cited in Madini, 2005) did also. Al-Hindawi argued that social activities such as: picnic, walking, eating out and holidays will create friendship and sense of harmony between employees. Al-Sabae (2001) cited in Madini (2005) argued that the availability of these strategies in any organisation will help reduce stress, but how beneficial depends upon the availability of such strategies. Organisations could use all or some of these strategies based on the nature of the organisation, type of work offered, work stress that employees could face and the employees individual personality.

### **5.7 Schools' and Government's actions to reduce teacher stress**

Researchers such as Cosgrove; 2000; Kyriacou, 1997a, b; Arikewuyo; 2004, provide well cited examples of what schools and government could do to reduce stress among teachers. For example, Kyriacou (1987) argued that although coping strategies focus on what teachers can do to reduce their stress, still more attention should be paid to what schools and governments can do to help teachers reduce stress. Travers and Cooper (1996) also argued that little attention has been paid to the role of organisation in relation to reducing stress. Nevertheless, many sources of stress lie within organisations. Kyraicou (2000) argued that in stress management the “prevention is better than cure”, meaning preventing the sources of stress is much better than experiencing stress and later trying to cope with it. He argued that prevention could reduce the probability of raising the potential stressful problems in the first place. Therefore, in order to avoid teacher stress some actions should be taken. These actions could be classified into three kinds of actions based on who is supposed to take these actions:

**5.7.1 Actions could be taken by teachers themselves.** Ralph *et al.* (2002) argued that dealing with stress starts from teachers themselves. Kyriacou (1997a, 1997b) indicated that teachers

should develop some skills to deal with stress. For example, teaching skills, time management, social skills and dealing with professional demands. Teachers should have realistic expectations about themselves, should not procrastinate until the last minute and not involve themselves in extra work. Teachers need to enjoy life and practice their hobbies outside of school. Moreover, Travers and Cooper (1996) suggested that stress management strategy at individual teachers' level could include: physical activity, modifying behaviour and time management techniques.

**5.7.2 Actions could be taken by schools.** Schools should reduce teachers' workloads by preparing good lesson plans, organising time efficiently, avoid imposing teachers with extra demands, providing teachers with social support and lastly and insuring good communication with teachers by updating teachers with any changes and improvements at school so that teachers can readily prepare (Kyriacou, 1997a, 1997b). In the same vein, Cosgrove (2000) argued that schools should have: a policy for reducing stress, a whole-school behaviour management policy, a supportive and healthy environment and providing teachers with regular medical check-ups. Kyriacou (1981); Dunham (1992) and Youngusband (2006) argued that schools could reduce teacher stress by increasing preparation time, reducing the class's size, encourage good communication and organisation within school, improving the climate of social support, effective in-service training and professional development programmes, more acknowledgment to teachers' effort and a comprehensible description of the job tasks and expectations. Travers and Cooper (1996) further argued that schools should provide counselling and curative strategies, increase organisation support, reduce contact time and administrative duties and improve school management. Moreover, Kyriacou (2005) debated that head teacher's should help new teachers carry out an organised and managed way that minimises the stress as less as possible; give teachers help, advice and support to cope with stress.

**5.7.3 Actions could be taken by the government.** According to Travers and Cooper (1996) and Kyriacou (1997a, 1997b), governments need to raise teaching status as a profession by providing teachers with adequate promotions, increase their salary and providing them with needed resources to meet the demands put upon them. Governments should involve teachers in the decision making process, preparing curriculum and changes. Moreover, Cosgrove (2000) argued that education policy makers should stop imposing unreasonable and unrealistic obligations on

teachers as well as reduce the number of written plans that teachers have work on. Youngusband (2006) argued that governments should assign a portion of the time and money for adequate professional development by developing discipline guidelines, ensuring teachers' safety and upholding a healthy working and learning environment for both teachers and students. Austin *et al.* (2005) recommended rethinking ways to reduce the preparation and the hours worked outside work. Arikewuyo (2004) recommended governments and society should appreciate and respect teachers and their efforts. Ralph *et al.* (2002) acknowledged that education policy makers need to establish the necessary programmes to help teachers manage stress and change cultural attitudes of school and local education authorities. Butt and Lance (2005) argued that government also needs to support head teachers to reduce teacher workload.

Kyriacou (2005), in his recent research, organised actions that schools and governments could take to help reduce teacher stress into the following six areas:

1. The healthy school.
2. The induction of new teachers.
3. Managing demands on new teachers.
4. Support and professional development activities.
5. Dealing with problems.
6. Giving advice to a new teacher.

Teachers in Meng and Liu (2008) suggested the following to help effectively reduce stress: reform the NUCEE (National test), cancel the entrance examination for high schools, establish a fair teacher evaluation system, reduce the unnecessary inspections, cancel all tutoring classes and give teachers breaks. Teachers in Butt and Lance's (2005) study asked for: more time to finish school work, smaller class size as this will reduce paperwork and student misbehaviour, available computers to help store and easily access data and offer more support. Cockburn and Haydan (2004) reported teachers wanted the following actions to improve the quality of their working life: reduce administration/bureaucracy, higher pay, more preparation time and less cover, reduced workload and more support over students' behaviour. Teachers added that: reduce class size, better resources for teaching, fewer instructions, recognitions, more computers, less change and more in-service training will improve their working life. Schroeder *et al.* (2001) recommended: financial incentives and improved working conditions and that programmes in

stress and stress management should be run to aid teachers to cope with stress. Freeman (1986) mentioned many factors that could be used to alleviate problems at school: reduce clerical work, having head teachers or supervisors who listen with empathy and understanding, demonstration lessons by supervisors, support teachers to deal with children who have specific problems and stress management programmes for reducing the levels of stress. This is in line with (Ravichandran and Rajendran, 2007). Tahayneh and Issa (1996) recommended the following: Increase teacher physical and financial promotions, decrease workload, recruit teachers and train them and good relationship with administration.

In Jordan, Mokbel *et al.* (1991) argued there are many actions that could be taken to help teachers feel proud of themselves and their job as a teacher: reduce teachers workload, establish a balance between the subject contents and the number of periods needed to cover subjects, as this will reduce the time pressure on teachers, prompt the relationship between home and schools, provide schools with central heating and air conditioners and any other facilities that make teachers feel comfortable. Tawjihi teachers should teach one subject to allow concentration on the particular subject rather than distributing their efforts and reduce the level of changes in the curriculum every year.

There are other actions reported by different sources, namely:

- Support teacher. For example, Almehwar newspapers (2006) reported that a teacher resigned because the MOE did not support him when he faced physical abuse from a parent.
- Increase teacher's salary. Almehwar (2006) and Albeda' newspapers (2006) reported that teachers are dissatisfied because the MOE refused to increase their salary like other ministries had done with their employees.
- Allow teachers to participate in the evaluation process (Alra'i newspaper, 2006a).
- Improve teachers' participation in the decision making process, especially in issues related to teaching profession, such as curriculum (UNESCO, 2000).
- Give teachers opportunities to share their experiences with others by sending them abroad

to participate in training or scholarship programs (UNESCO, 2000).

- Promote the distinguished Tawjihi teachers. For example, those whose students achieved high results on the Tawjihi examination.
- Improve teacher status because negative societal attitudes affect teachers (Alra'i newspaper, 2006a), as evidenced by increased incidences of school violence towards teachers (Alra'i newspaper, 2006b).
- Establish teachers' union (Alra'i newspaper, 2006a; Adostour newspaper, 2006a).
- Ensure that teachers have the needed resources to create attractive and functional classrooms to raise students' performance (Anderson, 1991).
- Both pre-service and in-service training programmes should provide teachers with different teaching skills and strategies that they can use in different situations and with different levels of students, rather than concentrating on teaching methods (Anderson, 1991)

## **5.8 Summary**

This chapter gave the reader a clear picture about coping strategies. This chapter also provided various researchers' definitions of coping strategies. Moreover, the ways researchers used to measure coping strategies were explained. The chapter explained the two kinds of coping strategies: direct and indirect, which are common among teachers when dealing with stress. This chapter illustrated that these two types of coping strategies has garnered the attention of most researchers. Some Arab researchers used these coping strategies within an Arabian cultural context. This chapter also explained the role of these coping techniques in reducing stress, in addition to the actions that could be taken by teachers' themselves, schools and the MOE.

In the next chapter, the researcher will discuss the methodology and its related issues, explain the fieldwork phase and the difficulties that faced the researcher when conducting the research study.

## **Chapter Six**

### **Research Design and Methodology**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the research methodology and design that has been applied to undertake this research. It is provided with a detailed description of the data collection methods including self-administered questionnaire and semi-structured interviews evaluating the validity and reliability of the data collection methods, pilot study, translating the questionnaire, the content of the last version of the questionnaire and the response rate. Finally, the chapter ends with discussion and justifications of the statistical methods and techniques used for analysing the collected data. Accordingly, this chapter could be described as the most important chapter, as it aims to present a comprehensive explanation of the methodological issues concerning this research study.

#### **6.2 Research methodology and paradigm**

Research in education has four primary purposes: description, prediction, control/improvement and explanation (Borg and Gall, 1989). Research could be conducted to either solve currently existing problems, or give concrete and specific answers, which is called applied research. Other research could be conducted to contribute to knowledge in a particular area of research, identifying problems, or examining relationship between variables, this is known as basic or fundamental research (Borg and Gall, 1989; Tuckman, 1999). Research also could be classified according to the type of data collection procedures, such as interviews or observations; or method employed; for instance historical, descriptive, or experimental (Borg and Gall 1989; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995).

However, a generally accepted scheme for classifying educational research studies does not yet exist. Borg and Gall (1989) asserted that conducting any type of research should be administered by a well-defined research methodology based on scientific principles. Therefore, it is important that any research be based on a principle of methodology.

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) distinguished between research techniques and research design.



The former deal with data collection methods and the latter is a basic plan, blueprint, or strategy that a researcher has to follow to conduct his/her research. The purpose of the research design is to show how to do the research, help draw more general conclusions from it and explain the logic behind the research. Accordingly, research design has to explain how the sample will be drawn, what sub-group it must contain, what variables need to be measured and what comparison(s) should be made (Borg and Gall, 1989). Researchers should employ an appropriate research design that contains clear objectives derived from the research questions (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). The researcher should also concern him/herself with ethical and legal issues (Borg and Gall, 1989; Gorard, 2001). Based on the aforementioned, researches have to select their research design at an early stage of the research, because research design determines: research methodology, data collection methods and data analysis and interpretation (Borg and Gall, 1989).

Research methodology can derive from three approaches. These are: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods (Borg and Gall, 1989; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). The first two categories are sometimes described by different terms. The quantitative approach can sometimes be categorised as traditional, conventional, objectivist, scientific, experimental or positivistic whilst the qualitative approach can be categorised as naturalistic, phenomenological, ethnographic, post-positivistic or subjective (Borg and Gall, 1989). Borg and Gall (1989) pointed out that those quantitative and qualitative approaches have an important role to play in educational research.

The following definitions identify each approach (Borg and Gall, 1989):

- A **quantitative approach** refers to investigations concerned with developing knowledge which employs strategies of inquiry, such as experiments and predetermined instruments that yield statistical data (Borg and Gall, 1989; Langdrige, 2003; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008; Lam *et al.*, 2011).
- A **qualitative approach** is one in which inquirer often makes knowledge claims based on constructivist perspectives for developing knowledge and employs strategies such as, a case study (Borg and Gall, 1989; Langdrige, 2003; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008; Lam *et al.*, 2011).
- A **mixed approach** is one in which a researcher tends to base knowledge claims, employs strategies and collects data. The final database represents both quantitative and qualitative

information (Borg and Gall, 1989 and Balnaves and Caputi, (2001).

Each approach has been suited to certain research questions and objectives. For example, quantitative data provides basic research evidence, while qualitative data provides a clearer picture and present examples. Because of this, many educational researchers have successfully used a combined quantitative and qualitative approach (e.g. Shu, 2003; Madini, 2005). Therefore, this study adopts a multi methods approach (quantitative and qualitative) conducted through survey and interviews. In addition, this study also explores the extent of stress in Jordanian teachers, their adopted coping strategy and the actions that Tawjihi teachers hope schools and the MOE will undertake to reduce teacher stress.

### **6.3 Important Criteria when Deciding Research Design and Approaches**

The selection of research methodology in social research has become a debated and problematic issue. However, there is neither an appropriate nor inappropriate research methodology until it is employed to an investigated problem. Borg (1981); Borg and Gall (1989) suggested several criteria to determine the appropriate research approach to adopt:

1. **The nature of research questions and objectives.** There is no single, best approach; it all depends on research objectives and type of questions that the research aims to answer.
2. **The research topic.** A topic with a wealth of literature that helps in developing theoretical framework and hypotheses that leads to adopt the quantitative approach. It may be more appropriate to adopt the qualitative approach for research into a new topic with little existing literature.
3. **Time available to researcher.** The quantitative research can be quicker to complete. On the other hand, qualitative research can be much more protracted.
4. **Audience preferences.** Most people are familiar with the quantitative approach and likelier to put faith in conclusions resulting from this approach.

In addition, Breakwell (1990) suggested that the appropriateness of a research approach or design derives from the nature of the social phenomena being explored. If research deals with emotions, attitudes or feelings, human beliefs, behaviours, perceptions and values, it needs more emphasis on words than numbers and the appropriate research method is qualitative. A richer

source of information for exploring attitudes is through interviews. On the other hand, Bryman (2001) argued that in order to cover larger, geographically dispersed sample in a limited time, it is necessary to employ questionnaire technique.

## **6.4 Justifications for research philosophy**

### **6.4.1 Quantitative research approach**

The quantitative approach has served educational research in many ways. Most of the knowledge we have about education resulted from its application (Borg and Gall, 1989). The following justifications support why quantitative approach has been selected for this research:

- Most of the empirical investigations in teacher stress have been conducted by adopting a quantitative approach in their designs to explore expected relationships which might emerge from interaction between a set of given research variables (e.g. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b; Cockburn, 1996b; Lewis, 1999; Shu, 2003; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Madini, 2005).
- A quantitative survey approach seeks to identify relationships that are common across individuals and organisations, therefore providing a general statement or theory about the phenomenon being studied.
- The quantitative research is concerned with establishing the causal relationship between concepts, looking for cause-effect relationships.
- A quantitative research instrument focuses on individuals. The responses are then totalled, despite the respondents often not knowing each other.

There are many advantages and disadvantages for quantitative approach methods. Borg and Gall (1989) and Lam *et al.* (2011) stated the following advantages of quantitative approach: providing a wide coverage for a wide range of situations, being fast and economic, statistics are aggregated from large samples and have a considerable relevance to policy decisions. Borg and Gall (1989) explained that the disadvantages are: the methods tend to be rather inflexible, artificial, and ineffective in understanding the processes or the significance that people attach to actions.

#### **6.4.2 Qualitative research approach**

According to Borg and Gall (1989, p380),

*“Qualitative approach is much more difficult to do well than quantitative research, because the data collected are usually subjective and the main measurement tool for collecting data is the investigator himself.”*

Within qualitative research the data are words not numbers. These data are reduced to theme, categorised and evaluated subjectively. Researchers will be more flexible in exploring phenomena in their natural setting instead of being restricted in a moderately narrow group of behaviour. There is more emphasis on description and discovery; researchers seek a psychologically rich, in-depth understanding of the individual. The relationship between researcher and the object of the study is closed. Ralph *et al.* (2002) argued that they used a qualitative approach method for their research because it provides rich descriptions and explanations of the situational influences; it is based on words not numbers. Qualitative research methodology also reflects the result from the sample's view, not from the researcher's view. According to Borg and Gall, adopting the qualitative approach is appropriate for theory development, defining important variable, hypothesis generation, organisational structures and problems and studying new phenomena.

There are many types of methods that could be applied in this approach, such as case study, interview, group discussion, participant observation, documents and records analysis. The main advantages for using qualitative research methods are identifying and clarifying specific responses, especially those related to the attitudes and behaviour of the respondents, and understanding deeply their organisational climate. In addition, qualitative methods help to gain more insights into people and situations, help the respondents to think about their own world and consider the way they construct their reality (Borg and Gall, 1989). According to Bryman (1988), the main disadvantage of the case study is the lack of generalisation of their results.

#### **6.4.3 Triangulation approach**

The approach refers to the use of two or more methods to collect data in one single study, sometimes called a mixed method or a multi-method approach or multiple strategies (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Ingleby and Oliver, 2008; Lam *et al.*, 2011). According to Borg and Gall (1989, p381), *“conducting research using the quantitative and qualitative approach was given the supporting*

*role.*” The triangulation concept is built on the assumption that it would reduce biases inherent in particular data collection sources and methods by using more than one data collection method. Researchers in education encouraged using the triangulation technique. For example, Cohen and Manion (1985) argued that the combination of both techniques, quantitative and qualitative, helps to use the most valuable features of each one. In the same vein, Drever (1995) argued that questionnaires give broad and superficial pictures of a particular context, and interviews provide in depth explanation; therefore, it is preferable to use them both.

It is worthwhile mentioning that Reichardt and Cook (1979) cited in Borg and Gall (1989), argued that in reality, education research rarely falls under one specific research philosophy: quantitative or qualitative. There are very few pure quantitative or qualitative research projects which adopt one single paradigm and use its implications. Lam *et al.* (2011) argued that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods exist in isolation. Furthermore, the researcher will decide which method will most effectively answer the research question, as there is no right or wrong method (Lam *et al.*, 2011; Elton-Chalcraft *et al.*, 2008). Researchers could gain several benefits by combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches, such as gaining a more complete picture. Therefore, much education research uses a combination of both paradigms (Elton-Chalcraft *et al.*, 2008). Reichardt and Cook (1979) also emphasised that not only is it perfectly possible to combine approaches within the same piece of research, but often advantageous to do so.

Gorard and Taylor (2004) argued that combined research has greater impact because figures can be very convincing to policy-makers, and it can also lead to less waste of potentially valuable information. National Research Council (2002) cited in Gorard and Taylor (2004) stated that one of the reasons for combined research methods is to make the research stronger. Also, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) cited in Gorard and Taylor (2004) argued that combining methods in one study can help to confirm, verify, explain and generate theory all at the same time.

The triangulation approach helps a researcher to exhibit and increase validity because it ensures that the variable variance is attributed to the trait of the subject examined rather than to the method used for investigation. It also opens up new perspectives about the topic under

investigation, so researchers can combine different methods in one single study; either because of the research design, or because they desire to corroborate the results from one method with the results from another (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). Furthermore, it increases a researcher's confidence about the findings, as it provides a kind of convergence of the results and complements findings that reached from analysing various observations (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Thus, it is beneficial for a researcher to mix research approaches and integrate methods in a single study of social phenomena. This is because each research approach has its own strengths and weaknesses; thus, the data collected will be affected by these strengths and weaknesses (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994). Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) argued that the collected data using triangulation approach are actually comparable.

Taking into account all these advantages, combining two approaches in the current study will combine their advantages and reduce the weaknesses of each approach employed.

### **6.5 The Chosen Research Design and the Justifications behind this Choice**

Based on the aforementioned discussion, this research does not use one particular research approach: quantitative (positivistic) or qualitative (phenomenological). Rather, combining the two approaches facilitates a flexible research design and generates more flexibility when dealing with social issues.

The researcher reviewed the literature of research methods in social science, generally, and in teacher stress particularly and decided the research questions and objectives. In addition, she considered all methodological limitations, criticisms and issues relating to teacher stress and adopted coping strategies. After the researcher accomplished that, she found that the multi-methods approach (triangulation), which could be conducted through a survey questionnaire and semi-structured interview, was an appropriate and flexible way to conduct this research; especially when applied in complementary and supplementary ways, rather than in competition with each other.

The rationale behind this choice is justified in the following:

- Based on the complex nature of the research questions and objectives, it is obvious that this study includes many variables or factors. This requires applying many data collection

methods rather than relying only on one particular method, which provides useful quantitative and qualitative data and helps generate a rich wealth of data and interpretation.

- There is a lack of previous empirical studies conducted in teacher stress in Arab countries, particularly in Jordan.
- It is considered the most applicable and acceptable research methods in Arab countries. Applying the same research design used by other Arab researchers strengthens the current study's consistency, validity and reliability.
- This approach enables a researcher to ensure that data is telling him/her what s/he thinks they are really telling him/her; in other words, generate more validity and reliability (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Cohen *et al.*, 2000). In this regard, Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) indicated that applying semi-structured interviews with other data collection methods, like a questionnaire, is considered very valuable ways of triangulating.
- Statistical analysis of the quantitative data collected will make summaries, comparisons and generalisations relatively easy and accurate. The qualitative data will also provide a forum for elaboration, explanation and description of events, actions, attitudes and behaviours because it leads to more meaningful and new ideas from the perspective of the subjects being investigated (Bryman, 2000).
- Adopting a multi methods approach saves time, efforts and resources required in comparison with longitudinal methodologies (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).
- Quantitative approach only and qualitative approach only have strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, the combination of methodologies can focus on their relevant strengths and reduce weaknesses and negative effects (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994). This leads to more confidence in the research conclusions.

## **6.6 Types of Research**

Studies might be longitudinal or cross-sectional. In longitudinal studies, gathering data occurs at more than one point in time, whereas in cross-sectional studies, the collection of data from the research population and respondents was carried out only once (Borg and Gall, 1989, Lam *et al.*, 2011).

The collected data from cross-sectional survey could be analysed by many techniques. These techniques depend on the type of conclusion researcher wants to obtain from the collected data. Cross-sectional studies often employ the survey methods. The survey research in education data could be descriptive; the data put a description of how the total sample has distributed itself on the response alternative for a single questionnaire item; or could be explorative, explore relationship between two variables or more (Borg and Gall, 1989).

The type of the current research is a cross-sectional research survey. It is a single, cross-sectional design in which the collection of data from the research population and respondents was carried out only once.

### **6.7 Research population**

Deciding the research population is considered a prerequisite of survey design (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Langdrige, 2003). Research aims to learn new things about a large group of people by conducting the research on a much smaller group of people. The large group that we want to learn and know more about is called a population. Population refers to an entire group of people, events, objectives, or things to which researcher wishes to generalise the result of his/her research. Whereas the smaller group that we actually study is called a sample of study (Borg and Gall, 1989; Tuckman, 1999, Balnaves and Caputi, 2001). The population frame is a listing of all the elements in the population from which the sample is drawn (Borg and Gall, 1989; Gorard, 2001). Awda and Malkawi (1992) indicated that the type of problem and purpose of the study determine the population. Borg (1981) and Borg and Gall (1989) argued that the most important criteria in selecting the population is choosing people who will provide the information a researcher wants and needs.

The population for this research is defined as all Tawjihi teachers who were listed and licensed at the four Directorates of Education and Teaching in the city of Karak, according to their 2006/2007 academic year reports. The researcher made considerable efforts to identify the number of Tawjihi teachers of the targeted respondents in order to ensure they had sound knowledge of their work life.

Of particular interest to this stage was the identification of the database. The four Education and Teaching Directorates have their own database; this database, known as the Planning



Department, is available in each directorate. This department has all the information about the teachers and schools. In fact, they keep records of the teachers' and schools' information. For example, number of teachers, their experiences and the school phone number. In addition, it contains detailed information relating to teachers' surnames and forenames, number of teachers in each school, subject taught, schools' names, mail address, phone numbers, school types (e.g. primary, secondary), head teachers and the rest of the school staff and number of schools.

The four Education and Teaching Directorates operating in the city of Karak are: Directorate of Education and Teaching of Central Karak, Directorate of Education and Teaching of Almazar, Directorate of Education and Teaching of Alkaser and Directorate of Education and Teaching of Alakwar. These directorates have 88 Tawjihi schools which have 1009 Tawjihi teachers. Table 6.1 and 6.2 illustrate the number of schools and teachers in each directorate.

**Table 6.1: Distribution of schools in population by directorates and gender (source: Directorate of Teaching and Education in City of Karak for the academic year 2006/2007)**

Directorate	Gender of school		
	Male	Female	Total
Central Karak	16	21	37
Almazar	10	13	23
Alkaser	7	9	16
Alakwar	6	6	12
<b>Total</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>88</b>

**Table 6.2: Distribution of teachers in population by directorates and gender (source: Directorate of Teaching and Education in City of Karak for the academic year 2006/2007)**

Directorate	Gender of teacher		
	Male	Female	Total
Central Karak	152	204	356
Almazar	143	172	315
Alkaser	98	125	223
Alakwar	57	58	115
<b>Total</b>	<b>450</b>	<b>559</b>	<b>1009</b>

The above teachers were targeted to be the population of this study in order to explore the complete picture of potential teacher stress in all Tawjihi teachers in the city of Karak. The following are the justification behind this choice.

- Measurements of the research variables were based on the literature on teacher stress. Thus, teachers are the most qualified people to provide their responses to the questionnaire and interviews.
- To fulfil and address the research objectives, the responses and answers should be taken from the most qualified people who are able to provide valid responses to questions.
- Tawjihi teachers have been chosen for this study due to the importance of this class compared to other classes in the Jordanian education system (for more details see chapter 3)

It would be useful also to identify the many reasons behind choosing Jordan, and the city of Karak specifically, as the place to conduct this research.

- Jordan is the home country of the researcher; meaning the researcher is able to collect the required information for her research without any difficulties regarding language, cultural difference, time issues and so on. She understands all the ethical issues concerned in conducting research in Jordan. See section 6.14 for further details.
- The researcher herself was born, has grown up, studied and was employed as a Tawjihi teacher in the city of Karak, which in turn helped her to understand the study context, culture and education system.
- The empirical studies in school settings in Jordan focused on stress in students, head teachers, librarian and school counsellors (e.g. Shishtawy, 1997; Kasasbeh, 2004), while some studies focused on other sectors (e.g. Al-Adyleh, 1999; Elayyan and Abu Zeid, 2002). The researcher reviewed the literature in teacher stress in Jordan and found that only a few studies were conducted on stress (e.g. Wraikat and Ja'rah, 1994; Abu Hmaidan and Alazzawi, 2001; Khlaifat and Zghool, 2003). This point illustrates that Jordan needs empirical studies which might support decision makers to have useful information to deal with this critical problem.
- There are no previous studies on the phenomenon of stress among Tawjihi teachers in the city of Karak, in particular, and in Jordan, in general. It can be considered the first study.

## **6.8 Research sample and sampling frame**

After defining the population, it was necessary to identify an appropriate sample and a suitable sampling frame. A sample can be defined as a subset of the population (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Tuckman, 1999; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdrige, 2003).

Borg and Gall (1989); Gorard (2001) indicated that saving money, greater accuracy and greater speed of data collection are the main reasons for using a sample. A sample should be representative and selected randomly (Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990) in order to generalise the findings and apply the necessary statistical techniques. Instead, research cannot provide new knowledge and becomes a waste of time.

### **6.8.1 Sampling Techniques**

Researcher should select a random sample from the population. A random sample means that all members of the population have the equal chance of being selected (Borg and Gall, 1989, Langdrige, 2003). There are many types of samples usually used in educational research.

#### **6.8.1.1 Simple Random Sampling**

Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994); Borg and Gall (1989); Cohen *et al.* (2000); Balnaves and Caputi (2001) and Langdrige (2003) pointed out that in a simple random sampling, each member of the population has an equal and independent chance to be one of the sample members. “Independent” means that the selection of one individual does not affect in any way the selection of another individual.

#### **6.8.1.2 Systematic Sampling**

Systematic sample is an easy procedure to use. The sample is not chosen independently; once the first has been chosen the whole sample is automatically selected, by dividing the number of population by the number of sample (Borg, 1981; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdrige, 2003).

#### **6.8.1.3 Stratified Sampling**

In such technique, the sample should be selected in such a way that researcher assures that certain subgroups in the population will be represented in the sample in proportion to their

numbers in the population itself (Borg, 1981; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Gorard, 2001; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdridge, 2003).

#### **6.8.1.4 Cluster Sampling**

Cluster sampling is more appropriate in research that requires the need to select a group of individuals as a sample rather than an individual from a population, for example classroom or school (Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990; Borg, 1981; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdridge, 2003).

Researcher draws a random sample from the whole list of group of individuals from within the population (e.g. classrooms, schools). Then researcher administers the questionnaire to every individual in each selected unit (Borg, 1981; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990).

#### **6.8.1.5 Purposive Sample**

It is one of the non-probability samples when researcher targets a sample that does not represent the population, but represents the sample itself. Researcher builds up a sample that meets her/his research purpose. S/he handpicks the member to be included in her/his sample. S/he uses his/her own judgment to determine the typicality of his/her sample (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdridge, 2003).

#### **6.8.2 Sample size**

Borg and Gall (1979, 1989) argued that the general rule of choosing the size of the sample is using the largest sample. Borg and Gall (1989); Munn and Drever (1990); Gorard (2001) and Balnaves and Caputi (2001) argued that the size of the sample should be large enough to satisfy the needs of the study and researcher can, to some extent, be confident to generalise the results. In the same context, Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) and Cohen *et al.* (2000) reasoned that selecting the sample size depends on the heterogeneity of the population; the greater the heterogeneity, the larger the sample must be selected as well as on the nature of the population and the purpose of research, otherwise there is no clear-cut answer. Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) and Cohen *et al.* (2000) mentioned that a sample size of 30 should be the minimum if a researcher is planning to use statistical analysis.

In this study, the criteria for selecting the sample that could provide the relevant information about each teacher relates to school type (female and male schools having a Tawjihi class), and the directorate of Education and Teaching. Based on the criteria chosen, the researcher chose the used sampling technique and the sample size. The sample was selected to ensure appropriate coverage of the four Education and Teaching Directorates in order to properly generalise the results. The selection was made by randomly selecting the required school's name in each directorate.

Two sampling techniques were used in this research: cluster and purposive. The researcher constructed a sampling frame using a group of individuals (secondary schools having a Tawjihi class) and gender (male, female) in each directorate. The whole sample size was 46 Tawjihi schools representing 52.27% of the whole population. These schools have 513 Tawjihi teachers (229 male teachers and 284 female teachers) representing 50.84% of the entire teacher population. The difference between the two percentages resulted from the difference in the number of Tawjihi teachers in each school. Table 6.3 and 6.4 summarised the sample size.

**Table 6.3: Distribution of the sample of schools by directorate and Gender (source: Directorates of Learning and Teaching in City of Karak for the academic year 2006/2007)**

Directorate	Gender of School		
	Male	Female	Total
Central Karak	8	11	19
Almazar	5	7	12
Alkaser	4	5	9
Alkwar	3	3	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>46</b>

**Table 6.4: Distribution of the sample of Tawjihi Teachers by directorate and Gender (source: Directorates of Learning and Teaching in City of Karak for the academic year 2006/2007).**

Directorate	Gender of teacher		
	Male	Female	Total
Central Karak	87	103	190
Almazar	61	82	143
Alkaser	49	64	113
Alkwar	32	35	67
<b>Total</b>	<b>229</b>	<b>284</b>	<b>513</b>

The reason for selecting a large sample was to obtain a sufficient response rate and to ensure a representative sample. This is constant with Borg and Gall (1979, 1989); Munn and Drever (1990) and Gorard (2001), who stress the importance of choosing a large sample size to ensure the necessary confidence with the data.

The researcher used purposive sample when selecting the four Education and Teaching Directorates to conduct her study, as they are the only ones in the city of Karak, and each directorate has academic and vocational Tawjihi schools. She used the purposive sample again when selecting only the secondary schools that have a Tawjihi class (male and female). The justification for using purposive sample when selecting the schools was to only study stress in Tawjihi teachers; therefore, researcher had to select from these directorates the schools that only have a Tawjihi. The chosen schools from each directorate were randomly selected using the simple cluster sampling technique. The research was aimed at studying stress in Tawjihi teachers in both academic and vocational schools because there are two vocational schools in each directorate, one a female school and the other a male school. Therefore, the researcher used the purposive sample again when selecting these schools to make sure these schools will be included in the selected sample. The questionnaire has some questions that need to be answered by the Tawjihi teachers who are teaching at vocational schools.

## **6.9 Data collection methods**

Methods refer to techniques and procedures used in data collection while methodology aims to give description and explanation of these methods (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994).

*“There are no right or wrong techniques; merely techniques that are better or worse given the job to be done”*(Munn and Drever, 1990, p 5).

Data collection methods are an integral part of research design. The proper choice of data collection methods depends primarily on enhancing the value of the research; and should enable researcher to achieve the research purposes.

Many methods could be used to collect research data. Data could be gathered by interviews, questionnaires, observations or archival records. Choosing which methods to use depends on the

nature of the study, research approach (qualitative, quantitative or mixed), research questions and objective, research design and philosophy and research strategy (experiment, survey, case study, grounded theory, ethnography, action research, exploratory, descriptive and explanatory studies) (Borg and Gall, 1989).

There are many important and complex social, behavioural and organisational factors which need to be explored and explained in detail through specific data collection methods, such as interviews. Therefore, combining interviews and questionnaires in this study helps in generating deeper insight and better understanding in order to reveal further facts about the research dimensions. Also, it helps to understand the facts underpinning the questionnaires' answers and identifies many other important themes and facts related to teacher stress.

In this research, the exploration of teacher stress, its sources and the adopted coping strategies is carried out by using face-to-face semi-structured interviews and self-administered questionnaires, because depending mainly on a secondary MOE data (archival or documents) is not enough. There are criticisms about using such documentation data to assess teacher stress, in addition to the lack of such information or documentation regarding teacher stress in Jordan. These two methods are examined in the following sub-sections.

### **6.9.1 The Study Questionnaire**

This type of data collection method can be used for descriptive or explanatory research (Borg and Gall, 1989). According to Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994), survey is considered the most common descriptive method used in educational research. The data collection method used in a survey could be interviews or questionnaire.

Questionnaire is considered an efficient data collection method when researcher knows exactly what data is required to answer his/her research questions and objectives, how to measure his/her research variables and what kind of data the study is likely to produce (Munn and Drever, 1990). Borg and Gall (1989) argued that questionnaires are the most popular method for collecting data and can be administered electronically personally or mailed to respondents. The following are the major steps that must be taken into account when developing a successful questionnaire survey:

1. **Defining objectives:** from the beginning, the researcher should define the problem and targeted objectives. Researcher should be assured of the data analysis techniques that he/she is going to apply on the collected data (Borg and Gall, 1989; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001).
2. **Selecting a sample:** researcher should choose the population for his study. Also, he/she should select the random, unbiased sample using the appropriate sampling technique (Borg and Gall, 1989 and Elton-Chalcraft, 2008).
3. **Writing items:** researcher should construct the questionnaire, paying particular attention to its items. Each item in the questionnaire must measure a specific feature of the objectives or questions. Items should be clear and short as much as possible. Ambiguity, double-barrelled items, biased, leading questions, complex questions, and threatening questions must be avoided (Borg, 1981; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdridge, 2003; Bell, 2010).
4. **Constructing the questionnaire:** questionnaire should be attractive, short as much as possible, organise and layout questions, number the pages and items, start with the important, interesting, and non-threatening questions, brief and clear instructions and include the researcher's name and contact details (Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdridge, 2003; Bell, 2010).
5. **Pretesting:** the term pre-test refers to distributing the questionnaire to a selected sample from the population similar to the one in the intended sample. The size of pre-test sample does not necessarily need to be large. After reading the comments and the improvements completed, the questionnaire will be ready to distribute to the selected sample (Borg and Gall, 1989; Langdridge, 2003; Bell, 2010).
6. **Preparing a covering letter:** to help researcher draw general conclusions from the data, the response rate should be as high as possible. A cover letter is used to gain such object. The cover letter should explain the purpose of the survey, return date, assure confidentiality and provide an offer of sending a copy of the results to the respondents. Obtaining official permission from the line manager is also recommended to conduct the research. Lastly, a letterhead paper signed by researcher and his/her supervisor can also



make a difference (Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008; Bell, 2010). For further information, see section 6.14.

7. **Sending out questionnaire and follow-ups:** sending follow-up letter with another copy of the questionnaire and stamped, self-administered envelope to each person encourages them to respond. Second and third follow-up letters with new tones and approaches could increase the response rate (Borg and Gall, 1989; Cohen *et. al.*, 2000; Langdridge, 2003; Bell, 2010).

To determine demographic information of the sample, the researcher must administer questionnaires to all subjects in the sample. Also, the situation of administering the questionnaire must be the same for each subject in the sample as much as possible. The data collected by questionnaire should be quantifiable; some of the data is quantified at the time it is collected, such as the scale questionnaire items. Whereas the open-ended questions, for example, must be codified, as they will be analysed and reported quantitatively (Borg and Gall, 1989; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001).

A questionnaire, like many other data collection methods, has its own advantages and disadvantages. The main advantages of the questionnaire seem to be the ability to reach a relatively large respondent population quickly and economically, since it is based on a sample representing a larger population. It is inexpensive for both researchers and respondents as there is no need for a highly skilled researcher; it is based on advanced statistical analysis of the collected standardised data allowing easy comparison and understanding; it is perceived as authoritative by people in general; it is an efficient use of time for both researcher and respondents; and it assures the anonymity and the possibility of a high response rate (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990). On the other hand, questionnaires have many disadvantages. For example, it is very hard to produce a good questionnaire; there is inaccuracy caused by non-response bias or missing data; the process of designing and piloting a questionnaire and analysing the results is time consuming; it is not possible to explore and explain further issues related to the research questions and objectives since the included questions are standardised. Lastly, the questionnaire is inflexible once it is printed (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990).

Considering all the advantages of the questionnaire, it was decided in this study to use questionnaires to explore teacher stress and adopted coping strategies. The questionnaires were distributed to the Tawjihi teachers in the selected schools. Those teachers who have deeper knowledge about teacher stress, its sources and adopted coping strategies more than other people are the only people who can answer the questionnaires' questions.

Three types of questionnaires could be used in social science research. These are: on-line questionnaires, mailed questionnaires and personally administered questionnaires. Personally administered questionnaire is the type of questionnaire that has been used in this study. Therefore, the researcher will provide more details about this type. For additional information about the first two types of the questionnaires, see appendix 2.

#### **6.9.1.1 Personally administered questionnaires**

Researcher distributes the questionnaires and collects them by him/herself to ensure a high response rate and to take advantage of personal contact since this method enhances respondent participation. Main advantages of personally administered questionnaires clarify any misleading questions to the respondents, establish good rapport and motivate respondents, thus increasing response rates. Conversely, the disadvantages are considered an expensive and time-consuming method (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Gorard, 2001; Bell, 2010).

Therefore, considering the above-mentioned advantages, the researcher delivered her questionnaires and collected them later by herself. That was easy for her since all of the surveyed organisations are confined to a local area.

The rationale for not using the e-mail or mail questionnaires in this study is as follows:

- Not everybody, including schools in Jordan, has Internet access.
- The researcher cannot rely on the mail service as it is not yet a properly established system. It is also an inadequate service to distribute and return questionnaires. Such a service becomes counterproductive for the researcher because she is especially dependent upon a high response rate and cannot afford to wait long times to receive responses.

## 6.9.2 Interviews

Borg and Gall (1989) defined an interview as a purposeful discussion between two or more people. Lam *et al.* (2011) added that researcher could follow either a rigid list of questions or an open format that could develop from the respondents' answers. Drever (1995) also defines an interview as a method of collecting data in which participants are asked questions in order to find out what he/she does, thinks or feels. Drever describes the interview process as verbal interactions, where an interviewer seeks to obtain information from another person about a phenomenon. In the same vein, Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) indicated that interviews help to collect valid and reliable data relevant to research questions and objectives. Then an interview is a face-to-face or voice-to-voice conversation directed and conducted by a researcher to obtain or elicit relevant data, information, expression, opinions and beliefs relevant to the research objectives. It is a widely used method for data collection in social science.

Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) and Cohen *et al.* (2000) mentioned interviews have different purposes. It is used to collect data, such as values, knowledge and attitudes and provides researcher access to what's 'inside a person's head'. It could be used to test hypotheses or suggest new ones. It could also be used with other methods to validate other methods, to follow up unexpected findings or gather in-depth information regarding research topics. Considering the above-mentioned, face-to-face semi-structured interview was used in this study, since the study deals with different subjective factors and variables which need to be explored in-depth. In addition, the lack of similar studies about teacher stress and adopted coping strategies in Jordan makes the questionnaire alone an inappropriate data collection method for this kind of investigation. The problems of the research need to be explored in-depth; therefore, it was found that semi-structured interviews are an appropriate data collection method for this study. In semi-structured interviews, interviewer encourages people to talk at some length. It has a mixture of closed and opened questioners (Borg, 1981; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Drever, 1995; Cohen *et al.*, 2000) and is commonly used in educational research (Borg, 1981; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995).

The researcher develops the interview guide and afterwards conducts a careful pilot study to evaluate and improve the guide, as it will help interviewer develop experience in conducting the interviews (Borg, 1981). The researcher twice conducted some piloting interviews with her

supervisors. She also conducted 11 piloting interviews, three of which were PhD students and eight were Tawjihi teachers.

The rationale for using semi-structured interviews in this study was that other Arab researchers used this technique to conduct their research (e.g. Madini, 2005). They found this technique very successful in Arab organisations particularly because people prefer to talk rather than complete a questionnaire. When people talk about their work life, attitudes, feelings, or emotions, the researcher needs more emphasis on words rather than numbers. In addition, interviews complement the questionnaire and can explore in-depth, any further details, information, themes and facts under investigation; in other words, to supplement and validate the questionnaires' findings. Therefore, the researcher decided to interview Tawjihi teachers rather than just ask them to complete a questionnaire. In contrast, it was also decided that some people who are in charge in the MOE and the four directorates would be interviewed as well, rather than asked to complete a questionnaire. The rationale for using semi-structured interviews with decision makers or those who have a management responsibility for others is to gain a broader perspective in order to better understand the stress Tawjihi teachers face. Moreover, McHardy (2008) suggested collecting other opinions from those who are not teachers (e.g. administrators, school counsellor) as well as share the findings of teacher stress research with those in good positions who might be more inclined to actively seek change, rather than just publish the findings in academic journals. Since the researcher has predetermined themes which need to be explored, the researcher focused on particular themes, rather than leave the respondents to talk generally about the research problems. Thus, it was decided that the type of interviews should be semi-structured.

#### **6.10 Study's questionnaire construction**

In order to achieve research objectives, a questionnaire should be designed and based on clear criteria. Furthermore, the adoption of certain wording as well as the overall layout in building the questionnaire are key issues (Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990).

The researcher focused the questionnaire towards topics that deal mainly with exploring stress in Tawjihi teachers, its sources, the coping strategies and what schools and the MOE can do to reduce teacher stress. The researcher also incorporated similar questions into the semi-structured interview in order to achieve the research objectives and validate the questionnaire. Designing

and formulating the study questionnaire is also important, particularly because it must aim at answering the research questions and objectives. For example, wording, language, depth, clarity, order of questions and above all, the type of questions asked, are all important in order to achieve a good analysis of the study. Thus, in order to ensure the questionnaire construction and pre-testing criteria was met in this research, time and effort was devoted towards the design, layout and wording of the questionnaire. The wording of the questionnaires helps to avoid confusion, such as leading and double-barrelled questions. The language of the questionnaires is also an extremely important aspect, as it will not only determine its effectiveness but should also reflect the respondent's own language usage. Thus, in order for the respondents to properly understand the questionnaire, the decision was made to write the questionnaire in Arabic; the respondents of this study were Jordanian, where the spoken language is Arabic.

Unlike in-depth and semi-structured interviews, where the researcher can promote and explore more issues related to the required data and can add or omit further questions, the questions in the questionnaire need to be precisely defined prior to data collection and offer one chance to collect the data. Subsequently, in order to design a questionnaire that meets these requirements, it is important for researchers to spend quality time deciding what data needs to be collected and how to analyse it. In addition, the researcher must also decide whether the questionnaire is administered by post, internet, email, telephone, or decide whether to personally administer it him/herself. Reviewing the literature carefully and discussing ideas with the researcher's supervisor or with other researchers and other interested parties, is also important. Furthermore, a number of drafts were conducted and assessed before producing the final version.

As mentioned previously, all the suggested guidelines were used to minimise biases in this research. For example, the cover letter mentioned the aim of the study. In addition, efforts were made to use simple and clear questions. Each question was carefully worded in order to avoid ambiguity and provide only one possible meaning. Moreover, each section in the questionnaire included a guideline statement prior to the respondent answering all the questions in each section in the questionnaire. Thus, the next sub-sections consider in more detail the stages of constructing questions, the pre-survey issues, and the pilot study to assure developing a well-designed questionnaire.

### 6.10.1 Questions types and format

Questions can be classified into open-ended and closed questions (Borg and Gall, 1989; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Gorard, 2001; Langdrige, 2003 and Bell, 2010). These types are defined as follows:

- Open-ended questions: In these types of questions, researcher does not provide any set of responses. Instead, the respondents are free to answer in any way they choose and give a personal response or opinion in their own words.
- Closed questions: In these types of questions, respondents should make choices among a set of alternatives given by the researcher. These kinds of questions help respondents make quick decisions and enable the researcher to easily code the information. Cohen *et al.* (2000) stated that closed questions could be: list questions, multiple choice questions, ranking questions, dichotomous questions, rating questions and scale questions.

Among these types of questions, several open questions were used in this research in the form of “others please specify” in the end of each section of the questionnaire. This gives the respondents the opportunity to express their views on specific questions, add additional insights or comments, extend the exploration of the sources of stress, coping strategies and actions that could be taken to reduce stress. The reason for using a limited number of open questions is that these questions may discourage busy respondents from replying to the questionnaire (Borg and Gall, 1989). Cohen and Manion (1985) argued avoiding the open-ended questions is preferable in the self-completion questionnaire, because they are too demanding of the respondents’ time. Also, conducting semi-structured interviews will provide in-depth information to meet the study objectives.

Closed questions were the main types of questions used in this research. The rationale for this choice, according to Borg and Gall (1989), is that these types of questions are typically used in quantitative studies employing large-scale surveys; they are easy to ask and quick to answer; reduce the variability of response; are less costly to administer and easier to code and analyse. Two types of closed questions were used in the questionnaire. First, category questions were designed to make each respondent’s answer to fit only one category. This type of question was used in the first section (A) of the questionnaire. Second, the scale questions with a five point Likert scale were the main type of closed questions used throughout the questionnaire's sections to measure research variables. Borg and Gall (1989) stated that the scale questions, such as the

Likert scale, are frequently used in educational research because they do not need much space and are easy for respondents to complete.

In section B specifically, the respondents were asked to indicate to what extent being a Tawjihi teacher is stressful. The five point Likert scale was used in this section: (1) Not at all stressful, (2) Mildly stressful, (3) Moderately stressful, (4) Very stressful and (5) Extremely stressful. In section C, the respondents were asked to evaluate certain factors (C1-C10) as sources of stress, each factor having different number of items. Again, the five point Likert scale used in this section includes: (1) No stress, (2) A little stress, (3) Some stress, (4) A lot of stress and (5) Extreme stress. In section D, two types of Likert scale were used: In the first scale, respondents were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of certain coping strategies based upon the following five points Likert scale: (1) Ineffective, (2) A little effective, (3) Moderately effective, (4) Very effective, and (5) Extremely effective. The respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they used certain coping strategies in the second scale and the preceding five point Likert scale was used in this section: (1) Never used, (2) Very little used, (3) Little used, (4) Frequently used and (5) Extremely used. In section E the five point Likert scale was: (1) Ineffective, (2) A little effective, (3) Moderately effective, (4) Very effective and (5) Extremely effective. The respondents were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of certain actions to be taken from schools and the MOE in reducing stress.

Developing a good questionnaire required a series of measures that would help to achieve the objectives of the study. In this study, the questions included in the questionnaire were based on searching the previous studies in teacher stress and coping strategies. It was decided that using previous questionnaires (with, of course, making some necessary modifications to the original content applicable to the Jordanian context), would ensure the study validity and reliability and help in comparing the results of this study with other related studies. Therefore, the basic source for determining the content of the questionnaire was the literature. This major source was identified in order to maintain and maximise the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Most of the questions used in this study were adapted from published research, for example: (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b; Folkman *et al.*, 1986; Folkman and Lazarus, 1988; Barone *et al.*, 1988; Cockburn, 1996b; Craver, 1997; Lewis, 1999; Shu, 2003; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Madini, 2005). In addition, the researcher made contacts with several researchers to discuss some of the questions related to teacher stress.

### **6.10.2 Questionnaire layout and flow**

To increase the response rate, the methodology researchers (e.g. Borg, 1981; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990; Gorard, 2001) suggested concentrating on the layout and flow as an essential part of constructing the questionnaire. In this context, researchers suggested several guidelines. For example, Borg and Gall (1989) and Balnaves and Caputi (2001) indicated the layout of the questionnaire should be attractive in order to encourage the respondents to complete and return it. The general rule is to keep the questionnaire as short as possible, include precise instructions to the respondents and present the questions in a logical order. The length of the questionnaire is likely to affect the response rate. In this study, eight A4 pages were used to cover all the research variables, including the covering letter (see Appendix 3 for the last version of the questionnaire).

### **6.10.3 Questionnaire pre-testing and pilot work**

Prior to administering the questionnaire, it was necessary to test and pilot the questions. Piloting refers to an informal exercise of trying out the questionnaire to see how it works (Munn and Drever, 1990 and Bell, 2010), leading to revisions based on the comments and feedback that the researcher received (Tuckman, 1999). Performing pilot work is an important step in research and has important practical benefits: it removes inconsistencies in the questionnaire and resolves doubts about the content, wording and terms. It also defines the structure and design of the questions as well as the time needed to answer them. It checks whether the length of the questionnaire is too long, too short, too easy, too difficult, too threatening and/or too offensive. The principle of the pilot work is to ensure that the questionnaire is clear, understandable, well designed, contains questions that will collect data relevant to the study variables and refine the questionnaire so that respondents will have no problems in answering and recording the questions (Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1990; Tuckman, 1999; Cohen *et al.*, 2000).

According to Borg (1981); Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) and Borg and Gall (1989), pre-testing enables researchers to obtain some assessment of the questions' validity and the reliability of the data. Piloting may involve a small number of respondents to test the appropriateness of the questions and their comprehension. In another context, piloting may involve experts, friends,



colleagues and people of different opinions, avoiding the people involved in preparing the questionnaire. They have to be members of population and similar to those who are going to answer the questionnaire; but they are not from the study sample (Munn and Drever, 1990; Gorard, 2001). Thus, this research took into consideration the aforementioned suggestions and concluded the best way of testing the questionnaire was based on many stages.

Upon the completion of the first draft of the questionnaire, a piloting test was conducted in many stages by many people in different places. The first stage of the pilot test was reviewing the questionnaire by the researcher's supervisor, who is more concerned about the content of the questionnaire, as it should cover all the research questions and objectives. He also assured the length of the questionnaire was reasonable; ensured the clarity of instructions and designed the layout to be as clear and attractive as possible. His comments were very important in the construction of the questionnaire. Important to mention is that after each pilot stage, the questionnaire was shown or returned to the researcher's supervisor for his comments as well. The second stage started by handing the draft questionnaire to four PhD students at the University of Huddersfield. Two of them were teachers on unpaid leave to finish their study. The questionnaire was also handed to two PhD students at Leeds Metropolitan University. All the students undertaking PhD degrees in Education were familiar with Jordanian and Arab culture and context. They provided many insightful comments in terms of design, sequence, question contents, question wording, clarity and the ability to understand its contents. Further modifications were made and a few questions added or redesigned. In the third stage, the questionnaire was e-mailed to one member of academic staff School of Education and Professional Development at University of Huddersfield and to one academic staff from University of East Anglia. Many useful comments and feedback were received, resulting in changes to wording, order of questions, scales of the questions and measurement of some questions.

In the fourth stage, the questionnaire was handed to two colleagues who were working as teachers in UK schools. Useful comments were received and resulted in changes to wording, deleting or adding some items and calculating the needed time to finish the questionnaire. In the fifth stage of pre-testing, the questionnaire was distributed to five academic staff in different

Jordanian universities. All of them held PhDs in education from British, American, or Canadian universities. Each of them received two versions of the questionnaire, one in Arabic and the other in English. They were asked to check the translation from English into Arabic and to provide their feedback about the questionnaire in terms of design, words, contents and measurement. Useful comments were received from them, resulting in amendments to the wording and scale of the questions. A few questions were added, omitted, or redesigned upon generating a new draft.

In the final stage of pre-testing, an Arabic version of the questionnaire and cover letter were handed to twenty Tawjihi teachers selected randomly from the population. The respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire and provide any comments and suggestions about its contents, wording and time needed to complete it. Sixteen questionnaires were completed and returned to the researcher. This reflects a response rate of 80% of the total sample in the pilot study. The respondents proposed useful comments. Some items were added, deleted, redesigned and some main factors split. For example, factors related to administration and supervision was combined into one factor. Some of the teachers suggested splitting them into two different factors. Their justification was accepted, as they explained they might see either a head teacher or a supervisor as a source of stress. No comments were given regarding wording or understanding, suggesting the questionnaire was clear, understandable and easy to complete. Furthermore, there was no evidence to indicate misunderstanding of the questionnaire items. Consequently, the final draft of the questionnaire was made after taking into account the suggestions of the pre-testing and pilot stages. The pilot study showed there were no major problems with understanding or responding to the questionnaire, except for a few small suggestions regarding the questionnaire's layout, modifications related to wording or phrases, and improvements regarding clarity of content. After all these piloting stages the researcher was convinced that her questionnaire was suitable to meet the research questions and objectives.

#### **6.10.4 Contents of the final draft of the questionnaire**

Based on the feedback and suggestions received from the pilot study, the final draft of the questionnaire was designed. Therefore, it could be said that the questionnaire includes many questions, since the research aims to achieve several objectives and answer many questions. The questionnaire could be described as comprehensive; it includes everything related to teacher

stress, its sources and the adopted coping strategies. The questionnaire was divided into five sections based on the research variables. These sections and parts are:

### **Section A: Background information**

This section was designed to obtain general information about the respondents, including general personal questions (e.g. gender, work experience, qualification) and some information about their job (subject taught, stream taught). Therefore, it consists of fifteen questions, each one designed to reveal a particular aspect of teacher information. Some of these questions were adopted from Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b); Cockburn (1996b); Kyriacou (2000); Alghaswyneh (2000); Shu (2003); Kyriacou and Chien (2004); Madini (2005). Other items were self-formulated.

### **Section B: Extent of Stress**

On a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all stressful) to 5 (extremely stressful), this section sought to ascertain to what extent being a Tawjihi teacher is stressful. The response to this question was used as a measure of self-reported teacher stress. It was adapted from Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b); Kyriacou and Chien (2004).

### **Section C: Sources of stress**

This section concerns itself with exploring all the factors Tawjihi teachers might face along with causes of stress. It involves ten factors regarding these sources. Each factor has several items designed to explore how great the sources of stress, as well as rating the factors on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (No stress) to 5 (Extreme stress). These factors, including the items, were adopted from Kyriacou (1977), Cockburn (1996b), Kyriacou and Chien (2004), Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b), Madini (2005), Barone *et al.* (1988). Some of these items were self-formulated and resulted from the pilot- study.

These factors are:

C1. Factors related to the school environment and facilities contain 11 items.

C2. Factors related to administrators contain 12 items.

C3. Factors related to supervisors contain 4 items.

C4. Factors related to colleagues contain 5 items.

C5. Factors related to education system regulations and policy contains 9 items.

C6. Factors related to teaching difficulties contain 11 items.

1. 4 questions directed towards "*Industrialstream*" teachers only.
2. 4 questions directed towards "*Agricultural stream*" teachers only.
3. 4 questions directed towards "*Nursing stream*" teachers only.
4. 4 questions directed towards "*Home Economics stream*" teachers only.

C7. Factors related to the students contain 19 items.

C8. Factors related to the parents and community/public contains 13 items.

C9. Factors related to work contain 31 items.

C10. Factors related to personal circumstances contain 7 items.

#### **Section D: Coping Strategies**

This section concerns obtaining information about the adopted coping strategies. A list of 39 coping strategies was provided and respondents were asked to indicate:

1. How effective do they find these coping strategies on a scale from 1 (Ineffective) to 5 (Extremely effective)?
2. To what extent do they use these coping strategies on a scale from 1 (Never used) to 5 (Extremely used)?

These coping strategies were adapted from (Kyriacou (1980b); Folkman *et al.* (1986); Folkman and Lazarus (1988); Stone *et al.* (1991); Carver (1997); Lewis (1999); Shu (2003); Arikewuyo (2004); Kyriacou (2005); Madini (2005). Other items self-formulated resulted from the pilot study.

#### **Section E: Actions by Schools and the MOE**

This section contains 14 actions teachers hope that schools and the MOE take to help them reduce stress. It is also concerned with the effectiveness these actions would be in reducing teacher stress. Some of these items were adopted from Kyriacou and Chien (2004). Other items were self-formulated resulting from the pilot- study.

At the end of the questionnaire, the researcher thanked participants for their cooperation and assistance in completing the questionnaire.

### **6.10.5 The structure and the contents of semi-structured interviews**

The researcher decided semi-structured interviews would be used with Tawjihi teachers and the people who manage them. This type of interview is very rich in providing in-depth analysis of the issues under investigation. Semi-structured interviews are used to gain broader perspectives from another level to supplement and validate the questionnaire's findings. Hence, some similar questions from the questionnaire were asked in the semi-structured interviews as well. As shown in Appendix 4, the semi-structured interview includes the following parts:

#### **Part one: sources of teacher stress**

It is concerned with the exploration of the sources of stress in Tawjihi teachers in the city of Karak from the interviewees' point of view, adapted from Younghusband *et al.* (2003); Kyriacou and Chien (2004).

#### **Part two: coping strategy**

This part is concerned with adopted coping strategies from the interviewees' point of view, adapted from Kyriacou and Chien (2004).

#### **Part three: Actions to be taken to reduce stress**

This part is concerned with exploring the actions that should be undertaken by schools and the MOE to reduce teacher stress from their point of view, adapted from Kyriacou and Chien (2004).

#### **Part four: Extent of stress**

This part is concerned to what extent Tawjihi teachers' experience stress from their point of view. As mentioned before in this chapter, it is important to mention there were many questions added to some interview schedules which depend upon the follow-up conversations with the interviewees and the context of each interview.

### **6.10.6 Administering the questionnaire**

To assure a high response rate the researchers suggested using self-administered questionnaires. Some researchers (e.g. Borg and Gall, 1989; Bell, 2010) also suggested pre-contacting the sample before distributing the questionnaires. The pre-contact could take many forms: letters, e-mails, postcards, or phone calls. The latter provides the most effective form to increase response

rates; it gives the chance to discuss the purpose of the study and request cooperation. In addition, assuring anonymity and attaching cover letters with the questionnaires can affect the number of returned questionnaires (see section 6.14 for additional information).

The main survey consisted of 513 questionnaires were personally distributed. Each participant was given a questionnaire, including covering letter and an envelope. Those who did not reply were later sent a reminder. Miller and Travers (2005) argued it is widely accepted that reminders can improve the response rate of a survey. A total of 378 questionnaires were returned, of which 337 completed questionnaires were returned and a further 41 questionnaires were returned with a letter explaining they had not enough time to complete the questionnaire or that their conditions did not allow them to respond to surveys (e.g. having pre-service training session after the work time, overloaded). Out of 337 completed questionnaires, 23 were unusable (half completed, missing answers, left out parts...). The population, the responses, the breakdown of the sample and the response rate can be seen in table 6.5.

**Table 6.5: Population and response rate breakdown**

Population size	1009
Sample size	513
Number of questionnaires sent	513
Number of Tawjihi teachers who refused participation	135
Number of uncompleted questionnaires	41
Number of completed questionnaires returned	378
Number of unusable questionnaires	23
Number of usable questionnaires	314
Number of unreachable respondents	0
<b>Response rate</b>	<b>73.68%</b>

After the removal of the incompleated questionnaires, a total of 314 usable questionnaires were returned. The response rate was 73.68% of the total sample and is a reasonable rate for the self-administered questionnaire. This number was deemed adequate enough to carry out the data analysis. Cockburn (1996b) argued that about 50% of respondents may not respond and there is no way to know if this is because they were busy, uninterested or too stressed to answer. Borg (1981) argued that it is difficult to a get sufficient response rate. If this percentage is less than 70%, the findings will be questionable and the confidence in the findings will be little unless evidence shows that the sample is representative to the population from which it was drawn.

In this context, the key reason that helped in obtaining such a high response rate was the interest

of the teachers in the research topic, as vital research deals with real problems. This was shown through their opinions which they recorded within the questionnaire and through the piloting study. In addition, the personal way in which the questionnaire was distributed encouraged people to complete it.

## **6.11 The Fieldwork**

### **6.11.1 Self-Administered Questionnaires**

The main fieldwork of this study was conducted in Jordan- the researcher's country - from August 2006 to March 2007. From the outset it was decided the semi-structured interviews and the questionnaires would be conducted at the same time. This was to save the researcher's time, especially because the semi-structured interviews had predetermined themes and questions that needed to be asked; however, the opportunities to omit or add other questions were also available.

The researcher visited the MOE many times to introduce herself and obtain official permission from the MOE, which is necessary when conducting research in schools (see section 6.14 for additional information). A formal cover letter from the researcher's supervisor helped attain this official permission as well as collect documents, reports, statistical records and any previous studies. The researcher also visited each directorate of Education and Teaching several times to introduce herself and receive permission to conduct the questionnaires, interviews and access to the Tawjihi teachers' information. This allowed the researcher accesses into the teachers' contact details so she can contact them, introduce herself and make appointments to conduct the interviews. This kind of visit is very important to build trust with participants and encourage participation.

When distributing the questionnaires, the researcher met the head teachers of the selected schools, introduced herself and asked for access to Tawjihi teachers to hand them the questionnaires and assure it would be completed by them. The deadline for completing the questionnaire was identified (see section 6.14 for further information). Some of the Tawjihi teachers had filled in the questionnaire immediately; which takes on average between 20 and 30

minutes. The researcher carefully checked the questionnaires to see if they had been filled in completely and correctly; if not, the researcher encouraged the teachers to complete it. The teachers were then asked to put the questionnaire in an enclosed envelope provided for them. During the completion period, some participants phoned the researcher to ask about some misunderstood or ambiguous questions. However, most of the time the researcher went to their schools to clarify what they wanted. Likewise, some of the participants preferred to fill in the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher to clarify any ambiguous questions. Some participants left some questions unanswered until the researcher came to pick up her questionnaire and explained what she meant.

When collecting the questionnaire the researcher made sure she saw the participants and thanked them for their cooperation and completion of the questionnaire. In fact, she had the opportunity to have further conversations about the questionnaire's contents or attain additional comments about the questionnaire, further solidifying the teachers' interest and understanding the questionnaire. Interestingly enough, when the researcher introduced herself and explained the purpose of study, some of the participants said: *"What an excellent research that has touched the most important issues in our work life that has been neglected by the people in charge and other researchers for long periods. Could you please let us have a copy of the results of this interesting research?"* One of the head teachers also said: *"Could you please let us copy the questionnaire and keep it in our library as a reference, because it includes many important criteria that might help us to reduce stress in teachers? And if you do not mind, can we have a copy of the results of this research?"*

The researcher was pleased and said it was possible to have a copy of the results, and she let them copy the questionnaire. The researcher was very proud of her questionnaire because of the participants' comments regarding her questionnaire and work. Most of them agreed it was a comprehensive and excellent questionnaire; they had never seen such before. They appreciated the importance of the study; some were very interested (most of them were doing Master's or PhD in Jordanian Universities) and offered their help.

The permission letter from the MOE and the directorate of Education and Teaching urged the participants to co-operate with the researcher and were very useful in attaining the participants' assistance in completing the questionnaire. Finally, it is fair to admit the fieldwork provided a



good opportunity for the researcher to get to know many people. The fieldwork enriched the researcher's knowledge with many interesting and important stories and issues.

Distributing the questionnaires was carried out between Sept/17/2006-Dec/21/06. It would also be useful to identify the reasons behind choosing this period of time to distribute the questionnaire:

1. To avoid the stress cycle (stress cycle relates to teachers experiencing more stress at the beginning and the end of the school term, and less stress in the middle of the term). The first term started in 13/8/2006 and finished in 25/1/2007, so the researcher left one month after starting the school and one month before finishing the school to distribute the questionnaire.
2. The first month of the term was useful for the researcher to conduct the pre-testing and piloting study.

### **6.11.2 Interviews**

Once the permission letter had been obtained from the MOE and the Education and Teaching directorates to conduct the interviews, it was also important to speak to heads of Education and Teaching directorates, some educational supervisors and head teachers - those officials who direct teachers' work.

The researcher arranged appointments with the head of Education and Teaching directorate, head of the counselling department and educational supervisors in each directorate to conduct semi-structured interviews when visiting the directorate to collect the information about the education system and other useful reports.

Appointments with the head teachers, school counsellors and Tawjihi teachers to conduct semi-structured interviews were set up by the researcher's efforts during her visit to the schools while distributing the questionnaires by hand or phone. Appointments to conduct semi-structured interviews were set during the researcher's visit to the MOE with the head of the supervision and training department.

Important to note is that the researcher conducted interviews with the Head of Education and Teaching directorate, the Head of Counselling Department, educational supervisors, head teachers and school counsellors in each directorate after the researcher conducted interviews with Tawjihi teachers. This is because the researcher planned to obtain the MOE's point of view

regarding what Tawjihi teachers have been saying as this may help enhance the research's findings.

When conducting the interviews, the researcher introduced herself and gave the interviewees a brief explanation about the purposes of the study and its importance to Tawjihi teachers, the education system, the research topic (teacher stress) and the researcher. Important to note is the researcher's plan to conduct an interview with the head of the counselling department in the MOE. After the researcher introduced herself and her study and received permission to record the interview, the head of the counselling department mentioned she only deals with students and their problems. She said: *"We give the students and their problems the priority, in fact we deal with them in terms of their problems, how we can help them to solve their own problems and we might be contacted by their parents. We deal with teachers if they were a source of these problems or part of this."*

Therefore, the Head of Counselling Department recommended the researcher interview the Heads of the supervision and training departments; the researcher followed her recommendation and the interview returned to informal conversation.

It is important to mention the strong trust and relationships the researcher built with the questionnaire's participants, as it was very important when conducting the interviews, particularly because the researcher visited each school, in each directorate at least three times (initial visit, distribution visit and collection visit, in addition to some visits to explain some questions).

The sample size in interviews cannot cover big numbers of the sample; otherwise statistical confidence levels will be low. Therefore, random sample should be selected. Volunteer sample is not preferable (might be used for piloting), as issues of bias could arise, and a sample size asserts cooperation, enthusiasm and participator's will have something to say (Drever, 1995). In the same vein, Gorard (2001) stated the classic problem in sampling comes from bias through using volunteers.

For the interviews, simple and purposive sampling technique was used; random simple sample was used to select the head teachers, educational supervisors, school counsellors and Tawjihi teachers. While purposive sample was used to select the four heads of Education and Teaching directorate, the four heads of the counselling department in each directorate, head of the

supervision department and head of the training department in the MOE, as they are the only people in charge who could provide the researcher with the necessary information. The researcher avoided using the volunteers sample for the reasons mentioned above by (Drever, 1995; Gorard, 2001). Therefore, 28 semi-structured interviews were conducted.

All the interviews were conducted in respondents' offices, either in the morning or afternoon, except the teachers, because they did not have individual offices but rather a shared teachers' room. However, the interviewees chose the place and time of the interviews since they were so busy. This worked well because the researcher could conduct the interviews at times convenient to them. The schedule allowed the researcher to spend a maximum of one and one and a half hours with each respondent. The questions included were open-ended with some close-ended questions. However, the interviewees talked in general, and ending up providing more additional, important related issues. All the interviews were conducted in Arabic, and translated into English at a later date. In conducting the semi-structured interviews, the researcher took notes, in addition to recording the whole interview in order to remember all the details. The researcher assured utmost anonymity of the provided data. Participants were told they have the right to stop whenever they wanted, and to not answer any question(s) that felt uncomfortable answering. She assured that the provided data will be used solely for the purpose of the research and will refrain from mentioning any names; therefore allowing the option for interviewees to mention him/her. Finally, it is worth mentioning that closed questions were written on cards provided to the interviewees, giving them the opportunity to read the questions and avoid any kind of bias. At the end of each interview, the researcher thanked the respondents for their time and cooperation, asking the participants for their comments about the interview and whether they want to add anything the researcher did not mention.

Interviews were conducted between the periods of October/2006-March/2007 for specific reasons:

- To avoid the month of Ramadan, which was in September; because people, especially smokers, do not like to talk, get bored fast, and the level of cooperation, to some extent, is low.
- To establish a good relationship with the interviewees during the distribution of the questionnaires and visiting the schools, the directorates and the MOE to help the researcher to conduct the interviews, and to make sure that they will cooperate.

### **6.11.2.1 Profile of interviewees**

Interview participants were secured by personal contact, which is the best approach to build and establish strong trust and good rapport with participants. The intention was to conduct interviews with Tawjihi teachers and people in management responsible for them. They were mainly the Head of the Counselling Department in the MOE, 4 heads of Education and Teaching directorate, 4 heads of the school counselling department, 4 educational supervisors, 7 head teachers, 5 school counsellors, and 18 Tawjihi teachers. The Head of Counselling Department in the MOE agreed to take part in this study; however, as the researcher previously explained, the interview was later cancelled. Three Education and Teaching heads of directorate agreed to take part in this study, one of which declined because he was too busy and was retiring in a few days. Two heads of the school counselling department agreed to take part in this study and two declined because they were busy training new school counsellors. Three educational supervisors agreed to interviews, one declining because he was involved in training sessions. Three head teachers agreed to interviews and four refused, as two were busy and the other two were new and did not have enough experience to provide the researcher with useful information. Three of the school counsellors agreed to interviews, two of them refusing to take part in the study because they had in-service training sessions and were busy. 12 of the Tawjihi teachers agreed to take part in the study, six of them declining because they were overloaded, busy and had in-service training sessions directly after school time.

After conducting the interviews with the Tawjihi teachers and having in-depth information about their stress, its sources, and coping strategies, the researcher changed the intention of the interviews and planned to expand the interviews to include three additional people in charge. These were: The Minister of Education, the head of the supervision department and the head of training department in the MOE. Therefore, the researcher had to schedule a new visit to the MOE to make an appointment to conduct the interviews. Both of heads of the supervision and training departments agreed to interviews and the appointments were booked (date and time).

The procedure to conduct semi-structured interviews with the Minister of Education is different. The researcher visited the Minister of Education's office and met his secretary. The researcher introduced herself and her study. She explained the purpose of her visit, which was to set an appointment to conduct the semi-structured interview with the Minister of Education. The

Minister's secretary took the researcher's telephone number and said he will contact her next week to inform her of the Minister's availability. The researcher also took the Minister office's telephone number.

After two weeks of waiting to receive a phone call from the Minister's secretary, follow up telephone calls were made to the Minister's office to ask about the appointment with the Minister. The secretary said the Minister is currently out of the country and returns to Jordan two days later. The following week, the researcher made a follow-up visit to the Minister's office, where the secretary informed me the Minister declined because he is too busy and disinterested in the topic. The researcher was surprised at this response, but had to accept. The response rate of these interviews was 60.9%. The respondents who took part in this research provided useful and rich information on stress in Tawjihi teachers, its sources, coping strategies and the actions needed to be taken by schools and the MOE to reduce stress. The following tables provide more details about said interviewees.

**Table 6.6: Profile of interviewees**

<b>Interviewees</b>	<b>Intended number to be interviewed</b>	<b>Actual number was interviewed</b>
Head of counselling department	1	0
Head of Education and teaching directorate	4	3
Educational supervisors	4	2
Head teachers	7	3
School counsellors	5	3
Tawjihi teachers	18	12
Minister of Education	1	0
Head of supervision department in the MOE	1	1
Head of training department in the MOE	1	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>28</b>

**Table 6.7: distribution the interviewees by Gender**

<b>Interviewees</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
Heads of Education and teaching directorate	2	1
Heads of school counselling department	2	0
Educational supervisors	2	1
Head teachers	1	2
School counsellors	1	2
Head of supervision department in the MOE	1	0
Head of training department in the MOE	1	0
Tawjihi teachers	5	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>13</b>

### 6.11.2.2 Difficulties in Conducting the Fieldwork

- Having many interruptions from students, parents, visitors, school staff and phone calls, even though the researcher already arranged a convenient time and place for the appointment.
- Most Tawjihi teachers were overloaded, having too many subjects to cover, so they were in a hurry and sometimes finished the interview early. In this case, the researcher had to make another appointment or wait until the Tawjihi teacher was ready to finish the interview.
- Head of Education and Teaching directorate were extremely busy, so they were already informed about the objectives and nature of the study. Mostly, their secretaries needed to be convinced of the importance of the study, and thus the importance of securing an appointment with their bosses. In addition, usually the researcher made many visits to each respondent's office and mostly had to wait even when she already had an appointment.
- The heads of school counselling, educational supervisors, head teachers and school counsellors were also busy.
- When collecting or distributing the questionnaires, some Tawjihi teachers had to leave early or had to be absent from the school the day of the interview, even when the researcher already set a collected day (date and time). In turn, this meant additional time was required to visit these teachers again to give them or collect from them, the questionnaire.
- The weather during summer was very hot (temperature exceeds 37-44 C°, especially in the directorate of Alakwar in the Dead Sea area). The heat level became more unacceptable and uncomfortable due to lack of air conditioning and fans, especially to those not used to living in Alakwar. This made the respondents very bored, nervous and they did not want extra work or like to talk.
- The weather was rainy and cold during winter. The target during this period was to conduct interviews everyday between 8 am and 1 pm, except days in which the weather was worse (snow time); this made conducting interviews low.

- Ramadan occurred during 9 September 2006 - 8 October 2006. In this month, Muslims refrain from eating and drinking from dawn to sunset. The government reduces daily work time by about two hours. Carrying out questionnaires slowed down during this time and conducting interviews were postponed until after Ramadan. This resulted due to people, especially smokers, not liking to talk or to have any conversations, particularly during the first days of Ramadan.
- Celebrating Eid for five days after Ramadan.
- Some respondents refused to participate in the questionnaire. They mentioned that some circumstances did not allow them to fill in the questionnaire, without clarifying the circumstances.

### **6.11.2.3 Response Rate**

The study reveals a reasonable response rate for the following reasons:

- Self-administered questionnaire is recommended by authors as a good way of collecting data and assures high response rates (e.g. Borg and Gall, 1989; Munn and Drever, 1996).
- The cover letter accompanied the questionnaires and the semi-structured interviews.
- Telephone calls and personal visits were conducted to remind respondents to answer the questionnaire.
- A well-designed layout of the questionnaire.
- The full cooperation of the questionnaire's participants and their interest in the study was very important in securing an appointment for conducting many of the semi-structured interviews.
- The respondents and interviewees were given an option to receive a copy of the research findings and results.
- Assuring confidentiality and anonymity.
- The researcher's experience as a Tawjihi teacher provides her with full understanding of the teachers' circumstances, conditions and working life.

## 6.12 Insider and outsider researcher (positionality)

According to Kanuha (2000) cited in Dwyer and Buckle (2009), insider refers to a researcher who is a member of a group that is considered at the same time the research population. Asselin (2003) cited also in Dwyer and Buckle (2009) explained that inside researchers share language, an identity and experience with participants. Dwyer and Buckle (2009) argued that this makes inside researchers more accepted by participants and makes them more open and frank with researchers; therefore, the gathered data will be more in-depth. Dwyer and Buckle (2009) argued that positive and negative aspects need to be carefully evaluated as regards to being an inside or outside researcher. In other words, as an inside or outside researcher, an insider might raise the unwarranted effect of the researcher's perspective. At the same time, being an outsider does not guaranty the protection of the researcher's unbiased perspective. In some instances, researchers argued that although there is potential danger to being an inside researcher, the access to the participants or any related information would not be as easy or possible if the researcher was an outsider. **On the other hand**, Fay (1996) cited in Dwyer and Buckle (2009) argued that being an insider is neither essential nor enough to know the experience of the group being studied. Furthermore, he added that sometimes being an outsider can facilitate knowing the participants, **which in turn creates an easier flow of information between the researcher and the participants.**

According to Bartnek and Louis (1996), the difference between insiders and outsiders comes from their knowledge about the setting. Insiders see setting as a source of continuing and permanent consequences in terms of dignity, fulfilment and challenge. In contrast, outsiders see the setting as would visitors view it; they are there temporarily and for a short period of time. **Outsiders required clearly identifying the situation for the readers specifically in relation to creating an atmosphere so that the readers are able to properly understand the content of the study. In this vein, they have more effect over public interpretations of the settings than insiders.**

A researcher does not need to completely be an insider or an outsider. **Being an insider does not mean complete acceptance with the participants, nor does being an outsider mean complete relatability.** Therefore, a researcher needs to take this notion into consideration, and notice that although we are different from others, we are also similar to them. There is an in-between space and the researcher always occupies this space. As a result, occupying the space between the two positions affords deeper knowledge of the study. For example, a researcher might be closer to



being in an insider or outsider position, but the researcher's perspective is still framed within his/her position as a researcher; this includes reviewing and reading an abundance of literature on the research topic (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009). Bourke *et al.* (2009) argued that it is important for researchers to remain aware of the effects their own positionalities can have on their research. In this research study, the researcher is occupying the space between. She shares with the participants the same nationality, ethnicity, attire, culture, language, experience and for the majority the religion. At the same time she has some dissimilarity. She is the researcher. At the beginning of the research, the researcher lived in England; however, she is currently living and working in the United State of America, studies in a British university, and speaks two languages; this is her positionality.

### **6.13 Ethical Approval**

Kimmel (2007) acknowledged that the word “ethics” is derived from the Greek word *ethos*, meaning a person's character or disposition. Researcher is responsible for ensuring he/she complies with all the research ethical standards (Steane, 2004). Ingleby and Oliver (2008) argued that the researcher needs to take research ethics into consideration on all points of the study, ranging from designing the research questions, to interpreting the results and presenting the findings. Moreover, Wellington (2000) argued that ethics should be one of the first areas taken into considerations when designing any research project and should continue through to the write-up and work field phase. Furthermore, Behi and Nolan (1995) explained that these ethical considerations affect many aspects of the research design and process and help researchers decide whether the research study is ethically accepted. Moreover, Hopkins (2007, 2009) argued that it is essential that researchers are not only familiar with the ethical guidelines, but are willing to implement these ethical considerations in the research whenever appropriate. He also added that it is crucial to discuss all the ethical considerations with the study participants. Therefore, before conducting a research study, there are some ethical considerations that researchers need to consider.

- Privacy and confidentiality. The participants' information should not be revealed. Privacy is violated if a participants' information is collected or revealed without the participants' awareness. Protecting the privacy of participants can be gained by assuring anonymity or confidentiality. Confidentiality is to manage the participants' information in a way that

keeps them unidentified (Behi and Nolan, 1995; McHaffie, 2000; Bryman, 2001; Langdrige, 2003; Steane, 2004; Creswell, 2008; Ingleby and Oliver, 2008; Bell, 2010; Lam *et al.*, 2011). Researcher assures anonymity and protects the respondents' privacy by using a coding mechanism to eliminate identifying participants, link information with responder, as well as protect data from outside access (Steane, 2004; deMarrais and Lapan, 2004; Behi and Nolan, 1995).

- Gaining permission from the authority (e.g. the MOE) to submit the study and provide access to participants (Creswell, 2008; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008).
- Informed consent, which is derived from the participants' right to choose to be involved in the pilot study, questionnaire, or interview (Bryman, 2001; Langdrige, 2003; Steane, 2004; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008; Lam *et al.*, 2011). There are different ways to gain informed consent, such as: identifying the research problems and objectives to participants, explaining the research process, how findings will be used and reported and assuring confidentiality with option to withdraw (Langdrige, 2003; Steane, 2004; Lam *et al.*, 2011).
- Deception happens when participants do not realise that they are involved in research. Researcher should be honest and not trick someone to participate in his/her research. In this case, ensuring privacy where appropriate and assuring anonymity and confidentiality are highly recommended (Steane, 2004; Langdrige, 2003; Bryman, 2001).
- Conflict of interest works against the integrity of the research process. It raises questions of power, trust and benefit. For example, research studies rely upon the integrity of the researcher, and there is no perfect way to resolve or avoid a conflict of interest (Steane, 2004). There is also a need for participants to know that there is no physical and psychological harm for participating in the research study (Langdrige, 2003; Steane, 2004; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008).
- Cover letter should explain the purpose of the survey, return date, assure confidentiality and provide an option to send a copy of the results to the respondents (Elton-Chalcraft, 2008; Bell, 2010).
- Non-maleficence happens when researcher does not respect the dignity of the participants and treats them with minimal respect. Researcher should show respect to participants by

honouring their privacy, being honest when interpreting data and displaying findings in a way so as not to affect participants' reputations, relationships and lives (Steane, 2004).

For the current research and according to the above recommendations and considerations, the researcher took into consideration the following:

- Cover letter was attached to the questionnaire. Cover letter mentioned the aim of the study, assured confidentiality and anonymity, as well as the participants' right to withdraw anytime. In the interview, the researcher also gave participants the option to withdraw anytime, not to mention their name and permission to tape record the interview.
- Assuring anonymity by assuring respondents' information will be completely treated confidentially. The teachers were asked to put the questionnaire in an enclosed envelope provided for them. Lastly, when interpreting the findings, each interviewee was given a code, instead of being referred to by name.
- The researcher offered teachers a copy of the research findings as well as a copy of the questionnaire.
- Obtaining an official permission letter from the MOE and the directorates of Education and Teaching.
- The interviewees chose the date, time and place of the interview.
- When conducting the interview, the researcher explained the purposes of the study and its importance to Tawjihi teachers, the educational system, the research topic and the researcher.

#### **6.14 Validity, Reliability and Translation**

At this stage, it is important to examine the accuracy and precision of the instrument used to measure the research variables. Thus, validity and reliability measurements were established to ensure the measures developed are reasonably good (Borg, 1981). Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed or intended to measure (Borg and Gall, 1979; Borg, 1981; Tuckman, 1999; Langdridge, 2003; Ingleby and Oliver, 2008; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008; Bell, 2010). Whereas reliability refers to what extent the instrument will give the same results if it is applied on the same sample at different times and conditions (Borg, 1981; Langdridge, 2003; Ingleby and Oliver, 2008; Elton-Chalcraft, 2008; Bell, 2010).

Researcher should be aware of administering the instrument to the appropriate sample, even if this instrument is well-standardised and generally accepted. Some samples are not appropriate to some measures because of cultural bias; and some measures may need to be changed because they relate to another cultural context. Therefore, it is better to check a copy of the measures for possible cultural bias in order to see what other reviewers have to say about it (Borg, 1981).

Before, during, and after collecting the data many procedures were undertaken to ensure validity and reliability of this study's findings. These procedures will be provided in the following subsections.

#### **6.14.1 Validity**

Validity is undermined by research errors such as faulty research procedures, poor samples, and inaccurate or misleading measurement. Without checking validity, measurement could be misused and might seriously affect the study subjects (Borg and Gall, 1979). Cohen *et al.* (2000) argued validity is the touchstone of all types of educational research. Therefore, to meet the validity criteria, the researcher should develop an accurate measurement tool that reflects a better understanding of the questions included in a measurement tool (e.g. questionnaire), guaranteeing that all respondents are enlightened to respond to all questions. In other words, the instrument of measurement should be understandable for all respondents to ensure the findings are really accurate.

##### **6.14.1.1 Validity of the quantitative methods**

Several types of validity tests are relevant to different types of measures and different testing conditions such as: predictive, concurrent (criterion), content and construct validity (Borg and Gall, 1979; Borg, 1981; Tuckman, 1999; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Langdrige, 2003; Ingleby and Oliver, 2008). Predictive validity refers to the ability of the measuring instrument to differentiate among individuals with reference to future criterion. It can be established by relating a test performance to some behaviour intended to be predicted and confirmed by the subject behaviour in the future. Concurrent validity refers to the extent to which a measurement scale relates to other well-validated measures of the same topic. It is established when the results obtained from the scale used are consistent with the results of other scales used to measure the same object (Borg and Gall, 1979; Tuckman, 1999; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Langdrige, 2003; Ingleby and Oliver, 2008) at the same time or short period of time

(Borg and Gall, 1979; Borg, 1981). There are no other measures already established to measure stress in Jordanian Tawjihi teachers; the measure used in this study was developed carefully and specifically. There are some measures of teacher stress in western countries that have been used in theory but these were inappropriate to apply in Jordanian teachers because of differences in the psychometric characteristics of population; therefore, the concurrent validity could be questionable. This means the concurrent validity for this study could not be tested.

Construct validity refers to how well the results obtained from the measurement scale fit the theories around which the test is designed (Borg and Gall, 1979; Borg, 1981; Tuckman, 1999; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Langdrige, 2003). Pre-testing the questionnaire in order to get feedback can assess this type of validity. As mentioned earlier, this study carried out a number of pre-testing stages and pilot work to enhance construct validity. Content validity ensures that the measurement scale includes an adequate and representative set of items that represent the concept the test is designed to measure (Borg and Gall, 1979; Borg, 1981; Tuckman, 1999; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Langdrige, 2003; Ingleby and Oliver, 2008). Content validity can be determined by a careful definition of the research topic and the items included in the measurement scale. In addition, a group of experts can comment and judge on the suitability of the questionnaire, as well as allow suggestions to be made to the structure of the questionnaire (Tuckman, 1999). In this study, several efforts were made to meet the criteria of content validity. First, the purpose of the study was identified through an extensive literature review. Second, many questions and scales were used from previous studies which placed an emphasis on meeting the requirements of validity and reliability. Third, the questionnaire was pre-tested by doctoral students and a panel of academic experts in the UK and Jordan to judge the content validity of the questionnaire. Finally, a pilot study was undertaken to ensure that respondents had no problems answering questions. It is also important to mention the researcher received very important notes from the questionnaire participants judging the questionnaire in general. The idea to leave some space for the participants to write any further important information or notes on the questionnaire design and content proved beneficial. The researcher received further, extensive information and some constructive notes encouraging the questionnaire design and content that helped in validating the content of the questionnaire.

#### **6.14.1.2 Validity of the Qualitative Methods**

Semi-structured interview validity refers to the extent to which ‘the researcher has gained full access to the knowledge and meanings of informants’ (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1991 p.41). Furthermore, Borg and Gall (1989), along with Drever (1995), stated the validity of in-depth and semi-structured interviews is very high. This refers to the flexible and responsive interactions between interviewer and respondents, which allows the researcher the opportunity to probe the meaning and cover the topic from a variety of angles. In this study, there were many things that encouraged the interviewees to give data. For example, the researcher’s ability to construct a good rapport or trust with the interviewees through personal visits to their offices or schools; properly introducing the nature of the study; providing the interviewees with a list of probable questions to prepare answers for them; emphasising the confidentiality of the obtained data; applying good strategies, such as conducting the interviews by avoiding any kind of biases and recording the entire interviews and taking notes. Borg and Gall (1989) in conjunction with Langdridge (2003), also added that validity of a sample depends on two considerations: accuracy and precision. Accuracy is the degree to which bias is absent from the sample; precision reflects the extent the characteristics of a sample are similar to that of the population. In other words, to what degree is the sample representative of the population? In this study, the response rate of the questionnaires was 73.68% and the interview portion was 60.87%, which is a good indication that the sample is representative of the population; in addition, the sample was randomly selected.

Important to mention is that using a multi-method approach enables the researcher to ask many questions in both the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. This ensures that findings resulting from one method will be validated by the findings from the other method. According to Hitchcock and Hughes (1995), using a multi-method approach enables triangulation to take place; this involves cross checking for different types of validity. In addition, using self-administered questionnaires enables the researcher to introduce the questionnaire and explain any ambiguous questions. Moreover, it allowed informal conversations with the respondents when collecting the questionnaires to take place and thus assure they understood the issues included in the questionnaire.

### 6.14.2 Reliability

The reliability refers to the extent to which a measure is without bias, and hence ensures stability and consistency across time and across various items in the instrument (Charles, 1995). According to Awda and Malkawi (1992); Langdridge (2003); Ingleby and Oliver (2008); Bell (2010), test-retest reliability and parallel-form reliability are two tests of stability of measures; and inter-item consistency reliability and split-half reliability are two tests of internal consistency of measures. In this study, the test-retest method was used. The researcher randomly distributed the questionnaire to 20 Tawjihi teachers over three weeks. Cronbach alpha was used to assess the overall reliability of the measurement scale. The recommended minimum acceptable level of reliability for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70 (Awda and Malkawi, 1992, Frankel and Wallen, 1993; Langdridge, 2003). The results showed that all the variables passed the test and the achieved values exceeded the recommended value of this test as shown in table 6.8.

**Table 6.8: Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the Questionnaire**

Study Questionnaire	Cronbach's alpha
The school environment and facilities (C1)	0.82
Administrators (C2)	0.93
Supervisors (C3)	0.86
Colleagues (C4)	0.82
Education system regulations and policy (C5)	0.87
Teaching difficulties (C6)	0.85
Teaching difficulties related to Industrial stream	0.75
Teaching difficulties related to Agricultural stream	0.79
Teaching difficulties related to Nursing stream	0.79
Teaching difficulties related to Home Economics stream	0.85
Students (C7)	0.90
Parents and community/public (C8)	0.90
Work (C9)	0.94
Personal circumstances (C10)	0.73
Effective Coping Strategies (D1)	0.89
Used Coping Strategies (D2)	0.92
Actions to be taken to reduce stress (E)	0.96

Regarding semi-structured interviews' reliability in relation to this study, the researcher tried to avoid interviewer bias resulting from comments, tone or non-verbal behaviour that could potentially create bias in the way interviewees respond to the questions being asked. In addition, she tried avoiding interviewee bias by improving her perception, building a good rapport or trust with interviewees, properly introducing the study, emphasising confidentiality, leaving the

participants to talk in the manner they wanted and asking for permission to record the interviews.

### **6.14.3 Translation**

Since the study was conducted in Jordan, where Arabic is the main language, the English version of the questionnaire was translated into the Arabic language by the researcher. The Arabic and English versions of the questionnaire were given to an educational supervisor for the English language in the Central Karak Directorate, two lecturers at the Alhashemia University who have PhDs from American universities and two lecturers at Mu'tah University who hold PhDs from British universities. They were asked to check the items and the translations. Later, the Arabic version was given to an Arabic-language professor at Mu'tah University to grammatically check the questionnaire.

### **6.15 Quantitative Data Analysis**

In order to help gain better understanding regarding what the data is suggesting, it is recommended to start thinking of the analytical techniques from the beginning (Elton-Chalcraft, 2008). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the decision was made to adopt the quantitative approach to meet the researcher's objectives. It is widely recognised that determining the appropriate statistical methods to analyse data depends mainly on the objectives of the study and the nature of data. Since the nature of the study's objectives and questions is to explore, discover and describe the level of stress in Tawjihi teachers, its sources and coping strategies, as well as actions taken by schools and the MOE to reduce stress, results indicated that descriptive is the most appropriate statistic (i.e. frequency, standard deviation) in analysing the data. The researcher used The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) in analysing the closed questions data in the questionnaire. Each questionnaire's item was given a code, except the open-ended questions, in order to facilitate the processing of the information when using SPSS (Field, 2005). The questionnaire coding and analysis technique were discussed with a lecturer at an Arab university and another lecturer at Mu'tah University, both with PhDs in statistics.

### **6.16 Qualitative Data Analysis**

A standardised approach to analyse qualitative data does not exist. The analysis process of the



qualitative data started when the researcher began collecting her data, as well as after. The approach adopted involves categorising the data into meaningful categories and uniting the data to the appropriate categories that were already divided. After the researcher finished all the planned interviews, the researcher gave each respondent a code to ensure the confidentiality of the study. Interviewees' background was classified in tables designed for this purpose (see appendix 7). The researcher started to write down all the interviews which were tape recorded and transcribed onto a notebook. The researcher extracted and organised the relevant questions according to themes. The notebook was headed to reflect each theme. The researcher started with Tawjihi teachers, categorising all relevant points that were raised by them in separate themes; for example, the level of stress, the sources of stress, coping strategies and the schools' and MOE's actions. Then the researcher entered any related points raised by other interviewees on each theme to support teachers' opinions. Some of the points were repeated; therefore, the researcher used frequency of these points to provide the researcher with the capacity to display a large amount of data to be discussed throughout the text. This approach, which is used to describe and present the qualitative data, provides the researcher a very useful supplement as an important means of analysing qualitative data. Therefore, the decision was made to quantify the qualitative data as much as possible in order to present them better, and thus support the questionnaire's findings as well by moving excerpts from interviews to the relevant theme.

Interviews were conducted in the Arabic language; therefore, the researcher had to translate the interview into the English language. The researcher asked two of her colleagues who worked with her at the same school in the USA, and who are both proficient in Arabic and English, to review the translation. They were given two copies of the interview in Arabic and English to ensure the meanings matched. This process took time and effort, but was worthwhile in order to ensure the accuracy of the translation.

### **6.17 Summary**

The research philosophy and design were discussed in this chapter. Research methodologies available for researchers were discussed and the justifications for employing the multi-methods approach were also discussed. The methodology used in this study could be described as a cross-sectional study adopting a multi-methods approach (quantitative and qualitative) conducted through survey and interviews. The rationale behind this choice was provided throughout the

chapter. A questionnaire and semi-structured interview were used as methods of data collection. This was also explained and justified in this chapter. Pilot work was done prior to distribution of the final version of the questionnaire, as several drafts were prepared and amended in response to feedback received from referees and panel experts. The questionnaire design and layout, question types and format, contents of the final version of the questionnaire, population and sample and the procedures of administering the questionnaire were discussed in this chapter. Moreover, issues of positionality and ethics were also discussed in detail. In addition, the issues of reliability, validity and translation were also discussed. Finally, the chapter ended with a rational explanation and discussion of statistical methods used in this research to address the research objectives.

The next chapter will provide presentations of findings resulting from quantitative and qualitative data analysis; however, discussions of these results will be provided in chapters seven through eleven.

## **Chapter Seven**

### **Presentation of the Results**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

Based on the empirical analysis, chapter seven to eleven present the most significant findings of this research study. These chapters provide details of the research findings obtained from the descriptive statistics for the measuring instruments employed towards the questionnaires and interviews. Thereafter, the previous research findings will be discussed, when appropriate, to make the current research findings more explicit based on the consistency or inconsistency of the findings. All the collected data was used to interpret the results and findings. Furthermore, it helps to give more details about the factors related to teacher stress and to form a clear picture of the problem.

For the purpose of this research, the researcher followed Kyriacou and Chien (2004) when analysing the quantitative data related to the level of stress, sources of stress, coping strategies and the actions taken by schools and the MOE. Percentage, one-way ANOVA and Pearson correlation were computed using the SPSS, version 16.

#### **7.2 Teacher Background**

##### **7.2.1 Introduction**

This section provides an introduction to the chapters of the research findings regarding the stress experienced by Tawjihi teachers in Jordan, the main sources of their stress, coping strategies in terms of the most effective coping strategies and the most used ones and the actions that schools and the MOE should take to reduce stress. Therefore, this section is divided into three main sub-sections. The first sub-section describes the demographic background of the Tawjihi teachers who participated and responded to the questionnaire. The second sub-section explores the Tawjihi teachers who took part in the interviews regarding their experience, gender and qualifications. The third sub-section explores the other staff that participated in the interview and provides information regarding position, experience, gender and qualifications.

## **7.2.2 Teachers' Background: Questionnaire Study**

The aim of this section is to provide the reader with the Tawjihi teachers' background that was gained through the questionnaires.

### **7.2.2.1 Demographic Profile**

The percentage of the responses in terms of respondents' gender, age, marital status and number of children are shown in Table 7.1.

**7.2.2.1.1 Teachers' Gender:** As can be seen in Table 7.1, most of the Tawjihi teachers were female teachers (57.96%), and (42.06%) male teachers. This can be explained by the high number of female teachers in the population (559), which was higher than the number of male teachers (450). The female teachers' percentage in the sample was (55.36%).

**7.2.2.1.2 Teachers' Age:** As we see in Table 7.1, most of the teachers (57.3%) were aged between 26-34 years. Possible justification for said result could be because Jordan is considered one of the countries that experience problems in recruiting teachers. This is in line with Kyriacouet *al.* (2003), who indicated many countries face problems with teacher recruitment. Jordan has an unemployment rate (25%-30%), so students cannot easily find a job as soon as they graduate; therefore, they need to wait a number of years to get a job. The average age of graduates is 22 years. Consequently, waiting a number of years to get a job makes them over 25 years old. Moreover, most teachers choose to retire on time for many reasons, specifically in relation to low salary, poor promotion, negative attitudes towards teachers and teaching and the chance to have another source of income. In order to receive retirement, the Jordanian education system requires male teachers to work at least 25 years and female teachers 20 years. Therefore, only a small number of teachers were older than 45 years old.

**7.2.2.1.3 Marital Status:** Table 7.1 shows that most of the teachers in the sample (65.0%) were married. Islam and cultural influences play a main role in this matter. Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) recommended and encouraged men and women to get married as he said: "*Marriage is part of my tradition; whoever turns away from my way is not of me*". From one side, this could reflect the stability of Jordanian social life, as female and male teachers look for stability by getting married. From the other side, this reflects the fact that most married men and women have jobs. In Jordan, since most of the population suffers from poor financial situations, both

men and women would most likely need to work in order to get married.

**7.2.2.1.4 Number of Children:** As can be seen in table 7.1, most of the Tawjihi teachers have big families: 31.8% of the teachers have 3-5 children, 21.0% have 1-2 children, 6.7% have more than five and 7% of the teachers have no children, possibly due to the fact that 102 teachers out of the 127 were not married (127-102/314). This is consistent with the cultural norms and the practice of Islam in Arabian countries. This is also in line with Madini (2005), who argued the Arabian culture usually prefers having big families; therefore, in her study, teachers tend to have a high number of children.

**7.2.2.1.5 Years of Experience:** Table 7.1 shows that the number of experienced teachers has declined. This might be because teachers tend to leave the profession within the first few years of teaching. This is consistent with other researchers (e.g. Travers and Cooper, 1993; Wilhelm, *et al.* 2000; Kyriacou, *et al.* 2003; Butt and Lance, 2005; Kersaint, *et al.* 2007), who found that many teachers leave the profession within the first five years. Moreover, teachers choose to receive retirement as soon they reached the appropriate age for the above mentioned reasons. Thus, the MOE recruits new teachers every year to substitute for the teachers who resign, work abroad and retire. Said results do not provide a positive indicator towards the future of the Jordanian education system, particularly because losing valued teachers will affect the effectiveness of teaching.

**7.2.2.1.6 Teachers' Qualification:** Table 7.1 shows that the majority of the teachers (69.4%) hold a Bachelor's degree. This can be attributed to one of the recommendations that the First National Conference for Educational Reform in 1987 proposed, which was setting the Bachelor's degree as a minimum requirement for teachers and refraining from hiring Community College graduates (Hasan, 2001; Adas, *et al.* 2001).

In 1999, the MOE encouraged graduate students to get a Higher Diploma in Education after attaining Bachelors, as this will increase their opportunities to secure a job in the ministry. Consequently, most of the Bachelor graduates, based on their financial situation, competed to achieve a High Diploma in Education or other postgraduate degree. Additionally, teachers seek to improve their financial situation and promotional opportunities by getting a postgraduate degree. Since this costs money and time, only the interested and capable teachers do so. Only 1% of the teachers hold a secondary level.

**Table 7.1: Descriptive Statistics of Gender, Age, Marital Status, Number of Children, Years of Experience and Teachers' Qualification (N=314).**

	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Gender</b>	Male	132	42
	Female	182	58
<b>Age (Years)</b>	Under 25	38	12.1
	26-34	180	57.3
	35-44	90	28.7
	45 and over	6	1.9
<b>Marital status</b>	Single	102	32.5
	Married	204	65
	Divorced/Separated	8	2.5
	Widow	0	0
<b>No. of Children</b>	None	127	40.4
	One- two	66	21
	Three- five	100	31.8
	More than five	21	6.7
<b>Years of Experience</b>	Less than 5	105	33.4
	Six- Ten	99	31.5
	Eleven-Sixteen	79	25.2
	Over 16	31	9.9
<b>Teachers' Qualification Level</b>	High Secondary	3	1
	Community College	13	4.1
	Bachelor	218	69.4
	High Diploma in Education	39	12.4
	Master Degree or above	41	13.1

### 7.2.2.2 Other Factors related to teachers

**7.2.2.2.1 The transportation teachers used to get to school:** As we see in Table 7.2 below, most of the teachers (43.0%) use the bus to get to school, as public transportation is common in Jordan. Most of the teachers who have a car in Jordan are male because most of the women cannot drive. A family owning more than one car in Jordan is rare, as petrol is expensive and not everyone can afford to buy a car. 36.3% of teachers use cars to get to school, probably because the buses are not always available, do not arrive on time and not all areas are served by buses. Jordan's common public transportation problem will be discussed later. Moreover, other teachers walk to school because they live near the school.

**7.2.2.2.2 Time to get to school:** Table 7.2 shows most teachers (57.3%) take less than 20 minutes to get to school. The MOE hires the new teachers to work in the far away and remote schools, and moves the experienced teachers to teach in closer schools after working a number of years in the remote schools. Therefore, most novice teachers live in accommodation owned by the MOE and are usually located near the schools. Moreover, the rest (16.9%) of the teachers choose to travel every day from and to their own home because of personal circumstance, have

their own means, or because they do not like to live in such accommodation.

**7.2.2.2.3 The subject/s taught:** As can be seen from table 7.2, most of the teachers (52.9%) teach literary subjects such as English, Arabic and Islamic studies. These three subjects are mandatory in both academic and vocational streams, and as a result the MOE needs to hire more teachers to teach these subjects. Scientific subjects (36.9%) such as Mathematics and Physics are taught for the scientific streams students only, except IT, which is taught in all streams. The vocational subjects (10.2%) such as Nutrition and Sewing are only taught in vocational streams.

**7.2.2.2.4 The stream/s taught:** Table 7.2 shows that 73.6% of the teachers teach in the academic streams and 19.7% of the teachers teach in vocational streams. The remaining teachers (6.7%) teach in both streams, academic and vocational. As mentioned before, the vocational education absorbs about 27% of secondary students, and 6% of students assigned to the applied secondary education, while the rest of the secondary students are assigned to academic education (Mryyan, 2003). Therefore, a higher number of teachers are required to teach the academic streams.

**7.2.2.2.5 The Education and Teaching Directorate:** Table 7.2 shows overall 42.4% of the teachers teach in central Karak directorate, which is considered the most populated part of the city, followed by Almazar (21.3%), Alakwar (19.7%) and Alkaser (16.6%).

**7.2.2.2.6 Living in Accommodation owned by the MOE:** As we see in Table 7.2, the majority of teachers (84.1%) do not live in the MOE's accommodation due to a limited number of accommodation. Therefore, priority is given to those who come from other cities, such as, Amman and Irbid, where the number of teachers is particularly small. In addition, when hiring new teachers, the MOE usually gives priority to city residents, unless the MOE does not have enough teachers to hire. Also, some of the teachers prefer to travel every day to school for the reasons mentioned in section 7.2.2.2.2 Chapter 9 will provide further details.

**7.2.2.2.7 Evaluation of the Accommodation:** Table 7.2 shows 60% of the teachers (30 out of 50) evaluated the accommodation's conditions as adequate and poor. The remaining teachers (40%) evaluated accommodation conditions as excellent, very good and good. Most of the accommodation is located in remote areas that lack basic facilities teachers need, such as a market place.

**7.2.2.2.8 Lack of facilities in the accommodation:** Table 7.2 shows 68% of the teachers reported the accommodation lacked facilities, such as fridge, fan, hot and cold water and good restrooms.

**7.2.2.2.9 Accommodation as a source of stress:** Table 7.2 shows 64% of the teachers feel extreme stress to some stress, and 36% of them feel little stress to no stress from living in the accommodation. This may be due to the lack of facilities, poor conditions, or location of the accommodation.

**Table 7.2: Descriptive Statistics of other factors related to teachers (N=314)**

	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>The transportation used to get to school</b>	Car	114	36.3
	Bus	134	42.7
	Walking	65	20.7
	Others	1	0.3
<b>Time to get to school (minutes)</b>	Less than 20	180	57.3
	20-40	81	25.8
	41-60	32	10.2
	More than 60	21	6.7
<b>The subject/s that teacher teach (subjects)</b>	Scientific(e.g. Mathematics, IT)	116	36.9
	Literary(e.g. English, Arabic)	166	52.9
	Vocational(e.g. nutrition, Sewing)	32	10.2
<b>The stream/s that teacher teach-(stream)</b>	Academic	231	73.6
	Vocational	62	19.7
	Academic and vocational	21	6.7
<b>The Education and Teaching Directorate. (Directorate)</b>	Central Karak	133	42.4
	Almazar	67	21.3
	Alkaser	52	16.6
	Alakwar	62	19.7
<b>Living in Accommodation</b>	Yes	50	15.9
	No	264	84.1
<b>Evaluation of Accommodation</b>	Excellent	4	8
	Very Good	7	14
	Good	9	18
	Adequate	12	24
	Poor	18	36
	<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

### 7.2.3 Teachers' Background: Interview Phase

This section provides the reader with some demographic information about those teachers who took part in the interviews phase. For anonymity and confidentiality purposes, each teacher has been assigned a code instead of being referred to by name.

12 Tawjihi teachers took part in the interview research composed of 5 (42%) males and 7 (58%) females. The teachers who taught academic streams only taught Scientific, Literary and Information System streams. Those who taught academic and vocational streams taught all or



some of the academic streams, in addition to all or some of the vocational streams. The other teachers taught specific vocational streams, such as: Industrial, Nursing, Home Economics or Agriculture streams. The experience of the interviewees was between 2 to 29 years, and as a Tawjihi teacher between 2 to 20 years. Most of them (58%) have Bachelor degrees. Nine of the interviewees (75%) were married and three (25%) single; they teach in the four Education and Teaching Directorates (see table 7.3 below).

**Table 7.3: Demographic variables of Tawjihi teachers who participate in the Interview phase (N=12)**

Code	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
Teaching Experience/Tawjihi experience	8/5	29/ 19	16/16	3/3	15/15	3/3	9/9	2/2	3/3	16/16	20/20	2/2
Gender	F	M	M	F	F	F	F	F	M	F	M	M
Subject taught	IS	E	A	S	S	M	Ph	Ad	M	E	S	Ch
Stream taught	AV	AV	A	N	HE	S	S	IT	S	AV	I	AV
Qualification	B	CC	B	B	CC	B	M	B	M	HD	B	B
Directorate	Alm	Ala	Alk	Alk	CK	Ala	CK	Alm	Alm	CK	Alk	Ala
Marital Status	M	M	M	M	M	S	M	S	S	M	M	M
Level of Stress	M	E	M	V	V	E	E	E	V	M	M	E

- Subject taught: E=English A=Arabic IS=Islamic Studies M=Mathematics Ph=Physics S= Specialised Ad= Administration Ch= Chemistry
- Stream Taught: A= Academic V=Vocational AV= Academic and Vocational N=Nursing HE=Home Economic S=Scientific I=Industrial IT= Information Technology
- Qualification: B=Bachelor CC=Community College M=Master HD=High Diploma in Education
- Directorate: Alm=Almazar Ala=Alakwar Alk=Alkaser CK=Central Karak
- Marital Status: M= Married S= Single
- Level of stress: M= Moderately stressful E= Extremely stressful V= Very stressful

#### 7.2.4 Other Interviewees' Background: Interview phase

All interviewees have experience in the field of education, and as they mentioned during the interviews, they started their work in the MOE as a teacher, with the exception of the head of the Counselling Department and the school counsellors. The heads of the Education and Teaching Directorate have less years of experience in the position; the others have more experience. Also for anonymity and confidentiality purposes, each interviewee was given a code instead of being referred to by name (see table 7.4).

**Table 7.4: Demographic variables of other interviewees (N=16)**

Directorate	Position	Experience	Experience in the selected position	Gender	Code
Central Karak	Head of teaching and learning directorate	35 years	5 years	M	AA
Alakwar	Head of teaching and learning directorate	30 years	2 years	M	BB
Alkaser	Head of teaching and learning directorate	28 years	2 years	F	CC
Alakwar	Head of school counseling department	25 years	8 years	M	DD
Alkaser	Head of school counseling department	27 years	11 years	M	EE
Central Karak	Educational supervisor/Islamic studies	10 years	3 years	M	FF
Almazar	Educational supervisor/Mathematics	16 years	12 years	M	GG
Alkaser	Educational supervisor/English Language	16 years	3 years	F	HH
Almazar	Head teacher	31 years	9 years	M	II
Central Karak	Head teacher	16 years	15 years	F	JJ
Alkaser	Head teacher	19 years	18 years	F	KK
Central Karak	School counselors	9 years	9 years	F	LL
Alkwar	School counselors	3 years	3 years	F	MM
Alkaser	School counselors	14 years	14 years	M	NN
MOE	Head of supervision department	32 years	10 years	M	OO
MOE	Head of training department	29 years	15 years	M	PP

### 7.3 The Levels of stress in Tawjihi teachers

The main aim of this research study is to explore levels of stress among Jordanian Tawjihi teachers. The information Tawjihi teachers revealed assisted the researcher to gain this objective, and provide the readers with a clear picture of the levels of stress that Tawjihi teachers experience. Therefore, based on the results of the questionnaires and interviews, this section aims to explore the levels of stress experienced by Tawjihi teachers.

Table 7.5 below shows that most of the teachers (48.1%) reported their work as a Tawjihi teacher either extremely stressful, or very stressful. 26.8% of the Tawjihi teachers reported that being a Tawjihi teacher was moderately stressful and 20.4% mildly stressful. In other words, over 95% of Tawjihi teachers revealed that their work as a Tawjihi teacher was extremely to mildly stressful. Only 4.8% of Tawjihi teachers reported that being a Tawjihi teacher was not

stressful.

**Table 7.5: Level of Stress from the questionnaire (N=314)**

Level of Stress	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Not at all stressful	15	4.8
Mildly stressful	64	20.4
Moderately stressful	84	26.8
Very stressful	90	28.7
Extremely stressful	61	19.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>314</b>	<b>100.0</b>

This could be because teaching, by its nature, is a stressful job, as well as a demanding social profession. Moreover, despite the importance of this profession, some people maintain negative attitudes toward this profession; for example, some people view this profession as an easy job and anyone can do it. For example, Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) argued that some people refer to teaching as the job for those who do not have a job.

Table 7.6 below presents the mean scores of the responses to the question “In general, how stressful do you find being a Tawjihi teacher? The results in Table 7.6 indicate that there is very little association between self-reported teacher stress and the demographic variables of gender, age, teaching experience, qualifications and marital status. As such, according to Warr and Wall (1975) cited in Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b), when investigating the relationship between stressors and stress, the personality characteristics of the individual may be more important rather than his/her demographic variables in determining the differences in teacher stress. This is in line with Barhem (2004), who found a weak significant relationship between stress and the demographic variables of gender, age, teaching experience, qualifications and marital status.

The table shows that the male and female teachers are slightly different in terms of the level of stress (both have almost the same mean). Looking at age and experience, the result also shows little differences among the different categories of the teachers’ age or the years of experience. Regarding the qualifications, the result shows that teachers who have fewer qualifications (secondary school) have more stress than the other teachers. This result could be attributed to the fact that this category of teachers has a smaller salary and less promotion opportunities and their progress in the career ladder is slow.

Regarding marital status, the result also shows little differences in terms of the level of stress among the different categories of the marital status. The mean of each category of the demographic variables is almost the same as the mean of the level of stress which was 2.62. This result conforms to findings of several other studies carried out elsewhere (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b; Kyriacou and Pratt, 1985; Kyriacou and Chein, 2004; Shu, 2003).

**Table 7.6 Descriptive statistics (N=314)**

	<b>Mean</b>
<b>Level of stress</b>	<b>2.624</b>
<b><u>Gender:</u></b>	
Female	<b>2.674</b>
Male	2.588
<b><u>Age:</u></b>	
Less than 25	<b>2.816</b>
25-34	2.572
35-44	2.644
45 or more	2.667
<b><u>Experience:</u></b>	
Less than 5	2.705
5-10	2.475
11-16	<b>2.747</b>
16 or more	2.516
<b><u>Qualification:</u></b>	
Secondary	<b>3.667</b>
Community college Diploma	2.385
Bachelor	2.628
High Diploma	2.692
Master or above	2.537
<b><u>Marital Status:</u></b>	
Single	2.608
Married	<b>2.642</b>
Divorced/Separated	2.375

In order to support the questionnaires and delve further into the issues raised, a smaller sample was selected for the interviews (see the previous section). This sample consisted of twelve Tawjihi teachers, composed of five males and seven females. Two out of seven female teachers reported that being a Tawjihi teacher is moderately stressful (approximately 30%). Five out of seven female teachers stated that being a Tawjihi teacher is either extremely or very stressful (approximately 70%). Two out of five male teachers (40%) revealed that being a Tawjihi teacher is moderately stressful, while about 60% of them revealed that being a Tawjihi teacher is either very, or extremely stressful.

Below are some of the comments that were raised by Tawjihi teachers regarding the level of stress. G is a female teacher in Central Karak Directorate with nine years experience teaching physics, and holds a Master's degree. She stated:

*"I chose to be a teacher because I love teaching. It is an appropriate job for women, but the issues related to teaching make me feel under stress."*

F is another female teacher from Alakwar Directorate with three years experience. She teaches Mathematics for the scientific stream students, and revealed:

*"Teaching is the most stressful profession. Even society does not respect or value teachers."*

Female teacher E has 15 years experience teaching Home Economics to Tawjihi students in the Central Karak Directorate. She has only a community college degree and is married. E revealed:

*"I feel much stress, but I have no chance for another job as I have only a community college degree. I have to accept the fact that teaching is a stressful job."*

The findings, taken from both quantitative and qualitative, revealed most Tawjihi teachers experienced stress, meaning that this is a very serious phenomenon. Therefore, it is important to pay particular attention to this group of teachers, especially since they play an important role in the students' future. This finding is in line with previous research findings conducted in Jordan. For example, Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) found that teachers face psychological stress. Abu Hmaidan and Alazzawi (2001) reported that teacher stress is continuously increasing with time. This result is in parallel with other research findings conducted in Arab countries. Al-Harbi (2007) indicated that about 20% of teachers in Saudi Arabia perceived teaching as being very or extremely stressful. Madini (2005) indicated that the majority of kindergarten teachers stated their job as either moderately, or very stressful. Benmansour (1998) found that 58% of high school teachers experienced high levels of stress. Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) found that teachers revealed that the teaching profession is an overall stressful job. Gaziel (1993) also indicated that Arab and Jewish teachers in Israel work in stressful situations.

Furthermore, this finding also supports previous research studies conducted in the UK. For

example, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) found that 29.3% of the sample considered their job either very stressful or extremely stressful; only 1.8% indicated that their job as a teacher was not at all stressful. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b) indicated that 19.9% of the sample perceived their job as either very stressful or extremely stressful; only 4.7% rated their job as a teacher not at all stressful. When reviewing other studies in the UK, Kyriacou (1987) pointed out that approximately one-third of teachers surveyed reported their job as stressful or extremely stressful. In her study, Cockburn (1996b) indicated that 43.6% of primary teachers reported their job as either very or extremely stressful, while 46.4% considered teaching moderately stressful, and only three teachers did not feel teaching was a stressful job. Furthermore, Borg (1990) indicated that a considerable number of teachers in British comprehensive schools reported their job as either very stressful or extremely stressful.

Regarding other countries, such as Malta for example, Borg *et al.* (1991) found that 32.6% of primary teachers were either very or extremely stressed. In the United States, Hudson (2004) found that middle school teachers reported moderate stress levels, and elementary school teachers reported low stress levels. In Malaysia, Abdul Samad *et al.* (2010) indicated that 71.7% of teachers experience moderate stress. In a comparative study, both South Asian and British White teachers in Ali (2007) revealed high levels of stress. Tellenback (1983) indicated that Swedish comprehensive school teachers experience high levels of work-related stress. Kyriacou and Chien (2004) found out that 26% of primary teachers in Taiwan reported their job as either very or extremely stressful. Zhang (2005) found that Chinese female English teachers were under stress. In Hong Kong, Chan (2002) indicated that teachers experience high levels of stress. Also, Howard and Johnson (2004) argued that in Australia, stress incidences are considered a serious problem. Moreover, Hicks *et al.* (2006) argued that, without exception, Australian teachers experience stress just like other teachers from around the world. De Nobile and McCormick (2010) reported high levels of stress in classroom teachers. De Nobile and McCormick (2005) and Antoniou *et al.* (2006) indicated school staff, including teachers, experience mild to moderate stress. The results in Gold *et al.* (2010) showed most teachers suffered from emotional distress. Schroeder *et al.* (2001) revealed that Ghanaian teachers also experience stress. Compared with British teachers, Zurlo *et al.* (2007) found that Italian teachers reported lower mental ill-health. Turning to high school teachers in China, Meng and Liu (2008) found that 42%

of high school Mathematics teachers reported a lot of stress or extreme stress. Lapp and Attridge (2000) indicated that more than a third of secondary school teachers experience high levels of stress. Loh (1994) indicated that approximately 65% of secondary school teachers in Hong Kong reported they experience moderate to extreme stress. In the United States, Beer and Beer (1992) pointed out that high school teachers experience more stress than grade school teachers. In Canada, Youngusband *et al.* (2003) found that high school teachers also experience high levels of stress.

As mentioned before (see Ch. 4), the level of stress depends on a certain period of time during the year called the “stress cycle.” Many teachers mentioned they feel extreme stress in the beginning and end of the academic year. Female teacher J stated:

*“I don't feel stressed all the time, but the beginning and end of the academic year are the most stressful times, as teachers feel overloaded. In the middle of the academic year, I go back to normal as I feel less stress. In these two times, I feel very stressed.”*

This is consistent with Travers and Cooper (1996), who argued teachers feel more stressed at the beginning and end of the school year. They explained stress increases as the workload increases, and the workload depends on the time of year. Teachers usually have more workload at the end or beginning of the year/term or examination time. Hembling and Gilliland (1981) cited in Travers and Cooper (1996), found that the highest incidence of stress among secondary school teachers in Canada usually occurred at the end of each term and at the end of the school year, as stress and tension accumulates throughout the academic year. Madini (2005) also reported that teachers in Saudi Arabia do not feel stress all the time, but only at certain times of the year; for instance, when they have heavy workloads, such as writing reports.

### **7.5 Tawjihi teachers' Demographic variables and Stress**

To investigate whether self-reported teachers stress was associated with the demographic variables of the teachers, five one way ANOVA were performed with self-reported teacher stress as the dependent variable, and each of the demographic variables (gender, age, teaching experience, qualifications and marital status) as the independent variable. The analysis revealed no significant differences (for  $p < .05$ ) in the level of stress in Tawjihi teachers in relation to gender, age, teaching experience, qualification and marital status. The results are shown in table

7.7 below.

**Table 7.7 One- way ANOVA analysis of demographic variables with the level of stress (N=314)**

Demographic character	F	Sig.
Gender	.431	.512
Age	.484	.694
Teaching experience	1.122	.340
Qualification	.851	.494
Marital Status	.222	.801

Regarding gender, one way ANOVA analysis showed no significant difference in the level of stress due to gender. This could be justified because both males and females work in the same working conditions and the same Teaching and Education directorates follow the same regulations and teach the same subjects. This result is consistent with previous research conducted in Jordan. For example, Al-Atawi, (2004); Abu Hmaidan and Al-azzawi (2001) found no significant difference in stress due to gender. This is also consistent with previously conducted research elsewhere. For instance, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) found that the male and female teachers have the same level of stress. Further, Kyriacou and Chien (2004) found no significant difference in terms of gender. In contrast, this finding is contradicted by the result of Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) and McCormick (1997), who found males have more stress than females. Al-mahamadi (1990) also found a significant difference in stress according to gender. This contradicted Sharpley *et al.* (1996), who found that males have less stress than females' university workers. Also, Johnstone (1989); Schonfeld (1992; Griffith *et al.* (1999); Antoniou *et al.* (2006); Ravichandran and Rajendran (2007) found women have higher levels of stress than men.

According to Johnstone (1989), teachers' age and experience are also related factors. Therefore, these factors need to be considered when studying them together. One way ANOVA analysis showed no significant differences in the level of stress due to age and experience. This could be justified, as both experienced and inexperienced teachers face the same problems at school, such as time pressure, students, poor relationship with parents and teaching many periods. This finding is in agreement with Al-Atawi (2004), who also found no significant differences in stress due to experience. Moreover, it is consistent with Antoniou *et al.* (2000) and Kyriacou and Chien



(2004), who also found no significant differences in terms of experience. This is contradicted with other studies conducted in Jordan. For example, Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) found that experienced teachers were more stressed than inexperienced teachers. Also, Al-mahamadi (1990) found significant difference in stress amongst faculty members according to experience. This result is contrasted with previous studies in Arab countries. For example, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) found that stress increased along with increased years of experience among Bahraini teachers. Also, Hilo (2004) found that Palestinian teachers who have 5-10 years experience were more stressed than teachers who have less than 5 years or more than 5 years experience. It is contrasted other studies elsewhere, for example, Kyriacou and Sutcliff (1977); Yagil (1998); Admiraal *et al.* (2000) found that new teachers are more likely to admit to stress. Moreover, Borg *et al.* (1991); McCormick (1997) found that teachers who had been teaching for less than 11 years reported less stress. Regarding the age of teachers, this result is contradicted with Schweizer and Dobrich (2003), who found that stress decreases with age. It is contrasted with Griffith *et al.* (1999) who found that younger teachers experience more stress than older teachers.

Regarding qualification, one way ANOVA analysis showed no significant difference in the level of stress due to levels of qualification. This could be justified because the qualification does not change the role or the title of teachers. A teacher is a teacher regardless of the qualification he/she holds. Also, having a new degree does not make a big difference towards salary, but it could give the teacher the opportunity to apply for another job inside or outside the MOE, even though it is not always available. This is consistent with Al-Atawi (2004), who found no significant differences in stress due to qualification. Furthermore, this result is consistent with previous research conducted by (e.g. Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b), who found no significant difference in stress due to qualification. This result is also contrasted with previous research conducted in Jordan. For example, Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) found teachers who hold a Master Degree or above were more stressed than other teachers in the other categories.

Regarding marital status, one way ANOVA analysis showed no significant difference in the level of stress marital status. This could be justified by the fact that single teachers and married teachers share the same working conditions and both face financial problems, as each category has its own kind of expenses. For example, single teachers need to get married and getting

married has its expenses, while married teachers have their responsibility of raising children and paying for their study. This is consistent with Al-Atawi (2004); Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) and Abu Hmaidan and Al-azzawi (2001), who found no significant difference in the level of stress due to marital status. It is contradicted with Griffith *et al.* (1999), who found that single teachers experience more stress than married teachers.

## **7.5 Summary**

This chapter provided the profile of the Tawjihi teachers who participated in the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. It also provided the profile of the other interviewees who participated in this research study which later helped to discuss and interpret the findings. Most of the Tawjihi teachers were female, married and have many children. Most of the Tawjihi teachers have Bachelor degrees and some of them have higher degrees, either because they were interested in doing so, or for promotion purposes. Most of the Tawjihi teachers have less years of experience, as most of the experienced teachers choose to retire, and most new teachers leave the profession within the first few years of teaching. Most of the Tawjihi teachers use the bus to go to and from school because it is the most available public transportation. Living in accommodation was also a source of stress in Tawjihi teachers.

The results of the present study revealed about 75% of Tawjihi teachers in Jordan admitted that teaching is an extremely stressful, very stressful, or moderately stressful job. About 20% of the Tawjihi teachers reported that being a Tawjihi teacher was mildly stressful. Only 15 out of 314 (4.8%) Tawjihi teachers felt that their job was not at all stressful for them.

The results also indicated no significant differences (for  $p < .05$ ) in the level of stress in Tawjihi teachers due to gender, age, teaching experience, qualification and marital status.

The next two chapters will deal with the sources of stress in Tawjihi teachers. Specifically, in the next chapter the researcher will start to display and discuss the results regarding the sources of stress that results from administrators, supervisors, colleagues, parents and the public and personal circumstances.

## **Chapter eight**

### **Factors Related to Relationships at Schools**

#### **8.1 Introduction**

Essential to understanding the implications of teacher stress, the relationships between teachers and head teachers, colleagues, students, supervisors and parents and community should be taken into consideration as well as the link between teacher stress and these relationships (Travers and Cooper, 1996). Furthermore, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and Travers and Cooper (1996), relationships at work could alleviate or aggravate the experience of stress, and these relationships could pose either negative (source of stress) or positive (source of support) results.

Therefore, this chapter aims to discuss the sources of stress that result from these relationships at school and is divided into six sub-sections: Sub-section one deals with the relationship with the administrators; sub-section two the relationship with supervisors; sub-section three the relationship with colleagues; sub-section four the relationship with students; sub-section five the relationship with parents and community, while the sixth sub-section deals with the teachers' personal circumstances.

#### **8.2 Factors Related to Administration**

##### **8.2.1 Introduction**

Poor leadership at school and being unsupported and underappreciated can cause stress in teachers (Cockburn and Haydn, 2004); (De Nobile and McCormick, 2005). According to *Ralphet al.* (2002), the following signs are examples of inadequate administration: poor communication, lack of support and lack of physical and technical resources. In addition, further characteristics of poor administration includes a hierarchical management style that gives little or no opportunity to contribute in decision making, and lack of understanding towards stressed teachers or those showing signs of stress. Therefore, Cockburn (1996a) recommended the importance of the following actions to be taken by the administration: consulting teachers whenever appropriate, making them feel important, talking to them to encourage their development, resolving any conflict and showing appreciation to teachers. Furthermore, Dunham (1992) indicated that

inappropriate leadership styles, poor co-operation between staff, poor communication, poor planning and lack of feedback, all put teachers under pressure. Moreover, poor school ethos includes: attitudes and behaviour of head teachers, lack of recognition for extra work (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b), management style (Kyriacou and Chien (2004) and pressure from the head teacher and education officers (Borget *al.*, 1991) as also sources of stress among teachers. The personal characteristic of a head teacher may create stress for teachers as well. For example, Levinson (1978) cited in Cooper and Travers (1996) indicated that head teachers who are described as an oriented, strict and less efficient (e.g. with emotional situations) could also cause stress in teachers.

### **8.2.2 The Research Findings**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the ten sources of stress related to administration are shown in Table 8.1, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As can be seen, the three sources of stress that scored the highest related to administration for Tawjihi, namely: ‘administration is poor’, ‘communication between teachers and administrators is poor’ and ‘there is discrimination towards some teachers’.

The first highest rating ‘administration is poor’ is in line with other studies (e.g. Cockburn and Haydn, 2004; De Nobile and McCormick, 2005; Ralph *et al.*, 2002). The second highest rating ‘communication between teachers and administrators is poor’ is consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Kyriacou, 1997b; Loh, 1994). In contrast, Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) documented that relationships with head teachers did not have a significant effect on teacher stress. The third highest rating ‘there is discrimination towards some teachers’ is consistent with other studies (e.g. Al-Qa’ud *et al.* 1997). These findings reflect how important it is for teachers to not only have adequate administration, but for them to have a good relationship with the headteacher. When this is not the case, the quality of this relationship can cause stress among them, along with bias and unequal treatment.

**Table 8.1: Findings related to administrators as a source of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to administrators</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
Administration is poor.	15.0	14.0	17.2	15.0	<b>38.9</b>
Communication between teachers and administrators is poor.	11.8	13.4	18.2	18.8	<b>37.9</b>
There is discrimination towards some teachers.	21.0	16.9	13.4	13.1	<b>35.7</b>
'Complaint letter' procedure is not confidential.	13.4	16.9	18.2	19.4	32.2
Administrators do not support teachers appropriately.	18.5	15.9	16.9	17.8	30.9
The administration procedures are complex.	16.2	20.4	15.6	18.5	29.0
Teacher's suggestions are not considered by administrators.	14.0	18.2	17.8	21.0	29.0
Administrators have not enough understanding of teachers' problems.	19.7	18.2	16.6	18.2	27.4
Relationships between teacher and administrators affect the annual assessment.	28.0	19.7	11.8	16.2	24.2
Teachers' promotion depends on the annual assessment.	31.2	16.9	17.8	15.0	19.1

Regarding these sources of stress, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *Having poor relationship with the head teacher.*
- *Head teacher spies on teachers to check whether they are working or not.*
- *Being reported for unreasonable reasons.*
- *Head teacher does not support teachers.*
- *Annual evaluation report and teachers' promotion is affected by their relationship with head teacher.*
- *Discrimination toward some teachers.*
- *Head teacher always stands with the students against the teacher.*
- *Head teacher does not accept teachers' suggestions.*
- *Head teacher does not understand teachers' personal circumstances.*
- *Unfair punishments, such as deduction in a day's payment.*

From their point of view, heads of the school counselling department, school counsellors, head teachers and educational supervisors agreed that the following were the highest sources of stress:

- *Poor relationship with the head teacher.*
- *Being reported for unreasonable reasons (e.g. being late because of transportation).*

- *Disallowing teachers to use a desk and chair in the classroom.*
- *Head teacher's discrimination towards some teachers and not others.*

Some of these issues are discussed below:

**8.2.2.1 Lack of qualified administrative staff:** inadequate training for leadership positions and lack of managerial skills and experience make teachers feel that the instructions and recommendations the head teacher provides them with are often inappropriate. For example, female teacher J commented on this issue:

*“What stresses me the most is that the head teacher does not have enough management skills. She does not care about teachers’ opinions, or accept their suggestions. Her recommendations and orders are not reasonable and are not appropriate sometimes, but she still likes to give orders.”*

This is in line with one of the teachers in Travers and Cooper (1996, p 175), where she revealed in the interview:

*“Good management makes a tremendous difference. My current head is well organised, is a good communicator, has a lot of common sense, is a committed educator and takes staff morale very seriously. In my experience there are many heads without these skills and qualities. They seriously affect their staff and children.”*

This result is confirmed by the finding in the questionnaire phase, where teachers found poor administration as one of the main sources of stress. Moreover, this reflects the teachers in McCormick (1997), who indicated that a non skilled head teacher is considered a source of stress. De Nobile and McCormick (2005) suggested some selection criteria for head teachers and deputy. These criteria should include the ability to support teachers, build supportive environments at school, give advice to teachers about class management and teaching methods, distinguish good achievement, give feedback and encourage teachers to be confident. Democratic or collaborative leadership styles that encourage teachers to participate in the decision making process and recognise good work and creativeness, should also be taken into account. Additionally, Travers and Cooper (1993) indicated that insufficient training for head teachers to do their work is further related to poor management. Dick and Wagner (2001) also suggested head teachers should be well prepared and trained to mediate between teachers’ needs and demands of the teaching profession. Younghusband *et al.* (2003) argued that some head

teachers do not acknowledge teacher stress, show any concern, and give little attention. They added it is not easy to determine whether this attitude considers an unwillingness to address this issue, or lack of skills to do so. Barhem (2004) found that role ambiguity was a main source of stress among Malaysian and Jordanian customs employees which result when administration are unclear about their roles and authority.

**8.2.2.2 The relationship with the head teacher** is one of the sources of stress that some Tawjihi teachers raised. Female teacher F affirmed:

*“A good relationship with the head teacher, along with support when needed, is very important to prevent feeling stressed. The head teacher is very strict and you cannot communicate with her. Believe me, I feel relieved and happy when she takes a day off.”*

The questionnaire phase supported this finding and is also in line with Kyriacou (1997b) and Loh (1994).

Head teachers themselves know exactly how important having good relationships with teachers is. It makes the head teacher feel less stressed as well. KK, the female head in Alkaser Directorate, stated:

*“Usually, I welcome a new teacher and introduce her to other teachers. I talk to her in private to get to know all about her. Does she have any children? Does she have special circumstances I should be aware of? All these conditions help me offer, as much as I can, a stress free environment for teachers.”*

This is in parallel with Cockburn (1996a), who argued that developing good relationships and joyful environments between teachers and head teachers are very important in reducing stress among teachers and even head teachers.

From the same school, female teacher D, stated:

*“My previous head teacher was very strict and did not allow us to voice our opinion on anything. She feels that she is always right and the others are wrong. The head teacher in the new school appreciates and supports all teachers and treats them as if they are her sisters.”*

**8.2.2.3 Feeling appreciated** is very important in helping teachers reduce stress. Female teacher G remarked:

*“Teachers work hard, but nobody appreciates it. They do not even get a thank you or word of gratitude. If the Tawjihi results are not good, the first person questioned will be the teacher.”*

Regarding the same point, male teacher M affirmed:

*“The thing that upset me the most is that nobody appreciates teacher's efforts.”*

This coincides with De Nobile and McCormick (2005), who argued that head teachers need to value staff members and their contributions as well as show appreciation for good work. This is also in line with teachers in Ralphet *al.* (2002); Kyriacou and Chien (2004), who felt unappreciated and undervalued.

**8.2.2.4 Lack of support:** This finding agrees with different studies, such as De Nobile and McCormick (2005, 2010), who confirmed that support has been raised as an important factor of stress among teachers. They recommended the head teacher needs to show support, assistance, encouragement, and concern for the individual's well-being. Moreover, Cole and Walker (1989); Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996); Shu (2003) and Paulse (2005) indicated that lack of support from administrators increased teacher stress. Additionally, Kyriacou (2000) argued that inadequate support in clerical and administrative work from administrators increased teacher stress. Male teacher B, affirmed:

*“I never felt that the head teacher supported me when I needed it; which made me always feel stress.”*

In the same vein, Jacobsson *et al.* (2001) found that the head teacher's support helps to reduce stress indirectly. For instance, supportive school environments that offer functional coordination, clear goals and generous feedback help teachers feel less stress. This point is also in line with MO (1991); Cockburn and Haydan (2004); De Nobile and McCormick (2005) and Kersaint *et al.* (2007) who argued that teachers desire support when issues related to their students arise. In fact, Cockburn and Haydan (2004) indicated that this is the main quality teachers look for in a head teacher. Also, teachers in Younghusband *et al.* (2003) indicated lack of administrative support when disciplining students who repeatedly misbehaved as another source of stress.

**8.2.2.5 The method of appraising teachers' performance** put teachers under stress, especially



when the evaluation affects career progress and promotion (Cooper and Travers, 1996). Students' performance is one of the issues considered when evaluating teachers. Meng and Liu (2008) indicated teachers revealed that the unfair teacher evaluation system was stressful, as principals used the students' examination grades, and the number of students who transfer to the next higher level within the school, to evaluate teachers. They indicated the curriculum reform in 2001 called for a new evaluation system combining a teacher's self-evaluation with evaluations by the head teachers, colleagues, parents and students. In addition, Brief *et al.* (1981) cited in Travers and Cooper (1996) mentioned inaccurate or ambiguous measurement criteria for performance and an unfair control system as sources of stress. Furthermore, Jacobsson *et al.* (2001) and Travers and Cooper (1993) found that negative and positive feedback from students, colleagues, head teachers and parents are all factors related to stress reaction.

Teachers in Jordan were allowed to see the annual evaluation report written by head teachers. Since 1993, the MOE changed this procedure; turning the evaluation into a confidential report where teachers are not allowed to know what is on their evaluation. If a teacher is interested, he/she needs to petition the MOE asking for a copy of their evaluation, providing an explanation of why he/she needs this copy; however, the teacher may still not receive a copy.

Female teacher J confirmed:

*“My relationship with my previous head teacher was poor, so my evaluation was bad too. It delayed my promotion for two years. I used to get the promotion every three years, but that time I received it after five years. This is really not fair and stressful. The MOE needs to find another evaluation process to take the head teacher’s opinion into account, because not everything is in his/her hand”.*

This is in line with Travers and Cooper (1996), who indicated that financial and material rewards are determined by one's promotion up the career ladder. Baron (1986) cited in Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated that some people undergo stressful experiences when someone else evaluates them, especially if this evaluation determines their career progression. Teachers face two types of an appraisal: formal and informal. Formal appraisal happens when teachers are evaluated by the head teacher and supervisor, and an informal appraisal occurs when students take an examination, or parents visit for parents evening. However, the teachers' actual performance, in conjunction with the actual appraisal, as well as their career progression, is

determined by the formal appraisal conducted by the head teacher and supervisor.

Moreover, Madini (2005) recommended the evaluation should be carried out by qualified and trained individuals. It is important to explain to teachers from the beginning, especially new ones, the criteria of their evaluation so they will clearly understand it and can work towards how they will be assessed. Also, Kyriacou (2000) argued the government usually sets the procedures and processes of appraising teachers. Head teachers need to ensure the procedure of evaluating teachers will not undermine teachers' morale.

**8.2.2.6 Discrimination of head teachers:** Some teachers feel unhappy and stressed about their relationship with the head teacher, particularly when head teacher discriminates against other teachers, and this negatively affects them. Female teacher A mentioned:

*“I feel really stressed, as the head teacher does not treat teachers the same way. She treats some teachers very nicely and does what they ask her for, while she is very strict with other teachers which make them feel unhappy.”*

Male school counsellor NN, with 14 years of experience, confirmed the same point, stating:

*“The head teacher does not treat all teachers equally. Many teachers complained to me about that, and I talked to the head teachers on their behalf, but he is still the same. This makes them feel that they are isolated, and as though their opinions are not considered.”*

Teachers' also confirmed this result in the questionnaire phase. Teachers in Al-Qa'udet *al.* (1997) also echoed the same thoughts, indicating that the fairness of head teachers and feeling comfortable working with them affected their stress levels.

## **8.3 Factors Related to Supervisors**

### **8.3.1 Introduction**

Supervisors are considered one of the main communication channels between the Teaching and Education Directorate and teachers. Supervisors need to provide teachers with up-to-date information and are responsible in delivering in-service training for teachers. The MOE trains them and in turn they train teachers. The supervisors main role is to evaluate teachers in many

aspects, including performance and teaching methods used in the classroom (Madini, 2005). Supervisors evaluate the performance of teachers based upon their students' results and their performance as a tutor-teacher (Shu, 2003). Therefore, Perryman (2007) recommended that schools should create a system to eliminate the negative emotional impact of inspectors on teachers, as this relates to stress. Teachers experience fear, anger and disaffection because of losing power and control and working under a disciplinary regime.

### 8.3.2 The Research Findings

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the three sources of stress related to the supervisors are shown in Table 8.2, in descending order of the percentage, rating the item a source of extreme stress. As the table shows, the three sources of stress which received the highest rating in relation to supervisor for Tawjihi teachers are: 'communication between teachers and supervisors is poor', 'the supervisors' suggestions are not practicable' and 'there is inconsistency between supervisors'. The findings of this section conform to the findings of several other studies carried out elsewhere (e.g. Madini, 2005; Jeffery, 2002, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996). Moreover, this result is contradicted with Khlaifat and Zghool (2003), who found that relationship with supervisors was moderately as a source of stress. These findings could be explained by the importance of supervisors for teachers. Teachers expect the help, support and a good relationship from supervisors. Also, teachers expect the supervisors to understand their circumstances.

**Table 8.2: Findings related to supervisor as a source of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to supervisors</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
Communication between teachers and supervisors is poor.	15.3	17.8	13.7	19.7	<b>33.1</b>
The supervisors' suggestions are not practicable.	22.0	22.0	19.1	20.1	<b>16.9</b>
There is inconsistency between supervisors.	22.0	23.6	18.8	20.7	<b>15.0</b>

Regarding these sources of stress, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *Lack of support from supervisor.*
- *Giving impractical suggestions.*
- *Lack of supervisors' ability, especially academically*
- *Supervisors do not visit teachers often.*
- *Supervisor's visit is always sudden and not arranged.*
- *Poor relationship with the supervisor.*

**8.3.2.1 One visit is not enough:** Most Tawjihi teachers claimed that one visit, or even two visits, is not enough to enable supervisors to give fair evaluations. Especially since some of Tawjihi teachers revealed that promotion and professional progression depends upon both head teacher's and supervisor's evaluation reports. Supervisor's evaluation report is completed after one visit most of the time. Male teacher I stated:

*“The supervisor visited me in my first year of teaching. He told me that I was excellent, but he cannot write this in my report as this was my first year. In the end of the year, the head teacher repeated the same words. I am in my third year now and the supervisor has not visited again, while the head teacher is giving me the same evaluation every year.”*

Some supervisors claimed they had a discussion with head teachers before they turned in their evaluation to see if they both agreed on the evaluation, especially because supervisors do not spend nearly as much time with teachers as head teachers do. This is done to be as fair as possible. Supervisor evaluations have a 25% share of the teacher's annual report, and the rest (75%) from the head teacher's share if the supervisor attended during the evaluation period and observed the teacher; if not, head teachers have the whole share (100%). In the same context, Al-Afraj (1999) cited in Madini (2005) argued that supervisors should stop writing evaluation reports for teachers, especially since the evaluation has an effect on the relationship between teachers and supervisor. Therefore, Madini (2005) argued that teachers' performance might be affected by some reasons that make it unfair to rely on only one visit.

Regarding the rare visit to teachers, or making only one visit per year for teachers, male supervisor FF revealed:

*“I have more than one hundred teachers to visit during the academic year. I*

*cannot make more than one visit for teachers. If I do this, some other teachers will not receive any visits at all. I know it is not enough to evaluate teachers in one visit, but I have no choice.”*

### **8.3.2.2 No pre-arranged visit**

Supervisors do not usually pre-arrange school visits, which is unfair to teachers, as some teachers claimed they are sometimes not ready to have somebody observe them in the classroom. This affects them in two different ways: If a teacher agreed to be observed by the supervisor and did not perform well, this makes an impact on the evaluation, and consequently, the promotion. If the teacher did not agree to be observed by the supervisor, it will affect the relationship with the supervisor. Teachers claimed they need to be informed about the supervisors' visits in order to eliminate any misunderstandings and make them feel calm and unstressed. Female teacher E disclosed:

*“Supervisor’s visits are usually sudden. She attends the period that she chooses; if not, she will write in my evaluation report that I am not a cooperative teacher. I wish the supervisor can tell us before she comes.”*

This is consistent with teachers in Cockburn and Haydn (2004), who considered observing and judging inspections as a stressful experience and even compared it to an act of violation. Moreover, teachers in Kyriacou (2000) considered appraising as a very stressful experience, as they feel that teachers cannot be trusted to do their job successfully.

Regarding the same point, male teacher K had a different experience:

*“When the supervisor comes to visit me, he usually asks me first if I am ready to be observed. If I am not, he tells me that he can come some other time.”*

**8.3.2.3 Contradictions between supervisors’ suggestions** breed teachers’ confusion about what they should follow, and this reflects on the relationship between teachers and their supervisors. Teachers sometimes feel the supervisors come to criticise them and at the same time lack the ability to help them. Female teacher G disclosed:

*“My relationship with the previous supervisor was very good, but poor with the current supervisor; she criticises everything we do.”*

This concurs with Madini (2005), who indicated the contradictions in the recommendations and

instructions between different supervisors put teachers under stress; for example, new supervisor criticises the previous supervisor's methods, causing potential stress. Therefore, she recommended establishing a stable, systematic and clear policy for delivering written instructions and recommendations to teachers that cannot be transformed whenever a change in supervisors occurs.

Tawjihi Teachers also reported some supervisors try, especially in front of the head teachers, to show that they used to be the best teachers. Male teacher B stated they always repeated, *"when I was a teacher I used to do..."* just to undervalue teachers. Tawjihi Teachers also claimed supervisors as well as head teachers are demanding. For example, they asked teachers to do lots of paperwork, which from the teachers' perspective is not essential, as well as give impractical suggestions, which make them feel overloaded. All these issues put teachers under pressure and make them feel stressed. Male teacher L remarked:

*"After the supervisor visit, I feel overloaded, as she gave me a lot of clerical work which needed to be done."*

Some supervisors recognised the importance of having good relationships with teachers, and pay attention to the effect this relationship has on both teachers and supervisors. Female supervisor HH in Alkaser directorate added:

*"I try to be close to teachers. I treat them like a big sister. When they face any problem at school, I always stand beside them."*

## **8.4 Factors Related to Colleagues**

### **8.4.1 Introduction**

Cockburn (1996a) divided colleagues at school into four categories:

- Colleagues who work together cooperatively, friendly and supportively.
- Colleagues who answer any questions and offer other strategies automatically without even asking for help.
- Colleagues who always have a conflict with others.
- Colleagues who have little or no communication with other colleagues.

Unfortunately, workplace environments sometimes turn unpleasant due to conflict with

colleagues, poor communication within the work group, and experiencing harassment in the workplace because of envy and competition about job and status (Bjorkqvist, 1994a). In the same vein, Vecchio (2000) argued jealousy and envy at work are negative emotions that have links to stress at work.

#### 8.4.2 The Research Findings

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the four sources of stress related to colleagues are shown in Table 8.3, in the descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As can be seen, the main sources of stress related to colleagues, for Tawjihi teachers that received the highest ratings are: ‘cooperation between subject teachers is poor’ and ‘cooperation between colleagues is poor’. These findings could be justified because teachers are overloaded, and do not have enough time to meet with other colleagues to coordinate their work together as they are busy preparing, grading and doing other job-related work. At the same time, they need to cooperate as co-workers and subject teachers, as well as offer help if and when necessary. Therefore, between having no time to cooperate and the need to do so, stress accumulates. The high ratings for these two items are consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Antoniou *et al.*, 2000; Kyriacou, 2000; Jacobsson *et al.*, 2001; Ralph *et al.*, 2002; Shu, 2003). These findings contradicted with Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) and Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996), found that relationship and poor cooperation with colleagues are not main sources of stress among teachers.

**Table 8.3: Findings related to colleagues as a source of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to colleagues.</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
Cooperation between subject teachers is poor.	5.7	11.5	16.6	23.9	<b>42.4</b>
Cooperation between colleagues is poor.	9.2	10.5	17.2	22.0	<b>40.8</b>
Jealousy and envy between colleagues.	15.3	10.8	21.7	23.2	29.0
Bad behaviour towards colleagues.	13.7	14.6	24.8	21.3	25.5

Regarding this source of stress, the semi-structured interviews revealed a number of teachers indicated that “*poor relationship with colleagues*” was the only aspect that made them feel stress from colleagues. The majority of teachers revealed their colleagues as supportive, cooperative, and always available when they need advice or help. They are always a source of help and support, not a source of stress, and they consider them a relief factor from stress. Most of the Tawjihi teachers indicated they benefit from their colleagues’ experience in teaching. Friendships

built between colleagues at school relieve their stress and make them happy. It is considered one of the best relationships among others within school or the directorate staff. This concurs with Cockburn (2000), who found that relationships between colleagues contributes to making teachers enjoy their job and helps retention in the profession. Female teacher A remarked:

*“In my first years of teaching I used to turn to colleagues to ask for help or advice. I always found them there for me and they never hesitated to offer help or support. I really appreciated their help, support, and the friendship that built with time between us. Now we are working in different schools, but we still keep in touch.”*

Male teacher M revealed:

*“I had a hard time during my first years. I found colleagues very helpful from the first day I walked in to the school. They offered me a cup of tea with a big smile. They gave me guidance and help.”*

This is confirmed by Cockburn (1996a), who pointed out that colleagues not only helped new teachers settle at the school, but also shared joys and even troubles together. She argued both old and new teachers should know that developing good relationships could begin with saying ‘hello’ and welcoming them into their new school’s with friendly smiles. Moreover, Kyriacou (2000) indicated colleagues can either offer real help to deal with stressful situations, or they can share their own experience and give practical advice on how they themselves dealt with stressful situations, thus providing teachers with more effective ways to cope with stress. In contrast, teachers in Shu (2003) revealed lack of support from colleagues make them feel more stressed and dissatisfied. Unfortunately, some teachers hesitate to ask for help for different reasons. From Cockburn's (1996a) point of view, some teachers perceive their colleagues as just busy and other teachers feel fear of being judged incompetent. While teachers in Dunham (1992) for example, feel afraid their colleagues would regard this as a sign of failure or form of weakness.

Cockburn (1996a) indicated teachers need to remove the distance between colleagues and ask for help whenever they need it. She explained that having a good relationship at school makes it easy to talk to others, ask for help, find solutions and tackle problems. She added this makes teachers willing to help one another in times of difficulty. Female teacher D disclosed:

*“I talk to colleagues in the bus on our way to school, as this is the only time we could talk and share experiences. At school, everyone is busy. For me, as I only have three years of experience, it is very important to seek colleagues' help, and I*



*never hesitate, as I always found them willing to help.”*

This concurs with Dunham (1992), who explained colleagues who discuss problems, worries, and feelings together cope with stress easier.

Some subjects, such as Mathematics, Islamic Education, Arabic and English, are taught in all streams. Therefore, more than one teacher is needed to teach these subjects, as one teacher is not enough to teach all the students. At the same time, teachers are overloaded and busy with other responsibilities, which make adequate co-ordination between the same subject teachers hard.

Female teacher F disclosed:

*“I have 24 periods a week. I am a homeroom teacher and coordinator between the Literacy teachers. I am overloaded. I do not have the time to meet with other teachers who teach the same subject as me.”*

The questionnaire phase also confirmed the same result and is also in line with Jacobsson *et al.* (2001), who found that poor coordination between teachers is considered an important predictor of teacher stress. Kyriacou (2000) also indicated that sometimes more than one teacher teaches the same subject; therefore, they need to work together cooperatively on a regular basis in order to lessen stress rather than increase stress.

During the semi-structured interviews with school counsellors, male school counsellor NN mentioned, from his perspective, that *“the poor relationship among teachers”* and *“lack of respect among teachers”* were sources of stress. Other researchers echoed the same concern. Lack of support from other staff and lack of cooperation with colleagues (Antoniou *et al.*, 2000), poor relationships with colleagues (Kyriacou, 1987; Johnstone, 1989; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Ralphet *et al.*, 2002; Hilo, 2004), and conflict with colleagues (Cockburn, 1996a) are considered a source of stress.

## **8.5 Factors Related to Students**

### **8.5.1 Introduction**

Dealing with students is a major facet in the teaching profession (Travers and Cooper, 1996). Moreover, most research studies in teacher stress, which focused on students, indicated that meeting the daily learning process and behavioural needs of students (Brownell, 2006), student misbehaviour (Younghusband *et al.*, 2003; Paulse, 2005; Peltzer *et al.*, 2009; Abdul Samad *et al.*,

2010), poor attitudes to work (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978a; Travers and Cooper, 1996), students' failure to work or to behave (Johnstone, 1989), poor motivation and student indiscipline (Kyriacou, 1987), relationship with students (Tellenback, *et al.* 1983), students' problems (Al-Mohannadi and Capel, 2007) and taking responsibility of students' education (Cox *et al.*, 1989 cited in Travers and Cooper, 1996) as sources that face teachers worldwide and cause stress among them. Therefore, generally speaking, students were identified as a source of stress among teachers (Shu, 2003) and (Jin *et al.*, 2008). The lack of effective consultation and communication between students and their teachers only serves to enhance the problem (Travers and Cooper, 1996).

### **8.5.2 The Research Findings**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the eighteen sources of stress related to students are shown in Table 8.4, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As indicated in the table, the three sources of stress that related to students for Tawjihi teachers that received the highest ratings are: 'the responsibility for pupil's academic achievement', 'individual pupils who continually misbehave' and 'maintaining class discipline'. The first high rating for item 'the responsibility for pupil's academic achievement' concurs with other studies (e.g. Meng and Liu, 2008; Shu, 2003; Ralph *et al.*, 2002; Yagil, 1998). One particular justification could pertain to the importance of the students' performance on the Tawjihi test. As mentioned before, the Tawjihi score decides students' academic future as well as affects teachers' promotion. The second high rating for item 'individual pupils who continually misbehave' is consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1979a; Griffith *et al.*, 1999; Kyriacou, 2000; Jacobsson *et al.*, 2001; Abdul Samadet *et al.*, 2010). This could be because teachers spend most of their time in direct contact with students during school hours, which can possibly encourage too much familiarity between teacher and student, and because students can be disruptive and undisciplined in their behaviour, can all lead to a multitude of problems and potential sources of stress (Kyriacou, 1987). The third highest rating for item 'maintaining class discipline' is in line with other studies (e.g. Kyriacou, 1987; Lewis, 2001; Lewis, 2006, Antoniou *et al.*, 2006; Al-Harbi, 2007). This could be justified by teachers need to discipline bad behaviour whenever it happens as well as to have the ability to maintain

classroom discipline. Not being able to do so cause stress among teachers.

**Table 8.4: Findings related to students as a source of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to students.</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
The responsibility for pupil's academic achievement.	9.2	15.9	17.5	17.5	<b>39.8</b>
Individual pupils who continually misbehave.	10.2	15.7	19.2	20.4	<b>34.5</b>
Maintaining class discipline.	13.7	19.7	20.7	16.9	<b>29</b>
Dealing with individual pupil problems.	8.3	15.9	26.1	21.3	28.3
Special pupils in the class (e.g. ADHD, low ability or pupils with disabilities or gifted and talented).	16.6	17.5	21.7	19.4	24.8
Managing difficult pupils from unconventional families (e.g. single parent) or dysfunctional families (e.g. parent conflicts).	13.4	17.5	26.4	21.3	21.3
Pupils' non-acceptance of teacher's authority.	17.5	20.4	22	19.1	21
Dealing with pupils who suffer emotional problems.	9.2	23.6	24.5	22.9	19.7
Pupils' general misbehaviour (e.g. lying, extorting money, impolite, cheek, etc...)	18.8	18.8	23.9	20.1	18.5
Punishing pupils.	15	23.6	26.1	18.2	17.2
Feeling insecure because of some pupils' bad attitude towards me.	19.4	22	24.2	17.8	16.6
Pupils do not attend frequently (the high level of absence).	16.2	19.1	28	21.7	15
Pupils are always late.	17.5	20.1	22.9	24.8	14.6
Cheating in examinations.	19.7	28.3	20.1	17.2	14.6
Pupils who lack motivation.	27.7	28	21	11.8	11.5
Pupil's poor attitudes towards classroom tasks.	21.7	23.6	24.5	19.7	10.5
Pupils' general low ability.	31.2	23.9	22.9	13.7	8.3
Pupils' constraining code of dress and uniform.	37.6	19.4	21.3	14.3	7.3

Regarding these sources of stress, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjhi teachers during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *Low academic level of students, especially reading and writing skills.*
- *Students' bad behaviour.*
- *Frequent student absences.*
- *Students who have emotional problems.*
- *High competition level among students.*
- *Students with different backgrounds.*

The following are some issues raised by Tawjihi teachers in relation to students:

**8.5.2.1 Students' misbehaviour.** Students' misbehaviour is defined as antisocial behaviour, and varies upon teacher's expectations of how students have to behave in the classroom (Haroun and O'hanlon, 1997). Furthermore, Kyriacou (2000) argued researchers need to consider, when studying discipline, to what extent teachers make a student's behaviour a problem to themselves. For example, Travers and Cooper (1996) argued that some teachers do not admit having any problems with students, as they consider this a major aspect within the teaching profession. According to Danham (1992) and Kyriacou (2000), students' behaviour can be minor and major. Minor as: arriving late, refusing punishment and not paying attention to teacher. Major as: verbal abuse and physical aggression towards teachers or other students. They argued that the former appears insignificant as a cause of stress, while the latter is considered more of a serious problem.

Male teacher K disclosed:

*“Some students' behaviours are unacceptable and uncontrollable; such as talking to other students and laughing for no reason. Such minor behaviours, when they happen often and repeatedly, make teachers really frustrated.”*

Tawjihi teachers confirmed this finding in the questionnaire phase. Moreover, their concerns are echoed by other researchers in Jordan. For example, teachers in Haroun and O'hanlon (1997) reported some behaviour is considered serious problems due to frequency, since it causes emotionally draining for teachers than separate, isolated and serious misbehaviour. The repeated misbehaviours also turn serious when teachers reach tolerance level. Teachers in Haroun and O'hanlon (1997) reported talking out of turn, inattention, lack of motivation, out of seat, inappropriate banter, non-verbal noise, students asking to leave the classroom and bullying, as the most common misbehaviours in Jordanian schools. It is also consistent with Kyricaou (1987), who pointed out that a cumulative effect of constant and repeated behaviour is stronger than the effect of single, serious and disruptive incidents. Additionally, in a comparative study, Kassih (2006) found discipline and students' misbehavior are problems face both Jordanain and American schools.

Sometimes, parents and even teachers themselves play an important role in encouraging Tawjihi

students to keep the bad behaviour. They avoid punishing the bad behaviour, instead justifying the pressure of the Tawjihi examination. Regarding this point, male school counsellor NN comments:

*“When the Tawjihi student exhibits a bad behaviour, parents usually forgive him/her, as they do not want to disrupt or upset him/her. This is absolutely wrong because we need to punish the bad behaviour regardless of whether he/she is in Tawjihi or not.”*

**8.5.2.2 Maintaining discipline.** This issue is deeply linked to the former one and is also confirmed by Tawjihi teachers in the questionnaire phase. Kyriacou (2000) indicated two features could cause stress when maintaining discipline: the level of attentiveness and awareness teachers need to use to avoid occurrences of misbehaviour from the beginning, as well as dealing with misbehaviour when it really happens. Lewis (2001) found teachers use two distinct discipline approaches: coercive discipline (e.g. yelling in anger, group punishments, etc.) and relationship based discipline (e.g. discussion, hints, recognition). As mentioned before, head teachers should support teachers when student related issues arise.

Regarding this point, female teacher A remarked:

*“One time I had a problem with a student. What stressed me the most was that the head teacher did not stand by my side? The head teacher’s excuse was that the student is a Tawjihi student and everybody needs to be kind to them as they are under pressure.”*

She added:

*“Now I have my own discipline techniques. Even my relationship with students is better and much stronger.”*

This is in line with Cockburn (1997a), who indicated discipline problems usually lessen with increased years of teacher's experience. Teachers with more experience were further able to develop their own discipline strategies. Moreover, experience helps teachers build stronger rapport with their students. A good relationship means mutual respect and connection between teachers and students.

**8.5.2.3 Motivation to work.** Unmotivated students are those who do not participate in classroom learning activities (Younghusband *et al.*, 2003). According to Kyriacou (2000), teaching students

who lack motivation makes teachers feel frustrated, exhausted and is counterproductive, as teachers end up spending most of the time encouraging these students to do the work.

Female teacher J remarked:

*“Vocational students do not have the motivation to work. They do not care if they pass the examination or not. These kinds of students make teachers frustrated and stressed. Moreover, some academic stream students are very motivated. They always ask questions, even during teacher's break time. They are eager to learn and want to get high grades. This kind of student also puts teachers under pressure.”*

This is in line with other studies (e.g. Meng and Liu (2008; Antoniou *et al.*, 2006; Younghusband *et al.*, 2003; Kyriacou, 2000; Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996; Jurado *et al.*, 1998). Moreover, a report for UNESCO in (1980) cited in Cosgrove (2000) indicated the most poorly motivated students were those forced into school. In the current study, the low academic levels of vocational stream students force them to either join the vocational streams or stay home, as other choices are unavailable.

In the questionnaire phase this source achieved a relatively low rating, which is in line with Kyriacou and Chein (2004) and Kyriacou (2000). This can be explained by the self-motivation that Tawjihi students adopt in order to get a good score, with exception to some of the vocational streams students who lack this self-motivation. Tawjihi students know that their academic future depends on their Tawjihi test grade.

**8.5.2.4 Academic level.** Tawjihi teachers mentioned students with low academic levels, especially in vocational schools, were also sources of stress. Female home economics teacher E, revealed:

*“What stresses me the most is the low academic levels of the students? Some of them transferred to apprenticeship, because their grade is very low, and then transferred back to the vocational schools. They have accumulated academic weaknesses and have no motivation.”*

Regarding talented (gifted) students, male head teacher II, in Almazara Directorate stated:

*“Students in my school are very talented. This year I had to exchange the Biology teacher with another teacher, as students complained about him. I know this affected his emotions and feelings, but I need to do the best for the school to keep its reputation as a distinguished school.”*

Male teacher K exclaimed:

*“The low academic level of the students, their low motivation and their behaviour are very stressful.”*

This finding is consistent with other studies elsewhere. For example, teachers in Younghusband *et al.* (2003) argued large classes of students with different ability levels are difficult to manage. Also, Dunham (1992) specified teaching students with wide range of abilities, behaviour and attitudes put more demands on teachers, making them feel stressed. Moreover, Antoniou *et al.* (2006) found that slow progress of students is considered a source of stress.

**8.5.2.5 Absence and punctuality of students.** The MOE's regulations do not allow students to attend the Tawjihi examination unless they pass all school examinations, as well as not exceed six hours of absenteeism per semester. Therefore, some Tawjihi students come to school only to be allowed to attend the Tawjihi examination. Teachers feel loss of authority and have trouble implementing these regulations for two reasons; the first is emotional: teachers do not want to feel guilty for making students lose the chance to attend the Tawjihi examination because of them when teachers refer them to the Teaching and Education Directorate. Second, social reasons: even if some teachers want to do so, societal pressure by parents and community cannot be ignored. This is in line with Benmansour (1998), who found that teachers in her study lost authority and had less control over students who were generally becoming more assertive. All grades given by Moroccan teachers throughout the academic year accounted for only 25% of students' global grades. In the present study, Tawjihi teachers do not have any percentage from their students' grades to be counted in Tawjihi examination. Some teachers and head teachers suggested that it would be better taking into account 20% or more of school grades to be counted towards the Tawjihi examination. They claimed that this will make students pay more attention to teachers, attend schools regularly and help teachers keep their authority. Their suggestion was reasonable in helping teachers not lose authority and control over students. Regarding this suggestion, Alkarak Head of Education and Teaching Directorate, stated:

*“In Matrik about 25 years ago, 20% of students' school grades were accounted in the examination. Teachers were under too much social pressure. We end up with most of the students getting this percentage. There was not any objectivity or accuracy in the grade. Students in the current Tawjihi system cannot enter the Tawjihi examination unless student passes all the school examinations and has no more than six hours of being absent with reasonable reasons each semester. There are still social pressures on teachers that do not allow them to do things the*

*honest way.”*

Matrik is another national test applied at the end of the primary stage to allow students to access the secondary stage.

Another source mentioned by Tawjihi teachers relates to the previous background from former students about the difficulty of some subjects, such as: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Computer and English, which causes students more pressure, and in turn reflects on teachers as they need to work more and persuade students they can pass the examination even if the subject is really difficult. Female teachers H, who teaches Computers, explained:

*“Students affect each other. When students hear from previous Tawjihi students that some topics or subjects are hard, they get very nervous. They put in their mind that this subject is hard and they cannot pass. Teachers need a lot of effort to persuade students that the hardness or easiness of a subject is a subjective issue.”*

Lastly, in their research, Younghusband *et al.* (2003) indicated that regardless of levels of stress, teachers still love teaching and like to talk about: the positive interactions with students, helping and encouraging students to learn, positive impact on students, enjoying teaching outside the classroom and getting involved with students in different activities outside of school. Teachers also spoke about their feelings when they watch their students develop socially, emotionally, intellectually and with different life skills. They feel this is their reward for teaching.

## **8.6 Factors Related to Parents and Community**

### **8.6.1 Introduction**

Stress-related problems stem from many factors; one of these is parents and the community. As part of their role to help their children’s education and their community, parents need to be aware about the teachers’ efforts and appreciate it. Unfortunately, parents appear to put teachers under frequent stress-related problems (Ralphet *al.*, 2002). For example, Kyriacou and Chien (2004) indicated parents put teachers under pressure, much like they put their children under pressure to obtain high grades at school, and to gain entry into the best universities and careers. They added parents always criticise teachers when they feel teachers do not do well with their children and do not help them succeed. They give advice to teachers about how to teach or how to use different teaching methods. Sometimes, parents complain to the head teacher if they are



dissatisfied with the teacher's effectiveness, or are unhappy about their child's grades. Moreover, Cockburn (1996a) argued parents could be beneficial volunteers on school trips or in the classroom, but at the same time the parents' presence also put teachers under pressure. Additionally, teachers in Travers and Cooper (1996) complained parents do not take a big part in their children's education and considered it the teacher's responsibility. Teachers added parents support has declined, and they blame teachers for any problems that happen inside or outside the classroom. In contrast, parents complain teachers do not give their child individual attention in class. Teachers consider this is impossible, especially in extra-large classes.

### **8.6.2 The Research Findings**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the twelve sources of stress related to parents and community are shown in Table 8.5, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. Table 8.5 also indicates the three sources of stress that received the highest rating in relation to parents and community for Tawjihi teachers as: 'parents disagree with the ways I manage and teach the class', 'bad social relations outside school affect my relations inside the school' and 'educated' parents are always bothering me more than 'non educated' parents'.

The first high rating 'parents disagree with the ways I manage and teach the class' is consistent with the findings of other studies in Jordan (e.g. Khliafat and Zghool, 2003) as well as other studies elsewhere (e.g. Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Paulse, 2005; Shu, 2003). This can be justified by parents' interference in the classrooms and interrupting the teachers' teaching methods are common in Jordanian schools. This common practice occurs even though teachers are the ones who have been trained on using different teaching methods, managing classroom or maintaining discipline, not the parents. The second highest rating of 'bad social relations outside school affect my relations inside the school' is considered a new finding and different than other research findings. It could be justified by the effect of culture, and the difficulty of separating attitudes, emotions and feelings outside school from inside school. Teachers understand this disparity and feel more pressure because of it.

The third highest rating, 'educated' parents are always bothering me more than 'non educated' parents' is also considered a new finding and different from other research findings as well. This could be a manifestation of educated parents developing more of an understanding towards the importance of Tawjihi tests because of their own educational background, as opposed to non-

educated parents who are less knowledgeable about education. Therefore, the educated parents become more worried and concerned than usual and put teachers under additional stress.

**Table 8.5: Findings related to parents and community as asource of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to parents and community</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
Parents disagree with the ways I manage and teach the class.	4.5	6.4	11.1	20.7	<b>57.3</b>
Bad social relations outside school affect my relations inside the school.	9.6	14	17.5	15.9	<b>43</b>
‘Educated’ parents are always bothering me more than ‘non educated’ parents.	10.8	15.6	22	24.2	<b>27.4</b>
Some parents ask me to give special attention to their children.	12.1	15	23.6	23.6	25.8
Dealing with parents who have spoilt their children and allow them to develop bad behaviours or beliefs.	18.5	19.1	18.5	22.3	21.7
Contact with the parents is difficult.	18.8	19.2	25.9	15.7	20.1
High demands from parents to achieve good results.	16.2	22	23.6	18.8	19.4
Misunderstanding between teacher and parents.	11.1	24.2	24.5	21	19.1
Lack of recognition for good teaching.	21.3	23.2	22.6	14.6	18.2
Poor cooperation from the parents.	24.5	22	21.7	15.3	16.6
Lack of parental skills in dealing with their children, leading to teachers feeling drained because of the extra attention required.	22.9	22.3	25.8	15.3	13.7
Public’s attitude and misunderstanding about high school teacher’s workload.	30.9	24.2	17.2	14.3	13.4

Regarding these sources of stress, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *Lack of parental cooperation.*
- *High expectations from parents and society to help students achieve high results.*
- *Difficulty reaching parents.*
- *Some parents realise they have a student only when he/she is in the Tawjihi class.*
- *Lack of parents’ attention to their children, even if they are Tawjihi.*
- *Social pressures from parents and community.*
- *Parents spoil their children.*
- *Parents’ negative attitude towards the vocational streams.*

Some of these issues are discussed below:

**8.6.2.1 High expectations from parents and society** regarding their children's needs to get high grades in Tawjihi affect teachers. Male teacher C revealed:

*“All parents without any exception want their children to pass the Tawjihi and to get very high grades. Although they already knew their children's academic level, they expect the Tawjihi teacher to have a type of magic to help their children get high results.”*

This is in line with Shu (2003), who indicated that parents and society have unrealistic expectations for students to pass the National Entrance Exam regardless of their academic ability, which makes teachers feel stressed. Furthermore, teachers in Ralphet *al.* (2002) revealed people expect teachers to do miracle work for students and society. They added parents also have unrealistic expectations about children's performance and achievements, and consider teachers entirely responsible about students' results on the examination. Moreover, Yagil (1998) indicated parents consider teachers responsible about their child's performance, attributing their child's failure to the teachers.

FF, an educational supervisor in Central Karak Directorate, confirmed:

*“In the Tawjihi system, a teacher is the only person responsible for the students' failure or success. They do not think about other factors that might affect students' achievements and performance. They think of teachers as the main reason, actually the only reason, for students' failure.”*

This concurs with Gaziel (1993), who found Jewish teachers have high levels of stress as parents put greater accountability upon them. Also, Loh (1994) found high expectation from society put teachers under stress. Moreover, parents unwilling to take responsibility for their children, parents who spoil their children (Shu, 2003), being observed by parents and pressure from parents (Borg *et al.*, 1991) were the most common causes of stress among teachers. However, this is not in line with Meng and Liu (2008), who found being observed by parents was one of the least sources of stress among teachers, as classroom observation is common in China.

**8.6.2.2 The media:** Media plays a very important role in changing the community's view towards the teaching profession. It reinforces the public's attitudes that teaching is a low status profession and discourages students to choose said profession as a future career. In television programmes and series, the media shows the teaching profession as a bad career choice and stresses that all

other careers are better.

In 2006, Queen Rania established an award called “the Queen Rania Award for a distinguished teacher”. Queen Rania gave instructions to the media to give this award full coverage in the news and print media. The media started announcing this award and introduced teachers in a respectful way. It showed every single career relies on teachers and the teaching profession. The message given to the community: behind every doctor, lawyer, engineer, or any other career, lies a teacher (MOE, 2008; Shehan newspaper, 2006a). Teachers hoped Queen Rania’s award would benefit and change the public perspective about teachers and the teaching profession.

Male teacher C stated:

*“The media puts in people’s mind that the teaching profession is not the best choice for their children. Currently, Queen Rania’s award for the distinguished teacher is one of the steps that try to give teachers back their value; this is a good try.”*

This echoed the comment made by FF, a male supervisor in the Central Karak directorate, who stated:

*“The media plays a major role in undervaluing teachers. Its role should focus on changing society’s perspective about teachers. We all hope that Queen Rania’s award for the distinguished teacher will help teachers and give them back their value.”*

Teachers concerns are echoed by other researchers. For example, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996); Ralph *et al.* (2002) found out the negative and biased role the media plays affects teachers. Moreover, Cockburn (2000) mentioned in a study conducted by the Teacher Training Agency in 1998, that 51% of people developed negative attitudes towards the teaching profession from watching TV and 40% from documentaries. Furthermore, Wilhelm (2000) indicated teachers claimed that society devalued teachers because of the media. Additionally, Cole and Walker (1989) suggested that parents, the media, and above all, educational authorities need to understand today’s teacher problems, such as stress and burnout. Moreover, Travers and Cooper (1996) specified the role the media plays of changing the traditional stereotype of teachers as an educator, adviser, friend and helper to link them instead with students abused by their teachers. Mtika (2008) indicated that society’s lack of respect and trust for teachers makes them feel frustrated. Moreover, Bahraini teachers in Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) and Spanish teachers in Jurado *et al.* (1998) revealed parental negative attitude towards the teaching

profession is considered a source of stress. From the other perspective, being respected could also put teachers under pressure. Shu (2003) indicated teachers in Taiwan are respected by society; however, teachers feel more pressure as society considers them role models and scholars for society and students, and thus creates high expectations for teachers.

**8.6.2.3 Poor communication between parents and teachers**, as revealed by Tawjihi teachers, includes poor relationships with parents, lack of parents' cooperation and difficulty to reach parents, further puts teachers under pressure. Some parents appear to be very worried and concerned about their child's academic future only during the Tawjihi year, so they stress meetings with teachers or even call them during their private time.

Female teacher J revealed:

*“Some parents remember that they have a student only when it is the Tawjihi year. They keep calling and coming to school, putting teachers under too much stress.”*

This is in line with Shu (2003), who indicated the high level of daily interactions with parents is a source of stress.

Some other parents do not recognise the importance of the relationships between school and home. They forget that schools' and parents' roles should complement each other to help students to achieve higher grades in the Tawjihi examination, rather than oppose one another. For example, female teacher A reported:

*“Sometimes the student graduates from a school that has never met his/her parents. Parents come to school only when they have complaints about teachers.”*

Other parents do not realise that for the sake of their child, the importance of a teacher needing to easily reach or contact them. Sometimes, teachers need to talk to parents regarding some behavioural or academic issues related to their children, but they cannot reach them.

Regarding the same issue, male teacher K stated:

*“The school is vocational and all students come from different areas in Alkarak's governorate. When you need to contact a parent, you need to send a letter by mail, sometimes with the bus driver, or to call if they have a phone. Unfortunately, these trials are not always working.”*

This is in line with other studies that consider parental involvement (Austin *et al.*, 2005), communication to and from parents (Kyriacou and Chien, 2004), relationship with students' parents (Shu, 2003; Veenman, 1984), interaction with parents (Yagil, 1998) and lack of parents' cooperation (Alqura'an, 1995; Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996) as a source of stress.

The case in Alakwar is totally different; most parents are busy working in farms or on their own work. They care little about Tawjihi and do not care whether their children pass the Tawjihi examination. If students fail, children either help with farm work or join the military, as this will bring a salary, and at the same time parents do not have to spend money on education. Alakwar Directorate, male Tawjihi teacher B, stated:

*“Most of the parents are farmers and have a big family. They prefer to send their children to the military or to work with them in the farm instead of paying attention to their education. Teachers call, send letters and even go by themselves, but nothing works. I am one of the Alkwar citizens and I feel bad to say this but this is the fact.”*

This is consistent with Yagil (1998), who indicated contacting parents is a complicated issue for all teachers in Israel. However, this is inconsistent with Loh (1994), who indicated parental relationships were one of the least sources of stress among high school teachers. She explained that human relationships with students, colleagues, head teachers and parents in general, were not stressful to the teachers.

Heads of the school counsellor's department, school counsellors, head teachers and educational supervisors agreed lack of parents' corporation and negative attitudes towards teachers and the teaching profession affect teachers. Alkaser Directorate head teacher KK confirmed this point, stating:

*“I know that the lack of parents' cooperation is one of the sources of stress among teachers. Many times a teacher asked to meet or to talk to one of the parents, but we were not able make it.”*

Their concerns echo other researchers. For example, in Jordan, Khliafat and Zghool (2003) indicated the relationship with parents and the community was a source of stress among teachers. Teachers attribute this to lack of parents' cooperation, low value towards the teaching profession, unreasonable expectations from parents and parents' interference in their teaching methods or classroom discipline. Cockburn (1996a) also indicated insufficient support from parents could lead to teacher stress and burnout. Moreover, Colangelo (2004) found increasing parental

involvement in classrooms will lower stress in teachers. He recommended parents and community need to come back to school and work together with teachers to improve the situation at school, which would help teachers feel better and appreciated.

**8.6.2.4 Underappreciating the subject and the stream teachers teach** by parents and the community was another source of stress some Tawjihi teachers revealed. Female teacher E stated:

*“Society, parents, and the students themselves undervalue the vocational streams, so how do they expect us to feel?!”*

She added:

*“Society, starting from the parents and students, should change their views about vocational streams and should not be ashamed to join them.”*

## **8.7 Factors Related to Personal Circumstances**

### **8.7.1 Introduction**

This factor could come from outside or the teachers themselves. Researchers studied and cited this factor very well. For example, Travers and Cooper (1996) argued the sources of teacher stress do not only come from the teachers’ working environment, but could also come from potential stressors that existed in the personal life of the teacher, and outside the work time, thus affecting the teachers’ behaviour at school. These potential stressors include: stressful life events, home-work conflicts, financial difficulties, and conflict between the organisations and teacher's personal beliefs.

### **8.7.2 The Research Findings**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the six sources of stress related to personal circumstances are shown in Table 8.6, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As can be seen, the three sources of stress that received the highest ratings are: ‘subject taught does not fit my expectations or ability’, ‘feeling concerned about being observed’ and ‘financial constraints prevent me from sharing, with my colleagues, their special occasions’. The highest rating ‘subject taught does not fit my expectations or ability’ is consistent with the findings of other studies. For example, Burke and Dunham (1982); Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) and Kaller (1984), all cited in Travers and Cooper (1996), argued that due to

staff shortage or school budget, role conflict occurs when teachers are forced to teach a subject outside of their own specialty area and have no skills or desire. Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated teaching a curriculum that the teacher has little working knowledge of and unfamiliarity with other areas the teacher did not study at the university or college was also a frequent problem revealed by teachers. This could explain the difficulty teachers may have when teaching subject they do not have the skills or abilities to teach. According to Travers and Cooper (1996), this problem has real impact on self-esteem, discipline and control over the class, especially if students feel that the teacher is having difficulty with the curriculum.

The second highest rating ‘feeling concerned about being observed’ is consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Travers and Cooper, 1993; Kyriacou, 2000; Jacobsson *et al.*, 2001; Perryman, 2007; Cockburn and Haydn, 2004; Kyriaco and Chein, 2004). This could be attributed to human nature and/or personality type, as not everyone likes to be observed, especially if this observation has an effect on their promotion and career ladder.

The third highest rating ‘financial constraints prevent me from sharing, with my colleagues; their special occasions’ is consistent with (e.g. Kersaint *et al.*, 2007). This reflects the importance of social relationships in Jordanian culture. Low salary, financial responsibility toward family, as well as sharing colleagues’ social occasions put more financial burden on them, especially because non-participation is unacceptable in Jordanian culture.

**Table 8.6: Findings related to personal circumstance as a source of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to personal circumstances</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
Subject taught does not fit my expectations or ability.	7.3	10.2	12.1	15.6	<b>54.8</b>
Feeling concerned about being observed (e.g. supervisor, headteacher)	17.6	11.8	18.2	17.6	<b>34.8</b>
Financial constraints prevent me from sharing my colleagues special occasions (e.g. wedding, sickness, death).	11.8	10.8	19.1	23.9	<b>34.4</b>
Personal health difficulties.	15.6	19.1	21	19.4	24.8
Difficulty creating activities.	16.9	19.4	26.1	16.9	20.7
Having too much responsibility for my family.	33.4	22.6	17.2	15	11.8

Regarding these sources of stress, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:



- *Home and family responsibilities.*
- *Feeling guilty for not spending enough time with family and children.*
- *No crèche available for teachers own children.*
- *Breastfeeding hour.*
- *Do not consider the teachers' personal circumstances.*

#### **8.7.2.1 Home-Work conflict**

Dual-career couples describe couples responsible for family, and at the same time, pursue professional careers (Travers and Cooper, 1996; Kyriacou, 2000). Moreover, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) indicated conflict between work demands and family, and work and one's personal beliefs, could lead to stress. In teaching, dual-career is considered a feature of teacher stress, especially as large portions of teachers are women. The interaction between work and home, stressful life events and financial difficulties could create stress (Travers and Cooper, 1996). Additionally, Kyriacou (2000) reported teachers find it hard to not bring home work-related problems they could face at school. He indicated that stress generated at work could easily spill over to home and vice versa. Furthermore, Cinamon and Rich (2005) found a relationship between teacher stress and work–family conflict.

Tawjihi teachers, especially female teachers, raised some inter-correlation issues, so it is better to deal with these issues together. These are: household responsibilities, responsibility for their own children and family, and in sequence, work and home conflict. According to Kersaint *et al.* (2007), women have a responsibility for family which includes caring for children, elderly family, husband or wife as well as domestic work. Most female Tawjihi teachers in this research mentioned what stressed them the most was the amount of household responsibilities. Especially since most of them mentioned their husbands work far away and they come home only on the weekends or once a month. Therefore, they have to do many chores before going to work and after arriving home from work. They need to get everybody ready, either to school, or crèche, take care of their husbands if they come home daily, their children and any other members of the family. They are required to cook, clean, help their children with homework and participate in social occasions, such as: wedding, sickness and death. After a long working day, they feel stressed and unable to keep the balance between their work and responsibility towards their

family. Married female teacher E remarked:

*“I have a big responsibility towards my family. When I get home from school I start my second shift. After that, I have to start over with my schoolwork. On weekends, I have to spend some time with my husband who comes only on weekends. This is not only my case; most of my colleagues at school suffer from the same pressures.”*

This is not only the case of Jordanian working women; Madini (2005) reported the difficulty to keep balance between work and responsibility at home as one of the most critical sources of stress for female kindergarten teachers. Female teachers in Qatar also reported overload and responsibility toward husband and home as a source of stress (Al-Mohannadi and Capel, 2007). Furthermore, O’Driscoll *et al.* (2011) found women experience higher levels of work-family conflict.

The low income levels in Jordan force women to work to support their husbands and family, as one salary is no longer enough, and at the same time are expected to raise their opportunity to get married. This concurs with the Library of Congress's (1989) study, which indicated inflation made the dual-income family a necessity in many cases. In this study, the Jordanian journalist Nadia Hijab argued the need for money and opportunities have greater effect on women than the cultural influences. For example, nowadays, when most men decide to get married, they usually look for an employed woman. The same study also mentioned that Jordanian sociologist Mohammad Barhoum (1989) argued women work because male salaries are no longer enough to support the family. In addition, work provides women with confident and adequate weight in family matters.

Some female teachers complained that although they work hard inside and outside the home, and offer support to their families and husbands, their efforts go unappreciated. They always feel guilty because they cannot balance work duties and responsibilities as mother and wife. Female teacher E affirmed:

*“My children always ask me to spend more time with them. My husband accuses me of not giving him priority. Moreover, I am neglecting him and do not spend as much time with him the way non-working women do. Instead of helping and supporting me, he puts more burdens on me.”*

This is consistent with Kersaint *et al.* (2007), who found that spending time with family, along

with family responsibilities, were the greatest factors for teachers leaving the profession. Furthermore, women in Jordan still find that balance between work and family critically constrains their work opportunities (World Bank, 2005). Moreover, Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found the conflict between work and family was affected by pressure at work, spouse disagreement and other family burdens. Matsui *et al.* (2002) found a link between parental demands, work-family conflicts and life strain. However, this is inconsistent with Woods *et al.* (1997) cited in Butt and Lance (2005), who found female teachers were able to work double or triple shifts and manage their home and childcare.

Female teacher D remarked

*“Everyday I bring home schoolwork that has to be done, in addition to the domestic work and children. I wondered about my husband; he is a teacher and he never brought any schoolwork with him. I asked myself, ‘is he doing his work faster than me, or does he not do it at all.’ I feel I cannot manage all these demands.”*

Bishay (1996) indicated women are under stress and dissatisfied with their job as a result of more responsibilities at home, which increases the pressure of dual home and work. He also indicated women take paperwork, preparation and grading papers more seriously than men, and thus feel more time pressure.

Researchers found social support is very important in dealing with home-work conflict. For example, Matsui *et al.* (2002) found spouse support buffers the relationship between parental demands and work-family conflict. Moreover, O’Driscoll *et al.* (2011) indicated support from spouse, family, colleagues and administration reduce or mediate levels of work-family conflict. Therefore, Cinamon and Rich (2005) explained some countries try to reduce female teachers’ work-family conflict. In Israel, for example, schools decrease teachers’ workloads for those who have young children, allow a few days paid leave to be given to teachers to take care of their children; and arrange staff meetings in the evening to give female teachers time to feed their children and get them ready for sleep. If not, teachers will feel stressed and frustrated and might leave the profession (Kossek and Ozeki, 1998 cited in Cinamon and Rich, 2005).

Moreover, Madini (2005) pointed out most Saudi households have a foreign housemaid to deal with household jobs. This kind of domestic help, as Hallawani (1982) cited in Madini (2005) mentioned, solved most of the employed women problems relating to time, but the wife still has supervision responsibilities in the house. This agrees with Jordanian sociologist Mohammad

Barhoum in the Library of Congress study (1989), who argued women with high salaries could hire servants to help with child care and housework. Unfortunately, low income level and increased life expenses do not allow most Jordanian households to have foreign servants, so the problem still exists. Jordanian sociologist Mohammad Barhoum (1989) argued women with low income could ask other female family members to help them in taking care of their own children and domestic work. Hence, women rely on other women to help instead of sharing the responsibility between men and women.

Female teacher G stated:

*“I have a housemaid which makes me able to have rest when I get home. Before I used to feel really exhausted, overloaded and could not balance work, study, children and home. I still have house work and children responsibilities, but not as much as before. Fortunately, I can afford paying for a housemaid; the majority of teachers cannot, so they still suffer.”*

Increasing public services to assist employed women by preparing cooked or ready meals, and supplying them with someone to clean the house or do laundry, are methods mentioned by Hallawani (1982) cited in Madini (2005), which are used in different countries to help solve household problems. Again, the case is different in Jordan; these services could help employed women, but at the same time puts more financial burden on them. Their salary will not be enough to cover these extra expenses, especially because Jordanian families are big and need more care. For example, Singh and Singh (2006) indicated married teachers' family demands were found to be higher than single teachers, and those who had children had higher family demands than those without children. The findings of Shu (2003), however, are unpredictable and inconsistent with other findings. She argued society expected teachers to not reflect their personal life and emotional problems on their work. Consequently, all teachers reported their private life does not interfere with their work; however, they bring work problems home and not the opposite.

Finding a suitable place to leave their children is another issue raised by female teachers. Some of them are lucky and live near their parents or husbands' family, and can thus leave their children with them. Others look for a crèche or nursery to leave their children. Some find a child minder where they can leave their children. In rare cases, some teachers leave their children with the

housekeeper or maid. The problem worsens because most female teachers do not drive or have a car, so they need to walk or use public transportation. Therefore, their children get sick most of the time, especially during winter. Female teacher D remarked:

*“What stresses me the most is finding a suitable place to leave my little children! My parents and family in law live far from me, so I have to take them to a nursery. My two little children are always sick, either from the weather or from other children in the nursery.”*

Lawson (2008) indicated the education system needs to put more effort towards building a flexible workplace for working mothers. In some countries, such as Denmark for example, child care facilities for children under three are provided in the workplace. Pugh (1992) cited in Madini (2005) explained this gives children a high standard of service and gives parents peace of mind.

#### **8.7.2.2 Teacher’s personality**

Research in teacher stress indicated some teachers are prone to stress more than others. For example, Travers and Cooper (1996) argued teachers who have unrealistic expectations for their own work and for the work of others are more stress prone. In contrast, Kyriacou (1997b) explained teachers who have a very realistic set of expectations about their work, and a positive attitude towards their ability to handle problems, are not prone to stress. Moreover, Tennant (2007) and Ralph *et al.* (2002) indicated low self-esteem makes individuals prone to perceive aspects of work as stressful. Additionally, Kyriacou and Pratt (1985) found teachers who experienced little or no stress had a stable and adaptable personality and were well prepared for class. In contrast, teachers who have a worried personality, dwell on matters, and are too conscientious, experienced high stress.

The ability of teachers to demonstrate the subject they teach is very important. Teachers need to have confidence and the ability to demonstrate and explain their own specialised subject; and if they cannot, this will put them under stress. Sometimes, this ability builds with experience. School counsellor LL explained:

*“Some skills come with the experience, but teacher's personality is very important and prone to stress. In fact, this is what happened with one of our teachers. The supervisor attended a class for her and one of the students asked a question and*

*she was not able to answer. All of us, including the head teacher, teachers, supervisors, and students, noticed how this affected her self-esteem and emotions.”*

This is in line with Tennant (2007), who argued teachers who cannot control events that could happen to them at work or in their personal life, are more prone to stress. While those who hold positive attitudes towards their ability to deal effectively with their personal life or work problems are less prone to stress. Female school counsellor LL added:

*“This teacher had a sick leave because of stress, since what had happened to her. I suggested for the school staff to not visit her or even to call, as this will make her remember what happened, until she has a full recovery.”*

This concurs with Younghusband *et al.* (2003), who argued when a teacher is on stress leave, colleagues do not know what to do or how to act; shall they visit, send flowers, or even a card?!

According to female head of directorate, CC listed the following important indicators to avoid stress: being prepared and ready to answer any questions raised by students, having a strong personality, and being self-confident. She explained:

*“Teacher’s strong personality, self-confidence, and the ability to demonstrate the subject the teacher teaches are all factors to help reduce stress. When I was a Tawjihi teacher, I used to prepare carefully using different references, to be ready for any questions that might be raised by students. When students feel that their teacher is able to explain and answer any question that could be raised by them, they will trust him/her.”*

This in line with Tri and Puolimatka (2000), who indicated educational decision-makers in Finland emphasised the importance of a teacher’s personality. They also confirmed teachers should have a broad knowledge base in order to help students with different abilities. Moreover, teachers should master the subjects they teach.

Being creative, active and well prepared requires time and a creative personality. Teachers claimed that because they are already overloaded, they lack the time to be creative, use different references for their students, give more examples, or help weak students, as they are overloaded. For example, male teacher L stated that:

*“Being creative is not easy, but if you have the time, you could create different ways of teaching and make the teaching fun. They need to give teachers the time to be creative and more active by reducing the workload.”*

## 8.8 Summary

This chapter discussed many important issues related to administrators, supervisors, colleagues, students, parents and personal circumstances as sources of teacher stress. School administration and supervision play critical roles in teacher stress, particularly because school administrations represented by head teachers and deputy heads have the authority to attend lessons and evaluate teachers' performance. The annual evaluation report which affects teachers' professional progress and promotion was one of the most stressful sources. Teachers claimed giving head teachers the right to evaluate teachers and keep this report secret from teachers is unfair, as this could be subject to bias from the head teachers. They claimed they have the right to see their annual evaluation report and suggest the MOE needs to use another process to evaluate teachers' performance. Supervisors also have the authority to evaluate teachers and send written reports to the head teachers to share the results of the evaluation. This means the supervisor's report also affects teachers' professional progress and promotion. Tawjihi teachers also mentioned the contradiction, unpractical recommendations and demands supervisors asked for, further put teachers under pressure. Teachers also argued that one or two visits from the supervisor are inadequate to evaluate their performance.

This chapter also illustrated the sources of stress that Tawjihi teachers reported, such as: poor relationships with head teachers, supervisors and parents, lack of a supportive environment, feeling unappreciated, unpractical demands from head teachers and supervisors, and dealing with unspecialised head teachers or supervisors. Relationship with colleagues is considered one of the most important relationships for teachers, as they deal with colleagues' every day. Most Tawjihi teachers mentioned they have good relationships with colleagues. They found their colleagues supportive and helpful anytime they needed their help. A small percentage of teachers mentioned having conflicts or poor relationships with colleagues. Head teachers have to provide supportive environments from time to time for teachers by arranging social activities inside or outside school in order to give teachers more opportunities to sit together and bond.

One of the most important relationships among school teachers are the potential relationships that could be built between teachers and students. Currently, Tawjihi teachers revealed students' behaviour, class discipline, motivation towards class work and academic level as sources of

stress. Losing authority and control over students because of the Tawjihi system and the MOE regulations was another source of stress.

Factors related to parents and community are very important in helping teachers be successful and efficient in work, as it affects their performance, and at the same time, their morale. Feeling appreciated, valued and respected by parents and the community in general is very important to teachers. Also, parents and community undervaluing and underappreciating the subject and stream the teacher teaches were other sources of stress revealed by Tawjihi teachers. High expectations from parents and society on teachers for their children to get high grades on the Tawjihi examination, and the feeling teachers will be the first person to be questioned about the results, further added to teacher stress. Poor communication between parents and teachers include lack of parental cooperation and difficulty to reach parents and unreasonable demands made by some parents, put teachers under further added pressure. Finally, the media plays a very important role in influencing and positively changing the community's view on the teaching profession.

Keeping balance between work and home, in regards to domestic work and family responsibilities are additional issues raised by female Tawjihi teachers. These issues are not confined to Tawjihi teachers in Jordan however, as these issues are common among all female teachers throughout the world. Teacher's personality, professional difficulties and creative abilities have consequences on teachers' emotional state and sometimes create embarrassment in front of head teachers, supervisors, colleagues and students, adding additional stress. Accordingly, this will reflect on a teacher's self-esteem, self-confidence and well-being.

The next chapter will discuss the findings related to work, teaching difficulties and the educational system's regulations as sources of stress.



## **Chapter nine**

### **Factors Related to the Nature of Work**

#### **9.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents findings related to educational system regulations and policy, school environment, work and teaching difficulties. Therefore, it is divided into four sub sections: factors related to educational system regulations and policy, factors related to teaching difficulties, factors related to school environment and factors related to work.

#### **9.2 Factors Related to Educational System Regulations and Policy**

##### **9.2.1 Introduction**

Rules and regulations are considered an aspect of organisational culture that could make teachers stressed (Travers and Cooper, 1996). Moreover, Cockburn and Haydn (2004) argued one of the acknowledged actions educational policies should take is attracting and recruiting well motivated and intelligent graduates into teaching along with retaining good teachers entering the profession.

##### **9.2.2 The research findings**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers in relation to the eight sources of stress related to educational system regulations and policies are shown in Table 9.1, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As can be seen, the three sources of stress that received the highest ratings are: ‘consultation is not effective’, ‘inadequate disciplinary sanctions are available’ and ‘educational regulations are not taken seriously’. The first high rating ‘consultation is not effective’ is consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Younghusband, 2006; Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996). This could result from the fact that all educational regulations and decisions are designed and decided centrally by the MOE. They are imposed on teachers without consultation or taking their opinions into consideration. The second high rating ‘inadequate disciplinary sanctions are available’ is in line with other studies (e.g. Benmansour, 1998; Lewis, 2001; Lewis, 2006). This coincides with the Tawjihi system itself, which causes Tawjihi teachers to lose authority towards the students. For example, the grade system is ineffective because the school grades are not counted towards the Tawjihi scores. Even the absenteeism’s regulations are not easy to apply (see section 8.5.2.5). Therefore, teachers feel

that maintaining discipline is ineffective. The third highest rating ‘educational regulations are not taken seriously’ is in line with other studies (e.g. Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996). This source is supported by the previous source; for example, the absenteeism regulations are hard to apply. The private tutoring regulations are also not being followed. Therefore, teachers feel constrained due to the stress of either not applying these regulations or they take them too seriously.

**Table 9.1: Findings Related to Educational System Regulations and Policy as a source of stress (N=314)**

Factors related to education system regulations and policy	No stress %	A little of stress %	Some stress %	A lot of stress %	Extreme stress %
Consultation is not effective.	22.6	18.5	24.2	18.5	<b>16.2</b>
Inadequate disciplinary sanctions are available.	21.3	24.5	22.3	17.8	<b>14</b>
Educational regulations are not taken seriously.	24.8	25.8	21.7	16.2	<b>11.5</b>
Educational regulations prohibit teachers from establishing their own business to increase their income.	41.4	17.2	17.5	12.7	11.1
Educational policy is constantly changing.	35.7	21	20.1	13.4	9.9
Participation in decision making is not encouraged (e.g. curriculum).	40.1	23.9	16.6	10.2	9.2
National Curriculum is always changing.	42.7	23.2	14.3	10.8	8.9
Having difficulty in getting a day off when I need it.	51.9	21.7	9.6	8	8.9

Regarding these sources of stress, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers, during the interviews, indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *Difficulty in taking a day off when they need it.*
- *Neither accepting teachers' suggestions, nor involving them in the decision making process.*
- *Unfair promotion regulations.*
- *Teachers' rank regulations.*
- *The education rules that stand with students and against teachers.*
- *Changing the curriculum so the textbooks are always received late.*
- *Tawjihi system itself.*
- *No difference between Tawjihi teachers and regular teachers in relation to workload.*
- *Morning assembly.*
- *No reward for distinguished teachers.*
- *The hierarchy of complaints or petitions (management hierarchies).*

Head teachers agreed that not consulting teachers when changing the curriculum is stressful for teachers. The head of supervision department in MOE revealed regulations and education system itself are stressful for teachers.

The following are some issues that teachers revealed through the interviews:

**9.2.2.1 Lack of participation in decision-making process**, especially those decisions related to the curriculum. Tawjihi teachers mentioned that all decisions come from the top, such as head teacher or the MOE. Teachers are only required to sign these decisions as a formality, rather than with any real input. Teachers feel they are isolated and marginalised because their suggestions are ignored, so they feel stressed. Male teacher C in Alkaser Directorate stated:

*“All decisions come from the MOE or the head teacher without informing us or discussing with us. Teachers’ participating in the decision making process is very important in improving the educational process. When teachers participate in a decision, they will do their best to make this decision successful.”*

This is in line with teachers in Cockburn (1996a), who reported head teachers do everything their own way and expect others to follow their decisions. Also, teachers in Younghusband (2006) feel undervalued and unappreciated as their involvement in the decision-making process is limited. Furthermore, Travers and Cooper (1996) argued lack of teachers’ involvement in decisions related to their work (e.g. curriculum) and the autonomy in decision making all lead to teacher stress. Additionally, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) indicated that not participating in decisions that directly related to teachers’ work makes them feel frustrated. Therefore, Nagel and Brown (2003) suggested head teachers could set up a shared decision-making process in schools, such as governance councils. This helps teachers to feel their opinion is appreciated as they are allowed to participate in school processes and decisions; this in turn would then create a collaborative rather than singular effort, where head teachers maintain control.

**9.2.2.2 Change.** A change makes new demands on a person, brings new threats and weakens the familiar and routine; therefore, change is related to stress, and the more rapid the change, the more the stress (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Cockburn (1996a) argued there are five issues that should be taken into account when applying change: the risk of change, teacher's commitment, its effect on performance, the time and the effect it has on others. She also argued the success or

failure of change is affected by: a person's philosophical attitude towards change, how a person understands the suggested change and reality of the change. In addition, she argued change usually comes from outside school. It comes from people who like to give instructions, tell others how things should be done and who are in fact unaware of what real life at school is about. Furthermore, Ralph *et al.* (2002) argued change in education certainly means changing teachers themselves. Teachers will be under pressure as they need to change their practices and teaching methods that they have been used to for a long time. They added change often leads to conflict, pressure and outcomes that are often perceived as negative for teachers and schools. Moreover, change contributes to teacher stress and leads teachers to feel powerless and alienated in school. This reflects Cockburn's (2000) findings, who argued changes decrease teachers' autonomy and is perceived by them as unnecessary and inappropriate.

Furthermore, Kyriacou (1997a, b) indicated change is often stressful and threatening for teachers as it could indicate previous methods and practices were unsatisfactory. A change often requires new skills that need to be developed in short periods of time, often with inadequate support. Change often forces teachers to leave the methods, routines and practices they are used to. For example, Kyriacou and Harriman (1993) indicated teachers involved in the process of a school merger were under stress. In the same vein, Younghusband (2006) indicated some teachers feel irritated and upset by changes that are often impractical and come from outside. Also, teachers in Benmansour (1998) found changes in the curriculum very stressful, as teachers were told what to teach and how to teach. In contrast, one teacher with ten years of experience cited in Ralph *et al.* (2002, pp10) remarked:

*“Change is, of course, a natural part of life and there is no reason why educational employees, institutions, or systems, should be immune to or protected from it.”*

Constant changes in curriculums and regulations were very stressful for Tawjihi teachers as well.

Female teacher F disclosed:

*“Continuous changes in the curriculum are very stressful. On one hand, change means training and leaving the old teaching methods that we were used to for a long time and follow new methods; on the other hand, the change is not always good, as the curriculum is getting bigger and harder, which puts teachers under time pressure.”*

Regarding the same point, male teacher K added:

*“I remember I used my older brother’s Tawjihi textbooks to study for my Tawjihi examination. Nowadays, students need to buy new textbooks every year as they have some changes. These textbooks are very expensive and some students cannot afford it, so they spend almost the first month of school without books and this is very stressful.”*

This is in line with teachers in Cockburn (1996a) and Cockburn and Haydn (2004), who indicated they are not against change itself, but about continuous change, because this reflects instability. They receive changes without even enough time to assess the effectiveness of the prior change or before they even have a chance to properly implement the change. Teachers in Wilhelm *et al.* (2000) indicated continuous change in curriculum causes stress. Moreover, teachers in Cockburn (1996a) regarded changes as stressful. One teacher cited in Cockburn (1996a, p132), explained:

*“... you have got a lot of people sending you instructions from up high and telling you how it should be done, and you know you cannot do it like that because they do not know what the real world’s like in a school.”*

She continued:

*“You just think you have become familiar with one set and then it changes and you have to re-learn a whole new set.”*

The above remark is consistent with Travers and Cooper (1993, 1996), who mentioned teachers considered changes a source of stress and were unhappy about it, not because of the changes themselves, but because of the authorities’ way of introducing and implementing these changes.

Head teachers have their concerns regarding changes in the curriculum as well. Female head teacher KK, with 18 years experience in Alkaser Directorate, confirmed:

*“The MOE keeps changing the curriculum almost every year. This affects teachers as they have to attend in-service training. Teachers need to prepare more and put forth more efforts.”*

This was echoed by Younghusband *et al.* (2003), who indicated change in curriculum is overwhelming to many teachers and leads teachers to feel great levels of uncertainty, job insecurity and consequently, stress. This coincides also with Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996), who found poor suitability of educational rules and regulations as one of the main sources of frustration among teachers.

**9.2.2.3 Tawjihi system and the regulations around it.** This is one of the issues most Tawjihi teachers complained about, as the regulations and circumstances surrounding Tawjihi makes it a very stressful stage. Male teacher C remarked:

*“The Tawjihi system is very stressful. Everybody including Tawjihi teachers, Tawjihi students, parents, the directorate staff, and the MOE staff are under stress because of the Tawjihi examination.”*

CC, the female head of directorate, stated:

*“The MOE's regulations and legislations, the education system, parents, school administrations, society, students and even teachers themselves make Tawjihi the most stressful stage. My daughter is a Tawjihi student this year and I feel very worried about her as a mother, not only as a head of the directorate. Her entire 12 school years' achievement and future will be decided by her result in the Tawjihi Examination.”*

This echoes the same teachers' concern in Benmansour (1998), who indicated the baccalaureate exam system (national test similar to Tawjihi) puts too much pressure, great demand and responsibility on teachers because they need to cover the entire curriculum. They fear the examination will deal with something they did not cover in class. Therefore, teachers need to work extra hours to make sure they finish and completely cover the curriculum. Physics teachers in Benmansour (1998, p29) stated:

*“Everything is determined by exams, the curriculum, the teaching method, and even the future of students. To access the many educational institutions is dependent upon grades. This is why students and their parents become obsessed with grades.”*

In the present study, male teacher B said:

*“The Tawjihi class is like any other class, but the regulations, education system, and what Tawjihi means to students and parents make this class the most trying class that one can ever have. This causes us, as Tawjihi teachers, to be under more pressure than the other teachers who are under pressure as well.”*

This is also in line with Loh (1994), who found students' performance in public examinations is considered a source of stress.

**9.2.2.4 Having a day off.** This issue has been raised by most Tawjihi teachers. Tawjihi teachers have two perspectives regarding this issue. From one side, some Tawjihi teachers take a day off

because of sickness or to finish paperwork in other departments. That day's pay will be cut from their salary and in turn affects their promotion and annual report. Female teacher E remarked:

*“It is very hard to have sick absences, as the regulations do not allow us, since we have winter break and summer holidays. It is not fair not to have your day off when you need it, especially since this will affect your promotion.”*

From the other side, some teachers argued they cannot take a day off because they feel the heavy responsibility as a Tawjihi teacher to finish and cover the entire curriculum. When they take a day off, they have to work during weekends or after school hours to be able to finish the curriculum on time. For example, female teacher J affirmed:

*“Even if I got sick, I cannot have the day off because this will be on account of finishing the curriculum.”*

This is consistent with Cockburn (1996a), who pointed out that the difficulty in taking time off when teachers were ill was one of the stressful factors for them. Also, Alghsawyneh (2000) found teachers were dissatisfied about their winter and summer holidays. They argued people expect having a long holiday is one of the features that attract people to the teaching profession, but it is in fact not the case. Teachers claimed having the option to take their holiday whenever they need it is more important for them than having long holidays. This is also in line with Meng and Liu (2008), who indicated inadequate breaks and holidays were reported by teachers as a source of stress.

**9.2.2.5 Lack of accommodation and lack of a free education.** The highest quota of acceptances in public universities goes to students who compete to get accepted based upon their grade on the Tawjihi examination and area of residence. Children of people who serve in the military were given 20% of the acceptances based on their grade in the Tawjihi examination as well as their area of residence. Only 5% of acceptances are given to teachers' children (the Council of Higher Education Unified Admission Unit, 2011/2012). Male teacher M assured:

*“My son studies at private university which required high fees. What stresses me the most is that my friend's son finished the same year with my son and got lower grades than him, but he got acceptance at a government university. The military pays for his study, all because his father works in the military!”*

This concurs with Schroeder *et al.* (2001), who indicated lack of free education for teachers' children was identified by teachers as the most stressful experience in their job.

Regarding the accommodation, the MOE started the accommodation programme early in the 1970s. This programme is available for all MOE staff, including teachers; it is a free interest loan. The participants have a monthly payment of around 5% taken from their basic salary. Teachers collect points based on different criteria; for instance, years of experience. Those who collect the most points will get the loan first to help towards buying or building their own house (<http://www.moe.gov.jo/NewPages.aspx?PageID=WWUoBTaTgwA>). The problem with this programme is the process is very slow, as the MOE still distributes the loan for teachers who were hired in the early 1980s. Male teacher C complained:

*“I wish the MOE would make accommodations available for all teachers for a small price since most of our salary goes towards rent.”*

Therefore, most teachers withdrew from the programme, as it was not worth waiting many years and to get a small loan in a time *dinars* were worth very little in the currency (1 pound= 1.42 JD in 2006 and 1.09 in 2010).

There are other issues mentioned by Tawjihi teachers. For example, education regulations support students against teachers and give students the opportunity to choose their teacher. Such regulations can promote students' to unfairly compare teachers who teach the same subject. They accept one teacher and do not accept the other one. Male Tawjihi teacher L disclosed:

*“Our students are very spoiled. They might accept one teacher or might not. If they do not accept the teacher, they will distract the teaching process and put the teacher under pressure.”*

Some head teachers reject teachers if they feel they are unqualified, and this affects teachers' feelings. Male head teacher II has his own perspective regarding this:

*“I am very strict, and I do not accept teachers that I feel are not good enough to teach a Tawjihi class. As soon I get to this point, I call the directorate to tell them that I want to replace this teacher. They know that the students and the school's reputation for me come first.”*



## 9.3 Factors Related to Teaching Difficulties

### 9.3.1 The Research Findings

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the ten sources of stress related to teaching difficulties are shown in Table 9.2, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As can be seen, the sources of stress that received the highest ratings are: 'safety in the laboratory is poor', 'school suffers from shortage of equipment', 'there are too many pupils in the class' and 'having difficulty in using the new educational technology'. The first two findings are consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Veenman, 1984; Wraikat and Ja'rah, 1994; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Madini, 2005; Antoniou *et al.*, 2006). The findings reflect teachers' concern about safety and having enough equipment, as the lack of safety and shortage of equipment makes the teaching process difficult and adds additional stress. The third finding 'there are too many pupils in the class' is consistent with other sources (e.g. MO, 1991; Younghusband *et al.*, 2003; Antoniou *et al.*, 2006). This can be attributed to the difficulty that teachers face when they have to manage many students in the class or they struggle to explain and demonstrate the topics. A large class size also increases the variety of students in terms of the academic level, motivation and behaviour. The fourth finding related to the item 'having difficulty in using the new educational technology' is consistent with other studies (e.g. Al-Fudail, 2008; Al-Fudail and Mellar, 2008). This could be related to the expectation head teachers and supervisors have towards teachers to use the new technology in the classrooms. Teachers also are required to prepare the plans, grades and other related schoolwork using the new technology. Since most schools do not have enough number of computers, and most teachers do not have their own computer, they feel the pressure.

Tables 9.3, 9.4, 9.5 and 9.6 show the responses of the vocational streams Tawjihi teachers to the sources of stress related to teaching difficulties, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. Tables 9.3, 9.4 and 9.5 show that Industrial, Agriculture and Home Economic teachers share the same first highest rating item as a source of extreme stress, which is the shortage of equipment and facilities required by their stream. This finding is in line with other studies (e.g. Borg, 1990; Borg *et al.*, 1991; Kyriacou, 1997a, b). Again the Industrial, Agriculture and Home economic teachers share the second highest rating which is 'working condition is poor'. This finding is consistent with (Travers and Cooper, 1996; Cosgrove, 2000; Shu, 2003; Tesdell, 2007). The third highest rating among Industrial and Agriculture streams

teachers' 'reputation of the vocational stream is low compared with the academic streams'. This finding reflects the negative attitudes of society towards vocational streams, as the society undervalues the vocational streams and students feel shame to join it (see section 3.2.1.2). On the other hand, the third highest rating among the Home economic stream teachers is 'dealing with low ability students is difficult'. This finding pertains to the MOE's regulations that force low-grade students to be placed in the vocational streams, which in turn makes it hard for teachers to teach unmotivated students with low ability and low academic level.

Regarding the Nursing stream teachers, the first highest rating is 'the hospitals are far away from the school'. This could be explained by the need to travel to the hospital and use public transportation, which is considered a common problem in Jordan (see section 9.5.1.5). The second highest rating is 'having to work during summer holidays'. This could be justified by the frustration that teachers feel when they work during summer break, as this is their time to re-energise and spend it with their family and children.

**Table 9.2: Findings Related to Teaching Difficulties as a source of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to teaching difficulties</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
Safety in the laboratory is poor.	15.9	18.5	23.6	19.7	<b>22.3</b>
School suffers from shortage of equipment (Overhead projector).	24.2	19.7	23.2	14.3	<b>18.5</b>
There are too many pupils in the class.	32.2	21	13.7	15	<b>18.2</b>
Having difficulty in using the new educational technology.	18.2	19.7	22.9	21	<b>18.2</b>
The laboratory is insufficient.	18.8	22	22.9	19.7	16.6
There are not enough computers available for the pupils.	32.8	17.8	18.8	16.6	14
The library resources are insufficient.	20.7	19.1	26.1	20.1	14
There is no educational media available (e.g. TV and Radio).	28	22.9	16.9	19.1	13.1
Classes contain pupils with wide range of abilities.	35.4	26.8	18.8	11.1	8
Teachers have too many activities to undertake during the working day.	45.9	24.5	14.3	8.6	6.7

**Table 9.3: Findings related to teaching difficulties in the "Industrial stream" teachers only (N=31)**

<b>Factors related to teaching difficulties</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
Required equipment, machines and tools in the workshops are unavailable (e.g. drill, hammer, welder, blowtorch).	9.7	12.9	19.4	19.4	<b>38.7</b>
Workshops conditions are poor (e.g. safety, lighting)	9.7	35.5	22.6	12.9	<b>19.4</b>
Reputation of Industrial stream is low compared with the Academic streams.	51.6	16.1	9.7	6.5	<b>16.1</b>
Dealing with low ability students is difficult.	45.2	29	6.5	16.1	3.2

**Table 9.4: Findings related to teaching difficulties in the "Agricultural stream" teachers only (N=12)**

Factors related to teaching difficulties	No stress %	A little of stress %	Some stress %	A lot of stress %	Extreme stress %
Related facilities are unavailable (e.g. greenhouses, plastic houses, milking machine, plants, water, etc....).	25	25	8.3	8.3	<b>33.3</b>
Work conditions are poor (e.g. safety, lighting, hygiene).	16.7	41.7	8.3	16.7	<b>16.7</b>
Dealing with low ability students is difficult.	33.3	16.7	16.7	16.7	<b>16.7</b>
Reputation of Agricultural stream is low compared with the Academic streams.	41.7	8.3	8.3	25	<b>16.7</b>

**Table 9.5: Findings related to teaching difficulties in the "Home Economics stream" teachers only (N=23)**

Factors related to teaching difficulties	No stress %	A little of stress %	Some stress %	A lot of stress %	Extreme stress %
Facilities are insufficient (sewing machine, hairdryer).	52.2	17.4	4.3	13	<b>13</b>
Work conditions are poor (e.g. safety, lighting, hygiene).	43.5	17.4	17.4	13	<b>8.7</b>
Dealing with low ability students is difficult.	60.9	13	4.3	13	<b>8.7</b>
Reputation of Home Economics stream is low compared with the Academic streams.	65.2	13	8.7	8.7	4.3

**Table 9.6: Findings related to teaching difficulties in the "Nursing stream" teachers only (N=32)**

Factors related to teaching difficulties	No stress %	A little of stress %	Some stress %	A lot of stress %	Extreme stress %
The hospitals are far away from the school.	52.6	13.2	7.9	10.5	<b>15.8</b>
Having to work in summer holidays	50	15.8	7.9	13.2	<b>13.2</b>
There is lack of educational materials (e.g. the human skeleton)	18.4	39.5	18.4	18.4	5.3
Increased the enrolled pupils compared with the other vocational streams.	50	18.4	18.4	7.9	5.3

Regarding this factor, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *High number of students in the classroom.*
- *Lack of safety in the laboratory.*
- *Lack of laboratory material.*
- *No teachers' staff room.*

Vocational stream teachers revealed the following as sources of stress:

- *Dealing with students with low academic levels.*
- *Low status of vocational stream teachers.*
- *Continuous work after school hours.*
- *Difficulty disciplining students because most of the work is outside the classroom.*
- *Lack of educational material and teaching aids.*
- *High number of students in the laboratory or workshop.*

Some of these issues revealed by Tawjihi teachers are mentioned below:

**9.3.1.1 Lack of appropriate material and teaching aids.** As most teachers revealed, this puts them under two kinds of pressure: either ignoring their needs regarding teaching aids and materials; in this case, they will face the difficulty of explaining some principles or clearly demonstrating lessons for their students; or causing financial burdens on teachers because they need to buy some materials with their own money. The school should take responsibility and supply teachers with the necessary teaching aids. Female teacher G revealed:

*“The school budget does not allow buying the needed educational aids. So we have to buy this with our own money. Schools are supposed to allocate part of their budget for these needs.”*

Regarding the same point, male teacher L stated:

*“When I do not find the materials to demonstrate some topics to students, I buy them from my own money.”*

This finding was confirmed by teachers in the questionnaire phase. This is also in line with teachers in Travers and Cooper (1996) and Madini (2005), who reported lack of resources cause them to buy basic resources, educational aids and models by themselves, which further increases their financial burden.

Vocational stream teachers face the same problem of shortage of teaching aids. Male teacher K, who teaches industrial stream students, stated:

*“We understand that some devices are not available as they are very expensive and the school or the MOE cannot afford it. But buying markers instead of chalk is not, especially because many teachers have an allergic reaction to chalk.”*

This is similar to Wraikat and Ja'rah (1994) and Madini (2005), who indicated shortage of educational games, toys and lack of resources are considered sources of stress among kindergarten teachers. Moreover, Veenman (1984) indicated insufficient and inadequate teaching materials and supplies was one of the problems facing teachers. Furthermore, Antoniou *et al.* (2006) found lack of resources and equipment as sources of stress. Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated poor working conditions were largely related to lack of resources and materials within the teaching profession. This is considered a great source of frustration for teachers. Teachers feel a lot of demand by administrators and supervisors to apply modern teaching methods, yet at the same time do not supply them with adequate equipment in order to do the job; therefore, resource limitations hinder their work.

**9.3.1.2 Shortage of computers and old school buildings.** It is one of the issues raised by a few of Tawjhi teachers.

Male teacher C stated:

*“The number of computers is not enough for the number of students in class. They trained us and asked us to practice everything in the classroom, so they need to increase the number of computers.”*

This concurs with Tesdell (2007), who argued that some public schools in rural areas are old and poor, without electricity, and yet are given computer equipment students cannot use. Moreover, Adostour newspapers (2006c) indicated the MOE provided some schools in need with 12,000 new computers. However, this is still inadequate.

**9.3.1.3 Lack of a teachers' room.** It is one of the issues raised by some teachers and makes them feel stressed. Male teacher C stated:

*“We are 35 teachers and we do not have our own room. Sometimes we sit in the school counsellor's or secretary's room.”*

Female teacher F confirmed:

*“Teachers do not even have their own room, so they have to share with other school staff members.”*

Male school counsellor NN mentioned that teachers at the school do not have their own room. He explained:

*“Teachers at the school do not have their own room. Sometimes, they come and sit in my room, but I have my work that has to be done too. My work is very confidential and I sometimes really need to sit in private with students, parents, or even teachers.”*

Researchers realised the importance of teachers having a staff room. For example, Kyriacou (2000) indicated having a teachers' room with good facilities such as: a tea and coffee area, work preparation area, arm chair or sofa to relax, can all help reduce stress. Also, Cockburn (1996a) indicated a teachers' room is a place where teachers can relax, talk and release steam.

**9.3.1.4 Having too many students in the class.** This makes the learning process, including demonstrating, explaining, giving opportunities for all students to participate in class discussion, asking questions and having their questions answered, more difficult to apply. For example, female teacher G revealed:

*“I have 40 students in class but am unable to give each student the time he/she needs. In this critical year, you need to make sure that every single student understands everything.”*

This finding was revealed by Tawjihi teachers in the questionnaire phase. This is also in line with MO (1991) and Antoniou *et al.* (2006), who indicated teachers reported that teaching large classes was among the most stressful events. Moreover, Younghusband *et al.* (2003) found large classes lead to more workload in and out of school hours.

**9.3.1.5 The safety and hygiene** was another issue raised by teachers in both the questionnaire and interview phases. Chemistry male teacher L stated:

*“The laboratory is available, but the problem is that there is no safety, such as, a fan to absorb the smell in the lab. The lab is poorly ventilated.”*

Female English Language teacher J revealed:

*“The restrooms are very poor. To be honest, I do not like to use the school's restrooms, I just cannot!”*

## **9.4 The School Environment and Facilities**

### **9.4.1 Introduction**

Class size, unsuitable buildings, noise level and lack of resources and utilities are some school aspects that have received attention from researchers when studying teacher stress (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b). School buildings with poor physical conditions are also an added factor (Kyriacou, 2000). Moreover, Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated poor school conditions due to lack of carefulness in schools' design or schools built for smaller school populations and sizes will lead to overcrowded classrooms. They added lack of storage, inadequate staff facilities and utilities lead to poor working conditions that also affect teachers. Moreover, Cosgrove (2000) indicated poor working conditions include: class size, inadequate resources and inappropriate and poorly maintained buildings.

According to Berry (2002), the most important area of the school is the classroom; therefore, more attention should be paid towards the classroom, such as lighting, computers, internet, noise control and number of students in the classroom should not exceed 20. Therefore, class design should accommodate this number of students and facilitate effective communication between teachers and students. Also, schools must be designed to maintain good ventilation, temperature, cleaning and regular maintenance. This concurs with Travers and Cooper (1996), who mentioned school structure and environment are very important features that determine the level of teacher stress.

### **9.4.2 The Research Findings**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the ten sources of stress related to school environment and facilities are shown in Table 9.7, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As can be seen, the sources of stress that received the highest ratings are: 'the school building is unsuitable for high school pupils', 'the school campus is too large', 'the classes are unsuitable for high school pupils' and 'building maintenance is carried out during the work time'. The first and third high ratings, 'the school building is unsuitable for high school pupils' and 'the classes are unsuitable for high school pupils' are consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Connors 1983; Benmansour, 1998; Schroeder *et al.*, 2001; Ralph *et al.*, 2002; Kassih, 2006). These findings can be attributed to unsuitability of some schools for high school students, as most of these schools are built to be elementary or basic schools. Furthermore, these

schools grew to become high schools without making any necessary changes to the buildings, classrooms or even the furniture, such as the desks. The students are growing but the schools remain the same.

The second highest rating ‘the school campus is too large’ is consistent with other studies (e.g. Khlaifat and Zghool, 2003; Madini, 2005; Ladebo, 2005). The merit of this justification could be based upon having a large school, which in turn translates to enrolling a high number of students to fill the classrooms, and thus creates more work for the teachers’ as a result. In addition, having large school campus makes the inter-personal relationship between teachers weak. The fourth highest rating ‘building maintenance is carried out during the work time’ is consistent with other studies (e.g. Madini, 2005). This finding reflects teachers’ concern about students’ safety. Moreover, carrying out the school maintenance during school hours affects the teaching process and raises the issue of schools’ safety.

**Table 9.7: Findings Related to School Environment and Facilities as a source of stress (N=314)**

<b>Factors related to the school environment and facilities</b>	<b>No stress %</b>	<b>A little of stress %</b>	<b>Some stress %</b>	<b>A lot of stress %</b>	<b>Extreme stress %</b>
The school building is unsuitable for high school pupils.	17.2	15.6	16.6	19.4	<b>30.9</b>
The school campus is too large.	12.1	19.7	17.5	22.0	<b>28.7</b>
The classes are unsuitable for high school pupils.	12.1	21.7	16.6	21.3	<b>28.3</b>
Building maintenance is carried out during the work time.	18.8	16.2	18.5	18.5	<b>28.0</b>
The furniture is unsuitable for the number of pupils (e.g. desk, chair...).	15.9	15.6	21.0	23.2	24.2
The number of pupils is too many for the class.	14.6	19.7	20.7	25.2	19.7
The location of the school is not appropriate (e.g. by the main road, noisy area).	24.2	19.7	23.2	14.3	18.5
Water is not always available.	20.7	22.6	17.2	21.3	18.2
School facilities are not good enough (e.g. kitchen, toilet).	23.6	23.2	19.1	17.2	16.9
Air conditioning and heating are not always available.	49.0	21.0	14.3	8.3	7.3

Regarding this factor, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers, during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *Shortage of air conditioning and heating.*
- *Lack of water.*



- *High number of students in the classroom.*
- *Continuous disconnecting of the electricity.*
- *Poor hygiene and cleanliness at school.*
- *Unsuitability of the classroom climate.*

The following issues were revealed by Tawjihi teachers:

**9.4.2.1 Lack of a pleasant teaching and learning environment** for both staff and students at school contributes to feelings of stress; for example, shortage of air conditioning and lack of water. Male teacher L stated:

*“The temperature in Alakwar area in summer could exceed 40 C°. Schools do not have air conditioning and the fans keep breaking. Water is not always available. The weather reflects on me and students as they get tired very fast too.”*

Alakwar area is located in the Dead Sea area, which is the lowest area in the world; therefore, it is very well-known as the hottest area in Jordan. Although the Alakwar environment is not an attractive environment, the MOE does little to attract teachers to work there, nor do they help them cope with such unpleasant environment conditions. DD, head of the school counselling department in Alakwar, stated:

*“The Alakwar environment is one of the sources of stress for teachers. The MOE gave teachers extra allowance for working in Alakwar as a remote area, but it is still not enough.”*

Continuous loss of electricity and water supply are further major sources of stress reported by almost all Tawjihi teachers in Alakwar Directorate. Female teacher F, who lives in Alkaser, almost 35 miles from Alakwar, revealed:

*“Alakwar is a very hot area. The water and electricity are always disconnected. I have a big problem with the transportation, but I would rather travel everyday instead of joining the accommodation in this hot weather.”*

This is in line with Okebukola and Jegede (1989) cited in Kyriacou (1996), who found one of the major sources of stress among teachers in Nigeria was the frequent power cuts of electricity during school hours.

School location is another source of stress raised by most of the teachers. Female teacher J revealed:

*“The location of the school is too noisy as it is close to the main street. The school is also poorly ventilated as it is an old building.”*

This is in line with teachers in Madini (2005), who found the schools location is a source of stress.

Building maintenance and renovation is another issue raised by teachers in both questionnaire and interview phases. Female teacher H, an Almazar Directorate, reported:

*“The maintenance at school is being carried out most of the time. How can teachers teach while the workers are going everywhere? Sometimes, from the noise, you cannot hear the bell.”*

She had another concern about the students, adding:

*“Having equipment and workers during the school hours is not even safe for students.”*

This is in line with Khlaifat and Zghool (2003), who found the following are considered sources of stress among teachers in the four Directorates of the city of Alkarak: unavailability of restrooms, kitchens, staff rooms and unsuitability of school buildings. Furthermore, Alqatameen in Alghad newspaper (2006b) and Alqura'an (1995) indicated some schools in Jordan are rented premises which are built for residential purposes, and with small changes is transformed into schools. In addition, Shehan newspaper (2006b); Alqatameen in Alghad newspaper (2006b); Alqura'an (1995) reported most schools in Jordan suffer from lack of facilities, utilities, teaching resources and are poorly lit. Also, Shehan newspaper (2006b) stated these schools have small playgrounds and high number of students, reaching as high as 43 students in a small classroom (16 m<sup>2</sup>). Almehtar newspaper (2006) stated parents and teachers expressed their displeasure towards the poor rented premises' condition.

These factors are not limited to Jordan, but also common in other Arab countries. For example, work environment (Hilo, 2004), lack of space, insufficient equipment and materials, irregular renovation and maintenance, health and safety of children (Madini, 2005), poor working conditions (Benmansour, 1998; Gaziel, 1993), lack of resources or facilities and lack of

pedagogical equipment (Benmansour, 1998) were reported by teachers as sources of stress.

Teachers in different countries also encountered these factors. Poor working conditions (Kyriacou and Sutcliff, 1978b; Kyriacou, 1987, 1997b; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Ladebo, 2005) such as: high noise, broken windows, lack of electricity and water supply, dilapidated buildings and inadequate teaching materials (Ladebo, 2005), are considered sources of stress. Furthermore, Ladebo (2005) recommended that improving school infrastructure, providing more schools and increasing schools' funding will help improve physical working environments. In addition, noise and shortage of facilities (Ralph *et al.*, 2002; Shu, 2003), inappropriate classroom size, overcrowded classes, old and poorly maintained buildings, general lack of cleanliness and environmental resources (Ralph *et al.*, 2002) were also raised by teachers as sources of stress. Additionally, lack of textbooks, workshops for practical training, lack of desks for students (Schroeder *et al.*, 2001) and lack of resources (kyriacou, 1997b; Antoniou *et al.*, 2000; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Meng and Liu, 2008) were additional sources of stress among teachers. Size and location of classrooms (Cockburn, 1996a) and unpleasant school climate (De Nobile and McCormick, 2010) were also other sources of stress among teachers.

There are many issues that affect school environments in Jordan. Firstly, Jordan is a poor country and reflects on the government's ability to provide schools with resources, equipment and facilities. Secondly, many Iraqis and Lebanese refugees enter Jordan, which increased the number of students in schools, and consequently, in classrooms. As a result, schools had to split the same grade into many classrooms to fit the number of students, or used two-shift schools. Thirdly, rented schools lack most school requirements.

The MOE needs to reduce these problems related to school environments. Some of the solutions are out of the MOE's control, such as fixing the poor economy or decreasing the number of refugees. Other solutions need consistency and well prepared plans; for instance, the MOE has to prepare for long-term plans that aim to lessen the number of rented premises, build schools designed and built specifically for school purposes, with adequate resources, facilities, equipment, suitable school and classroom size, lighting, heating and air conditioning systems. The MOE has to follow up these plans and make sure they are implemented as previously proposed. Furthermore, the MOE must continually check and assess these new schools.

In addition, continuous and fast maintenance and repair operations should be provided to schools when needed. The MOE devotes part of its budget to build schools that have all the requirements, so the MOE has to make sure that money is spent in the correct way, as well as reject schools that do not adhere to the strictest implementation to rules and regulations in regards to building suitability (Madini, 2005; MOE, 2008). Some schools suffer from very bad environments (Teddell, 2007) for example, schools in Alakwar area. The MOE should devote larger portions of its budget to these schools and provide them with some facilities, such as air conditioners, fridges and good quality fans to help teachers and students enjoy school hours without complaints or suffering. The MOE should coordinate with the Ministry of Power and Electricity and the Ministry of Water and Irrigation to make sure schools get water and electricity all the time and stop disconnecting the electricity and water that makes school hours very difficult. Putting these recommendations into practice could help eliminate some of the sources of teacher stress, especially sources of stress outside of the teachers' control.

Additionally, decision makers in the MOE should also listen to teachers who know exactly what schools suffer from; what their schools need and what they need themselves to reduce their suffering. The Alakwar head of directorate stated:

*“The Alakwar environment is an unattractive environment, so we provide schools and accommodation with all facilities that make them acceptable to work or live in. King Abdulla II gave instructions to provide the Tawjihi examination rooms with air conditioning and we did so.”*

## **9.5 Factors related to work**

### **9.5.1 Research Findings**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the thirty sources of stress related to work are shown in Table 9.8, in descending order of the percentage rating the item a source of extreme stress. As can be seen, the three sources of stress that received the highest ratings are: ‘inadequate salary’, ‘lack of recognition for extra work’, ‘administrative work’, ‘poor promotion opportunities’ and ‘spending lots of time on marking homework, tests and preparing’. The first highest rating ‘inadequate salary’ is consistent with other studies in Jordan (e.g. Khlaifat and Zghool, 2003). It is also in line with studies in other Arab countries (e.g. Al-Mohannadi and Capel; Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996); Hilo, 2004) as well as studies conducted elsewhere (e.g. Loh, 1994; Ralph *et*

*al.*, 2002; Cockburn and Haydn, 2004; Mtika, 2008). This reflects that the low salary is a common source of stress among teachers throughout the world. Teachers consider their salary low compared to other professions and even regarding the importance of the role they play in the community. For example, the high life expenses and the financial responsibility make teachers look for other work after school, which negatively affects teachers. All these factors contribute to salary as a main source of stress. The second highest rating 'lack of recognition for extra work' is consistent with other studies (e.g. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978b; Kyriacou, 2000, 2001, 2005; De Nobile and McCormick, 2005). This reflects teachers' concerns about being recognised, appreciated and valued for the work they do. Recognition for their extra work will encourage teachers to do more and more, but the lack of recognition will make teachers feel that their work is unvalued and unappreciated. The third highest rating 'administrative work' is consistent with other studies (e.g. McCormick, 1997; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Butt and Lance, 2005). This is can be attributed to additional workload that comes from having administrative work, because it ends up detracting teachers' from their main duty. Moreover, the administration work overloads teachers and puts them under time pressure.

The fourth highest rating 'poor promotion opportunities' concurs with other studies (e.g. Travers and Cooper, 1996; Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996; Ralph *et al.*, 2002; Khlaifat and Zghool, 2003; Hilo, 2004) Miller and Travers, 2005). This finding is related to the first main source 'inadequate salary' and is attributed to the importance of promotion for teachers on the career ladder, particularly because promotion helps teachers in different aspects, such as salary raise and physical incentives. The fifth highest rating 'spending lots of time on marking homework, tests and preparation' is related to the second highest rating 'administration work'. It is also consistent with other studies (e.g. MO, 1991; Lou, 1994; Cockburn, 1996a; Kersaint *et al.*, 2007). This potentially pertains to the time constraints teachers are aware of in the context of when preparing and grading consumes their time and adds further time pressure.

**Table 9.8: Findings related to work as a source of stress (N=314)**

Factors related to work	No stress %	A little of stress %	Some stress %	A lot of stress %	Extreme stress %
Inadequate salary.	6.1	19.1	10.8	9.6	54.5
Lack of recognition for extra work.	8.6	18.5	16.6	7.6	48.7
Administrative work (e.g. form tutor, duty rota and cover rota...).	8.3	18.8	16.6	8	48.4
Poor promotion opportunities.	9.2	18.8	18.2	11.5	42.4
Spending lots of time on marking homework, marking tests and preparation.	8.9	25.5	15.6	10.2	39.8
Too little responsibility within the school.	11.8	21.3	17.5	9.9	39.5
Teaching too many periods per week.	16.9	21	10.5	12.4	39.2
Few pupil sanctions in the school (students always have got the right).	15	18.8	20.4	8.6	37.3
Using private time to deal with job-related work.	12.1	21.7	17.5	12.4	36.3
Low status of the teaching profession.	17.8	15.9	22	9.2	35
In-service training is not related to my needs.	15.6	19.1	18.8	13.1	33.4
Lack of time for further study.	12.1	20.7	23.2	12.4	31.5
No time to relax between lessons.	11.1	22	20.7	15	31.2
Having to attend too many in-services training days, school meetings and seminars.	9.6	21.3	24.5	15	29.6
Responsibility for pupils (e.g. exam success).	8.3	26.8	25.8	9.9	29.3
Too much subject matter (textbook) to teach.	13.1	21	22.3	15	28.7
Not finding my job fulfilling.	22	15	18.8	16.2	28
Supervisory duties (e.g. playground, Canteen).	11.1	24.2	23.6	13.7	27.4
Having to teach subject other than my main subject.	32.5	15.9	15.3	8.9	27.4
Marking the General Secondary Educational Examination papers.	19.7	19.7	20.7	15.9	23.9
Unreasonable expectation of teacher (e.g. teacher should not make mistake).	19.7	16.2	23.6	17.5	22.9
Invigilation for the General Secondary Educational Examination.	27.7	16.9	18.2	15	22.3
The threat of redeployment.	26.8	17.8	17.5	15.6	22.3
Sundry class duties (e.g. collecting money for lunch, trip fee).	15.3	21.3	21.3	20.7	21.3
Break time is too short.	17.2	17.5	24.2	19.7	21.3
Lack of time spent with individual pupils.	11.8	25.6	24.6	16.9	21.1
Having to work at the weekend or after work time to finish the textbook.	33.4	15.6	17.2	15.9	17.8
Private tutoring affects my relations with pupils.	35	13.4	20.1	14	17.5
Unpredictable events such as fighting, accidents.	19.4	21.7	22.6	19.7	16.6
Instructing pupils who take part in local or national competition.	22	18.5	23.6	20.1	15.7

Regarding these sources of stress, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Tawjihi teachers during the interviews indicated the following as sources of stress:

- *Low salary.*
- *Lack of promotion opportunities.*

- *In-service training courses.*
- *Too many school meetings.*
- *Private tutoring and the pre-answered question sheets “dosyyat”.*
- *Too many classes to give per week.*
- *Difficulty demonstrating the subject because it is hard.*
- *The routine of the teaching work.*
- *Taking too much time to get to school.*
- *Too much clerical work, paper work and correction.*
- *Too much administration work, duty rotation, cover rotation.*
- *Sundry work (e.g. supervise students in extra curriculum activities and clubs).*
- *Low status of teaching position.*
- *Negative attitudes to the vocational streams.*
- *Giving extra periods during weekends or after school to finish the curriculum.*
- *Lack of opportunity to work abroad, such as the Gulf countries or Saudi Arabia for some subjects.*

Other interviewees agreed that teaching many classes per week, duty rotation, in-service training, low salary, inadequate promotion and low status of teaching were sources of stress. They added big responsibility towards students and their scores, clerical work, administrative work, invigilation and marking Tawjihi examinations were other sources of stress. In addition, transportation, unexpected events, sundry work, too many roles and forcing teachers to teach Tawjihi class.

The following are some issues raised by Tawjihi teachers:

#### **9.5.1.1 Low salary, Low status and Lack of promotion opportunities**

Low salary, inadequate promotion system and low teacher status are sources of stress often reported by most Tawjihi teachers and other interviewees. Teachers feel all other careers could grow and improve in the promotion ladder but teacher stays a teacher, regardless of how many years' experience she/he has. Opportunities for improving and getting promotion are very low. Male teacher B stated:

*“Salary is the most stressful source. Salary is not enough and the promotion system is inadequate. Teachers work harder than others, as dealing with people is*

*more stressful than dealing with machines and books, but we have the lowest salary.”*

Not only do male teachers feel their salary is not enough, but female teachers also feel it. For example, female teacher E stated:

*“The salary is very low, as I graduated from a community college. But this is the case with all teachers, not only me, even for those who have a Bachelors or higher”.*

Low salaries make teachers consider leaving the profession. Male teacher L revealed:

*“Salary is very low even with this remote area allowance. To be honest with you, I am seriously thinking about leaving the profession. When I get the chance I will not hesitate to leave.”*

This is agreed with Al-Mohannadi and Capel (2007), who found that male teachers in Qatar do not want to teach due to low status and low salary. Moreover, Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated availability of promotion opportunities is very important in any profession. They added it is very essential to improve career incentives, allowances and increase number of available promotion opportunities for teachers. Miller and Travers (2005) also found teachers who achieved at least one promotion were less stressed than teachers who did not.

Other teaching and learning directorate staffs are also aware about this issue. EE, head of school counselling department in Alkaser, stated:

*“The low salary is the main source of stress among teachers. Therefore, there are a lot of teachers who turn away from the teaching profession. Other colleagues and I notify the decision makers but nothing happens. Really, I feel sorry for them as they work hard for little pay.”*

Male head teacher II said:

*“It is very sad that teachers have to resort to tutoring for financial reasons. The salary is not enough, so they need to do something to support themselves and their families.”*

Their concerns are echoed in previous research. For example, Cockburn and Haydn (2004) argued teaching is neither a highly paid profession nor prestigious job; this is not just only in England but throughout the whole world. Everywhere teachers get less salary than other



professions, such as doctors or lawyers. Moreover, Mtika (2008) indicated teachers in Malawi are underpaid, their salary insufficient for their survival throughout the month and is even less than those who have the same qualifications as them. This is also in line with other researchers, such as Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996); Ralph *et al.* (2002); Khlaifat and Zghool (2003) and Hilo (2004), who found low salary and lack of promotional opportunities as sources of stress among teachers. Al-Mahamadi (1990) argued low salary puts teachers under pressure of debt, causes family problems and pushes teachers to look for other sources of income, which cuts into their preparation and relaxation time and being with family. It has also caused emotional problems, such as: feeling guilty, insecurity, depression, as well as reduce social relationships, which are considered very important in Arabic culture.

Low status was one of the issues raised by Tawjihi teachers. Male teacher I remarked:

*“I am not thinking of getting married as I really feel embarrassed to say that I am a teacher and at the same time I am afraid my proposal will be rejected for any girl.”*

This is consistent with Kyriacou (1987); Travers and Cooper (1996); Antoniou *et al.* (2000), who indicated teaching is a low status profession compared with other professions that have higher societal status. Antoniou *et al.* (2000) argued this may lead to frustration, feelings of low self-worth and low morale among teachers. Moreover, teachers in Pillay *et al.* (2005) revealed the efforts they put into their work were greater than the rewards they received.

This echoes the comment made by male supervisor FF in Central Karak directorate, who stated:

*“One of the sources of stress in teachers is losing the value of the teaching profession and teachers. I know three male teachers are looking to get married, but nobody accepts because they are teachers.”*

In Hong Kong the situation is different. For example, Loh (1994) found that payment, promotion and rewards were less stressful factors among teachers, as the unemployment rate is low and income flow relatively stable. In addition, most secondary schools run by the government and promotion system is standardised, so teachers eligible for promotion need to have five years' experience and attend training in education.

The MOE has a shortage of scientific subjects' teachers, such as: Mathematics and Physics, especially regarding male teachers. The main reason for this shortage is low salary. Male teachers realise teaching does not offer them adequate salary, therefore, most of them look for other jobs, establish their own business, or work abroad, especially in Saudi Arabia and Gulf countries. As a strategy from the MOE to solve this shortage, the MOE offered scholarships to male Tawjihi students who pass the scientific streams and plan to study Mathematics, Physics, Biology, Geology and Chemistry, as well as university students who already started their study and are in their 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> year. After graduation, the MOE will hire them in its public schools (Alra'i newspaper, 8/3/2009). From the researcher's point of view, the MOE should take the problem more seriously and not depend on a short-term plan, but instead look for the main reasons for this shortage and develop a long-term plan in the process. If not, the MOE will continue having the same problem, or may even worsen. Tawjihi teachers revealed low salary is one of the main sources of their stress that cause them to consider leaving the profession. Therefore, the MOE has to take serious actions regarding this issue as well as other issues raised by Tawjihi teachers. The Jordan Times (16/2/2012) reported that teachers continue their strike which started in 2010, as a result of the MOE rejecting to fully pay them 100% professional allowance as they promised. In 2011, the MOE paid teachers 70% of the allowance and promised to pay the rest the next year. However, in 2012, in order to avoid paying the remaining 30% in full, the MOE decided to split the balance into three payments, offering 10% and then the subsequent 20% in the following two years. As a result, the teachers went on strike again. Cockburn and Haydn (2004) indicated policy makers need to be more aware about what makes teachers stop enjoying teaching, the reasons for early retirement and why some teachers leave the profession within the first five years. Head teachers, who are the people most in close contact with teachers, need to also play their role in this important issue as they have more understanding about what teachers go through and what they want and need.

#### **9.5.1.2 Private Tutoring**

Tawjihi teachers revealed that some subjects, such as: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Arabic and English have special issues: these subjects need more preparation time and efforts from teachers, especially since these subjects are long and the number of periods is not enough. Therefore, teachers sometimes need extra periods, and work on weekends or after school in order

to finish the curriculum. The other issue is private tutoring. Most Tawjihi students have private tutors to help them cover these subjects (see section 3.6). This is reflected by findings in Meng and Liu (2008), which indicated Mathematics teachers are under more pressure than any other subject, as students' scores on Mathematics are considered more important than the scores on other subjects in China. Regarding this point, female English Tawjihi teacher J remarked:

*“English Language is a very difficult subject. Students have accumulated weaknesses in this subject and the high failure percentage of students is found in it. Students turn to private tutors to help them, which affects school teachers. Those students hardly pay attention and distract the teaching process and other students.”*

Moreover, male Mathematics teacher I stated:

*“Actually, private tutoring and Dosyyat cause students to not pay attention to the teacher, and to interrupt the other students. Sometimes students bring questions from their private tutor to challenge the class teacher. All this makes teachers more stressed.”*

Regarding private tutoring, male teacher C also affirmed:

*“Private tutoring nowadays is a privilege. Most of the students have a private tutor regardless of their academic level.”*

Also, Physics female teacher G revealed:

*“Private tutoring really makes me stressed. Students tells you in your face, ‘I do not want to pay attention to you, as I am getting private tutoring’.”*

This is consistence with Haroun and O’hanlon (1997), who found in Jordanian schools students who take private tutoring lose interest in the subject and behave badly in the classroom. Tawjihi students obtain private tutoring as they believe this will help them achieve good grades on the Tawjihi examination. Moreover, Dowd (2003) indicated students seek to gain higher grades in the NCEs either by access to private school or acquire outside tutoring.

From the other side, some teachers complained the subject they teach does not allow them opportunities to tutor or to get a contract to work abroad, as the demands are only in Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, English and Arabic. In this regard, female teacher A, who teaches Islamic education, stated:

*“Students consider the Islamic education to be easy and they are able to study it without the teacher's help. So they do not pay attention to the teacher and keep disrupting. There is no opportunity to do tutoring in such a subject, or to get work contract in the Gulf countries, or Saudi Arabia.”*

The other interviewees confirmed private tutoring is one of the sources of stress among Tawjihi teachers. When the researcher asked what the MOE could do to reduce this problem, head Directorate of Central Karak stated:

*“Private tutoring is considered a source of stress among teachers. The MOE cannot control it because it happens outside of school time, and at the same time, most of the teachers who do tutoring are retired teachers.”*

The only exception is Alakwar Directorate, as students and their parents are disinterested in spending money in private tutoring (see chapter 8, factor related to parents). Male teacher B explained:

*“Alakwar Directorate does not face the problem of private tutoring, as students do not have the desire to do so. Also, Alakwar is a poor area, so parents do not have time and money to spend on private tutoring.”*

### **9.5.1.3 In-service Training**

The educational system in Jordan has been subjected to a series of curricula reforms since 1987. Teachers complained these reforms failed to raise the standards set by the MOE due to poor planning and organisation (Hasan, 2001; Mograby, 1999; AL-Wreikat and Bin Abdullah, 2010; AL-Magableh, 2010; Alkhaldeh, 2011). In contrast, the MOE blames teachers for not helping the MOE achieve the goals of said reforms. As a result, teachers have been put under pressure by the MOE to attend in-service training every year. These courses are usually timed to occur directly after school or on Saturdays. Therefore, teachers feel frustrated as these sessions bring additional paperwork and further waste their time (Hasan, 2001; Mograby, 1999; AL-Wreikat and Bin Abdullah, 2010). Moreover, Kyriacou (2000) indicated frequent changes in curriculum and teaching methods create great stress among teachers, as these changes sometimes connect with inappropriate in-service training or are given on short notice. In the present study, in-service training was raised by almost all Tawjihi teachers in the interview phase as a source of stress.

The training sessions are divided into two kinds. The first one is mandatory (in-service training), and aims to train teachers on new teaching methods which result to changes in the curriculum. All teachers have to attend these sessions regardless of their years of experience. Novice teachers also have to attend additional training held on Saturdays (National Report, 1996; Hasan, 2001). Session two is optional and aims to provide teachers with training using computers and Internet, as well as using some educational software in their work. Teachers are rewarded certificates after they pass the test and also have opportunities to get promotion for attending and passing the test at the end (World Economic Forum, 2004) (see teachers' rank in chapter 3).

All Tawjihi teachers who have been interviewed agreed that the first kind of in-service training sessions they attend is considered one of the major sources of stress. Most Tawjihi teachers also agreed these sessions wasted time and were repetitious, as it did not offer anything new and lasted for four hours. That means teachers leave home early in the morning and come back evening time. This is reflected by some teachers in Travers and Cooper (1993, 1996) and Kyriacou (2000), who consider these activities a waste of time because it fails to discuss work related issues, so they feel stressed and frustrated as a result. Most Tawjihi teachers also revealed that if they have the choice to attend these training sessions, they would not. Female teacher G stated:

*“Believe me, in-service training is only a waste of time, especially for experienced teachers. It is repetitive, impractical, and the time is inconvenient. The most important thing for the MOE is the attendance. We are not asking for a miracle; we only ask to treat us as human beings, not machines.”*

Head teachers, supervisors and other Education and Teaching directorates' staff have their own opinion regarding the training sessions. For example, head teachers found this period a hard time for them just as much as teachers. Male head teacher II has to be hard with teachers and force them to attend these in-service training sessions. He stated:

*“It is a very hard time for me and the teachers. Teachers come the next day very exhausted and tired. I had to force them to attend the training. For example, if a teacher attends the school day and does not attend the training sessions, I question him and refer to cut that day from his salary. I know how this affects him.”*

This is consistent with Yang (2001) cited in Kyriacou and Chien (2004), who indicated primary teachers were under pressure by their head teachers to attend in-service training, and was usually

held on Wednesday afternoons or on weekends. Teachers feel stressed by these in-service training sessions as it generates lots of unnecessary paperwork and increases teachers' workload. Also, teachers in Tang *et al.* (2001) are required to take post-qualification in information and computer technology in their own time. This concurs also with Loh (1994), who found that on-the-job training was a source of stress among teachers. However, this is inconsistent with teachers in Cockburn and Haydn (2004), who asked for more in-service training as this would improve their working life.

Regarding new technology training, Tawjihi teachers have two different perspectives. On one hand, some teachers like this kind of training and found it a good opportunity to improve their computer skills, and at the same time get promotions. For example, promoting teachers from teacher assistant to teacher requires teachers to have 5 years experience, computer certificate (ICDL) and High Diploma in Education (see appendix 14). Male teacher K confirmed:

*“Frankly, the training in computers is the best thing the MOE has introduced to teachers. It helps them improve their computer skills and at the same time, get a financial promotion upon passing the test after finishing the training.”*

This is in line with teachers in Travers and Cooper (1993), who considered modern technology required training to keep them in touch with their own subject areas.

Other teachers like computer training but have concerns. For example, the male teacher L with two years experience stated:

*“I attended the ICDL the first year I started work. I liked it, but I did not get the promotion yet as I need to have five years of experience and High Diploma in Education to get the promotion and this is unfair. In education and psychology, promotions should be offered after the good action or behaviour or it does not work.”*

This echoes the concern of Jacobsson *et al.* (2001), who recommended giving teachers' openness to explore new opportunities to seek challenges, will help reduce stress.

On the other hand, some other Tawjihi teachers who have been interviewed revealed that new technology puts further burdens on them and was considered another source of stress, especially for experienced teachers. For example, male teacher B, with 29 years of experience, stated:

*“Teachers have only one computer and this is not enough, as we are required to*

*practice what we learned in training and do all other schoolwork on the computer. I cannot afford buying my own computer. I would rather do all this manually instead of using the computer. I feel it makes me stressed as I do not have time to use it because all teachers share one computer.”*

Female teacher C with 16 years experience also agreed:

*“I do not have my own computer and at school I do not have time to do schoolwork. Therefore, I pay somebody to print that for me, and this is extra expenses.”*

Teachers indicated they rarely benefit from these training sessions because they cannot practice it in the class room, as female teacher F explains:

*“I do not often use what I trained in for many reasons. There are not enough computers at school, there is no access to internet and computerising some lessons takes time; and Tawjihi teachers are always under time constraints. I would rather use the chalk and board to explain than the computer, because our students are not used to using the computer.”*

This is confirmed by Al-Fudail (2008); Al-Fudail and Mellar (2008), who found that teachers suffer from stress as a result of using technology in the classroom.

Supervisors claimed teachers do not benefit from in-service training, as they do not take it seriously. For example, male supervisor GG stated:

*“Tawjihi teachers claimed that training is one of the most stressful sources. The change in the curriculum requires training teachers on the new teaching methods. During our visit to teachers at schools, we noticed that teachers do not apply what they were trained in into practice. So this results in further time and training until they master everything.”*

Nine of the Tawjihi teachers who have been interviewed, complained supervisors are the only beneficiary from in-service training as they get paid for it, but not the teachers. They revealed supervisors should be more concerned about them and their feelings and give them the priority, not the money. Teachers claimed most of the issues discussed in training are not new and at the same time are demonstrated in non-practical ways. In contrast, supervisors argued they are concerned about teachers and their feelings. They suggested to the MOE to give training during the summer time or on Saturdays. They explained this is the only thing they can do for teachers as they are not the decision makers. Male supervisor FF stated:

*“We, the supervisors, benefit financially from the in-service training programmes. In spite of that, I suggested that all the training programmes be taken separately from the teachers’ first degree. This will help teachers avoid the frustration that they face because of the training. Any other up-to-date training required during their work could be provided later in a couple of days instead of spending most Saturday’s attending training sessions.”*

When the researcher asked the supervisors through the interview if they can do anything to help teachers, at least regarding the training time, female supervisor HH stated:

*“Usually a group from the MOE trains supervisors in the summer holiday to be ready to train teachers in the first two weeks of the academic year and on Saturdays. Sometimes the delay comes from the MOE and consequently affects the time of training teachers and this is what happened this year and almost every year. This is not our fault or the teacher’s fault, but we cannot do anything.”*

Ten Tawjihi teachers complained they do not get paid or even get refreshments, water, tea or coffee during training sessions. Male teacher L argued:

*“They do not even provide us with refreshments, water, tea, or coffee, and we do not have time to buy it ourselves.”*

Regarding this point, the head of supervision department in the MOE argued:

*“The MOE budget does not allow us to pay for the trainees; even the Gulf countries, which have better budgets, do not pay for trainees. We provide teachers with refreshments, tea, or coffee. Teachers benefit from this training in other ways; when a teacher attends 160 training hours or more he/she will get a promotion.”*

This is in line with other research studies; for example, Ralph *et al.* (2002) argued school budgets in England reduced the opportunities for personal and professional growth of teachers. Moreover, Madini (2005) indicated budget is always to blame for any shortage of training, resources, or equipment at schools.

The head of Education and Teaching Directorate in Alkawar argued training sessions offer good opportunities for teachers to benefit from others' experiences, as he has some wishes for teachers, stating:

*“Training is very important for both novice and experienced teachers. Experienced teachers need to follow up new teaching methods and technology as the curriculum is always improving. Novice teachers need to be trained on teaching methods. I wish that teachers can take the training sessions seriously*



*and benefit from it by exchanging experience, gaining new knowledge, and passing it on to the classroom and practice it effectively.”*

Al-Souigh (1996) cited in Madini (2005) argued most Arab countries endure shortages in the number of qualified staff. Training programmes implemented in schools are not enough, effective, scientifically based, or practical. Moreover, Kyriacou (2000) argued providing teachers with professional development helps them to develop teamwork and collegiality and keeps them up to date with new changes and developments. It is recommended to run these activities outside the school premises and by outside organisers, which would create more opportunities for success and effectiveness. Additionally, Younghusband (2006) argued any profession needs professional development to update its information, especially when teaching a new curriculum; however, teachers would not be expected to handle the new work without manual or training.

The interview with the Head of Training Department in the MOE was more frank. He confirmed nobody takes serious action regarding this issue. The only issues noted are complaints and suggestions from teachers, supervisors or other school staff. The MOE does not take the issue seriously as decision makers do not exactly know what teachers go through. The MOE from the Head of Training Department revealed:

*“To update teachers with the new teaching and assessment methods, they have to attend these training sessions as the curriculum always changes. Regarding the training time, teachers always complain; we do not know what a convenient time for them is. We cannot make it during working hours as this will affect the teaching process.”*

Regarding training teachers on dealing with emotional problems and stress, the Head of Supervision Department in the MOE disclosed:

*“The MOE does not offer these training sessions. The novice teachers have to attend pre-service training related to class management and maintaining discipline, so this could help.”*

The researcher suggests the MOE should partake in all efforts to train supervisors during the summer holidays, as this will enable supervisors to provide the required training to teachers during the first two weeks of school. Usually, teachers start work one week before students to prepare for the new academic year. Also, most of the administration work that relates to students

needs to be done during the second week of the academic year, such as: distributing textbooks, collecting tuition fees and enrolling new students. This work could be done by administration staff. Therefore, supervisors could train teachers in these two weeks, which will then reduce the pressure that results from training teachers after school hours or on Saturdays. The MOE needs to give teacher's feelings and concerns the priority and reduce the rate of changes in the curriculum that require teachers to attend training sessions.

#### **9.5.1.4 Work load and time pressure**

According to Kelly and Berthelsen (1995); Austin *et al.* (2005), workload means having too many tasks with too little time. Kyriacou (1987) argued workload is not necessarily a big problem, but rather its link to stress. Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated having a wide range of academic abilities is related to overload and the time teachers spend on teaching during and outside of school hours is related to time pressure. MO (1991); Lou (1994); Cockburn (1996a) and Kersaint *et al.* (2007) indicated heavy workload, such as marking paper and completion of assigned curriculum are ranked as sources of stress. This is in line with other studies (e.g. Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos, 1996; Benmansour, 1998; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Onyewadume, 2006), who found out the main source of stress in teachers was heavy workload.

Having additional periods to teach and other administrative duties are reported as aspects of workload as well. This is also reported by most Tawjihi teachers as a source of stress. Most Tawjihi teachers agreed having many periods to teach will affect their performance as they do not have time to give students advanced work or even re-teach some topics. Regarding this point, female teacher F stated:

*“I have to teach 26 periods per week in addition to other administrative work that consumes my energy and puts me under too much pressure.”*

The different roles teachers play, such as: educators, counsellors and helpers, put them under stress. Female teacher A also confirmed:

*“I am not only a teacher at school. I am counsellor, helper and clerk.”*

This echoes teachers' concerns in other countries. For example (McCormick, 1997, pp30-31) indicated workload is a significant source of stress. One teacher said: *“overload, the amount of*

*work I am expected to do would be enough for three people.” Another one said: “You do not teach, you are expected to go to meetings, you have to be administrators, you have to be mathematicians, you have to collect money, you are not teaching any more, it is so much more.”*

This is in line with teachers in Cockburn and Haydn (2004), who revealed paperwork, being overload and endless meetings only waste time and put teachers under pressure. Also, Butt and Lance (2005) found the most popular reason given for workload across all secondary school teachers was non-teaching tasks, such as: paperwork, filling forms, money collection and photocopying. Additionally, Youngusband (2006) argued teachers feel tired and drained physically and emotionally as they spend more time on documentation than on lesson preparation.

Female teacher A assured:

*“Daily plans, yearly plans and textbook analysis are only a waste of time and effort, as sometimes I do not look at them unless somebody asks for them. At the end of the year, they end up recycled. Only teachers used their private time to do schoolwork. I feel that I am not a teacher; I am a clerk.”*

This is a common issue, not just among Tawjihi teachers. In the UK, teachers in Cockburn (1996a) argued no one ever reads all the prepared paperwork when they pass them to supervisors or head teachers. Also, Cosgrove (2000) argued teachers required producing yearly, weekly and daily written plans and keeping records and samples of work to be available when required (Cosgrove, 2000).

In the interview, school counsellor assured that Tawjihi teachers have a lot of work to do in addition to teaching. For example, school counsellor LL explained:

*“From my opinion, Tawjihi teachers have more responsibilities than other teachers.”*

In the interview with the heads of Education and Teaching Directorate regarding the daily, weekly, monthly and annual plan, female head of directorate CC, stated:

*“The successful work is the planned one. When teachers plan, they know what they are going to do. In fact, they are required to do that.”*

Regarding the many periods Tawjihi teachers have to teach every week, the head of Central

Karak directorate stated:

*“22-26 periods a week is not too much, but the other administration and clerical work is additional work. I suggest hiring people to do this work and let teachers do their main job, which is teaching.”*

In the current study, having a fixed school day table that does not allow teachers to have breaks is another issue related to workload. Male teacher L stated:

*“The time table is fixed; sometimes I have five periods right after each other, which makes me feel tired and wishing to have a break.”*

Their concerns are echoed by Travers and Cooper (1996), who argued stress and tension among teachers arises as the fixed timetable allows few or no breaks. In the same vein, Kyriacou (1987) argued the rigid structure of the school day is one of the main sources of teacher stress.

Working long hours also puts teachers under pressure. Most people think teachers have short working days (in Jordan teachers work from 7:30A.M.-2:00P.M. and other ministries employees' work from 8:00A.M.-3:00A.M.). However, people forget about how much work needs to be done after school day. Female teacher E stated:

*“People think teachers' work hours are less than others. They forget about after school meetings, training, paper work and marking that we need to take home to finish.”*

This is similar to the teachers' situation elsewhere. For example, teachers in Cockburn (1996a); Travers and Cooper (1996); Cosgrove (2000); Younghusband *et al.* (2003) argued that many people think that after the school day finishes, teachers can relax and have a break. They forget about all the meetings, marking, paperwork, displays and hours at home they spend doing school work. Teachers in Younghusband *et al.* (2003) claimed they need to fit more work into their day, and keep into account their personal life. One teacher in their study said “...*So there never seems to be enough hours in the day*” (p16).

### **9.5.1.5 Transportation**

As mentioned before (see chapter 7), most people cannot afford to buy a car even if they really need one due to low salaries and high price of petrol. Therefore, most people rely on public transportation, mainly buses, to travel and meet their daily demands. Unfortunately, the number

of available buses is not enough to cover all areas, and the way owners and drivers manage the buses is inappropriate. Lack of organised time tables and designated bus stops also poses problems. Buses do not start its trip until it is overloaded with passengers, often stopping to pick up or drop off passengers, which turns a 15 minute trip into a one-hour trip with no respect for passengers or time. Therefore, transportation difficulties put most people, not just teachers, under stress. Most teachers have to use the bus, and sometimes more than one, to get to school due to living in areas far from work. Male teacher C remarked:

*“I used to teach in Alakwar Directorate. I had to catch 4-5 buses, as there is no direct transportation to Alakwar area. This takes me 3-4 hours going back and forth. I got home very tired and frustrated.”*

Female school counsellor MM disclosed:

*“Transportation makes teachers get to school tired and stressed.”*

This is in line with Madini (2005); Okebukola and Jegede (1989) cited in Kyricou (1996); Travers and Cooper (1996), who indicated transportation difficulties regarding getting to school were one of the sources of stress among teachers.

Central Alkarak's Head of Directorate argued they consider teachers' residence area when they allocate their school, stating:

*“When we hire teachers the first thing we think about is to find the nearest school to their home, as this puts less pressure on them. We do our utmost to distribute teachers according to their residence.”*

Teachers argued this is not the case, as most teachers' first schools are usually located far away from where they live. After at least two years of working in this school they could be transferred to another school closer than the first one, but only after a number of transfers can the teacher be transferred to the closest school in his/her area. Their concerns are echoed by other researchers. Tellenback *et al.* (1983); Kyriacou and Benmansour (2002) and Jaradat (1985) cited in Dowd(2003) argued that older, qualified and experienced teachers are usually assigned to city schools, while new, less qualified and inexperienced teachers are assigned to remote areas or villages. Therefore, some teachers prefer to live in accommodations closer to school. Some teachers argued that accommodation conditions are poor and unsuitable for them to live in, but they have no other choice, especially for teachers who come from other cities.

Living in accommodation and being away from family also causes teachers to feel stressed. Male teacher M, who is married and lives in accommodation, stated:

*“I am from Irbid (a city in North Jordan about 170 miles from Alakwar), so I have to live in an accommodation. I have a family; I miss my children and wife a lot.”*

This is in line with Brown and Uehara (1999), who indicated teachers who are recruited far away from their home and family usually have inadequate social networks important to work life and need to be provided with social support.

The Alakwar Head of Directorate stated:

*“There are 19 accommodations distributed in the four directorates to help teachers who are far from their family to feel comfortable and less stressed.”*

**9.5.1.6 Marking and invigilation in the Tawjihi:** The whole period of marking and invigilation is about one and a half months, but per teacher could take up to two to three weeks. The two tasks run at the same time. Teachers who do invigilation could be Tawjihi teachers or regular teachers, while teachers who do marking have to be Tawjihi teachers. Marking is mandatory task as it is considered a national task. When Tawjihi students finish the first examination in one subject, Tawjihi teachers who teach this subject begin the marking process. The process continues until all Tawjihi papers have been marked. The MOE makes sure all Tawjihi students get their results almost one month before the new academic year to start, as this gives them the chance to apply to universities or colleges. At the same time, the university or college admission committee has time to make decisions regarding the acceptances. Tawjihi teachers feel under time pressure and added responsibility. The MOE gives about less than 200 JD for the Tawjihi teacher who marks and less than 100 JD for teachers who invigilate based on how many hours they worked.

Tawjihi teachers have different perspectives regarding this point. Some teachers find it a good opportunity to gain extra money, especially female teachers. For example, female teacher A stated:

*“Marking and invigilation is a good opportunity to make more money, especially because we do that during school break. To be honest, the money is not that much, but is still better than nothing.”*

Some other teachers find it just another burden. Some male teachers exploit this time to do other work and make more money.

*“It is too much pressure as it is not an easy task and puts more burden and responsibility on us. We work every day, even on Fridays from 8:00A.M.-5:00P.M. for little money. I could benefit from this time to do my own work without time pressure or feeling responsible and at the same time, gain more money”*

## **9.6 Correlation between the level of stress and the main sources of stress**

The association between teacher stress and the ten main sources of stress was determined using Pearson correlation coefficients  $r$ . The correlations between these variables for the whole sample are set out in table 9.9. Significant positive correlations were found between the level of stress and each source of stress. These findings support studies elsewhere; for example, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978b) found the sources of stress were positively correlated with self-reported teacher stress. In addition, Chan (2002) found teacher stress significantly associated with psychological distress.

The highest correlation coefficient  $r$  was found between the level of stress and work ( $r=.332$ ). This finding highlights that work related sources of stress, such as inadequate salary, poor promotion opportunities, in-service training, private tutoring, workload and time pressure as causing the most stress. It also has important consequences regarding what can be done about such sources of stress. This is consistent with other studies (e.g. Jacobsson *et al.*, 2001; Khlaifat and Zghool, 2003; Tennant, 2007; Peltzer *et al.*, 2009).

The second highest correlation coefficient  $r$  was found between the level of stress and students ( $r=.199$ ). This concurs with Borg *et al.* (1991); Antoniou *et al.* (2000), who found a positive and significant link between teacher stress and students misbehaviour. This finding reflects that teachers are more concerned about what happens inside the classroom rather than interactions with others outside the classroom (e.g. colleagues, parent) due to the pressure of already having to spend the whole school day in direct contact with students. It also highlights the importance for teachers to have more control over students, as well as over the factors related to students, such as students' misbehaviour, lack of motivation to work, maintaining discipline and low academic levels that cause stress among them.

The third highest correlation coefficient  $r$  was found between the level of stress and teaching difficulties. This is in line with other studies (e.g. Travers and Cooper, 1996; Antoniou *et al.*, 2006). This reflects teachers' concerns in terms of teaching difficulties. For example, their main concern resides over inadequate teaching materials to support efficient teaching, such as lack of equipment and resources, insufficient workshops and lack of textbooks. Moreover, teachers feel a lot of demand to apply modern teaching methods, but at the same time schools do not supply them with adequate equipment in order to do the job. Resource limitations not only hinder their work and lead to poor students' performance, but also exert a lot of stress on teachers as well.

The lowest correlation coefficient  $r$  was between the level of stress and parents and community ( $r=.120$ ). This is inconsistent with Khlaifat and Zghool (2003), who found a positive relationship between stress and parents and community. This is also inconsistent with Troman (2000), who found that social relationships with adults such as colleagues, head teachers, parents and inspectors are considered as sources of stress. This finding could be justified by the positive role the media could start to play in order to change community and parents' attitude toward teachers. For example, the media started to announce the "Queen Rania Award for a distinguished teacher" and introduced teachers in a respectful way.

The second lowest correlation coefficient  $r$  was between the level of stress and their colleagues. This means that the correlation between stress and colleague is weak. This could be because colleagues are sometimes considered as sources of help and support. According to Arabian culture, colleagues are considered one of the major sources of help and support after family. Bjorkqvist (1994a) confirmed social networking among colleagues at work is considered the most important social group for adult individuals, with the exception of family. Moreover, Cockburn (1996a) argued that good relationship with colleagues means working together as a team, willingness to help each other, providing support to each other, and finding solutions to problems which help deal with the symptoms of stress. This is in line with other studies (e.g. Cockburn, 1996a; Kyriacou, 2000; Valentic, 2005).



**Table 9.9 Pearson correlation between stress and sources of stress (N=314)**

	<b>r</b>	<b>mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
School environment and facilities	.131*	3.04	.85
Administration	.139*	3.22	1.14
Supervisor	.149**	3.03	1.25
Colleagues	.123*	3.58	1.08
Education system regulations and policy	.190**	2.44	.97
Teaching difficulties	.156**	2.64	.88
Students	.199**	3.03	.81
Parents and community/public	.120*	3.16	.94
Work	.332**	2.64	.86
Personal circumstances	.138*	3.29	.91

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

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

## 9.7 Summary

This chapter dealt with issues related to education systems and regulations. Ineffective consultation, inadequate disciplinary sanction and not taking education seriously are examples of the main sources of stress found in the questionnaire phase. Taking a day off whenever teachers need it is also very important. Participation in the decision making process, change, lack of accommodation, free education for teachers' children and the Tawhiji system itself were further causes of stress revealed in the interview phase. Non-availability of a teachers' room, in addition to shortage of computers and other supplies teachers need, caused stress among teachers. Issues related to teaching difficulties were discussed as well. Poor safety in the laboratory and shortage of equipment were main sources found in the questionnaire phase. Teaching large classes is also not easy because having enough time to devote to each student is difficult. Teachers are unable to answer each student's questions or confirm their understanding of the topic.

The school environment, including school size, classroom size, facilities, utilities and furniture are very important in order to help teachers be successful and efficient in their work, as it affects their performance and, at the same time, their morale. Suitability of the schools or classes for high school students, the large size of the school and building maintenance carried out during work time were some sources of stress revealed in the questionnaire phase. The interviews phase revealed that the following aspects related to school environment were attributed to causes of stress among teachers: lack of air conditioning and heating systems, school location, lack of water, building maintenance, high number of students in the classroom, small school building

and classroom size, continuous disconnection of the electricity, hygiene and cleanliness at school, and unsuitability of the classroom environment. Some recommendations were mentioned to help reduce teacher stress, such as implementing long term plans by the MOE along with sufficient follow through.

Inadequate salary, lack of recognition for extra work, administrative work, poor promotion opportunities and spending lots of time on grading and preparing were sources of stress revealed by Tawjihi teachers in the questionnaire phase. Low salary, low status and lack of promotion opportunities were sources revealed by Tawjihi teachers in the interviews phase as well. Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Arabic and English Language teachers revealed private tutoring is one of the sources of stress they faced as these subjects are considered the hardest; and at the same time, most of the students have accumulated weaknesses that need adjusting before this critical year. In-service training was raised by almost all Tawjihi teachers in the interview phase as a source of stress. Tawjihi teachers considered training repetitive, a waste of time and conducted at inconvenient times. Some teachers considered computer training a good opportunity to improve computer skills and to get promotions, while other teachers feel this puts further burdens on them. Workload and time pressure, including daily preparations, marking papers, using private time to finish school work, weekly, monthly and yearly plans, administrative and supervision work and sundry class duties, are all considered sources of stress related to work among Tawjihi teachers. Transportation is another source of stress mentioned by Tawjihi teachers. They argued that unavailability of buses, poor organisation of the transportation system and travelling long distances between school and home makes the time it takes to go to school very long and stressful. Marking and invigilating the Tawjihi is considered by some teachers as a source of stress, as they could benefit from this time to conduct their own business. Other teachers found it a good opportunity to earn extra money.

The correlations between teacher stress and the main sources of stress were calculated. Significant positive correlations were found between the level of stress and each source of stress. The highest correlations were found between the level of stress and work, students and teaching difficulties. The lowest correlations were found between the level of stress and parents and community and colleagues.

The next chapter will deal with coping strategies teachers adopted to reduce stress.

## Chapter Ten

### Coping Strategies Findings

#### 10.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings regarding coping strategies adopted by Tawjihi teachers to reduce stress. This chapter is organised into two sections. The first section presents the most effective coping strategies Jordanian Tawjihi teachers use to reduce stress. The second section focuses on how often Tawjihi teachers use these coping strategies. The findings are derived from the Tawjihi teachers' responses on the questionnaire and their comments in the interviews. The chapter links these findings with other research findings relating to teachers' coping strategies.

Coping strategies were well cited by other researchers. For example, Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated under the same circumstances and same levels of stress, some teachers are able to cope with stress and others unable to deal with it. Additionally, Ralphet *al.* (2002) indicated teachers were able to deal with work stress better when they were given the opportunity to decide or to initiate coping strategies. Coping effectively with stress depends on individual teachers (Kyraicou, 2000; Austin *et al.*, 2005) and the coping sources available to them (Kyraicou, 2000). Coping strategies give teachers the opportunity to enjoy the subject they teach and help their students learn better in the process (Kyraicou, 2000). Accordingly, Kyraicou (2000) argued since teachers experience stress from time to time, they need to know how to deal with work stress and to develop strategies that could help avoid and reduce stress whenever it happens.

#### 10.2 Coping strategies that Tawjihi teachers adopted to reduce stress

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the 39 coping strategies are shown in Table 10.1 in descending order of the percentage rating the item as extremely effective. As can be seen, the item with the highest rating was 'practicing religion', followed by 'ensuring that I understand the work I am about to teach', 'improving my relationship with others', 'learning from my mistakes and experience', 'being very organised so I keep on top of things', 'having a healthy home life' and 'listening to others' problems and benefiting from their experience'.

**Table 10.1: The most effective coping strategies (N=314)**

<b>Coping Strategies</b>	<b>Ineffective</b>	<b>A little effective</b>	<b>Moderately effective</b>	<b>Very effective</b>	<b>Extremely effective</b>
Practicing religion (Praying, Qur'an recitation, Reading Hadith).	4.8	11.5	13.1	26.4	44.3
Ensuring that I understand the work I am about to teach.	6.7	8.3	15.6	27.1	42.4
Improve my relationship with others.	3.8	10.2	18.8	25.2	42
Learning from my mistakes and experience.	5.7	7.3	12.7	35.7	38.5
Being very organised so I keep on top of things.	6.7	7.3	15.9	36	34.1
Having a healthy home life.	5.7	8.9	15.9	36.3	33.1
Listening to others' problems and benefiting from their experience.	5.1	18.2	14.6	30.6	31.5
Changing schools.	30.9	14	13.7	12.7	28.7
Applying to change your position as a teacher to another position in the school (e.g. deputy head, librarian).	33.1	12.4	13.7	12.4	28.3
Separating myself as much as possible from the people who created the situation.	5.7	11.8	24.8	30.3	27.4
Doing my best to get out of the situation gracefully.	3.2	10.5	29.3	29.9	27.1
Seeing the situation as an opportunity to learn and develop new skills.	5.1	10.5	23.2	34.1	27.1
Look at the bright side of things and think about the upcoming vacation.	7.6	13.7	22.6	31.5	24.5
Relaxing after work and trying to forget things that have happened in school.	11.1	23.9	14.3	26.8	23.9
Keeping paperwork up-to-date.	8.6	16.6	17.2	35	22.6
Learning how to control emotions.	8.9	10.5	18.5	39.5	22.6
Starting the year with clearly defined classroom rules.	6.1	12.7	20.7	38.5	22
Keeping away from stressful situations.	4.1	12.7	29.6	31.8	21.7
Continuing further education.	20.4	17.5	22.9	17.5	21.7
Reminding myself that work is not everything.	8.9	16.6	27.7	26.8	20.1
Tackling the situation.	11.1	13.4	22.6	33.4	19.4
Turn to other activities (e.g. physical exercise, walking, playing sport, going out for lunch).	15	21.7	21.7	23.2	18.5
Talking to somebody (e.g. friends, relative, colleagues).	13.4	22.6	23.2	22.6	18.2
Let my feelings out (e.g. cry, scream).	30.6	23.6	19.4	9.2	17.2
Talking to someone who could do something about the problem (e.g. head teacher, supervisor and parents).	16.2	20.4	26.1	20.7	16.6
Giving private lessons (tutoring).	38.2	19.4	14	11.8	16.6
Apologising or doing something nice to reconcile.	10.5	20.7	26.8	25.8	16.2
Keeping myself away from others.	37.3	18.2	17.2	11.8	15.6
Sleeping more than usual.	29.3	25.2	22	8.3	15.3
Making myself feel better by eating, smoking....	47.8	14.6	13.4	8.9	15.3
Accepting sympathy, support and understanding from others.	11.5	19.1	31.5	24.5	13.4
Enjoying myself by (listening to music, watching TV).	19.1	21.3	24.5	22	13.1
Telling pupils when I am not feeling well.	25.2	21.7	21	21.7	10.5
Accepting that people sometimes have bad luck.	27.7	19.4	22	21	9.9
Identifying more about stress (reading books, attending seminars).	24.2	23.3	27.8	15.7	8.9
Punish or used disciplinary sanctions (e.g. bad mark).	20.4	24.8	24.8	22	8
Taking the day off to unwind.	37.9	29.6	14	11.8	6.7
Expressing irritations to colleagues.	29	29.9	20.7	14.3	6.1
Seeking professional help (Doctor, School Counsellors, Psychologist).	49.4	16.6	18.5	11.8	3.8

Kyriacou (1997a, 1997b, 2000, 2001) distinguished between two main types of coping strategies: direct action strategies and palliative strategies (indirect actions) (see Chapter 5). On one hand, teachers who use direct action strategies try to minimise stressful situations by interfering directly with the sources of stress. On the other hand, teachers who use indirect action strategies usually do not attempt to change the source of the stress; however, they engage in activities known to reduce stress or release it. It is interesting to note that five of these seven coping strategies are palliative coping strategies rather than direct coping strategies. The two direct action strategies were items being organised and understanding the work. This is in line with other studies (e.g. Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Madini, 2005; Austin *et al.*, 2005; Brownell, 2006). This could be justified that most of the sources of stress experienced by Tawjihi teachers are out of their control, such as, low salary, inadequate promotion, lack of equipment and resources and rules and regulations. Therefore, teachers cannot take direct actions to deal with the sources of stress and try to use indirect actions to deal with such sources to avoid feeling hopeless. They do not change the source of stress; instead, they involved themselves in activities to reduce the level of stress

More details and understanding regarding the most effective coping strategies used by Tawjihi teachers were obtained through the semi-structured interviews. Some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. Teachers indicated the most effective coping strategies they used were:

- *Turn to religious practice.*
- *Read books about stress.*
- *Build good relationships with students.*
- *Be organised and well prepared.*
- *Hire vans to pick them up and drop them off every day from and to school.*
- *Change the job position at school or change schools..*
- *Leave the profession.*
- *Have another source of income.*
- *Isolate yourself from others.*

During the interviews, the researcher noticed from the Tawjihi teachers' responses that there is a between the sources of stress that have been revealed in the previous chapters and their strategies to deal with stress. This may mean teachers use a particular strategy to cope with a specific source of stress. In other words, the coping strategies teachers used are different according to the sources of stress they experienced. This is in line with Lazarus and Folkman (1984), who argued the stressful situations play an important role in determining the kind of coping strategies individuals could choose. Consequently and according to Madini (2005), the findings will be demonstrated based on the order of the sources of stress in the findings' chapters.

### **10.2.1 Coping strategies regarding the relationships at schools**

**10.2.1.1 Administrators.** Teachers revealed their own direct techniques to cope with administrators as a source of stress, such as leaving the profession, changing positions at school, or changing the school itself. Regarding poor relationships with head teachers, female teacher D stated:

*“My relationship with the previous head teacher was not good. Therefore, I applied for transfer to another school many times, and I kept doing that until they did. My new head teacher is good and I am not thinking to transfer.”*

Filing a letter of complaint to the Directorate of Education and Teaching is another direct technique some teachers used to deal with the head teacher as a source of stress. Female teacher E explained:

*“My school is the nearest school to my home. I cannot change it to other vocational schools as they are far. I am not happy about my relationship with the head teacher. So I filed a complaint against her to the Directorate to help me.”*

**10.2.1.2 Students.** Teachers develop their direct own coping strategies to deal with stress caused by students. In his opinion, male teacher I believes building good relationships with students helps to reduce stress that could happen as a result of them. He disclosed:

*“Building a good relationship with students helps me deal with stress that could come from them.”*

This is consistent with Meng and Liu (2008), who indicated getting to know students as individuals is one of the most effective coping strategies for teachers.

Being patient and absorbing the problem is another effective coping strategy female teacher F used to deal with stress from students:

*“When I have a problem with a student, I try to be patient and absorb the problem. I try to control my emotions, think carefully and to not make the problem worse.”*

This is reflected by teachers in Schroeder *et al.* (2001), who found taking time to think about the problem and putting in more effort to correct the situation were two frequent coping strategies. This is in line also with Kyriacou (2000); Meng and Liu (2008), who indicated controlling feelings and emotions when facing a problem is very important. Kyriacou (2000) argued some teachers get angry fast and sometimes lose their temper. Therefore, it is very important to relax, stay calm and positive, as well as think about the problem in a way that makes it seem very small, which avoids making it much worse. Cockburn (1996) argued tackling the situation and understanding your emotions are good strategies to reduce stress. It is also consistent with Kyriacou (1980b); Kyriacou and Pratt (1985), who found relaxing and staying calm were frequently used by teachers.

Explaining class discipline to students from the beginning of the academic year is another coping strategy Twajihi teachers used effectively. Male teacher C affirmed:

*“From the beginning of the academic year, I explain to the students the class discipline, class rules, what is expected from them and what I am going to do for them. This helps me avoid any potential stress from them.”*

This is in line with Cockburn (1996a), who mentioned setting classroom rules at the beginning of the scholastic year will help prevent stress and reduce stress that could arise from students. Anderson (1991) added teachers need to remind their students of these rules from time to time to be more effective.

For absent and frequently late students, some teachers have their own way to deal with this

source of stress as well. Male teacher K explained:

*“From the beginning of the academic year, I make it clear to students to attend regularly and to pay attention carefully. If they do not, I will refer their names to the head teacher. In this case, he will not be allowed to attend the Tawjihi examination.”*

He also confirmed:

*“One time I did that and I referred one of the students who exceeded the absent hours to the head teacher. As a result, he did not attend the Tawjihi test. Since that has happened, all the students know that I am serious when I talk to them.”*

**10.2.1.3 Parents.** Some teachers struggle to take direct actions regarding sources emanating from parents, while other’s find a balance. For example, teachers try to build and maintain good relationships with parents and make parents more involved in their children' education. Female teacher J remarked:

*“I have a friendly relationship with most of the parents. I participate with them in their occasions, especially the sad ones. On Eid celebration, I call or send greeting cards. This good relationship has avoided me any potential stress I could face from parents.”*

This is consistent with Madini (2005), who found friendly relationship with parents can reduce any potential stress in the future. Moreover, Nagel and Brown (1993) indicated teachers found increasing parents' classroom involvement is considered one of the rewards their profession brings them.

When parents feel the teacher is concerned about their children's behaviour and academic performance, they really appreciate it, especially since Tawjihi is a very important stage and comes at a very critical age (teenage). At this age, students think they are always right, they know better than others and that nobody has the right to tell them what to do, even their parents or teachers. Regarding this point, male teacher K disclosed:

*“Two years ago, I noticed that one of my students always comes late and sometimes does not show up to school. I felt very concerned, so I called his father and told him. His father did his best to bring his son back to the school. This student got a good grade that allowed him to*



*attend engineering school. Since that time, wherever I meet his father, he tells me that I saved his son's future, and he appreciates what I did."*

### **10.2.2 Coping strategies regarding the school environment and facilities**

Teachers had a limited scope of direct actions to reduce or eliminate the sources that come from school environment. Obviously, teachers do not have the ability to change school location, size, building, ventilation or lack of facilities, as they have less control over such sources, but they try to take indirect actions. For instance, they try to make the school and classroom as attractive as possible to them and to their students.

Regarding the high temperature in Alakwar that makes students feel bored and appear disinterested, male teacher B disclosed:

*"I took the students out of the classroom, as sometimes, they feel bored and sleepy because of the high temperature. Sometimes, I used the laboratory or the library as a replacement for the classroom."*

Regarding the same point, female teacher F revealed:

*"I bring my own small fan with a wet towel and take it to each class when I teach. Also, every day I bring a couple of bottles of frozen water with me as the school does not always have it."*

Since Alakwar environment is unattractive; hence, teachers use direct actions. For example, teachers always request transfers to other directorates that could have better environments. Male teacher L with two years experience affirmed:

*"I applied for transfer from Alakwar Directorate. My opportunity to be transferred is not high as I am still new. I need to finish at least two years, but I will not give up."*

At the end of the academic year, teachers can apply to change their school and transfer to another one. Unfortunately, not all applications are approved and not every teacher will be transferred. Moreover, transferring a teacher from one school to another is subject to the availability of the position and the teacher's experience. For example, if two teachers apply for

the same position, the teacher with more experience has the right to be transferred first. Female teacher J had another strategy, stating:

*“I tried to take an early retirement as I feel I cannot take this job any more. I really feel my back is hurting a lot from standing the whole day. When the MOE judged my application, it was refused. I will keep trying.”*

This is in line with Cosgrove (2000), who stated that in 1995 more than 3000 teachers retired early because of stress.

### **10.2.3 Coping strategies regarding teaching difficulties**

When dealing with stress perceived to emanate from teaching difficulties, teachers often used direct actions. For example, vocational streams' teachers cannot do anything regarding the low academic ability of their students, as this is a cumulative weakness, but they could take direct actions by giving them extra periods or free of charge tutoring. For example, female teacher E, revealed:

*“Low academic ability of vocational streams' students is cumulative and not easy to deal with. I give them extra classes to focus on skills, such as: writing and reading. This makes me feel better, especially seeing how it sometimes works with students who have potential.”*

Teachers use direct actions, especially when the reason for stress is the lack of equipment or resources. Some teachers cannot buy equipment, machines, or other facilities for their streams because it is very expensive. Instead, teachers use their relationships with other schools, hospitals, or other organisations to get some simple teaching aids, such as: models, graphs and charts as a donation to the school. Some other teachers buy these teaching aids themselves; while others encourage students to do it as a project for extra grades, especially those who have the talent and skills to do so. Students also need these grades to achieve the grade that allows them to enter the Tawjihi examination. Female Tawjihi teacher E has a different way to help, stating:

*“Sometimes, I buy models, books and catalogues for the school from my own money. I also have some students who have the talent to make models or draw graphs. They do it for extra points.”*

For example, male teacher K explained:

*“I worked in a college and different schools, so I have built a good relationship with others. Sometimes, I ask for a donation to school, such as: books or models; they do so most of the time.”*

Regarding the same point, female teacher J disclosed:

*“My husband is a manager in the health department in Alkarak branch. Sometimes, I ask him to donate some models, books and magazines, or if he can use his relationships with other branches to help the school that I teach at.”*

Female teacher F has another way to deal with this problem. She affirmed:

*“I could do a bazaar with the students to help pay for any activities or buy teaching aids that I need instead of paying from my pocket.”*

#### **10.2.4 Coping strategies regarding work**

Teachers also have their own coping strategies to deal with sources of stress related to work. Although teachers do not have the ability to eliminate some sources of stress related to work because it is out of their control, they develop their own indirect coping strategies to help them deal with some of these sources.

**10.2.4.1 Inadequate salary** is the most stressful factor, affecting almost all teachers emotionally, physically and socially (Al-Mahamadi, 1990). Teachers cannot increase their salary so they complain, look for other sources of income, get further education, attend the computer in-service training courses and for male teachers, look to get married to a working woman. Looking for other financial sources is one of the effective ways to tackle low income. Male teacher B stated:

*“Because my salary is not enough and I have a big family, I established my own business. It is a small shop and I put it in my son’s name as I am not allowed to have another source of income.”*

Regarding the same point, male teacher C stated:

*“I do tutoring to get extra money as my salary is not enough. To be honest, I do not like doing it, but I have no choice because I have a*

*family.”*

Male teacher I stated:

*“Sometimes, I do private tutoring to help me cover my expenses. My salary is not enough, and I am glad I am not married yet.”*

He added later:

*“When I decide to get married, I will look for a working woman to support financially.”*

Most teachers looking for other sources of income are male teachers, as it is man’s duty to support their family financially, as female teachers have other responsibilities. Regarding this point, female teacher J stated:

*“Many students ask me for tutoring, but I refused because I have other responsibilities; it will be extra work for me in spite of my need.”*

This is similar to Ladebo (2005), where teachers in Nigeria have other jobs, such as: catering, tailoring and trading to increase their income from teaching, which is considered a poor paying job. Mtika (2008) also mentioned many teachers in Malawi engaged in afterschool work to find money to supplement their low salaries or look elsewhere for an alternative job. This is supported by Al-Mohannadi and Capel (2007), where male teachers in Qatar teach students privately to supplement their salary.

Male, Almazar head teacher II confirmed that low salary is one of the sources of stress, so most teachers in his school have other sources of income. He stated:

*“One of the teachers is absent today. I am sure he did that to work in his own van. Most teachers have or look for another source of income and marry a working woman, as their salary is not enough.”*

Confirming the same point, school counsellor NN said:

*“Some teachers do tutoring because they want to support themselves and their family as their salary is not enough.”*

**10.2.4.2 Poor promotion opportunities** is one of the most stressful factors that resulted in teachers developing their own direct strategies in order to cope with this source of stress, such as getting higher educations. Female teacher G stated:

*“I got two years allowance after I finished my Master’s degree. It also gives me the opportunity to apply for a supervision position. When I do my PhD, I will get another promotion.”*

Attending computer in-service training is considered a good opportunity for teachers to get a promotion and improve their situation as well. For example, female teacher A confirmed:

*“The training sessions in computers, such as ICDL are a good opportunity to have a financial promotion, so teachers compete to attend these sessions.”*

**10.2.4.3 Workload.** Teachers could not do anything regarding this source of stress, but they try to apply direct actions to tackle it. Time-management, being prepared and organised, complaining to management or talking to somebody who could help, are some strategies used by teachers. Female teacher J affirmed her direct technique:

*“In my first years of teaching, I used to take everything home, so I had no time for my family. Now, I learned how to manage my time effectively and started to do most of my work at school, which put less stress on me.”*

When teachers feel they are overburdened with a lot of demands, feel overloaded and cannot deal with these demands, they complain and show their unhappiness regarding this. For example, female teacher G revealed:

*“I complain to the head teacher, the school counsellor, or even the supervisor. I show them that I am not happy. Sometimes they help, and even if they do not, at least I show them that I am stressed.”*

Preparing carefully to gain familiarity with the taught subject, being prepared for any questions that could arise from students, as well as being organised and well planned, are some direct coping strategies some teachers used. Male teacher C stated:

*“I always organised my work and prepared carefully, and this helps me cope with stress. Before, I never stepped into the class prepared or*

*ready to answer any questions that could arise from students.”*

This concurs with teachers in Meng and Liu (2008), who reported that preparing to understand the material they are going to teach is one of the most effective strategies to deal with stress. Moreover, Kyriacou and Pratt (1985); Cockburn (1996a); Murray-Harvey (1999) found that preparing, planning and organising are common coping strategies used by teachers. In the same regard, Kyriacou (2000) argued the more organised the teacher is, the less stress he/she will experience. Planning, preparing and developing good time management skills are very important skills to prevent stress and also reduce its sources. Time management means getting everything ready on time, with good quality and setting the priority of the tasks that need to be finished first by putting them in order, either by importance or approaching deadline. Kyriacou assured these skills help teachers maintain healthy relationships at school by allowing more time to spend with colleagues and students.

Having too much subject matter to finish for Tawjihi students almost one month prior to the regular students is another source of stress that caused teachers to develop their own direct technique to deal with it. Mathematics teacher F said:

*“To make sure that I could finish the textbook on time, I took extra periods such as P.E. and sometimes I work on weekends.”*

**10.2.4.4 In-service training.** Teachers can do nothing about it, as attending in-service training is mandatory for both novice and experienced teachers due to ever changing curriculums. Teachers complain several times, but reluctantly had to accept the fact and develop their own strategy to deal with it. Female English teacher J remarked:

*“I agreed with my husband to sleep in my parents’ house for the periods of the training as my mother can look after my children. At least I felt comfortable about my children, and when I got home I found the food is ready to eat and I had the chance to take a rest.”*

Regarding the same point, male teacher B stated:

*“My colleagues and I filed a complaint for not attending the training sessions. The MOE did not do anything, but at least we complained; so maybe in the future they will rethink it.”*

#### 10.2.4.5 Other sources of stress related to work

Regarding the **private tutoring**, teachers have their own coping technique as well. Mathematics teacher I commented:

*“I faced the problem of private tutoring with the students but I was able to deal with it. I used to give the students more explanations and more examples than the tutor. The students then felt that they did not need tutoring anymore.”*

Another source of stress is **transportation**. Teachers use their own coping techniques to deal with it, as buying a car is very expensive for them. Regarding this point, female teacher H stated:

*“I agreed with the private van’s driver to pay him monthly in order to drop me off to school every morning and to pick me up every afternoon.”*

Confirming the same point, teacher A stated:

*“Most of the teachers start doing that everywhere in the governorate. The problem continues for teachers whose schools are very far, so they cannot do it and they still suffer.”*

This is in line with Madini (2005), who suggested sharing private transportation could help solve the transportation problem, which teachers in her study mentioned as a source of stress among them.

#### 10.2.5 Other Coping strategies

**10.2.5.1 Practicing religion** is almost the most effective indirect coping strategy that has been used by nearly most Tawjihi teachers in both questionnaire and interview phases. Since Jordan is an Islamic country, most teachers turn to religion to make them feel better. For Muslims, the Islamic religion is considered a source of peaceful feelings, relaxation and calming time. Female teacher A revealed:

*“When I feel stressed, I pray Nawafel (extra prayer), recite and listen to Quran, read Hadith and Duaa’. All this makes me feel peaceful and calmer.”*

Male teacher L affirmed:

*“When I feel stressed, I always ask Allah (swt) for forgiveness and to give me patience, as Allah (swt) will reward us for being patient.”*

The findings are supported by other Islamic studies. For example, Mahmoudiet *al.* (2007) revealed the religious person is using strong religious coping strategies to overcome the stressful situation. Also, Madini (2005) indicated almost all the teachers in her study revealed reciting Qur'an, reading Hadith, magnification and prayer were the most popular coping strategies. Moreover, Saker (2004) indicated daily Salat (prayer), Duaa' (Supplications) and keeping in touch with Allah (swt) all help in preventing depression. Mehraby (2003) explained that is because Muslims believe everything comes from Allah (swt) and Allah is the only one who gives faith and strength to endure. All these beliefs give Muslims valuable sources to deal with depression, anxiety, stress and loss and grief. It is also in line with other studies conducted elsewhere, where having faith in God (Schroeder *et al.*, 2001) or praying (Schroeder *et al.*, 2001; Kyriacou and Pratt, 1985) were the most frequent coping strategies used by teachers. Female head teacher JJ mentioned:

*“In Islam work is worship. Teachers work hard and do their best as they know that Allah is going to reward them, not the MOE.”*

This is in line with a teacher in Kryriacou (2000), who always reminds herself before entering a difficult class that she is a teacher doing God's work, and this helps her to be happy and cheerful. However, this finding is inconsistent with Meng and Liu (2008), who found that practicing religion as one of the least effective coping methods.

#### **10.2.5.2 Seeking social help and support**

Social support helps reduce and prevent stress and is considered a helpful resource for coping with stress (Chan, 2002; Dunham, 1992; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Kyriacou, 1997b). Travers and Cooper (1996) also argued that family could be a source of stress, and yet at the same time could support teachers and help relieve stress. In the current study, seeking social help and support from others such as friends, colleagues and family were mentioned by many Tawjihi teachers as an effective indirect way to ease stress. Some teachers may refer to head teachers, school counsellors, or supervisors to help them deal with problems they are experiencing.



Female teacher H, said:

*“When I face any problems that make me stressed, I do not hesitate to ask colleagues for advice and help. They are always helpful and their advice works.”*

Female teacher F added other coping strategies she found effective in dealing with some problems, such as:

*“I ask the head teacher, school counsellor, or even parents for help when I face a problem with a student. I ask colleagues to share their experience with me, and most of the time they are helpful.”*

This is in line with Murray-Harvey (1999), who found the students’ teacher reported that social support networks are an important part in developing and maintaining coping strategies. Such networks could be newly established (e.g. with the head teachers or supervisors) or already existing (e.g. family and friends). Shu (2003) indicated social support can come from family, friends and colleagues which could be a coping strategy, but if unavailable, especially when needed, will lead to stress. Furthermore, Valentic (2005) found out that working alone is stressful, therefore having colleagues who offer help, give guidance and answer questions, will help reduce stress. Moreover, De Nobile and McCormick (2005) argued teachers need to feel support from their colleagues by sharing experiences, ideas, concerns and helping them to overcome any work-related problems that could rise. However, this is inconsistent with unexpected findings of Jacobsson *et al.* (2001) and Schonfeld (2001), who found support from colleagues did not reduce stress. Jacobsson *et al.* (2001) explained colleague support is a mutual relationship in the long run, so receiving support may require giving it back, thus increasing work demands.

Talking to somebody, such as a friend, spouse and colleague to reveal what makes them stressed was another effective, indirect strategy used by some Tawjihi teachers. Female teacher E stated:

*“When I feel frustrated from work, I call a friend of mine. Sometimes, I just talk to her on the phone, and sometimes we could go out to drink a cup of coffee or tea, or even have lunch and talk. I feel calm when I release my feelings to her. She is a good listener and helper.”*

This is consistent with Fitzgerald (2008) and Loh (1994) who indicated talking to somebody

could help in dealing with stress. Furthermore, social support from colleagues at school (Kyriacou, 1997; Travers and Cooper, 1993), having a healthy home life (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Kyriacou, 1997; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Meng and Liu, 2008) and visiting, telephoning or writing to someone (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), all offer teachers to better cope with school stress.

Asking help from colleagues to cover part of their subject that they do not have enough knowledge about or did not take at the university or college is reported by some teachers in the current study. Female teacher H disclosed:

*“I had to teach a subject that I did not take at the university and it needs computer skills, which make me feel stressed. To solve the problem, I agreed with the computer teacher to help me cover the part that needs the computer skills and she was very helpful. I feel less stress now.”*

This is in line with Kyriaou (2000), who indicated teachers could ask colleagues to cover the subjects they lack the experience or skills to teach.

Maintaining a healthy home life is another indirect strategy Tawjihi teachers use to cope with stress. Both partners need to support each other when experiencing stress or facing any problem at school. Female teacher E stated:

*“When my husband sees how much I feel stress and how much pressure is put on me as a teacher, mother, wife and housewife, he asks me to have unpaid leave regardless of our need for my salary. I am thinking of resting for at least one year.”*

This is in line with Riccio (1983), who recommended people with stressful jobs, such as teachers, need to find unconditional support at home.

**10.2.5.3 Isolating yourself from others and sleeping for a long period of time** are other effective, indirect techniques used by some Tawjihi teachers to cope with stress. Female teacher F disclosed:

*“When I feel stress, I feel I do not want to talk to anybody or even feel hungry. The only thing that I need to do is to sleep. When I get home, I go to my room and I lock the door behind me and start crying. AlhamdoLillah (Praise to God) I am not married.”*

This concurs with Mahmoudi *et al.* (2007), who found 26.9% of the sample used crying, aggression, isolation, smoking and sleeping as coping strategies. This is also affirmed by Cockburn (1996a), who found that crying and taking a restful sleep could relieve stress. This is also consistent with Loh (1994), who found that sleeping was used by teachers to reduce stress.

**10.2.5.4 Listening to music and watching T.V.** was mentioned by four Tawjihi teachers as indirect coping strategies used to relieve stress. Male teacher I stated:

*“I feel comfortable and calm when I listen to music, watch a movie, or exercise. I involve myself with the song or the movie to help me forget stressful situations.”*

This is in line with Loh (1994); Cockburn (1996a); Murray-Harvey (1999), who found listening to music and watching TV are coping strategies used by teachers.

**10.2.5.5 Reading books about stress**, particularly in teaching, is an effective coping strategy some teachers used because it gives them better understanding about stress. Teachers will become familiar with the fact that teaching is a stressful job and that almost all teachers experience stress during their career. Female teacher F found reading books about stress help to relieve stress. She affirmed:

*“I read books about stress and how to deal with it. Also, I read books about dealing with students. All of these things helped me to feel less stressed, because I am not the only teacher who suffers.”*

This is in line with Cockburn (1996a, 1996b), who found that reading books about stress was one of the coping strategies teachers reported. It is also in accordance with Kyriacou (2000), who recommended teachers read books and attend workshops about stress. Furthermore, Kyriacou (1989) indicated having more of an understanding about stress and its related issues needed to be based on up-to-date information. Moreover, Youngusband *et al.* (2003) indicated that since stress impacts teachers' personal lives, families and their ability to cope with the daily demands of teaching, more education about stress is necessary in order for teachers to understand how stress can affect their health and life. Barhem (2004) also found that self-knowledge was the major techniques Malaysian and Jordanian Customs employees used to cope with stress.

**10.2.5.6 Benefiting from teacher's own experience** was used by few teachers. Male teacher B confirmed:

*“During my long experience in teaching I passed through many stressful situations. I learned to deal with them myself. I benefited a lot from my own experience and mistakes.”*

This agrees with Anderson (1991), who recommended teachers benefit from their previous mistakes and use them as resources of experiences and learning for the future.

**10.2.5.7 Exercising**, such as walking, running and playing sports is another indirect coping strategy some teachers used to deal with stress. Male teacher K stated:

*“I like going out for a walk, especially in the evening at summer time. Breathing in the fresh air helps me to feel better and forget about what I went through during school days.”*

This is in line with Colangelo (2004), who argued that exercise re-energises teachers, helps them to overcome daily pressure, improve relationships with colleagues and frees their mind to be able to effectively deal with problems at school. It is echoed by Kyriacou and Pratt (1985); Lapp and Attridge (2000), who found using breathing exercises and relaxation techniques were frequently used as coping strategies. Furthermore, Detert *et al.* (2006) argued teachers who used T'ai Chi Movements showed significant improvement towards their general well-being as well as reduction in perceived stress symptoms. This is in line also with Loh (1994), who indicated shopping and eating were used by teachers to reduce stress.

### **10.3 To what extent do Tawjihi teachers use these coping strategies?**

The responses of the Tawjihi teachers to the 39 coping strategies are shown in Table 10.2, in descending order of the of the percentage rating the item as extremely used. As can be seen, the item with the highest rating was ‘practicing religion’, followed by ‘ensuring that I understand the work I am about to teach’, ‘being very organised so I keep on top of things’, ‘having a healthy home life’, ‘learning from my mistakes and experience’, ‘improving my relationship with others’ and ‘relaxing after work and trying to forget things that have happened in school’.

**Table 10.2 The most used coping strategies (N=314)**

<b>Coping Strategies</b>	<b>Never used</b>	<b>Very Little used</b>	<b>Little used</b>	<b>Frequently used</b>	<b>Extremely used</b>
Practicing religion (e.g. Praying, Qur'an recitation, Reading Hadith).	7	11.1	18.8	25.2	37.9
Ensuring that I understand the work I am about to teach.	10.2	10.2	18.2	25.8	35.7
Being very organised so I keep on top of things.	8.3	11.1	21.3	24.2	35
Having a healthy home life.	7.3	12.4	17.2	29.3	33.8
Learning from my mistakes and experience.	7.6	8.6	20.4	30.9	32.5
Improving my relationship with others.	8	11.1	22.9	25.5	32.5
Relaxing after work and trying to forget things that have happened in school.	12.1	17.5	20.1	21.3	29
Doing my best to get out of the situation gracefully.	9.9	9.9	21.3	32.8	26.1
Keeping away from stressful situation(s).	8	13.1	23.6	29.6	25.8
Learning how to control emotions.	9.6	9.9	22.6	32.2	25.8
Separating myself as much as possible from the people who created the situation.	9.2	11.5	24.8	29.6	24.8
Starting the year with clearly defined classroom rules.	8	13.4	25.2	29	24.5
Seeing the situation as an opportunity to learn and develop new skills.	9.6	10.5	26.4	29.3	24.2
Listening to others' problems and benefiting from their experience.	8	15.3	18.5	35	23.2
Tackling the situation.	14.6	15.6	22.6	25.5	21.7
Applying to change your position as a teacher to another position in the school (e.g. deputy head, librarian).	33.8	16.6	17.5	11.1	21
Keeping paperwork up-to-date.	10.8	15.6	21.3	31.8	20.4
Giving private lessons (tutoring).	15.3	18.2	16.6	14	19.4
Continuing further education.	22.6	15.3	20.7	22.6	18.8
Reminding myself that work is not everything.	12.7	18.2	27.4	23.2	18.5
Look at the bright side of things and think about the coming vacation.	13.7	15.6	28.7	23.6	18.5
Apologising or doing something to make up.	11.1	17.2	27.7	26.4	17.5
Changing school.	34.4	12.4	21	15	17.2
Turn to other activities (e.g. physical exercise, walking, playing sport, Going out for lunch).	18.2	17.2	24.8	22.6	17.2
Enjoying myself by (listening to music, watching TV).	20.1	23.2	24.5	16.9	15.3
Let my feelings out (e.g. cry, scream).	34.4	17.8	20.4	13.7	13.7
Taking the day off to unwind.	42.4	18.8	16.9	8.9	13.1
Accepting sympathy, support and understanding from others.	12.7	21.7	27.7	24.8	13.1
Talking to somebody (e.g. friends, relative, colleagues).	17.8	28.7	25.8	15.6	12.1
Talking to someone who could do something about the problem (e.g. headteacher, supervisor, and pupil's parents).	18.8	23.2	30.3	16.2	11.5
Making myself feel better by eating, smoking.....	51.1	13.7	14.7	8.9	11.5
Sleeping more than usual.	36.9	23.2	18.8	9.9	11.1
Telling pupils when I am not feeling well.	26.1	21.3	22	19.7	10.8
Keeping myself away from others.	41.1	17.5	19.7	10.8	10.8
Accepting that people sometimes have bad luck.	32.2	23.6	18.8	14.6	10.8
Punish or used disciplinary sanctions (e.g. bad mark).	24.2	25.2	25.5	15.6	9.6
Learning more about stress (reading books, attending seminars).	24.2	19.1	30.3	17.8	8.6
Seeking professional help (Doctor, School Counsellors, Psychologist).	35.7	21.7	22.3	14	6.4
Expressing irritations to colleagues.	35.7	28	22.6	10.8	2.9

These findings reveal two interesting aspects. The first one is the correspondence or similarities between the most effective actions that Tawjihi teachers revealed in the previous section (10.2) versus the most-used coping strategies Tawjihi teachers revealed in this section. The second one is that five of these seven coping strategies are palliative coping strategies rather than direct coping strategies. The two direct action strategies were items relating to understanding the work and being organised. This is in line with other studies (e.g. Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Madini, 2005; Austin *et al.*, 2005; Brownell, 2006). Again, this could be justified by the fact that most of these sources of stress that teachers face are beyond their ability to properly deal with, such as low salary, inadequate promotion, lack of equipment and resources and Tawjihi regulations. Therefore, teachers cannot take direct actions to remove or change the sources of stress. Instead, they employ indirect actions to relieve stress.

Regarding the most used coping strategies; some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis while others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis and reflect the consistency between the two approaches' findings. The most interesting finding regarding this section was that Tawjihi teachers revealed different coping strategies they used the most, yet at the same time they revealed that they used some other coping strategies less often and for apparently interesting reasons. Therefore, the researcher divided this section into two sub-sections. The first sub-section presents the most often used coping strategies, and the second sub-section presents the least often used coping strategies with explanation to the reasons set behind their rare usage.

### **10.3.1 Coping strategies that have been used the most**

**10.3.1.1 Practicing religion** is one of the most used coping strategies and the most effective coping strategies in both questionnaire and interviews phase; it is considered an indirect coping technique. Muslims feel calmer and peaceful when they feel they are close to Allah (swt). Muslims believe people get close to Allah by practicing religion, such as praying and reciting Qur'an. Female teacher J disclosed:

*“When I feel stress I always pray Nawafel, recite Qur'an, read Hadith*

*and religious books, and make Duaa' to Allah to help me relieve my stress. This gives me the power to overcome stress."*

Male teacher K remarked:

*"I always remember that Allah is always there to help me and I rely on him. I make Duaa', recite Qur'an and pray. I always remind myself that I am doing a holy job and work is worship. Allhamdolillah this always works."*

This is in line with Madini (2005). Also, Mahmoudi *et al.* (2007) found 24.7% of the sample used reciting Qur'an, praying and listening to religious music as coping strategies.

**10.3.1.2 Learning from your own mistakes** is another indirect coping technique used more often by Tawjihi teachers in both interviews and questionnaires phases, as female teacher E stated:

*"I always learn from my mistakes and think of the solutions myself. I always remind myself to use my experience first before asking help from others."*

**10.3.1.3 Understanding the subject that teacher teaches**, being organised, well prepared and well planned were some of the direct techniques that have been used by Tawjihi teachers in both interviews and questionnaires phases. Teachers use these strategies more often, especially since these strategies do not take a lot of effort from them, and yet at the same time helps them in their day to day life. Female teacher A stated:

*"I am always organised, prepared well and planned my work. This helps me understand more about my subject and to be more creative and have less stress."*

This study is in line with Gaziel (1993), who pointed out Jewish teachers frequently used some coping strategies, such as being organised to relieve stress.

**10.3.1.4 Talking to someone.** Teachers also realised how important it is to find someone to talk to about stress and the problems they face at school. Someone who is a good listener and adviser, even if this person isn't a professional psychologist, just being able to have the chance to talk and release what is inside proves to be very useful. Therefore, teachers revealed this indirect

strategy as one of the most effective and most used strategies. Female teacher G remarked:

*“I always talk to my friends, colleagues at school as well as my husband about my stress and work problems. Sometimes, they give advices, and sometimes I feel just talking to them is helpful.”*

This is in accordance with Shroederet *al.* (2001), who indicated taking time to talk about the problem help teachers deal with stress. This also concurs with Kyriacou (2000), who confirmed sharing problems with others is very important in reducing stress, as they could offer advice and guidance. Moreover, they could be supported socially and emotionally by expressing sympathy or understanding towards the problems. In addition, praise and recognition from colleagues play an important role in reducing stress as well.

### **10.3.2 Coping strategies rarely used**

Some coping strategies have been used rarely by Tawjihi teachers because teachers do not have the time to use them, cannot afford it, or because they do not believe in these coping strategies.

#### **10.3.2.1 Coping strategies that teachers cannot afford to use often**

Some teachers found that although some coping strategies work well with them to help relieve stress, they cannot use them every time they feel stressed. Some of these strategies are explained below:

##### **1. Going out for walk or dinner:** Female teacher E affirmed:

*“I found going out with friends or my husband is an effective strategy, but I cannot do so every time. I am married, and have children and house work. Also, going out for lunch is expensive and I cannot afford it every time.”*

Male teacher K revealed:

*“Going out for a walk or going on a short trip with friends is a good relief from stress. Unfortunately, I cannot do that often, as I have my own shop that I need to manage after school. Also, I cannot afford going on trips every time.”*



This supported by Arikewuyo (2004), who indicated about 93% of Nigerian teachers neither engage in physical exercise, nor watch films. Mgbor (1995) cited in Arikewuyo (2004) explained this is because teachers do not recognise the importance and value of such activities and the lack of recreational facilities and skills due to economic difficulties. In addition, one of the teachers in Cockburn (1996b) revealed he would like to walk every day but he cannot because he is busy with school work and has no time. Moreover, Mahmoudiet al. (2007) found only 9.5% of the sample used walking, exercising, listening to music and art work as coping strategies. This concurs with Onyewadume (2006), who indicated secondary school teachers get paid better than primary school teachers. Therefore, secondary school teachers can afford exclusive stress reduction services, such as: going to a gymnasium, going on holiday, eating out with friends and family members and hiring maids to reduce some of the household chores.

**2. Continuing further education** is an effective coping strategy not often used by teachers. Female teacher G, who has a Master's degree, stated:

*“I wish to get the PhD as I will get allowance and promotion and open more doors for a better job. Unfortunately, my financial situation cannot allow it.”*

**3. Relaxing after school** is very important advice Kyriacou (2000) and Cockburn, (1996a) offered to teachers, because this will help reduce stress and allow teachers to begin the next school day refreshed and positive. According to Kyriacou (2000), having a healthy personal life will help to apply that and offer time to relax. Many Tawjihi teachers revealed this strategy is effective in reducing stress but is not used often. Female teacher A disclosed:

*“Relaxing after a long working day with all the stressful events is the best thing that I could do to reduce my stress. Unfortunately, I do not have time for that because when I get home, I need to start my second shift of work, running as if I am a machine using up my last few drops of energy.”*

This is consistent with Austin *et al.* (2005), who indicated relaxation was used by most teachers in the study. Moreover, Cockburn (1996b) indicated teachers prefer some coping strategies but they do not have time to use them.

**4. Transferring to become an administrator at school or changing the school itself** is revealed by some Tawjihi teachers as an effective coping strategy, although not always used. The opportunity to achieve this is minimal because openings are few and teachers who compete are many. Teachers can apply every year for such positions whenever available. Female teacher F stated:

*“I hope to get the opportunity to become an administrator. It is difficult because these posts are not always available and the demand is very high on such positions.”*

Male teacher B does not use this coping strategy for a different reason, complaining:

*“I have applied for the head teacher position and head deputy position a few times. Their answer is always that I am unqualified, as I am Community College graduate. So I have stopped applying even when there is a post.”*

This is reflected by Lortie (1975) cited in Donaldson *et al.*(2005),who found that teachers wish to remain at school but to become administrators instead. Unfortunately, some schools and directorates do not give teachers opportunities to get non-administrative leadership work. Furthermore, Travers and Cooper (1996) indicated *occupational locking-in* refers to a minimal opportunity an individual has to move from their current job to another job. This could be because certain jobs are unavailable in the work market or in some organisations; it is hard to obtain different kinds of jobs. In teaching, teachers feel training does not equip them to move to different jobs outside of their profession. Teachers feel worried and anxious about doing different jobs other than teaching, as they graduated from colleges or universities specifically to become teachers. Professional immobility affects the self-worth of teachers and is considered a source of stress. Therefore, Travers and Cooper (1996) suggested schools should introduce career counselling to teachers, especially women and older teachers who have been in the profession for many years. Career counselling helps them evaluate their skills and experience and consider all opportunities inside and outside of the teaching profession.

**5. Taking a day off** is an effective indirect coping strategy rarely used by Tawjihi teachers. Female Tawjihi teacher H explained:

*“When I feel stressed, I feel that I need to take a day off. Unfortunately, I cannot do that every time as I have a large textbook that needs to be finished before the examination.”*

Some teachers also have another reason for not being absent. Female teacher G revealed:

*“Absenteeism reflects on the annual report which affects our promotion. I wish I could take the day off whenever I feel I need it. Unfortunately, the regulations stopped us from doing so.”*

Teachers in other research studies have different reasons for not being absent. Travers and Cooper (1996) explained some teachers feel absenteeism is the only way to cope with stress, but they do not use this strategy as their absenteeism will reflect on their colleagues who need to cover their absence. In the same vein, Kyriacou (1987) explained that although absenteeism helps teachers deal with stress, it results in poor relationships between colleagues. He explained classes of an absent teacher should be covered by other teachers.

**10.3.2.2 Coping strategies that teachers believe are ineffective.** Some people found some coping strategies to reduce stress ineffective, so they rarely use them. According to Cockburn (1996b), this is because some people feel a stigma towards admitting their stress and then associate these strategies with stigma. Others do not use them a lot because they hear from others that these strategies are ineffective. Some other teachers resist certain strategies based on personal experiences or because they are unaware of specific strategies to reduce stress.

**Seeking professional help** is one of the least effective coping strategies and rarely used by Tawjihi teachers. In Jordan, not seeking professional help is a result of cultural stigma, which is common in Arabian countries in general, and Jordan especially. Individuals feel shame visiting psychologists or therapists because people could label them as mentally disabled. As a result, this affects the way some people deal with them or treat them. For instance, some people could avoid dealing with them or getting married to them. Atarawneh *et al.* (2001) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes towards mental illness in Jordan. The results revealed a slight positive attitude towards mental illness among Jordanians. They attributed that to a religion that encourages people to care about those who have mental or emotional problems.

The role of media and culture started to drive people’s attention to this problem. When

Atarawneh *et al.* (2001) reviewed the literature they found contradictions in attitudes towards mental illness in Arabian countries. For example, Abdul Rahman and Abdul Jawad (1989) found negative attitudes towards mental illness in Saudi Arabia. Also, Khaleefa (1989a) found negative attitudes towards mental illness from both genders among Egyptian high school students. In his study (1989b), people believe that Jinn (demon) are responsible for mental illness, and visiting graves of the companions of the Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) will help them to relieve it as opposed to visiting therapists or psychologists. In contrast, Kafafi (1994) in Qatar and Shoqair (1994) in Saudi Arabia, found university students have positive attitudes towards mental illness, while high school students have negative attitudes towards mental illness.

Regarding the same point, educational supervisor FF, in the Central Karak Directorate, confirmed:

*“The emotional and mental side has been ignored and still is. The shame makes it hard for somebody to seek professional help, and so the same goes for teachers. It is a stigma to admit being stressed. There is no psychotherapist or counsellor in the entire Alkarak governorate.”*

The case is different in Western culture. For example, Kyriacou and Pratt (1985) indicated that teachers who suffer from depression or anxiety reported they seek medical help and take medication to relieve stress. Cockburn (1996a) recommended seeking professional help when needed and encouraged teachers to not care about what other people think of them or even react to that.

**Expressing irritations to colleagues or students** is another coping strategy rarely used by Tawjihi teachers. Austin *et al.* (2005) pointed out anger management is useful for highly stressed teachers to eliminate uncontrolled anger actions, such as throwing objects. They recommended those teachers learn to not feel guilty, ignore the problem by sleeping, take a day off, avoid people, try to feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, taking drugs or medication and even deny the problem. They also found the least stressed teachers used exercise as a main activity to relieve stress.

## 10.4 Discussion

From the findings above, and looking at the most effective and the most used coping strategies, there are some corresponding between the coping strategies revealed by Tawjihi teachers in the questionnaires phase and the ones revealed by Tawjihi teachers in the interviews phase. For example, practicing religion, improving relations with others, understanding the subject that teachers teach and learning from their mistakes were strategies that have been revealed by Tawjihi teachers in both phases. Furthermore, every teacher has his/her own unique set of coping strategies and some teachers develop their own coping strategies, because what works best for one teacher may not work well with other teachers; as this, according to Kyriacou (2000) depends on teacher's personalities and school situation. For example, looking for other sources of income after school or during weekends could work for some teachers, but others could prefer after school time and weekends as good opportunities for them to relax and forget about school or work. Some could go for a picnic with family and friends, but others found proper preparation and organising their work more helpful.

Furthermore, the questionnaire and interview findings showed Tawjihi teachers tend to use indirect actions more often than direct actions, as direct actions seem beyond their experience and scope. Teachers focus more on relieving the feelings of stress rather than tackling its sources. Additionally, it appears from the findings of both phases, that teachers tend to operate individually rather than collaboratively. They rely more on themselves to relieve stress than waiting for others to help them reduce, change, or remove the sources of stress. They recognised that waiting for help from others is a waste of time and causes a physical drain on them, especially because they cannot remove or reduce some of these sources of stress. For example, teachers cannot reduce class or school sizes, cannot change the number of weekly periods, cannot make textbooks shorter and cannot change people's perspectives and attitudes towards teaching and Tawjihi examination. However, they still benefit from their own experiences and mistakes, including, practising their religion, instilling discipline from the beginning of the academic year, having a healthy home life and developing good relationships with others. This is in line with the findings of Vigil (2005), who indicated student teachers learn coping strategies that they have used by themselves because courses in stress management do not exist.

Moreover, from the findings above, and looking at the most effective and most used coping strategies, there are some corresponding relations between the coping strategies revealed by Tawjihi teachers as the most effective strategies as well as the most often used strategies. For example, “practicing religion”, “ensuring that I understand the work I am about to teach”, “improving my relationship with others”, “learning from my mistakes and experiences”, “being very organised so I keep on top of things” and “having a healthy home life” were all mentioned by Tawjihi teachers’ as the most effective and the most used strategies. This means that Tawjihi teachers use some coping strategies frequently because they find them effective in reducing or relieving their stress. At the same time, some other coping strategies were used less often. Again, culture plays its role of making teachers use some strategies less often because of cultural stigma, such as seeking professional help. Lack of time and lack of money were two other reasons to not use different strategies. Furthermore, when looking to the most used coping strategies, the questionnaires’ and interviews’ findings showed Tawjihi teachers tend to use indirect actions more often than direct actions for the same reasons mentioned above.

From one side, the researcher concluded that the questionnaires’ and interviews’ findings showed that some coping strategies which have been adopted by Tawjihi teachers are similar to coping strategies used by other teachers in other research (e.g. Cockburn, 1996a; Kyriacou, 2000; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Madini, 2005; Ladebo, 2005; Donaldson *et al.*, 2005; Mtika, 2008).

On the other side, some cultural differences have been found between this research study and other research studies conducted in Western countries (e.g. Travers and Cooper, 1993; Kyriacou, 2000; Ralph *et al.*, 2002; Austin *et al.*, 2005; Brownell, 2006). This was echoed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984); Gaziel (1993) who indicated culture plays an important role in determining how to choose coping strategies as well as the perception of the occupational stress. Kyriacou (1996) indicated local conditions and cultural differences can influence stress, so this needs to be carefully considered when studying stress. Furthermore, Vigil (2005) argued when evaluating coping strategies we should take into account the social and cultural factors, including social values.

Significantly, many Tawjihi teachers in both phases reported practicing religion as one of the most effective and most used coping strategies. They revealed that practicing religion such as:

prayer, reciting Qur'an, reading Hadith and making Duaa'all help them relax, feel peaceful and gain strength to face their stress. This finding is in line with other studies conducted in other Islamic countries (e.g. Madini (2005); Mahmoudi *et al.* (2007)). Comparatively, some teachers in Western countries reported playing music or dancing as coping strategies (e.g. Johnstone 1989; Travers and Cooper 1996; Cockburn 1996a), while others reported drinking alcohol or using drugs to relieve stress (e.g. Travers and Cooper, 1993; Cockburn, 1996a; Murray-Harvey, 1999; Austin *et al.*, 2005). These coping strategies are not popular with Jordanian teachers as these strategies conflict with their religious and cultural beliefs. Additionally, since private tutoring as a source of stress was not mentioned by others, coping strategies used by Tawjihi teachers to tackle this kind of stress was limited to them as well. Looking for other sources of income was also mentioned by Tawjihi teachers and reported by some other researchers as a way to cope with low salaries (e.g. Ladebo, 2005; Mtika, 2008).

### **10.5 Summary**

From the teachers' responses on both the questionnaires and interviews, the reader could see Tawjihi teachers used a variety of strategies to deal with stress. These could be classified into direct and indirect strategies; the latter being more common. Resource constraints and teachers' lack of decision-making authority limited their scope for direct actions. Nevertheless, there were aspects of their problems in which teachers would act directly; for example, by improving communication with parents and buying teaching aids at their own expense. In rare cases, teachers even confronted management, although this required them to overcome decades of cultural conditioning, and generally only the more mature and experienced teachers had the confidence to assert their self in this way. More often, however, teachers relied on indirect (palliative) techniques to alleviate the impact of stress rather than taking actions to remove its cause. According to Green and Ross (1996), teachers who used direct coping actions viewed the stressful situations as a challenge that needs to be under their control and viewed the outcomes for the situation as relatively satisfactory.

The first section on this chapter focused on the teachers' effective methods for coping with stress during working hours, but there are also strategies for coping with stress outside of school hours, and these are perhaps more general and inclusive to other professions. Such strategies could

include social groups or activities with individuals who are not connected with one's work. Furthermore, the school itself can help teachers cope with stress.

The second section focused on coping strategies often used by Tawjihi teachers. Some teachers used the same strategies when they have a stressful situation; such as, practicing religion, benefiting from their experiences and mistakes and talking to somebody. These strategies are effective and have been used more often. Teachers found some other strategies help them reduce stress, but they are not practical to use them often. This could be because they cannot afford using them; such as having dinner or lunch in a restaurant or because they are busy. However, they might be able to go out for walk or relax after work instead, as this does not necessitate using money. Unless completely unavoidable, an increase in workload and affecting their promotion are the reasons behind not having days off.

When analysing and comparing coping strategies employed by Tawjihi teachers with coping strategies adopted by teachers in Western countries and in Arabic studies, it reflects the need and importance for this study and research.

The next chapter will deal with actions that could be taken by schools and the MOE to reduce stress.



## **Chapter eleven**

### **Suggested Actions by Schools and Government**

#### **11.1 Introduction**

Teaching, by its nature, is a stressful and demanding profession, and in order to minimise stress, the responsibility should not rest solely on individual teachers, but government and schools should also play their role regarding this issue. In fact, teacher stress must be considered at the government, school and individual levels (Cockburn, 1996b). The Health Education Authority in Kyriacou (2000) also recommended senior managers (e.g. head teachers) receive training before and after holding this position. They should also have: leadership skills, practical skills and interpersonal skills. Kyriacou (2000) recommended newly qualified teachers should be provided with support on how to deal with job demands, whilst experienced teachers need to be provided with staff development and professional progress ideas. 92.3% of teachers in Cockburn (1996b) revealed the government, school governors and senior management should do something to reduce their stress.

Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is what schools and the MOE could do for Tawjihi teachers to help reduce stress.

#### **11.2 The Research Findings**

The response of the teachers to the fourteen actions that schools and the MOE could take to reduce teacher stress are shown in table 11.1, in descending order of the percentage rating the item as extremely effective. As can be seen, the item with the highest rating was ‘increase teachers’ salary’, followed by: ‘establish teachers’ union’, ‘increase promotion opportunities’, ‘provide successful teachers with scholarships for further education’, ‘provide schools with prayer rooms’ and ‘provide more support for teachers’. This is consistent with other studies (e.g. Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Madini, 2005, Travers and cooper, 1996). These findings can be justified since the teaching profession is a low paid profession compared to other careers; therefore, teachers feel their salary needs to be increased, especially since low salary was stated as one of the most sources of stress revealed by Tawjihi teachers’ in both questionnaire and interview phases. They also feel that having a teachers’ union will help them in different aspects, such as, increase salary and promotion opportunities, getting scholarship and improve work

conditions. Getting a scholarship for further education would help teachers to increase their salary and gain a promotion. Prayer is one of the five pillars of Islam that Muslims have to practice five times a day, and one of them comes during school hours; therefore, finding a quiet place to pray is essential for Muslims. Asking for support reflects how important it is for teachers to have somebody understand them and stand by them whenever needed.

**Table 11.1: Actions taken from schools and the MOE (N=314)**

Actions	Ineffective %	A little effective %	Moderately effective %	Very effective %	Extremely effective %
Increase teachers' salary.	14	11.8	11.1	9.2	53.8
Establish teachers' union.	50.3	10.2	11.1	11.5	51
Increase promotion opportunities.	13.1	10.8	11.8	14	50.3
Provide successful teachers with scholarships for further education.	14	9.6	11.8	16.6	48.1
Provide schools with prayer rooms.	12.1	9.9	14.3	16.9	46.8
Provide more support for teachers.	14.4	11.2	13.1	15.3	46
Give teachers opportunity to gain training/visit abroad.	15	15.3	12.4	16.2	41.1
Provide schools with child care centre and break time for mothers' breastfeeding.	19.4	9.9	15.3	14.6	40.8
Improve working conditions.	13.4	11.5	15	22	38.2
Provide professional administrators.	11.8	11.1	16.9	23.6	36.6
Reduce extra activities during school time.	12.7	16.9	21.3	23.2	25.8
Increase teaching resources.	10.2	14	24.5	25.5	25.8
Change education policy less frequently.	13.4	19.7	19.7	22.3	25.2

Regarding these actions, some new themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews analysis and others match the ones derived from the questionnaire analysis which reflects the consistency between the two approaches' findings. During the semi-structured interviews, teachers indicated the following actions they hope the MOE and schools could take to help them:

- *Establishing teachers' union.*
- *Improving the promotion opportunities and increasing teachers' salary.*
- *Providing teachers with prayer room and crèche to their children.*
- *Providing teachers and their children with scholarships.*
- *Annual meetings between teachers and decision makers to up-date them about teachers' situations and problems.*
- *Reducing workload.*

- *Reducing the amount of changes in curriculum and regulations.*
- *Paying more attention to teachers and changing the negative attitudes through media and newspaper.*
- *Improving school environment and focusing on effective school discipline.*
- *Distributing Tawjihi students to the different streams according to their grades and not desires.*

Some of the suggested actions to help deal with stress are:

### **11.2.1 Increasing teachers' salary**

Male teacher B has his own wish list that he shared with most of the teachers, revealing:

*“I have a long wish list that I share with other teachers with difference in priority. I wish that the MOE would increase our salary, help raise teacher’s value, lower the workload, and give teachers and their children the scholarships. Teachers should get the accommodations when they are first hired, not after 30 years of working or more.”*

Female teacher J disclosed:

*“Increasing salary, improving promotion opportunities, exchanging the experience with overseas teachers, getting a scholarship, reducing workload and having our own union are some of my and other teachers' wishes.”*

This is in line with a male teacher in Travers and Cooper (1996), who mentioned a teacher’s feelings in terms of stress, will not change until they feel they have fair pay. This is also in line with a report written in Almeshwar newspaper (2006); Albeda’ newspaper (2006), which requested increasing teachers' salary. Recently, teachers in Jordan protested for two weeks on March/2010 asking for an increase in salary (Alra'i newspaper, March 2010).

School counsellors suggested some actions the MOE and schools in general should take to reduce teacher stress. These are: increasing teachers' salary, increasing the number of computers at schools, improving schools’ facilities, supplying schools with crèche and reducing workload.

Male school counsellor NN said:

*“The MOE has to increase teacher's salary, as this really reflects on them, their performance, their emotions and in sequence, on their students’ achievements. The MOE needs to provide schools with enough computers.”*

Female school counsellor LL stated:

*“The decision makers should consider teachers when they make decisions, especially regarding the curriculum. Teachers are the best ones to give feedback as they are in the field and they know exactly what they are talking about.”*

Female head teacher JJ, in Central Karak with 15 years experience, said:

*“The more you give to teachers, the more they give back. The MOE does not offer them a high salary which would at least make them feel rewarded for their work.”*

### **11.2.2 Teachers' Union**

Teachers in Jordan do not have a teachers' union. They protested and filed petitions many times to establish a union, but the MOE always refused, and this makes teachers feel insecure. Most teachers agreed a lack of teachers' union is one of their sources of stress, yet at the same time one of the solutions to their problems. Male teacher B stated:

*“Teachers keep asking for a teachers' union but the MOE refuses their petition every time. Last time, the Minister of Education, Khalid Toqaan, said: 'We did not and will not establish the teachers' union,' and this really upsets the teachers.”*

This is echoed by a report written in Alra'i newspaper (2006a) and Adostour newspaper (2006a), who reiterated establishing teachers' union is very important for teachers just like other professions. Tawjihi teachers believe a teachers' union will benefit them a lot. For example, teachers' union could help with many problems that could face teachers, such as low salary, promotion, and incentives. It also gives them the chance to participate in the decision making process related to their work. In their March/2010 strike, teachers also asked for a teachers' union. The MOE refused their request, making teachers distressed (Alra'i newspaper, March, 2010). This is also the case in some Arabic countries, such as Bahrain, where Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) found that not having a teachers' union is considered a source of stress among teachers.

Teachers in other countries, such as the UK, have a teachers' union to help them. Moreover, Cosgrove (2000) indicated teachers' union makes a big difference in salaries between teachers and other professions, such as doctors or lawyers. This is in line with Travers and Cooper (1996),

who argued having a teachers' union will help improve the professional image and teachers' social status. Kyriacou (2000) also argued teachers' unions provide teachers with reports about problems that face them, and offer recommendations and directions to schools to help reduce stress. Additionally, Troman (2000); Miller and Travers (2005) indicated government and teacher's union are discussing strategies to reduce workload pressure.

### **11.2.3 Providing stress management programs**

In Jordan, the MOE started hiring a school counsellor for each school to help students, teachers and other school staff deal with disciplinary or behavioural problems, or other problems that could arise at schools (MOE, 1987). Most of the teachers during the interviews revealed school counsellors focus on students and rarely help them. They reported school counsellors could help dealing with student-related problems when teachers refer these problems to them. However, schools counsellors cannot help reduce other sources of stress, such as: lack of resources, overload, or school and class size. Female teacher E disclosed:

*“In fact, the school counsellor focuses more on helping students than helping teachers. I can refer to her whenever I face student-related problems. She cannot help in other areas. Sometimes, I just go and talk to her as talking to other people helps.”*

Tawjihi teachers requested school counsellors should be more active in helping them, as only listening to their problems does not help enough. They should be well educated about teachers' problems, stress and coping strategies. School counsellors should be trained in dealing with stressed teachers and providing teachers with training about stress and stress management. If school counsellors do not have the ability to do so, they could, from time to time, invite people who are experienced in the field of stress and coping strategies to train teachers. This is in line with Nagel and Brown (2003), who suggested schools could train counsellors to help novice teachers develop stress management techniques as well as develop programmes to focus on the psychological health of teachers. Schools could have a contract with experts on stress management to provide professional development opportunities and advice for teachers from time to time.

Regarding this point, female school counsellor JJ stated:

*“Our work as school counsellors focuses on students, as they are learners and they need somebody to direct and help them in dealing with their problems. I have*

*never disappointed any teacher who comes to ask for help. Listening to them is the least I could do.”*

This is consistent with Kyriacou (2000, 2001); Travers and Cooper (1996); Wilson (2002), who argued counselling services should be available for teachers. Kyriacou (2000) added counsellors should listen to teachers and provide them with advice about direct and indirect actions to relieve stress. Counsellors should be trained and qualified enough to train teachers in how to use some of the coping strategies and to advise teachers when to seek medical help. Moreover, Travers and Cooper (1996); Kyriacou (2000) suggested stress management workshops and counselling services should be mandatory at schools, as this will help educate individual teachers and organisations, as well as give a clear understanding about the problems of teacher stress and how to deal with it. In the same vein, Colangelo (2004) recommended schools and government should consider having an exercise programme at school, as this will help reduce stress, especially since the cost of having this programme is less than the cost of having stressed teachers. This is also in line with Lapp and Attridge (2000); Wu *et al.* (2006), who found having intervention workshops in stress and stress management helps reduce stress. Kyriacou (2000) also indicated that National Union of Teachers (1990) recommended school discipline in-service training to help reduce stress that could be caused by training. Additionally, Barhem (2004) recommended providing custom’s employees with skills training to help cope with stress.

The MOE in Jordan could benefit from other countries' experience. For example, in the UK, the government established centres to educate teachers about stress and stress management. Moreover, qualified and trained staffs in Teacher Support Line offer help and advice to teachers in all aspects of stress (Kyriacou, 2001). Moreover, Well-Being Programme provides development of well-being within the school staff, including teachers (Madini, 2005). TBF (2000) cited in Kyriacou (2001) added that “teacherline” is a group of independent charities and social enterprises that provides practical and emotional support to staff in the education sector and their family by offering free telephone consultation for stress-related problems. It is funded by the government, local education authorities and teacher unions (website [www.teacherline.org.uk](http://www.teacherline.org.uk)). Therefore, the MOE and schools in Jordan need to establish centres to run courses and lectures and at the least publish leaflets and booklets to educate teachers about stress and stress management. They also need to establish help-lines to help teachers understand

stress and how to successfully cope with it.

#### **11.2.4 Getting a scholarship and exchange experience**

Teachers ask for scholarships, claiming gaining a postgraduate degree will help them improve their financial situations. Although most teachers desire to continue their education, low salary stops them. Regarding this point, female teacher G revealed:

*“The availability of scholarships is for other MOE staff instead of teachers. So I finished my Masters using my own money. I know many teachers wish to do so, but they cannot, as it is very expensive to be involved in further education.”*

Male teacher K revealed:

*“Having a share in scholarships is something most teachers desire to get. Honestly, to study without any help for tuition fees or other material with this low salary is very hard.”*

Hodge *et al.* (1994) cited in Austin *et al.* (2005) recommended schools should provide teachers with opportunities to share experiences and skills which benefit both teachers and students. Moreover, Brown and Ralph (1992) cited in Austin *et al.* (2005) suggested giving teachers opportunities to share their experience on stress and effective coping strategies used by them. This coincides with the report of UNESCO (2000), which recommended sending teachers abroad to have some training or a scholarship. Additionally, Al-Yamani and Bu-Gahoos (1996) suggested every five years giving teachers a sabbatical leave for one semester or year to update teachers in their profession.

#### **11.2.5 Providing teachers with resources and supplies**

This is another wish revealed by Tawjihi teachers. Male teacher C said:

*“I wish that the MOE would provide us with some resources for teaching. For example, we need magic board and markers instead of the chalk and regular board. I am allergic to chalk and it is killing me.”*

This concurs with Kyriacou (2001); Cockburn and Haydn (2004); Youngusband (2006), who indicated providing better resources and facilities is one of the actions that governments and schools can take to support teachers. This is also in line with Youngusband (2006), who

indicated improving the physical work environment and providing adequate physical, intellectual and professional resources help to reduce stress.

**11.2.6 Support from government and school administrator** (e.g. head teachers) is another action teacher's desire. Female teacher A revealed:

*"I wish to have real support from the head teacher or the MOE when we have a problem, as this really helps us a lot."*

Some head teachers realise the importance of supporting teachers, and how important it is for teachers to feel the sense of this support. According to head teacher KK:

*"Teachers need to feel appreciated as all their efforts are very important for our children's educational future. So I always acknowledge teachers and students for their efforts in the newspaper" (see appendix 18).*

This is in line with Younghusband (2006), who argued that support from head teachers is very important for teachers. This is also consistent with the recommendations of Kyriacou (2000, 2001, 2005), where teachers need to feel support for their work-related problems. Kyriacou (2000); Loh (1994) also indicated enhancing staff morale is very important in reducing, or even avoiding stress. Kyriacou (2000) argued this could be achieved by improving school image among the community; for example, celebrating any success and involving parents and community. Moreover, putting achievements in the newspaper from time to time to inform society about the effort staffs contribute is crucial. This, as a result, will give teachers more appreciation and respect in society. Additionally, Cockburn and Haydn (2004) argued teachers need support from head teachers, supervisors, colleagues, parents and government. Furthermore, Brownell (2006) argued districts and school administrators should create supportive, productive and caring environments to help reduce stress as well as provide teachers with skills to prevent stress.

### **11.2.7 Having a crèche and a prayer room at schools**

Having crèche for their children makes teachers have peace of mind. Having a separate place where teachers can pray, especially female teachers, is another action teachers hope the MOE and schools provide them with. In Islam, women have to pray in a place where no non-Mahram



(potentially marriageable) males can see or watch them. Female teacher E suggested:

*“I wish we had a crèche at school for our children as we feel stressed about where to leave them. We also wish we had a separate pray room as women cannot pray anywhere.”*

This is in line with teachers in Madini (2005), who reported finding a suitable place to leave their children was very crucial for them.

The head of the supervision department in the MOE revealed what they did to help teachers reduce stress:

*“We in the MOE know all about teacher stress and its sources. We informed the decision makers in the MOE about teacher stress, yet nothing has been done to help them. Teachers still suffer and nobody does anything to help them, but at least we drew the attention to their problems.”*

This is in line with Cockburn and Haydn (2004, p147-150), who argued governments and schools need to take actual actions to help teachers, as only realising that workload, student behaviour, low salary and poor work conditions are problems will not solve their problems. Additionally, they should acknowledge teachers, reduce bureaucracy and listen to their opinions, as teachers are the experts.

### **11.3 Discussion**

There are two points the reader can recognise after reading this chapter. Firstly, there exist highly interconnected answers between the Tawjihi teachers' responses in both the questionnaire and interview phases. For example, in the questionnaire phase, teachers revealed that increasing salary, having a teachers' union, increasing promotion opportunities, providing them with scholarship and prayer rooms as well as support were the most actions that they desire from the MOE and schools. Furthermore, in the interviews phase, most Tawjihi teachers also revealed that increasing salary, increasing promotion opportunities, having teachers' union, providing them with stress and stress management programme and the support from the MOE and schools were actions they desire the MOE and schools to take. These actions that Tawjihi teachers desire matched the actions mentioned in the other studies (e.g. Kyriacou, 2000; Kyriacou and Chien, 2004; Cockburn and Haydn, 2004, Travers and Cooper, 1996).

Secondly, some of these actions incur considerable expense, such as increasing salary, providing stress pamphlets and stress management programme. Some of these actions, however, are

relatively inexpensive, such as having a prayer room. Furthermore, some of these actions could take time to develop, such as a having teachers' union or changing societal attitudes, while some other actions can be taken directly and occur quicker, such as providing teachers with the support from head teachers, supervisors and community. In spite of these actions, which differ in regards to how much money and time is needed for changes to take effect, teachers are not asking for significant changes to be made. Teachers are asking for more understanding, support and help emotionally, financially and physically.

#### **11.4 Summary**

The chapter presented the actions Tawjihi teachers desire from schools and the MOE to help reduce their stress and work problems. Increasing salary, improving promotion opportunities, establishing a teachers' union, support from schools and the MOE to provide schools with resources and teaching aids, the granting of scholarships, along with having crèches and prayer rooms are all actions teachers wish from schools and the MOE.

The next chapter will discuss recommendations and suggestions for future research.

## **Chapter Twelve**

### **Conclusions and Recommendations**

#### **12.1 Introduction**

This study revealed a number of findings that have enabled the researcher to reach some conclusions and also make recommendations for further research. This chapter is divided into four sections: the first is a summary and conclusion derived from the main findings; the second presents the limitations and strengths of the research study; the third suggests recommendations in the light of the research findings on how teacher stress could be tackled; and the final section offers suggestions for further research related to this field to help improve, develop and expand research in teacher stress in Jordan.

#### **12.2 Findings and Conclusion**

This study aimed to investigate the levels of stress experienced by Tawjihi teachers in Jordan, its sources, their coping strategies and what schools and the MOE could do to reduce their stress. This has been undertaken through a mixed approach via questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaires were distributed to 314 teachers and the interviews conducted with 12 Tawjihi teachers, and 16 other staff workers in the MOE (see chapter 6). Findings revealed about 95% of the sample considered being a Tawjihi teacher extremely to mildly stressful. The result shows stress is a serious phenomenon among Tawjihi teachers. Thus, teacher stress should be taken seriously as it affects individuals', teachers, students, schools and the quality of education (Travers and Cooper, 1996).

Having healthy working environment for teachers and having teachers with low or no stress are considered a humanitarian issue. At the same time, it helps to have active teachers and healthy citizens who look after students and who are considered the cornerstone of society. Balter and Duncombe (2005) found high quality teachers play critical roles in students' achievement and success. For example, in the current study, Tawjihi teachers play an important role in preparing students for the Tawjihi examinations, whose results will decide the academic future of students.

All the pressures caused by the Tawjihi system and the circumstances around it make teachers work in a stressful environment (see chapter one). Parents regard Tawjihi teachers as the most responsible for their children's education. Because of said mentality, this requires a social solution and change in society's attitudes toward Tawjihi teachers, as this includes the whole society's responsibility, not only of Tawjihi teachers'. Therefore, helping teachers share the responsibility will assure a successful education. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978a) argued teachers, head teachers, students, colleagues and supervisors together determine the school's success or failure. It is not entirely the teacher's responsibility.

Tawjihi teachers revealed various sources of stress (see chapters eight and nine). Some of these sources are well-known as sources of stress among teachers in other countries, such as: workload, students, low salary, poor working conditions and lack of resources and facilities. Some other sources are confined to Tawjihi teachers in Jordan, such as: private tutoring and Alakwar area's environment. In other words, there are some differences in the sources of stress between Tawjihi teachers and teachers in other countries, not only in terms of substance (facing the same sources of stress), but also in terms of emphasis (the intensity and nature of stressor).

Workload was reported by almost all teachers in previous research studies as a source of stress. Tawjihi teachers are no different. However, they revealed they have more workload than other regular school teachers. They need to work more to finish the curriculum early, as well as cover the curriculum, as they neither assess their students, nor set their examination questions. Lack of participation in the decision making process is another emerging issue. All instructions, changes and demands put upon them come from higher authorities. They feel their opinions are not taken into consideration. Other sources are linked to each other, such as low salary and inadequate promotions that enhance negative attitudes toward the teaching profession and make teachers feel like their status is low. In-service training puts high levels of pressure on Tawjihi teachers in Jordan. This reflects the major concern of most Tawjihi teachers throughout most schools in Jordan. Continuous changes in the curriculum also require teachers to attend training. In light of this, the need for paying more attention to this area by the MOE is very important, especially towards the in-service training teachers currently receive, because, as revealed by them, it does not always meet teachers' needs and desires. Private tutoring is another factor causing lots of

stress in Tawjihi teachers, especially teachers of Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Arabic and English Language. The MOE and schools should frame strict regulations for students who receive private tutoring to reduce its effect on classroom activities and consequently on teachers' efficiency.

The Alakwar environment also makes teachers feel stressed. Therefore, some of them who cannot travel daily (those who reside outside the city of Alkarak and its nearby areas) live in accommodation that are considered another source of stress due to lack of facilities and poor living conditions. Other teachers, especially women, who have to travel daily, face another source of stress, transportation, as most of them cannot drive. The findings reveal some issues related to female teachers in Jordan are shared amongst women in other countries; for example, finding a safe place to leave their children during working hours. Some other issues are related to Arabian culture, such as complete responsibility for raising children and domestic work.

Studying sources of stress will help find solutions and any necessary actions. Actions are needed for increasing salary, establishing teachers' union, improving working conditions, in-service training, resources, working hours and promotions.

In addition, the findings also highlighted that support, appreciation and respect received by Tawjihi teachers often reduces the impact of stress. Teachers need to work in a supportive environment, as having a healthy school environment is conducive to enhancing teacher satisfaction and reducing stress. Moreover, healthy school environment includes having a good relationship among all people involved in teaching, such as head teachers, colleagues, parents and students. Poor relationships will affect teacher's well-being and cause teacher stress. Cockburn and Haydan (2004) pointed out teachers desire to work in enjoyable atmospheres where there is freedom, independence and intellectual challenge. They want to teach children in an autonomous environment without interference from a central authority and without the imposition of sudden changes. They demand sufficient pay to sustain a reasonable lifestyle and treated as professionals with opportunities to develop. They ask for reduction of paperwork and administrative work, as they are unnecessary distractions.

The findings revealed no significant differences in the level of stress in Tawjihi teachers due to gender, age, teaching experience, qualification and marital status. Significant positive correlations were found between the level of stress and each source of stress. The strongest correlations were found between stress and work, student and teaching difficulties. The correlation between stress and colleagues was the weakest.

The most interesting finding regarding coping strategies used by Tawjihi teachers showed that Tawjihi teachers tend to use indirect actions more often than direct actions, as some direct actions are beyond their experience and are not always available. Therefore, teachers developed some strategies to eliminate sources of stress as they cannot remove or change these sources; however, they can control how they react to certain situations and at least reduce bad effects when these sources are out of the teachers' control. The other interesting finding regarding coping strategies used by Tawjihi teachers is related to the nature of the sources of stress. The findings revealed a corresponding between the sources of stress and the coping strategies. This is in line with Gaziel (1993) and Madini (2005). Furthermore, the findings showed the role of culture in choosing coping strategies and the variations of the sources of stress. This is in line with other studies that have shown how culture affects stress and its sources, as well as coping strategies used to deal with job stress (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Gaziel, 1993, kyriacou, 2001).

The MOE and schools should take some actions to help reduce teacher stress. The findings also revealed most of these actions teachers desire from the MOE and schools are not only confined to Tawjihi teachers; it is shared by the majority of teachers from around the world. For example, increasing salary, improving promotion opportunities, participating in the decision making process, providing support, hearing their voice and raising teachers' social status are some of these actions. Some actions are especially needed for teachers in Jordan, such as establishing teachers' union, having a prayer room and teachers' helpline.

## **12.3 Limitations and strengths**

### **12.3.1 Limitations**

As in other studies, the current study has a number of limitations. Therefore, the findings of this study should be interpreted with caution:

- Whilst the response rate is acceptable for the current research, the unequal distribution of males and females could have introduced elements of bias in the research findings.
- The research study was conducted in the city of Karak, which may generalise the findings to Tawjihi teachers to other cities in Jordan questionable, as each city has its own circumstances. Therefore, including more schools, more teachers and more cities will make the sample larger. Thus, the findings could be generalised.
- The study was limited to investigating stress experienced by Tawjihi teachers, its sources and their coping strategies. This does not mean other teachers in other classes are not important or do not experience stress. The researcher has chosen this group of teachers because of their important role in Tawjihi students' future, as this class is considered the most important class among the other classes (see chapters one and three).
- The study took place in the city of Karak because the researcher herself was born, grew up, studied, and employed as a Tawjihi teacher in the city of Karak. This in turn facilitated the process of conducting the research in terms of gaining access for the researcher, obtaining the co-operation of participants and access to information instead of conducting the study in other cities in Jordan. Such a strategy would have necessitated much more travel and involved greater cost in terms of time and money (see chapter 6).
- The research is written in English but was conducted in Arabic, as the majority of the sample cannot communicate in English. The research instruments were written and developed in English and then translated into Arabic. The Arabic version was further developed and modified in the light of piloting to make it more readily understandable by respondents. Translation from one language to another is not always an easy task, and sometimes difficult to find the appropriate word in either of the two languages.

### **12.3.2 Strengths**

Several strong points were observed during the course of this research:

- The MOE and the Education and Teaching Directorates' staff were very supportive when

the researcher gained permission to conduct the study.

- The head teachers interviewed, and those who were not, were overwhelmingly supportive, positive and happy the research was conducted at their schools, which were chosen randomly. Some of them asked the researcher to send them a copy of the findings.
- The researcher found some comments were written on the questionnaires by some teachers. In their comments, teachers expressed their happiness that someone at last was interested in studying their problems. They were glad they got the chance to reveal their level of stress, its sources, their coping strategies and actions they desire from the MOE and their schools. They also gave some comments about the necessity of such a study. The researcher also heard some comments during the interviews that teachers were pleased people started to acknowledge their problems.
- The findings provide meaningful feedback to Tawjihi teachers, head teachers and school counsellors. The findings could enhance and expand school counsellors' roles at school to help teachers deal with stress, as stress is considered a psychological as well as emotional issue.
- The MOE and schools could benefit from the findings and take actions to help teachers reduce their stress and cope with it.
- Using triangulation approach through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews eliminate the weaknesses that could result from using each method separately. This gives more validity and reliability to the research study, as both approaches support each other (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Cohen *et al.*, 2000).
- Using triangulation approach makes statistical analysis less complicated. Statistical analysis data of the questionnaire could be summarised, compared and generalised easily. The interview data provides more explanation and description (Bryman, 2000).
- Using triangulation approach enhances the research study with enough information and data. The questionnaire provides a strong background to the study of teacher stress and its related factors. The questionnaire has predetermined answers that limit respondents' choices. To avoid this weakness, the researcher left a space for respondents at the end of each section to give their comments or additional answers. Face-to-face interviews gave the researcher the chance to clarify and explain any unclear points.



## 12.4 Recommendations

The research findings led to some recommendations after taking into account research limitations, teachers' suggestions and wishes. Research on stress experienced by teachers in Jordanian school settings is limited, and more so regarding research exploring stress in Tawjihi teachers. Mainly, stress in teaching is a well-known phenomenon and research indicated the teaching profession is stressful (Johnstone, 1993; Cockburn, 1996b; Travers and Cooper, 1996; Kyriacou, 2001). Teacher stress as a global phenomenon has increasingly received great concern from numerous researchers in various countries (Hall *et al.*, 1988; Cockburn, 1996b; Kyriacou, 2000; Shu, 2003; Arikewuyo, 2004; Hudson, 2004; Austin *et al.* 2005; Madini, 2005). Jordan could follow the example of Western (developed) countries; for instance, seriously acknowledge teacher stress as an issue and encourage more research, as well as take an active role towards contributing to the improvement of Tawjihi teachers' professional life.

Preventing stress is better than experiencing stress and later looking for solutions, which could also prove more costly. Therefore, it is recommended for the MOE and schools to eliminate as many sources of stress as they can, as this will provide teachers with a stress-free environment and reduce the cost of replacing stressed teachers or those who leave the profession because of stress.

The MOE should adopt some of the practices in developed countries to help reduce teacher stress. The MOE could achieve that by: First; running workshops about stress and coping strategies that could help teachers become more active in tackling stress by using their personal resources and the other available resources. Second; encouraging teachers to read books and articles about stress to recognise when it originally occurs, and take actions to reduce stress and its expected consequences. Third; establishing teacher's helpline to offer advice and assistance regarding issues related to stress and teachers' work life. Moreover, it is recommended for teachers to educate themselves by reading books, watching T.V. programmes or attending workshops about stress whenever available. This will help teachers in more ways than one: it will help teachers learn more about stress and necessary coping strategies, such as implementing the coping strategies will be more effective and successful when adopted immediately. Another benefit is that it will make teachers feel free to ask for help or admit stress, as reading books or

attending workshops will make them feel they are not alone in their struggle, and that teacher stress is common among teachers throughout the world. It will also make them admit the fact teaching is a stressful job. This will give them greater understanding towards how stress affects their health, personal life and work.

Lack of participation in the decision making process is one of the sources of stress some teachers reported, especially decisions related to curriculum and Tawjihi regulations. They complained all decisions usually come from those who are not in-touch with daily school life. Teachers need to have some control over their work and to some extent be granted the right to express their suggestions and comments and have them taken into consideration. Teachers suggested there should be regular meetings with decision makers in the MOE to keep them involved in the teachers' life as well as update teachers with information and knowledge. Therefore, it is recommended that decision and policy makers should take teachers' opinions into account, give them more flexibility in curriculum design and class preparation, as they know better as opposed to those who make decisions based on theories and not on what really happens in schools. This will assure teaching could be carried out in a way to suit students and their abilities.

The majority of research studies confirmed the importance of social relationships and social support in buffering stress. It is very important for teachers to be encouraged to seek social support from others, such as family, friends and colleagues, especially for those who do not have the ability to do so and who consider seeking social support indicative to admitting stress and thus link it with personal weakness. Such teachers need to be provided with knowledge about the importance of social support and building human relationships by attending training and learning about building human relationships and seeking social support.

Many Tawjihi teachers revealed head teachers are not always supportive. It is recommended the Education and Teaching Directorate, before hiring head teachers; make sure that they have the required skills: such as ability to give support, give feedback, listen to teachers and accept them. The MOE should improve school administration by having head teachers attend regular training to build and update their skills and assure administrative staff is competent, supportive and understanding.

Issues related to students were mentioned as sources of stress among Tawjihi teachers. Therefore, it is recommended for teachers to enhance their classroom management skills, and set clear and consistent classroom policies and rules related to students' behaviour and classroom discipline. If teachers do not have this ability, they need to be provided with development courses to help them set and maintain classroom discipline.

Teacher personality, self-esteem, self-confidence and experience also effect stress levels. In Jordan, teachers are hired based on their qualifications and no experience or teaching skills are required. The MOE is recommended to set new criteria for hiring teachers. For example, the MOE should interview teachers before hiring them so they can choose the teachers who have the ability and skills that enable them to deal with others and teaching problems in general.

Appraising teachers' system should be improved to take into account teachers' self-evaluation, and not just leave teacher evaluation to head teachers and supervisors; especially because it affects their career progress and promotion. Teachers complained supervisors conduct only one yearly visit and sometimes none and this is insufficient to properly evaluate them. The supervisors argued they have many schools to cover during the year in addition to other training responsibilities and supervision duties. The MOE should increase the number of supervisors to enable them to visit schools more than once a year. They not only need to be in regular contact with teachers, but whenever teachers need them, as it's important for teachers to feel their support and help.

Low salary and inadequate promotion opportunities were raised as sources of stress among almost all teachers. This reflects on teachers' social life, their status in society and negative attitudes toward the teaching profession. Teachers have low status, and some of them, especially male teachers, have to look for additional sources of income to help support their families and cover living expenses. Having another job not only serves to isolate teachers and lessens their social life, which is very important in Jordanian culture, but also takes away time teachers need to spend on schoolwork or preparation. The MOE needs to adopt promotion systems that recognise the outstanding teachers and grants them promotions without delay. Therefore,

increasing teachers' salary and improving promotion opportunities are recommended to decrease the level of stress and also raise teachers' status in society. It is recommended to start using the media to help change public attitudes toward teachers. Media should introduce the teaching profession in an attractive way and show the benefits of what teachers can do for society. Improving professional image could also be done by establishing professional organisations for teachers, such as teachers' union.

Poor working conditions, overcrowded classes and small classroom size are further issues raised by the Tawjihi teachers. The MOE and schools should improve teachers' working conditions, physically, financially and emotionally. When building schools, the MOE should increase classroom size in order to accommodate the high numbers of students. Schools could split students into many classrooms to avoid overcrowding. In some cases, schools cannot divide the overcrowded classes as extra classes are unavailable. Therefore, the MOE should increase school budgets and provide more schools, employ a sufficient amount of teachers and avoid overcrowded classes. The MOE and schools need to decide what is best for students, teachers and schools. This will help improve the physical school environment and solve the problem of dividing classes that in turn require more teachers to be hired to teach these new classes.

Female teachers still have the responsibility of raising their own children and domestic work, in addition to sharing financial responsibility with their husbands. Thus, the MOE and schools must help them reduce home-work conflict that increases their stress. This could be achieved by having crèche available to their children and more understanding towards their situations. The researcher recommended husband, family, friends, administrations and co-workers give more support to women, which in turn would reduce stress, work-family conflict and overload. Men should follow in the footsteps of the Prophet Mohammad (pbuh) and take him as the best example to follow. Prophet Mohammad (pbuh) used to help his wives in domestic work, such as: cooking, cleaning, sewing, and fixing clothes. *Lady A'isha, one of the prophet's wives, said: "he, the prophet (pbuh), served his wife. He used to patch his sandals, and sew his garments..."* Although cultural restraints may exist, men should look at their religion, find refuge within it and think of their wives' health and emotions. In Western countries such as the USA and UK, men are more involved in domestic work, help cook, take care of children, shop and help in other

household areas. Moreover, Kyriacou (2000) argued having a healthy personal life will help reduce stress and any work-related problems. He added maintaining a good balance between home life and work life is necessary for all teachers.

Without a doubt, it is clear the Tawjihi system imposes additional demands on Tawjihi teachers. Tawjihi examination, which is considered the only criteria to determine students' future, puts extra demand on teachers. Therefore, the MOE is recommended to pay more attention to how the Tawjihi system affects education reform and consider rethinking Tawjihi examination as a selection tool and gateway to higher education. They need to reassess the aims and outcomes of the examinations system.

Relationship between school and parents is essential for schools to be successful and reduce teacher stress. Parents need to realise the importance of this relationship, as it helps their children's success. Therefore, the MOE and schools need to invest time and money to enhance this relationship by running regular parent evenings, involving parents in courses aimed to inform parents how to become involved in their children's education and the benefits of doing so.

Teaching is considered an overloaded profession; hence, it requires rethinking ways to lessen or reduce stress caused by workload among Tawjihi teachers. The MOE could benefit from the experience of the Moroccan teaching system as an Arabian country where teachers are not overloaded. On the average, teachers work 18 hours per week, focusing solely on teaching, while other members of staff deal with any/all clerical and administrative work. In the UK, the government and teachers' union are discussing strategies to reduce workload. The MOE should recruit additional teachers to do clerical and administrative work, as this will help reduce workload.

### **12.5 Further Research**

The current research study focuses on levels of Tawjihi teacher stress, the sources of stress, coping strategies to deal with stress and suggested actions the MOE and schools should take to help reduce stress among teachers. From the findings, the researcher noticed some issues became

apparent and needed greater consideration for future and further research. Some of these issues are explained below:

- Studies conducted over the past two decades on teacher stress in Western countries, such as the USA and UK, clearly indicated stress has enormous impact on health. Yet, in Arabian countries generally, and Jordan specifically, research on this topic is still preliminary. The researcher strongly recommended further research to be conducted on this topic because stress negatively affects schools, teachers' personal and professional lives, educational system and students' learning.
- Most theories and models of stress and coping strategies have been developed and adopted in Western countries, but none of them considered other developing countries. The difference in culture between developed and developing countries result in differences in stress and coping strategies. Therefore, additional research is required to investigate the influence of culture on stress and coping strategies.
- The research literature indicates teaching is a highly stressful occupation on all levels. The need for more longitudinal and qualitative research is recommended, where little is known about the stressors in teachers in general and in particular, Tawjihi teachers in Jordan. Further research is needed to enable us to have additional understanding about teacher stress in order to develop effective policies and strategies to manage and reduce its incidence.
- There is a lack of experimental studies in teacher stress. Most studies conducted in teacher stress focused on descriptive and/or correlation studies. For example, this research study is descriptive. Eventually, further research is needed to develop and design prevention and intervention programmes.
- Stress perceptions and coping strategies differ from one person to another. Therefore, further research is recommended to explore how individual teachers perceive stress, coping strategies, the effectiveness of teachers to deal with stress and the ability to control stress. The current study is just a starting point, studying stress within Jordanian school settings. In order to enhance the field of teacher stress, its sources and coping strategies, further study and additional concern is needed.
- Further research is recommended to investigate the correlation between certain factors, such as: job demand, teacher's personality, satisfaction and burnout with stress.

- This study is limited to Tawjihi teachers in the city of Karak. Further research is recommended to extend this research to include more Tawjihi teachers in other Jordanian cities. Future research could use the same objectives of the current study to examine the presence or absence of the consisting findings. This will enhance the research in this topic and give an overall, clear clarification of Tawjihi teacher stress in Jordan, its sources, coping strategies and what the MOE and schools could do to help teachers.
- This research is limited to Tawjihi teachers; accordingly, further research could be extended to include other teachers in different stages of the educational system: kindergarten, primary and elementary school teachers. This could give the opportunity for researchers to conduct comparative studies, as this will enrich our understanding relating to teacher stress. In addition, this will provide the MOE and schools with a clear picture about overall levels of stress and what actions should be taken to reduce stress.
- The findings revealed teachers have some differences in their sources of stress based on the subject they teach. Studies in the future could focus on individual, teacher specific subjects to provide further details about their sources of stress. This could reveal whether those teachers experience the same level and sources of stress, and if they use the same types of coping strategies.
- Comparative studies could be conducted between teachers and other staff working at school, such as head teachers or school counsellors, for better understanding about how levels of stress, sources of stress and coping strategies differ?
- Moreover, it is also recommended to conduct comparative research between teachers and other professionals, such as nurses or doctors. This will help develop more understanding about teacher stress and open up avenues to explore levels of stress, sources of stress and coping strategies with other professions.
- Comparative studies could also be conducted between Tawjihi teachers in public schools which follow the Tawjihi system and 12<sup>th</sup> grade teachers who teach in private schools and follow foreign education system, such as the American or British educational system. This could help explore more effectively the pressure of Tawjihi system on stress levels. How could the sources of stress and coping strategies differ?
- This research concerned itself with studying teacher stress and coping strategies but did not study symptoms of stress, or negative effects of stress, such as: physical,

psychological and behavioural effects on teachers or stressors outside of work and how it affects teachers. Further research in this topic is recommended.

- Additional research should focus on mental health outcomes of teacher stress. This research could use teacher's self-report (using interview and questionnaire) and could be expanded to include external evaluations of teachers' mental health status, such as interviews by mental health professionals.
- Further research could also be explored by comparing teachers who choose not to leave the profession and learned how to better cope with stress versus those who choose to leave the profession. In addition, future research is recommended to study why some teachers remain and others leave teaching.

### **12.6 Final comment**

Teacher stress is a widespread phenomenon. It is a serious problem which needs immediate action by individual teachers, schools and governments. Stress needs to be tackled, as ignoring could affect teacher's health, students and the entire school. The situation is quite serious and needs more attention from decision makers in the MOE. The findings on the nature of teaching as a demanding job, a source of high levels of stress, and consistently feeling stress within the teaching profession, deserve further studies. Stress includes positive and negative aspects based upon how the teacher chooses to react to stressful situations. For instance, positive aspects could motivate teachers to explore different teaching methods to motivate pupils, while negative aspects could affect teachers' well-being and work performance.



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## Appendices

### Appendix One

#### Jordan

##### The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan

Jordan also depends on external sources for the majority of its energy requirements. It covers an area of about 89,213 sq. km. (Prados, 2006; Prados and Sharp, 2007) with almost 90% of its land is desert (Prados, 2006; Prados and Sharp, 2007). The highest point in Jordan is Jabal Ram (1,734 m.; 5,689 ft.), while the lowest is the Dead Sea (-486m.; -1594 ft.). In fact, the Dead Sea is the lowest point in the world. It is bordered by Syria in the north, Iraq in the north-east, Saudi Arabia on the south-east and south, and the West Bank and Israel on the west (Metz, 1989) see (Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Map of Jordan**

Source: <http://worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/asia/jo.htm#facts>



Officially, Jordan is referred to as the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan and is made up of twelve local governorates (Metz, 1989). According to the most recent census conducted by Department

of Statistics, the population of Jordan totaled 5,936,671 inhabitants (DOS, 2007).

The climate in Jordan is hot and arid in the summer, especially in the desert areas and along the Dead Sea. In winter, it is milder, especially in the hills and mountains of the west (Metz, 1989).

Jordan is an Islamic country since the great majority of the Jordanian people are Muslims, with Christians constituting about 6% of the total population, and the remaining 2% of the population coming from different ethnic minorities, such as: Circassians, Chechens, and Armenians (Prados, 2006; Prados and Sharp, 2007).

Arabic is the official language in Jordan (Imaddin, 2004). English is widely spoken in commerce, government and among educated people, and taught as a second language in all schools within the educational system. French is widely taught as a third language at some public and private schools but is not obligatory. The language of higher education provided by colleges and universities depends on the field of academic specialisation. Most of the scientific specialisations such as dentistry, pharmacy, medicine, engineering, Science, and Mathematics are taught in English (Hazaymeh, 2004, Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2004).

In general, the Jordanian economy is not strong. Therefore, Jordan is classified by the World Bank as a 'lower middle income country'. The unemployment rate is also high (Masri, 2004); it is estimated to be about 25%- 30% of the workforce (Prados and Sharp, 2007; Prados, 2006). Masri (2004) argued that the economic situation usually has an affect on the policy of the government. It is generally reflected in the inability to provide the facilities necessary to develop the education system, and the lack of resources to support schools. Therefore, the Jordanian economy relies heavily on skilled and educated people.

## **The Educational System in Jordan**

### **Introduction**

Education and learning are considered key components in the development of any society. It is essential to pay more attention to education, specifically in developing countries, in order to help society to absorb the new communication and information revolution and emerging social needs. Due to high population growth rates and the inadequacy of funds allocated to education, training, and continued learning in developing countries, the concentration was directed towards the

quantity in education at the expense of quality. As a result, developing countries should benefit from the successful experiences of other countries in the field of education to be able to formulate an appropriate education policy to suit their future needs (Al-Suwaidi, 1999).

### **The Contemporary Education System in Jordan**

One of the main goals of education in general, and school teaching in particular, is building and improving pupils' cognitive learning skills, emphasising on the development of attitudes towards society, and improving practical and social skills (MOE, 2002). The educational system in Jordan follows international standards, and its secondary education program (Tawjihi) is accepted in world-class universities.

King Abdullah II said that all educational efforts have been directed “*to stimulate the innovative potential in school children and prepare them for their future roles in the country's advancement.*” King Abdullah also affirmed that these young people are the centre of his attention because they are the builders of Jordan’s tomorrow: “*we will realise our vision for the future of Jordan*” through these students (Jordan Times, 2004).

The aim of this section is to show the context of the education system in Jordan, to illustrate the problems that are facing this system, and explain Jordan’s education policy.

### **Structure and Organisation**

The Jordanian educational system plays the leading role in preparing the individual in a balanced and complete manner (Mryyan, 2003). The structure of Jordan’s educational system has four levels administered by the MOE: pre-school education, basic education, secondary education, and higher education.

#### **Pre-school Education**

The duration of this stage covers two years with children aged 4-5 years. However, this stage is not free of charge. In view of the fact it is a non-compulsory stage, the school institutions are run and supervised by the private sector (O’baydat, 1993). Since 2001, the MOE has reported that kindergarten will become compulsory for all of the Jordanian mainstream schools by extending the primary starting age to five years instead of the current starting age of six years (Kaga, 2007). In practical, MOE has started to provide some of the public schools with kindergarten classes



(Adas *et al.*, 2001; MOE, 2002; MOE, 2008), especially in the remote and poor areas where the private kindergarten cannot be operated (Kaga, 2007). As a result of opening governmental kindergartens in the remote areas, the number of students enrolled in this stage has increased (Imaddin, 2004).

### **Basic Education**

All children who have attained the age of six are required to attend ten years of basic schooling. Basic Education services are provided for all urban, rural and desert areas. The stage is foundation and compulsory for ages 6-16 and is free of charge with regard to tuition and textbooks. This stage enables pupils to continue into secondary education stage (O'baydat, 1993; MOE, 2002; MOE, 2008; Al-Bataineh, and Abu-Al Rub, 2005).

### **Secondary Education**

Secondary education is considered the link between basic and higher education. It aims to provide pupils with knowledge, attitudes, and skills to be able to choose their future life, either to continue higher education, or to go into the labour market. This stage is free but not compulsory (O'baydat, 1993; MOE, 2002; MOE, 2008; Al-Bataineh, and Abu-Al Rub, 2005). For more information, see the Tawjihi system chapter.

### **Higher Education**

Access to higher education is opened to the Tawjihi holder certificate. Those students can access government universities, government community colleges, private universities, and private community colleges (Country report, 2000; Ajlouni, 2011, Al-Bataineh, and Abu-Al Rub, 2005).

The higher grade gives access to the medical, pharmaceutical, dental, engineering and science schools, followed by business school, and the lowest grade gives access to the art schools. There are now 32 universities in Jordan (9 government universities and 23 private universities (MOHESR, 2004) and 58 community colleges (government and private). The Ministry of Higher Education and the Council of Higher education are responsible and administer higher education (O'baydat, 1993; MOE, 2002; Ajlouni, 2011).

### **Non Formal Education or life-long education**

Non formal education embraces adult literacy programmes, short term pre-employment, and in-service training programmes which are provided by the public and private institutions (MOE, 2002; MOHESR, 2004; MOE, 2008). Courses are offered in different fields, such as:

Engineering, Computers, Foreign Languages, Management, and Accounting. Courses last between one week and four months, and at the end of the course, the students obtain a Certificate of Attendance or Achievement (MOHESR, 2004).

### **Special Education**

The special education services largely lie within the formal education system. The MOE has focused on providing students who have special educational needs with educational programmes in mainstream schools and integrate them with other students. As a result, classes accommodate students with mixed abilities rather than arranging them into different classes with similar abilities (Al-Jabery and Zumberg, 2008). This may affect the delivery of the subject and the teaching methods that are used, and in sequence affect teachers' work life. Having classes with mixed abilities makes teaching less easy and sometimes very difficult. Privates centres administrated by the MOE (Al-Jabery and Zumberg, 2008) also offer educational services for pupils with special needs.

### **Educational policy in Jordan**

Educational policies tended to emphasise quality in education in order to meet society's needs and developmental aspirations. Jordan's educational policy has developed through various stages and under the influence of many economic, political, social, and environmental factors. In its early phase, the fifties and sixties, this policy sought to provide opportunities for education for all citizens in all locations, concentrating on expanding education and making it both compulsory and free, emphasising on the quantity of education (O'baydat, 1993). Throughout the seventies, education policies expanded the education levels by supporting vocational education at secondary school (Nasrallah, 1993). During the eighties, education policy focuses on education quality as an attempt to make it appropriate to the needs of society and national development (O'baydat, 1993). In the nineties and the twenty first century, education policies began reforming the educational system, and this process was accelerated in early 2001 when King Abdullah II assured on the "remodelling" of the education system by entering information technology to all levels of education, vocational training, and non-formal education. The reform targets teachers, students, managers, and educational institutions (MOE, 2002, 2008).

The First National Conference for Educational Reform in 1987 in Amman came up with several

recommendations and decisions to improve various aspects of the educational process in Jordanian schools. Among its recommendations, the conference emphasised the importance of upgrading the qualifications and performance of teachers by sitting the first degree as the minimum requirement for the position of teacher, as a result, the MOE stopped hiring the Community College graduates. The conference assured of re-training teachers to update their professional skills (Hasan, 2001; Adas *et al.*, 2001).

The conference emphasised changing the curriculum and textbooks to focus more on improving problem-solving skills, encouraging and supporting the critical, scientific thinking and analysis, and linking academic knowledge to real life. The conference also emphasised providing schools with educational technology to facilitate teaching, such as: computers, educational television programmes, better laboratories, workshops, and libraries. Also, the conference agreed to improve and build new schools to meet the demands of the increasing number of pupils. The new buildings should meet higher standards and provide educational equipment and facilities, such as libraries and laboratories. It is important to stress the need for expansion, development, and promotion of vocational education in order to support the labour market. It also stressed on developing the measurement and evaluation techniques in Jordanian schools (Adas *et al.*, 2001).

## **Appendix Two**

### **Types of questionnaire**

#### **On-line questionnaires**

The on-line questionnaire is a new approach. These types of questionnaires are delivered and returned electronically using either e-mail or the web site (Gorard, 2001).

The e-mail questionnaire has several advantages and disadvantages that rely on the design and administration of the questionnaire. The advantages are: the elimination of paper costs, the reduction in distribution time, and the response rate should increase because the researcher can make direct contact with the respondents (Gorard, 2001). As with the other methods of data collection, this type of questionnaire has several disadvantages. First, not everyone has access to electronic addresses for respondents. Second, there is a problem of anonymity. Alternatively, the questionnaire can be advertised on the Internet and respondents invited to access a web site to fill in the on-line questionnaire (Gorard, 2001).

#### **Mailed questionnaires**

The mailed questionnaire could be a very valuable research instrument in educational research if it is prepared carefully, with a sound methodology; and it is a commonly used method in gathering data in social sciences (Borg and Gall, 1989; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994).

The questionnaire and covering letter are posted to the respondents with stamped, self-addressed envelope for returning the completed questionnaire. This type of the questionnaire can, therefore, be used for descriptive studies and for examining and explaining relationships between variables (Borg, and Gall, 1989; Cohen and Manion, 1985).

The advantages of mailed questionnaires are: they are the most useful, especially when large numbers of respondents are to be reached in different geographical regions. Also, respondents can take their time to respond at their convenience. Another main advantage of mailed questionnaires is the low cost of data collection and processing. Moreover, mailed questionnaires provide respondents with more confidence regarding their anonymity (Borg, and Gall, 1989; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994).

Mailed questionnaires, however, suffer from low response rates (Borg, and Gall, 1989; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Gorard, 2001). Therefore, well-designed covering letter and follow-up letter may be sent later to people to enhance the response rate. Another disadvantage of the mail questionnaire is that any doubts or misleading items cannot be clarified. In addition, the researcher cannot be sure that the targeted respondents have completed the questionnaire. Finally, there is no control over the order in which questions are answered or a check on incomplete questions (Borg, and Gall, 1989; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994).

### **Interview**

Personal face-to-face interviews can be divided into several types: the unstructured interviews, the structured interviews (Drever, 1995; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989, Borg, 1981; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Langdridge, 2003; Bell, 2010), and the non-directive and semi-structured can be conducted either face to face, by telephone or online, or could be focus-group interviews or one to one interviews (Drever, 1995; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg, 1981; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Cohen *et al.*, 2000). In the structured or standardised interview, a set of pre-determined questions is asked so that the responses are recorded on a standardised schedule. The semi-structured interview is a non-standardised interview; the researcher follows a guide to cover all the useful information to the research, and s/he has the opportunity to prompt, probe, and follow up any answer to get more information to enhance his research findings and sometimes clarify the interviewee's answer (Drever, 1995; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg, 1981; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Cohen *et al.*, 2000). This guide has a list of themes and questions to cover during the interview, which may vary from one interview to another depending on a specific organisational context and on the interview condition. Researcher has certain major questions to ask all interviewees, but the researcher may omit some questions in a particular interview or, may add further questions to supplement or explore the research questions and objectives (Drever, 1995). In addition, the order of the questions may vary depending on the flow of the conversation, so the number, order and formulation of the interview questions may vary from one interview to another (Drever, 1995; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995).

An unstructured or informal interview is also called an in-depth interview and has no predetermined list of questions or theme; however, researcher or interviewer has to have general

ideas about the areas or aspects to be explored since this type of interview helps to discover a general area in depth. Respondent or interviewee is given the chance to talk freely about the situations, events, behaviours or beliefs in relation to the topic area, which is why this type of conversation is called non-directive.

Data collected by the interviewer are recorded by note taking or tape recording (Drever, 1995; Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994; Borg and Gall, 1989; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Langdrige, 2003; Bell, 2010). In this regard, Borg (1981, p 88) argues:

*“Tape recordings provide the most accurate method of collecting information from interviews. When the interviewer takes notes, he may miss or overlook important information”.*

Therefore, taking notes allows the interviewer to take the information that he agrees with and omit the ones that he does not agree with it. In the same context, Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) pointed out that tape recording the interviews will give researcher the chance to get all the information that has been said. They argued that researcher should have permission from the interviewee to record the interview. Taking notes make the interviews more formal than tape recording, and it will not able the researcher to give sufficient attention or get sufficient information because he will be busy writing down what has been said in the interview. Interview questions should be clear, using appropriate language, and avoid leading questions (Drever, 1995, Borg and Gall, 1989).

Interview has many advantages and disadvantages as any other inquiry methods. These are the main advantages of the interview:

- It is a flexible method. The interview allows researcher or interviewer to modify and adjust interview questions to suit the situation, especially with semi-structured and unstructured types. This will help researcher to collect supplementary data and to clarify the objectives of the study. Any question could be changed, omitted or added to when required, while it is difficult to remedy this situation in the case of the mailed questionnaire, it is inflexible once it is printed and mailed (Drever, 1995; Borg and Gall, 1989; Borg, 1981; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Bell, 2010).
- Increase in certainty and provides high-quality data. Due to the direct contact between the

interviewer and interviewee, it allows researcher to explain the purpose of the study more freely, to clarify any doubt, or to avoid any misunderstanding of the questions or the concepts (Drever, 1995; Borg and Gall, 1989; Bell, 2010).

- Researcher can obtain many detailed responses from the subject to the questions that will lead to robust results. Because interviewer has more control over the number and the order of the questions to be asked, he/she may add many further supplementary questions and information resulting from the conversation with interviewee that he/she has no idea of before, whereas it is difficult to maintain that control over the mailed questionnaire (Drever, 1995; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Bell, 2010).
- It allows researcher to ask more complex questions and to ask follow-up questions not possible in the questionnaire. Moreover, it takes into account non-verbal communication (body language) such as, the feeling, behaviour, attitudes, and facial expressions of the interviewee. Thus, it may allow a higher degree of confidence in the replies than questionnaire responses (Drever, 1995; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Bell, 2010).
- Higher response rate. This is because of the higher co-operation of the respondents, so the proportion of refusals will be less and the number of answered question will be high (Drever, 1995; Borg and Gall, 1989; Borg, 1981).
- Researcher effect or bias is low because researcher constructs the technique and questions before the actual interviews take place (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995).

However, the interview has disadvantages as well:

- Whereas interviews gather a large amount of information and reliable answers, they are expensive and take much time (Drever, 1995; Bell, 2010). It was indicated by (Munn and Drever, 1990; Borg and Gall, 1989; Borg, 1981) that interviews would take weeks if not months to complete. The whole process of the interview could be described as expensive and time consuming, especially if there are a large number of interviewees to be interviewed and the problem of access to an appropriate sample arises (Drever, 1995; Bell, 2010).
- Interviewing requires skills. An interview is a formal encounter not a conversation, so it requires special skills such note taking, avoiding leading questions, and sticking to the

schedule (Drever, 1995; Borg, 1981).

- Interviewer may affect the validity and reliability of the questions, as s/he might be sensitive to the interviewee's response (Borg, 1981).
- Interviews are, sometimes, associated with risks that result from interviewer biases and such interviews may cost more, particularly when a wide geographic region is covered (Munn and Drever, 1990; Borg and Gall, 1989; Borg, 1981).

Piloting interviews involves conducting interviews with people from the population study but they are not part of the sample. Piloting could be conducted first with some colleague who is not involved in the research. Piloting helps to find out how long the interviews will take, help the interviewer to have and develop the experience of using the interview procedure, and it evaluates researcher ability to conduct the interviews and make the schedule work (Drever, 1995; Borg and Gall, 1989; Tuckman, 1999). Borg and Gall (1989) suggest that 10-20 persons are adequate for most educational research; it is better not to be large.

### **Features of the covering letter**

A well-designed covering letter is needed to accompany the questionnaire. The presentation can encourage respondents to complete the questionnaire correctly. According to Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) and Cohen *et al.* (2000), the purpose and context of the questionnaire should be apparent, and this can be achieved by attaching a covering letter and starting off the questionnaire with an explanatory paragraph. They argued that the aims of the covering letter are: to explain the purpose of the questionnaire, its importance, and to encourage the respondent to reply. Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) suggested that a guideline for the well-designed covering letter: must be suitable to fit the particular audience, the name of the organisation sponsoring the research should appear in the covering letter, assuring the confidentiality and promise of feedback (Munn and Drever, 1990), and finally, a short covering letter is most effective, no more than one page. Tuckman (1999) added to the above guideline that researcher should set the deadline for returning the completed questionnaires and request to answer all the questionnaires items.

All of the suggested guidelines were considered to establish a well-designed covering letter for the questionnaire of the current study. Covering letter should succeed in overcoming any



resistance or prejudice the participant may have against the questionnaire. The researcher determined a particular section at the end of the covering letter for participants to leave their names, e-mail, and home addresses if they wanted a brief report of the final analysis. This was a kind of reward for the participants' time and effort in completing the questionnaire.

The covering letter enclosed with the final draft of the questionnaire was carefully designed to ensure that the respondents understood the objectives of the study. It was written on a single page and used University of Huddersfield letterhead. The structure of the covering letter contains the following: information about the research title, its objectives, and emphasised the importance of the study to both Tawjihi teachers and the researcher; promises of confidentiality; placing an emphasis that their co-operation is the most valuable factor contributing to the success of this research; questionnaire deadline; information about whom to contact if they have any queries; (mobile numbers and the postal address for both the researcher and her director of study); and thanking the recipients for their help.

It was recommended that a covering letter should cover the above information to gain a high rate of response. Thus, all recommendations regarding the covering letter were taken into consideration. Finally, it is important to note that the covering letter was combined with both the study questionnaire and the schedule of the semi-structured interviews that were distributed to the interviewees to preview before starting the interviews.

**Appendix Three**  
**Study Questionnaire**



*University of*  
**HUDDERSFIELD**

***Dear teacher,***

Thank you for accepting to take part in this study. I am a PhD student in the School of Education and Professional Development at University of Huddersfield in the UK.

The objective of this study is to explore the working lives of teachers of general secondary education students (Tawjihi) in Jordan.

Your response is completely ***anonymous and confidential*** and will be used for research purposes only. Please tick responses as honestly and spontaneously as possible.

Please read the instructions for each section of the questionnaire and each statement carefully before answering. The responses on this questionnaire should be based on your own experience and your present situation. The completion of this questionnaire will not take more than half an hour of your valuable time.

If you do not understand any question, leave it blank and I will explain it to you. Please keep the completed questionnaire until I return in one week time. I will arrange for you to hand the completed questionnaire to me.

Thank you again for the helping with this research, which I hope will help teachers in Jordan.

**Yours Sincerely,**

Sawsan Atallah Alghaswaneh  
Al-waha Circle  
Amman  
P.O. Box  
E-mail: [s.alghasawneh@hud.ac.uk](mailto:s.alghasawneh@hud.ac.uk)  
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Dr. Rod Robertson  
University of Huddersfield  
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Huddersfield  
HD1 3DH  
E-mail: [r.roberston@hud.ac.uk](mailto:r.roberston@hud.ac.uk)  
Tel: 0044 1484 478237

## Section A: Background Information

Please Tick in (✓) the appropriate box

<b>A1</b>	<b>Are you?</b>	1. Male <input type="checkbox"/>	2. Female <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>A2</b>	<b>What is your age?</b>	1. Under 25 <input type="checkbox"/>	2. 26- 34 <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. 35-44 <input type="checkbox"/>	4. 45 and over <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>A3</b>	<b>How long have you been teaching?</b>	1. less than 5 years <input type="checkbox"/>	2. 6- 10 years <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. 11- 16 year <input type="checkbox"/>	4. Over 16 year <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>A4</b>	<b>What is your qualification level?</b>	1. High Secondary <input type="checkbox"/>	2. Community College <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. Bachelor <input type="checkbox"/>	4. High Diploma <input type="checkbox"/>
		5. Maste Degree or above	
<b>A5</b>	<b>Are you?</b>	1. Single <input type="checkbox"/>	2. Married <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. Divorced /Separated <input type="checkbox"/>	4. Widowed <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>A6</b>	<b>Do you have children?</b>	1. No <input type="checkbox"/>	2. 1- 2 <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. 3- 5 <input type="checkbox"/>	4. more than five <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>A7</b>	<b>How do you usually get to school?</b>	1. By car <input type="checkbox"/>	2. By bus <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. On foot <input type="checkbox"/>	Other <input type="checkbox"/> please specify.....
<b>A8</b>	<b>Normally, how long does it take to get to work?</b>	1. less than 20 minutes <input type="checkbox"/>	2. 20- 40 <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. 41-60 <input type="checkbox"/>	4. more than 60 minutes <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>A9</b>	<b>Could you specify the subject/s that yo teach?.....</b>		
<b>A10</b>	<b>Could you specify the stream/s that you teach?.....</b>		
<b>A11</b>	<b>Do you live in accommodation owned by Ministry of Education?</b>	1. Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	2. No <input type="checkbox"/>
	<b>*If yes please answer Q 13, 14 and 15, if your answer is (No) please move to SectionB</b>		
<b>A12</b>	<b>How would you rate the accommodations?</b>	1. Excellent <input type="checkbox"/>	2. Very Good <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. Good <input type="checkbox"/>	4. Adequate <input type="checkbox"/>
		5. Poor <input type="checkbox"/>	
<b>A13</b>	<b>Is there a lack of accommodation facilities (e.g. fan, heating, fridge, toilet)?</b>	1. Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	2. No <input type="checkbox"/>
	<b>*If Yes please give details.....</b>		
<b>A14</b>	<b>How stressful do you find your accommodations situation?</b>	1. No stress <input type="checkbox"/>	2. A little stress <input type="checkbox"/>
		3. Some stress <input type="checkbox"/>	4. A lot of stress <input type="checkbox"/>
		5. Extreme stress <input type="checkbox"/>	
<b>A15</b>	<b>The directorate that you follow to:</b>	1- Central Karak <input type="checkbox"/>	2- Almazar <input type="checkbox"/>
		3- Alkaser <input type="checkbox"/>	4- Alkwar <input type="checkbox"/>

## Section B: Extent of Stress

Stress is defined by (Kyriacou, 2000, P 28) as...*unpleasant, negative, emotions such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher....*  
Please answer the following questions by ticking (✓) the appropriate box

In general, how *stressful* do you find *being a Tawjihi teacher*?

1. Not at all stressful       2. Mildly stressful       3. Moderately stressful   
4. Very stressful       5. Extremely stressful

### Section C: Sources of Stress

As a general secondary education (Tawjihi) teacher, how great **a source of stress** are these factors to you?

1= No stress	2= A little stress	3= Some stress	4=A lot of stress	5= Extreme stress
--------------	--------------------	----------------	-------------------	-------------------

N.	C1. Factors related to the school environment and facilities	1	2	3	4	5
1	The school campus is too large.					
2	The number of pupils is too many for the class.					
3	The school building is unsuitable for high school pupils.					
4	The classes are unsuitable for high school pupils.					
5	The furniture is unsuitable for the number of pupils (e.g. desk, chair...).					
6	School facilities are not good enough (e.g. kitchen, toilet, etc....).					
7	Water is not always available.					
8	Air conditioning and heating are not always available.					
9	The location of the school is not appropriate (e.g. by the main road, noisy area,...).					
10	Building maintenance is carried out during the work time.					
11	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

No.	C2. Factors related to administrators	1	2	3	4	5
1	Communication between teachers and administrators is poor.					
3	Administrators do not have enough understanding of teachers' problems.					
4	Administration is poor.					
5	There is discrimination towards some teachers.					
6	Teacher's suggestions are not considered by administrators.					
7	Administrators do not support teachers appropriately.					
8	The administration procedures are complex.					
9	'Complaint letter' procedure is not confidential.					
10	Teachers' promotion depends on the annual assessment.					
11	Relationships between teacher and administrators affect the annual assessment					
12	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

No.	C3. Factors related to supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
1	Communication between teachers and supervisors is poor.					
2	The supervisors' suggestions are not practicable.					
3	There is inconsistency between supervisors.					
4	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

No.	C4. Factors related to colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
1	Cooperation between colleagues is poor.					
2	Cooperation between subject teachers is poor.					
3	Bad behaviour towards colleagues.					
4	Jealousy and envy between colleagues.					
5	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

1= No stress		2= A little stress		3= Some stress		4=A lot of stress		5= Extreme stress	
No.	C5. Factors related to education system regulations and policy.	1	2	3	4	5			
1	Educational regulations are not taken seriously.								
2	Inadequate disciplinary sanctions are available.								
3	Consultation is not effective.								
4	Educational policy is constantly changing.								
5	Participation in decision making is not encouraged (e.g. curriculum).								
6	National Curriculum is always changing.								
7	Educational regulations prohibit teachers establishing their own business.								
8	Having difficulty in getting a day off when you need it.								
9	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....								

No.	C6. Factors related to teaching difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
1	There are too many pupils in the class.					
2	Having difficulty in using the new educational technology.					
3	There are not enough computers available for the pupils.					
4	Teachers have too many activities to undertake during the working day.					
5	Classes contain pupils with wide range of abilities.					
6	There is no educational media available (e.g. TV and Radio).					
7	The library resources are insufficient.					
8	The laboratory is insufficient.					
9	Safety in the laboratory is poor.					
10	School suffers from shortage of equipment (Overhead projector, etc....).					
11	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

**Questions 12, 13, 14 and 15 to be answered by the "Industrial stream" teachers only.**

12	Required equipment, machines and tools in the workshops are unavailable (e.g. drill, hammer, welder, blowtorch, screw, etc...).					
13	Workshop conditions are poor (e.g. safety, lighting, etc...).					
14	Dealing with low ability students is difficult.					
15	Reputation of Industrial stream is low compared with the Academic streams.					

**Questions 16, 17, 18 and 19 to be answered by the "Agricultural stream" teachers only.**

16	Related facilities are unavailable (e.g. greenhouses, milking machine, plants, water....).					
17	Work conditions are poor (e.g. safety, lighting, hygiene, etc...).					
18	Dealing with low ability students is difficult.					
19	Reputation of Agricultural stream is low compared with the Academic streams.					

**Questions 20, 21, 22 and 23 to be answered the "Nursing stream" teachers only**

20	The hospitals are far away from the school.					
21	There is lack of educational materials (e.g. the human skeleton).					
22	Increase in enrolled pupils compared with the other vocational streams.					
23	Having to work during summer holidays.					

**Questions 24, 25, 26 and 27 to be answered the "Home Economics stream" teachers only.**

24	Facilities are insufficient (sewing machine, hairdryer, water, etc....).					
25	Work conditions are poor (e.g. safety, lighting, hygiene, etc...).					
26	Dealing with low ability students is difficult.					
27	Reputation of Home Economics stream is low compared with the Academic streams.					

1= No stress	2= A little stress	3= Some stress	4=A lot of stress	5= Extreme stress
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No.	C7. Factors related to the students.	1	2	3	4	5
1	Dealing with individual pupil problems.					
2	Dealing with pupils who suffer emotional problems.					
3	Feeling insecure because of some pupils' bad attitude towards me.					
4	Individual pupils who continually misbehave.					
5	The responsibility for pupil's academic achievement.					
6	Pupils' constraining code of dress and uniform.					
7	Pupils' general misbehaviour (e.g. lying, extorting money, impolite, cheek, etc...)					
8	Managing difficult pupils from unconventional families (e.g. single parent) or dysfunctional families (e.g. parent conflictions).					
9	Punishing pupils.					
10	Maintaining class discipline.					
11	Pupils' non-acceptance of teacher's authority.					
12	Pupils' general low ability.					
13	Pupils do not attend frequently (the high level of absence).					
14	Pupils are always late.					
15	Pupils who lack motivation.					
16	Special pupils in the class (e.g. attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), low ability or low emotional intelligence, and pupils with disabilities or gifted and talented).					
17	Pupil's poor attitudes towards classroom tasks.					
18	Cheating in examinations.					
19	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

No.	C8. Factors related to the parents and community/public.	1	2	3	4	5
1	Parents disagree with the ways you manage and teach the class.					
2	Dealing with parents who have spoilt their children and allow them to develop bad behaviour or beliefs.					
3	Lack of parental skills in dealing with their children, leading teachers to feeling drained because of the extra attention required.					
4	Misunderstanding between teacher and parents.					
5	Poor cooperation from the parents.					
6	Contact with the parents is difficult.					
7	Lack of recognition for good teaching.					
8	Some parents ask me to give special attention to their children.					
9	'Educated' parents are always bothering you more than 'non educated' parents.					
10	Public's attitude and misunderstanding about high school teacher's workload.					
11	High demands from parents for good results.					
12	Bad social relations outside school affect your relations inside the school.					
13	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

1= No stress	2= A little stress	3= Some stress	4=A lot of stress	5= Extreme stress
--------------	--------------------	----------------	-------------------	-------------------

No.	C9. Factors related to work.	1	2	3	4	5
1	Teaching too many periods per week.					
2	Using private time to deal with job-related work.					
3	Spending lots of time on marking homework, marking tests, and preparing.					
4	Unpredictable events such as fighting, accidents.					
5	Poor promotion opportunities.					
6	Not finding your job fulfilling.					
7	Unreasonable expectation of teacher (e.g. teacher should not make mistake).					
8	Inadequate salary.					
9	Administrative work (e.g. form tutor, duty rota and cover rota...).					
10	Lack of recognition for extra work.					
11	Responsibility for pupils (e.g. exam success).					
12	Lack of time for further study.					
13	No time to relax between lessons.					
14	Lack of time spent with individual pupils.					
15	Supervisory duties (e.g. playground, Canteen).					
16	Having to attend too many in-services training days, school meetings and seminars.					
17	Sundry class duties (e.g. collecting money for lunch/tuition fee/trip fee).					
18	Too much subject matter (textbook) to teach.					
19	Break time is too short.					
20	Marking the General Secondary Educational Examination papers.					
21	Invigilation for the General Secondary Educational Examination.					
22	Low status of the teaching profession.					
23	Having to work at the weekend or after work time to finish the textbook.					
24	In-service training is not related to your needs.					
25	Having to teach subject other than my main subject.					
26	The threat of redeployment.					
27	Few pupil sanctions in the school (students always have got the right).					
28	Too little responsibility within the school.					
29	Instructing pupils who take part in local or national competition.					
30	Private tutoring affects your relations with pupils.					
31	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

No.	C10. Factors related to personal circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5
1	Creating activities is difficult.					
2	Having too much responsibility for my family.					
3	Personal health difficulties.					
4	Subject taught does not fit your expectations or ability.					
5	Feeling concerned about being observed (e.g. by supervisor, head teacher...)					
6	Financial constraints prevent me from sharing in my colleagues' special occasions (wedding, sickness, death, etc...).					
7	If you have any more issues regarding these factors, please specify.....					

## Section E: Coping Strategies

When you experience stress, how effective do you find these ***cop***  
***actions***? Please tick (✓) the appropriate box that best reflect your answer where.

1= Ineffective	2= A little effective	3= Moderately effective	4= Very effective	5= Extremely effective
----------------	-----------------------	-------------------------	-------------------	------------------------

To what extent do you use these strategies? Please tick (✓) the appropriate box that best reflects your answer where.

1= Never used	2= Little used	3= Very little used	4= Frequently used	5= Extremely used
---------------	----------------	---------------------	--------------------	-------------------

No.	Coping Strategies	Effectiveness of strategies					Extent of using strategies							
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5			
1	Expressing irritations to colleagues.													
2	Talking to somebody (e.g. friends, relative, colleagues, etc.).													
3	Talking to someone who could do something about the problem (e.g. head teacher, supervisor and pupil's parents).													
4	Seeking professional help (Doctor, School Counsellors, Psychologist).													
5	Tackling the situation.													
6	Taking the day off to unwind.													
7	Ensuring that you understand the work you are about to teach (e.g. lesson preparation).													
8	Telling pupils when you are not feeling well.													
9	Identifying more about stress (reading books, attending seminars).													
10	Keeping paperwork up-to-date.													
11	Learning from my mistakes and experience.													
12	Starting the year with clearly defined classroom rules (e.g. 'always do your best').													
13	Listening to others' problems and benefiting from their experience.													
14	Keeping away from stressful situations.													
15	Doing your best to get out of the situation gracefully.													
16	Separating yourself as much as possible from the people who created the situation.													
17	Being very organised so you keep on top of things													
18	Reminding yourself that work is not everything.													
19	Seeing the situation as an opportunity to learn and develop new skills.													
20	Relaxing after work and trying to forget things that have happened in school.													
21	Practicing religion (Praying, Qur'an recitation, Reading Hadith,...).													
22	Having a healthy home life.													
23	Learning how to control emotions.													
24	Continuing further education.													
25	Changing school.													
26	Improve your relationship with others.													
27	Let your feelings out (e.g. cry, scream).													
28	Keeping yourself away from others.													
29	Look at the bright side of things and think about the upcoming vacation.													
30	Turn to other activities (e.g. exercise, walking, playing sport, Going out for lunch).													
31	Accepting that people sometimes have bad luck.													
32	Sleeping more than usual.													



1= Ineffective	2= A little effective	3= Moderately effective	4= Very effective	5= Extremely effective
1= Never used	1= Very little used	3= Little used	4= Frequently used	5= Extremely used

No.	Coping Strategies	Effectiveness of strategies					Extent of using strategies					
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
33	Accepting sympathy, support and understanding from others.											
34	Apologising or doing something to make up.											
35	Making yourself feel better by eating, smoking.											
36	Punish or used disciplinary sanctions (e.g. bad mark).											
37	Enjoying yourself by (listening to music, watching TV).											
38	Looking for other sources of income (giving private lessons (tutoring)).											
39	Applying to change your position as a teacher to another position in the school (e.g. deputy head, librarian...).											
40	Other ways you used to deal with your job-related stressful situation, please specify.....											

***Section E: Actions to be taken to reduce stress***

*How effective would these actions by the school and government be in reducing your stress?*

1= Ineffective	2= A little effective	3= Moderately effective	4= Very effective	5= Extremely effective
----------------	-----------------------	-------------------------	-------------------	------------------------

No.	Actions	1	2	3	4	5
1	Institutionalise and make transparent school decision making.					
2	Change education policy less frequently.					
3	Reduce extra activities during school time.					
4	Improve working conditions.					
5	Increase teaching resources.					
6	Provide professional administrators.					
7	Increase teachers' salary.					
8	Increase promotion opportunities.					
9	Establish teachers' union.					
10	Provide successful teachers with scholarships for further education.					
11	Give teachers opportunity to gain training/visiting abroad.					
12	Provide more support for teachers.					
13	Provide schools with child care centre and break time for mothers' breastfeeding.					
14	Provide schools with prayer rooms.					
15	Do you have anything else the school and government can do to reduce stress, please specify.....					

**Thank you for your cooperation**

## **Appendix Four**

### **Interview questions/Tawjihi teachers' phase**

This interview phase is concerned with the exploration of the sources of stress in Tawjihi teachers in the city of Al-Karak from the interviewees' point of view.

What are the sources of stress from your point of view?

What are the coping strategies that you adopt to deal with stress?

How often do you use these coping strategies?

What are the actions that you desire that schools and the MOE should use to reduce stress?

How stressful do you find being a Tawjihi teacher?

Would you like to add anything else?

### **Interview questions/other teaching staffs' phase**

This interview phase is concerned with the exploration of the sources of stress in Tawjihi teachers in the city of Al-Karak from the interviewees' point of view.

What are the sources of stress that face Tawjihi teachers from your point of view?

What are the coping strategies that Tawjihi teachers adopt to deal with stress?

What are the actions that schools and the MOE should take to reduce stress in Tawjihi teachers?

From your point of view, to what extent do Tawjihi teachers feel stressed?

Would you like to add anything else?

## Appendix Five

### Teachers' rank



بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ  
وزارة التربية والتعليم



الموافق لـ ٢٠٠٤/٨/١٦

التاريخ ١٤٢٥/٦/١٦

١٥/١١

الرقم

السيد مدير إدارة

السيد مدير التربية والتعليم

الموضوع : البرنامج التدريبي " الفنون في حماية الطفل "

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

بناء على قرار لجنة الترقية المركزية لرتب المعلمين رقم (٢٠٠٤/١٦) يعتمد البرنامج التدريبي  
الموجه لاعداد معلمي رياض الأطفال والصفوف الثلاث الأولى بواقع ١٧٤ ساعة تدريبية  
لأغراض الترقية الى رتبة " معلم أول " لمعلمي ومشرفي الصفوف الثلاث الأولى ورياض الأطفال .

مع وافر الاحترام

وزير التربية والتعليم

٢٠٠٤/٨/١٦

د. خالد طوقان

د. خالد طوقان

نسخة/ لمستشارة مشروع الفنون في حماية الطفل / المجلس الثقافي البريطاني

نسخة/ للسيد أمين سر لجنة الترقية المركزية لرتب المعلمين

رتب المعلمين م م

٢٠٠٤/٨/١٦

١٥ / ١١

١٤٢٥ / ٦ / ١٦

١٥ / ١١

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

## وزارة التربية والتعليم



الموافق ٢٠٠٤/١١

التاريخ ١٤٢٥/٦

الرقم ١٥/١١

السيد مدير إدارة

السيد مدير التربية والتعليم

الموضوع : برنامج ويسكنسون التدريبي

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

بناء على قرار لجنة الترقية المركزية لترتب المعلمين رقم (٢٠٠٤/١٦) تعتمد شهادة برنامج ويسكنسون بواقع (١٦٠) ساعة تدريبية لغايات الترقية والحصول على رتبة معلم أول / إداري أول.

مع وافر الاحترام

وزير التربية والتعليم

د. خالد طوقان

نسخة/ للسيد أمين سر لجنة الترقية المركزية لترتب المعلمين

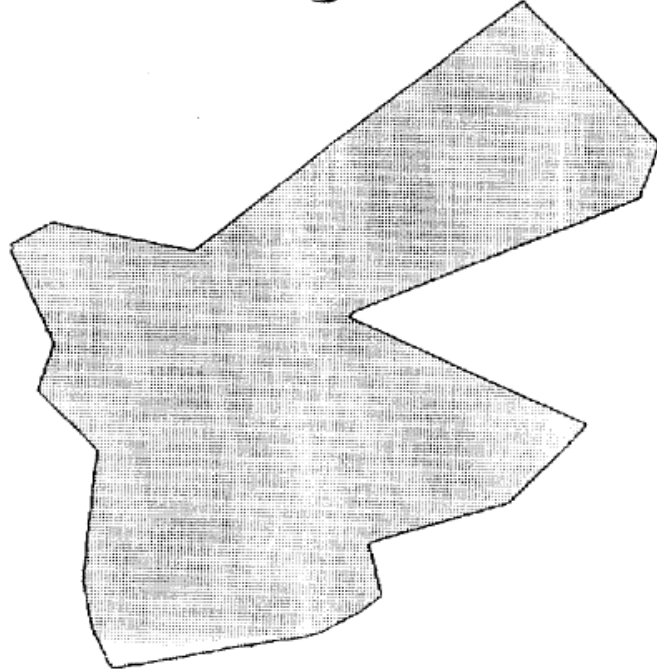
رفب المضمن م م

هاتف : ٥٦٠٧١٨١ / ١١ فاكس : ٥٦٦٦٠١٩ ص . ب (١٦٤٦) ت لكس : ٢١٣٩٦

وثيقة مرجعية  
رقم



# الجمهورية العربية السورية للمملكة الأردنية الهاشمية



عمان: الاثنين ١٥ ربيع الثاني سنة ١٤٢٤هـ. الموافق ١٦ حزيران سنة ٢٠٠٣م.

رقم العدد: ٤٦٠٥

تصدر عن رئاسة الوزراء - مديرية الجريدة الرسمية

نحن عبدالله الثاني ابن الحسين ملك المملكة الاردنية الهاشمية  
بمقتضى المادة (١٢٠) من الدستور  
وبناء على ما قرره مجلس الوزراء بتاريخ ٢٠٠٣/٥/٦  
نأمر بوضع النظام الآتي :-

نظام رقم (٦٨) لسنة ٢٠٠٣  
نظام معدل لنظام رتب المعلمين في وزارة التربية والتعليم

المادة ١- يسمى هذا النظام ( نظام معدل لنظام رتب المعلمين في وزارة التربية والتعليم  
لسنة ٢٠٠٣ ) ويقرا مع النظام رقم (٦١) لسنة ٢٠٠٢ المشار اليه فيما يلي بالنظام  
الاصلي نظاما واحدا ويعمل به من تاريخ نشره في الجريدة الرسمية .

المادة ٢- يلغى نص الفقرة (ب) من المادة (٤) من النظام الاصلي ويستعاض عنه بالنص  
التالي :-

ب- سنوات الخبرة في التعليم او أي خدمة تربوية في الوزارة .

المادة ٣- يلغى نص المادة (٥) من النظام الاصلي ويستعاض عنه بالنص التالي :-  
المادة ٥-

تصنف رتب المعلمين في مسارين على النحو التالي :-

أ- المسار الاول ويشمل الرتب التي يتولى شغلها التعليم وهي :-

- ١- رتبة معلم .
- ٢- رتبة معلم اول .
- ٣- رتبة معلم خبير .

ب- المسار الثاني ويشمل الرتب التي يقوم شاغلوها بالخدمات التربوية المتخصصة وهي :-

- ١- رتبة مساند تربوي
- ٢- رتبة اداري تربوي اول
- ٣- رتبة اداري تربوي خبير

المادة ٤- يعدل النظام الاصلي باضافة المادتين (٦) و (٧) التاليتين اليه :-  
المادة ٦-

يجب ان تتوافر فيمن يشغل ايا من الرتب المنصوص عليها في الفقرة (أ) من المادة (٥) من هذا النظام الشروط المبينة ادناه لكل رتبة مما يلي :-  
أ- رتبة معلم :-

- ١- ان يكون حاصله على الدرجة الجامعية الاولى
  - ٢- ان يكون قد امضى خدمة فعلية في التعليم في المؤسسات التعليمية الحكومية التابعة للوزارة مدة لا تقل عن خمس سنوات
  - ٣- ان يكون حاصله على شهادة الرخصة الدولية لقيادة الحاسوب (ICDL) او أي برنامج تدريبي مكافئ تعتمده الوزارة
  - ٤- ان لا يقل تقدير ادائه في السنتين الاخيرتين عن (جيد)
- ب- رتبة معلم اول :-

- ١- ان يكون قد امضى خدمة فعلية في التعليم في المؤسسات التعليمية الحكومية التابعة للوزارة مدة لا تقل عن عشر سنوات
- ٢- ان يكون حاصله على مؤهل تربوي لا تقل المدة اللازمة للحصول عليه عن سنة دراسية واحدة بعد الدرجة الجامعية الاولى وعلى اجازة دائمة لمهنة التعليم

- ٣- ان يكون قد اكمل برنامجه تدريبيًا تعتمده الوزارة لا يقل عدد الساعات التدريبية المطلوبة له عن (١٦٠) مائة وستين ساعة تدريبية لها علاقة بمهنة التعليم او في مجال تخصصه او عمله واجتاز بنجاح الاختبار المقرر بعد اكمال البرنامج . او ان يكون حاصلًا على شهادة معتمدة دوليًا في استخدام الحاسوب في العملية التربوية او تكنولوجيا المعلومات لا يقل عدد الساعات التدريبية المطلوبة لها عن (١٦٠) مائة وستين ساعة وتحدد اسس ومتطلبات الحصول على هذه الشهادة بمقتضى تعليمات يصدرها الوزير لهذه الغاية .
- ٤- ان لا يقل تقدير ادائه في الثلاث سنوات الاخيرة عن (جيد) .
- ٥- ان تتوافر فيه شروط اشغال الرتبة السابقة لهذه الرتبة .
- ج- رتبة معلم خبير :-
- ١- ان يكون قد امضى خدمة فعلية في التعليم او الاشراف التربوي في المؤسسات التعليمية الحكومية التابعة للوزارة مدة لا تقل عن خمس عشرة سنة .
- ٢- ان يكون حاصلًا على الدرجة الجامعية الثانية (الماجستير) حدا ادنى .
- ٣- ان لا يقل تقدير ادائه في الثلاث سنوات الاخيرة عن (جيد) .
- ٤- ان يكون قد الف كتابين على الاقل في مجالات اكااديمية تعليمية او تربوية او اعد بحثين او قام بعملين ابداعيين مهنيين متخصصين اصليين او اختراعين على الاقل في مجال تخصصه وبما يخدم العملية التربوية شريطة ان يتم اعتماد تلك الكتب والبحوث والاعمال والاختراعات من قبل الوزارة وفقا لتعليمات يصدرها الوزير لهذه الغاية .
- ٥- ان تتوافر فيه شروط اشغال الرتبة السابقة لهذه الرتبة .



## المادة ٧-

يجب ان تتوافر فيمن يشغل اياً من الرتب المنصوص عليها في الفقرة (ب) من المادة (٥) من هذا النظام الشروط المبينة ادناه لكل رتبة مما يلي :-  
أ- رتبة مساند تربوي :-

- ١- ان يكون حاصله على دبلوم كلية المجتمع حدا ادنى .
- ٢- ان يكون قد امضى خدمة فعلية في الوزارة في التعليم او أي خدمة تربوية فيها مدة لا تقل عن خمس سنوات .
- ٣- ان يكون حاصله على شهادة الرخصة الدولية لقيادة الحاسوب (ICDL) او أي برنامج تدريبي اخر مكافئ تعتمده الوزارة .
- ٤- ان لا يقل تقدير ادائه في السنتين الاخيرتين عن (جيد) .

## ب- رتبة اداري تربوي اول :-

- ١- ان يكون قد امضى خدمة فعلية في الوزارة في التعليم او أي خدمة تربوية فيها مدة لا تقل عن عشر سنوات .
- ٢- ان يكون حاصله على مؤهل تربوي لا تقل المدة اللازمة للحصول عليه عن سنة دراسية واحدة بعد الدرجة الجامعية الاولى .
- ٣- ان يكون قد اكمل برنامجاً تدريبياً تعتمده الوزارة لا يقل عدد الساعات المطلوبة له عن (١٦٠) مائة وستين ساعة تدريبية لها علاقة باعمال الادارة التربوية واجتاز بنجاح الاختبار المقرر بعد اكمال البرنامج او ان يكون حاصله على شهادة معتمدة دولياً في استخدام الحاسوب في الاعمال الادارية او التربوية او تكنولوجيا المعلومات بحيث لا يقل عدد الساعات التدريبية المطلوبة لها عن (١٦٠) مائة وستين ساعة وتحدد اسس ومتطلبات الحصول على هذه الشهادة بمقتضى تعليمات يصدرها الوزير لهذه الغاية .

- ٤- ان لا يقل تقدير ادائه في الثلاث سنوات الاخيرة عن (جيد) .  
٥- ان تتوافر فيه شروط اشغال الرتبة السابقة لهذه الرتبة .

ج- رتبة اداري تربوي خبير :-

- ١- ان يكون قد امضى خدمة فعلية في الوزارة في التعليم او أي خدمة تربوية فيها مدة لا تقل عن خمس عشرة سنة .  
٢- ان يكون حاصلًا على الدرجة الجامعية الثانية (الماجستير) حداً أدنى .

- ٣- ان لا يقل تقدير ادائه في الثلاث سنوات الاخيرة عن (جيد) .  
٤- ان يكون قد الف كتابين على الاقل في مجالات اكااديمية تربوية او ادارية او اعد بحثين او قام بعملين ابداعيين مهنيين متخصصين اصليين او اختراعين على الاقل في مجال تخصصه وبما يخدم العملية التربوية شريطة ان يتم اعتماد تلك الكتب والبحوث والاعمال والاختراعات من قبل الوزارة وفقاً لتعليمات يصدرها الوزير لهذه الغاية .

- ٥- ان تتوافر فيه شروط اشغال الرتبة السابقة لهذه الرتبة .

المادة ٥- تعدل المادة (٦) من النظام الاصلي على النحو التالي :-

- اولاً : بالغاء عبارة ( الفقرة (د) من المادة (٥) ) الواردة في مطلعها والاستعاضة عنها بعبارة ( الفقرة (ج) من المادة (٦) ) .  
ثانياً : بالغاء كلمة ( التدريس ) الواردة في الفقرة (أ) منها والاستعاضة عنها بكلمة ( التعليم ) .

المادة ٦- تعدل الفقرة (أ) من المادة (٧) من النظام الاصلي باضافة البند (٢) اليها بالنص

- التالي واعادة ترقيم البندين (٢) و (٣) منها ليصبحا (٣) و (٤) على التوالي :-  
٢- مدير الشؤون الادارية والمالية .

الدعوة ١٢- يعدل النظام الاصيلي باعادة ترفيم المواد من (٦-٢١) الواردة فيه لتصبح من  
(٨-٢٣) على التوالي .

٢٠٠٣/٥/٦

عبد الله الثاني ابن الحسين

رئيس الوزراء  
ووزير الدفاع  
المهندس علي ابو الراغب

نائب رئيس الوزراء  
ووزير العدل  
فارس التالبي

وزير دولة لشؤون  
رئاسة الوزراء  
مصطفى القيسي

وزير التعليم العالي  
والبحث العلمي  
الدكتور محمد حمدان

وزير  
الشؤون البلدية  
الدكتور عبدالرزاق طبيشات

وزير دولة للشؤون السياسية  
ووزير الاعمال  
الدكتور محمد عفاش العدوان

وزير التنمية الادارية  
ووزير البيئة  
الدكتور محمد الذنيبات

وزير  
الخارجية  
الدكتور مروان المعشر

وزير  
المالية  
الدكتور ميشيل مارتو

وزير الأشغال  
العامة والاسكان  
المهندس حسني ابو عيد

وزير  
التربية والتعليم  
الدكتور خالد طوقان

وزير الاتصالات  
وتكنولوجيا المعلومات  
الدكتور فواز حاتم الزعبي

وزير الأوقاف والشؤون  
والمقدسات الاسلامية  
الدكتور احمد هليل

وزير الطاقة  
والتروة المعدنية  
المهندس "محمد علي" البطاينه

وزير  
المياه والري  
الدكتور حازم الناصر

وزير النقل  
ووزير السياحة والآثار  
نادر الذهبي

وزير  
التخطيط  
الدكتور باسم عوض الله

وزير  
العمل  
المهندس مزاحم المحيسن

وزير  
الصناعة والتجارة  
الدكتور صلاح الدين البشير

وزير دولة  
للشؤون الخارجية  
شاهر باك

وزير  
الداخلية  
فقطان المجالي

وزير  
الصحة  
الدكتور وليد المعاني

وزير  
الثقافة  
حيدر محمود

وزير  
الزراعة  
طراد الفايز

وزير الاقتصاد الوطني  
ووزير دولة  
محمد سامر الطويل

وزير  
التنمية الاجتماعية  
الدكتورة رويدة المعايطة

Appendix Six

Appreciation from head teacher in Adostour newspaper

المزار الجنوبي / السيدة جوزفين محمد النوايسة  
مديرة مدرسة الجعفرية المهنية الشاملة  
للبنات والهيئة الادارية والتدريسية /

المزار الجنوبي

تهنى طالباتها المتفوقات بامتحانات الثانوية  
العامة في تخصصات الادارة المعلوماتية  
والتعمريض والاقتصاد المنزلي وحصول  
ست عشرة طالبة على معدلات فوق ٩٠٪

الف مبروك والى الامام

Appendix Seven  
Alakwar Directorate permission

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التربية والتعليم

مديرية التربية والتعليم للواء الأغوار الجنوبية



الموافق: ١٠/٩/٢٠٠٦

التاريخ: ١٠/٩/٢٠٠٦

الرقم: ١٣٧٧/ح

السادة مديري ومديرات المدارس المحترمين في لواء الاغوار الجنوبية  
الموضوع: البحث التربوي

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

إشارة لكتاب معالي وزير التربية والتعليم رقم ٤٧٦٣٢/١٠/٣ تاريخ ٢٠٠٦/٩/٣ م  
تقوم الطالبة سوسن عطاالله الغصاونة بإعداد دراسة بعنوان ((الضغط النفسية التي تواجه  
معلمي الثانوية العامة (التوجيهي) والاستراتيجية التي يستخدمونها للتعامل معها) وذلك  
استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراة في تخصص (الإرشاد النفسي والتربوي) من  
جامعة هدرز فيلد (Huddersfield) ويحتاج ذلك إلى تطبيق استبيانات علي عينة من  
المعلمين وإجراء المقابلات مع رئيس قسم الإرشاد التربوي في المديرية وعينة من مشرفي  
الإرشاد والمرشدين ومديري المدارس والمعلمين العاملين في المدارس .  
يرجى تسهيل مهمة الباحثة المذكورة وتقديم المساعدة الممكنة لها .

واقبلوا الاحترام

مدير التربية والتعليم

مدير الشؤون التعليمية والفتية  
محمد سويلم الهويل

نسخة/ مدير الشؤون الإدارية والمالية المحترم  
نسخة/ مدير الشؤون التعليمية والفنية المحترم  
نسخة/ ر. ق الإرشاد التربوي المحترم  
نسخة/ ر. ق العلاقات العامة المحترم

Appendix Eight  
Alkarak Directorate permission

الرقم : ١٤٧  
التاريخ : ١٣  
الموافق : ١٦

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التربية والتعليم  
مديرية التربية والتعليم  
لمنطقة الكرك



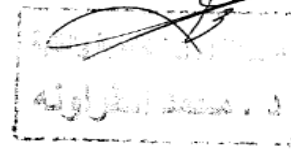
مدير / مديرة مدرسة  
الموضوع: البحث العلمي

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أرفق صورة عن كتاب معالي وزير التربية والتعليم رقم ٤٧٦٣٢/١٠/٣  
تاريخ ٢٠٠٦/٩/٣  
أرجو تسهيل مهمة الطالبة المذكورة فيه سوسن عطاء الله الغصاونة  
وتقديم المساعدة الممكنة لها لغايات البحث العلمي .

واقبلوا الاحترام

مدير التربية والتعليم



نسخة / السيد مدير الشؤون التعليمية والفنية  
نسخة / ر . ق العلاقات العامة

١٤

Appendix Nine  
Alkaser Directorate permission



بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وزارة التربية والتعليم

مديرية التربية والتعليم لمنطقة القصر



الموافق ١٥ / ١٠ / ٢٠٠٦

التاريخ / /

الرقم ٤٤١٧ / ١٤

مدير / مدرسة .....  
الموضوع / البحث التربوي

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

إشارة لكتاب معالي وزير التربية والتعليم رقم ٤٧٦٣٢/١٠/٣ تاريخ ٢٠٠٦/٩/٣ تقوم الطالبة سوسن عطا الله الغصاونه باعداد دراسة بعنوان "الضغط النفسي التي تواجه معلمي الثانوية العامة التوجيهي" والاستراتيجيات التي يستخدمونها للتعامل معها" وذلك استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراة في تخصص الإرشاد النفسي والتربوي من جامعة هدرزفيلد Huddersfield ويحتاج ذلك إلى تطبيق استبانته على عينة من المعلمين واجراء مقابلات مع مشرفي الإرشاد والمرشدين التربويين ومديري المدارس والمعلمين العاملين في مدارسكم يرجى تسهيل مهمة الطالبة المذكورة وتقديم المساعدة الممكنة لها .

واقبلوا الاحترام

مدير التربية والتعليم

مدير الشؤون الإدارية والمالية  
ابراهيم البطوش

نسخة / مدير الشؤون الفنية  
نسخة / ر. ق الإرشاد التربوي  
نسخة / ر. ق الأشراف  
نسخة / ر. ق العلاقات العامة

التوقيع

ع/ع

ص.ب : (٥)

فاكس : (٢٢٦٥٤٢)

هاتف : (٢٢٦٥٤٢ - ٢٢٦٥٤٣)

## Appendix Ten Almazar Directorate permission

الرقم : ٢٤٩٤ / ١٤٤٤ / ٤٠٣  
التاريخ : ١٤٤٣ / ١٢ / ١٤  
الموافق : ٢٠٢٢ / ٩ / ٥

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

مخبرية التربية والتعليم  
للواء المزار الجنوبي  
-----

مدير / مخبرية مدرسة :  
الموضوع / البحث التربوي

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أرجو التكرم بتسهيل مهمة الطالب سوزن خالدة الغضائون الذي يقوم بدراسة

بموضوع الخصائص النفسية التي تحتاجها صغار لثانوية للإستراتيجيات  
التي تستخدم للتفاعل معها .

واقبلوا الاحترام . . . . .

مدير المخبرية والتربية والتعليم  
الشؤون الإدارية والمالية  
المستور  
محمد يوسف الكساسبة

- نسخة / السيد م.ش التعليمية والفتية المحترم
- نسخة / السيد ر.ق الاعلام والتلاقات العامة المحترم
- نسخة / السيد الباحث المحترم

ع.ك



Appendix Twelve  
The MOE Permission



بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ  
وزارة التربية والتعليم



١٠ / ٣

الرقم :

الموافق ٢٠٠٧ / ٩ / ٣

التاريخ ١٤ / ٨ / ٢٠٠٧

السيد مدير إدارة التعليم العام وشؤون الطلبة  
السيد مدير التربية والتعليم لمنطقة الكرك  
السيد مدير التربية والتعليم لمنطقة القصر  
السيد مدير التربية والتعليم للواء المزار الجنوبي  
السيد مدير التربية والتعليم للواء الأغوار الجنوبية  
الموضوع : البحث التربوي  
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

تقوم الطالبة سوسن عطا الله الغصاونة بإعداد دراسة بعنوان: "الضغوط النفسية التي تواجه معلمي الثانوية العامة التوجيهي" والاستراتيجيات التي يستخدمونها للتعامل معها، وذلك استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراة في تخصص الإرشاد النفسي والتربوي من جامعة هدرزفيلد Huddersfield ، ويحتاج ذلك إلى تطبيق استبانة على عينة من المعلمين وإجراء مقابلات مع حضرتكم ورئيس قسم الإرشاد التربوي في إدارتكم وعينة من مشرفي الإرشاد والمرشدين التربويين ومديري المدارس والمعلمين العاملين في المدارس التابعة لمديرتكم. يرجى تسهيل مهمة الطالبة المذكورة وتقديم المساعدة الممكنة لها.

مع وافر الاحترام

/ وزير التربية والتعليم

الدكتور فاسم سليمان القضاة  
مدير المطبوعات التربوية

نسخة / الأتمة رئيس قسم البحث التربوي

نسخة / للملف ١٠ / ٣

هاتف: ٥٦٠٧١٨١ / ١١ / فاكس: ٥٦٦٦٠١٩ ص.ب: (١٦٤٦)

إد رقم: ٢٠٠٤ / ٢٤٦



