UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

JOB SATISFACTION, ACADEMIC WORKLOAD, PERCEIVED STRESS

AND COPING STRATEGIES AMONG LECTURERS OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, GHANA

THERESA DEDE LAWER
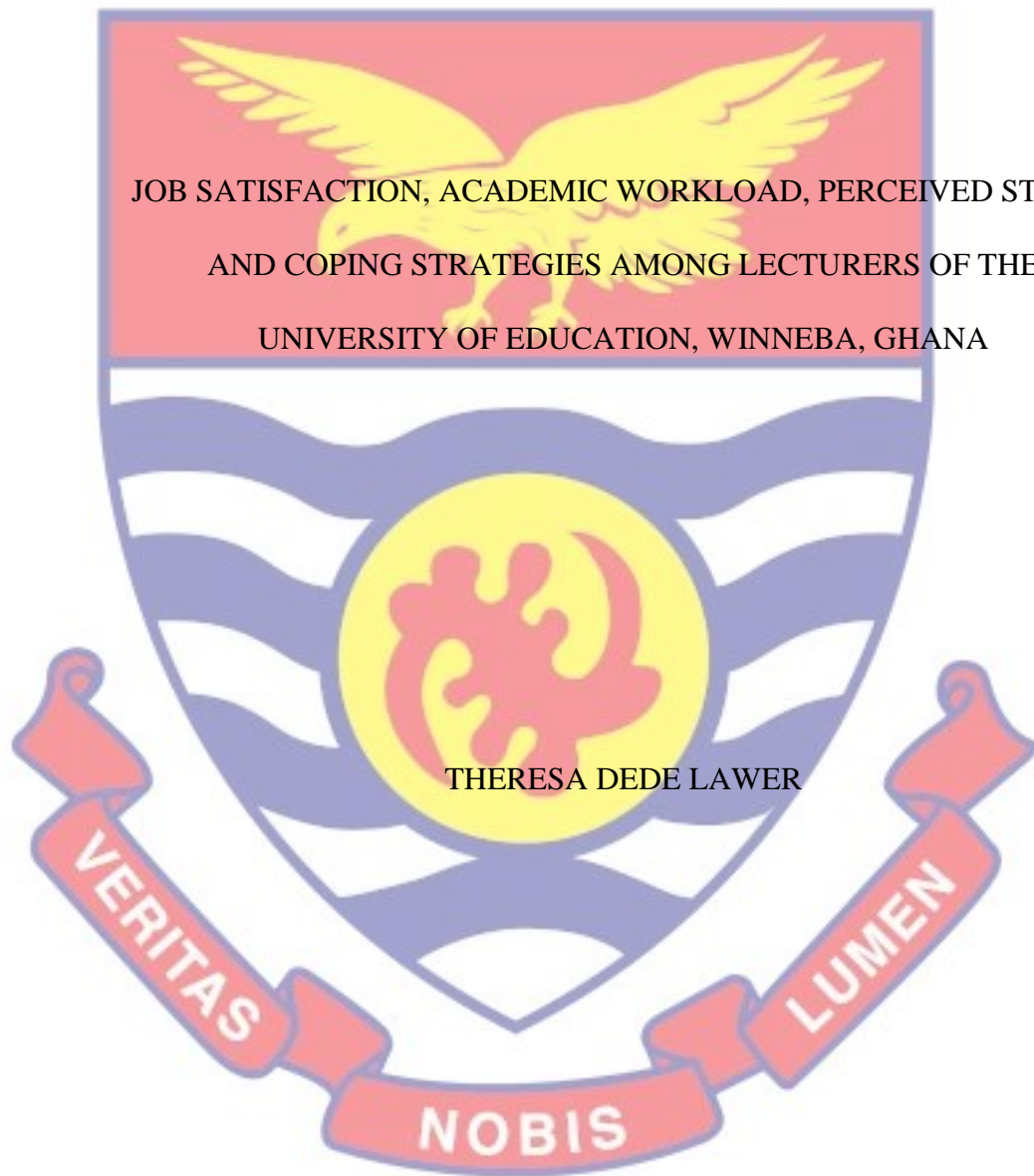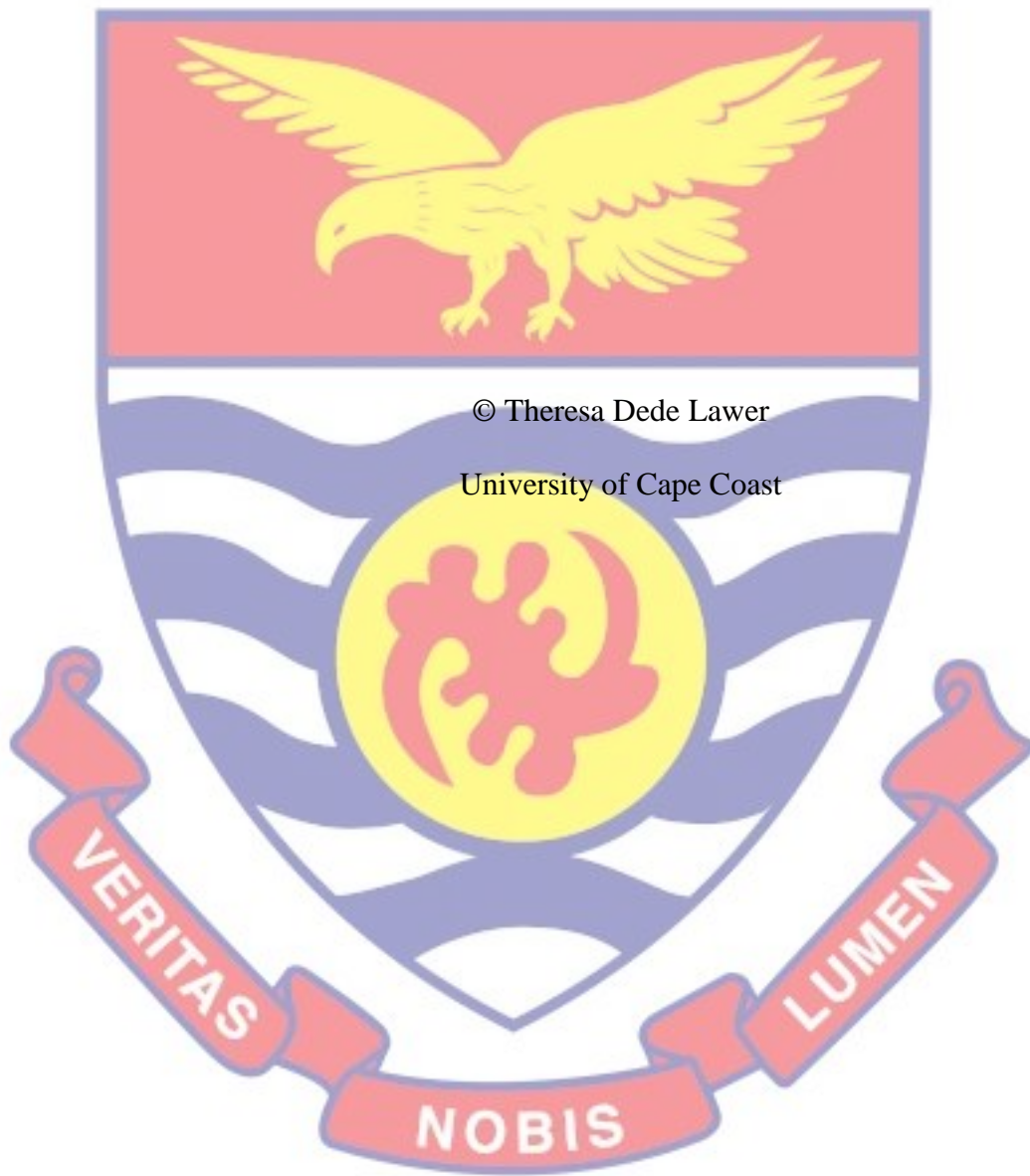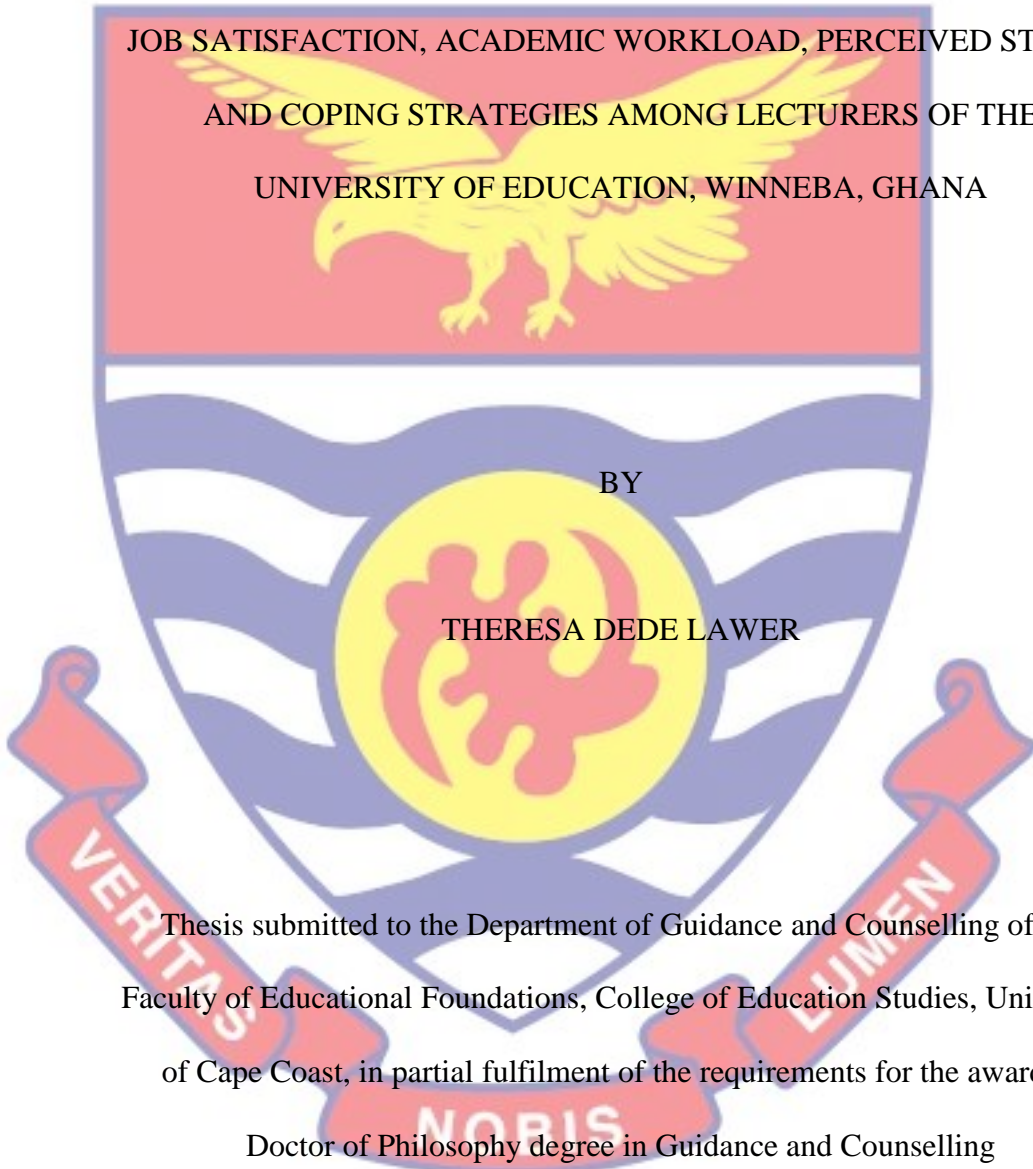
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UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, GHANA

BY

THERESA DEDE LAWER

Thesis submitted to the Department of Guidance and Counselling of the

Faculty of Educational Foundations, College of Education Studies, University

of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of

Doctor of Philosophy degree in Guidance and Counselling

MARCH 2021

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature ……………………………………. Date …………….

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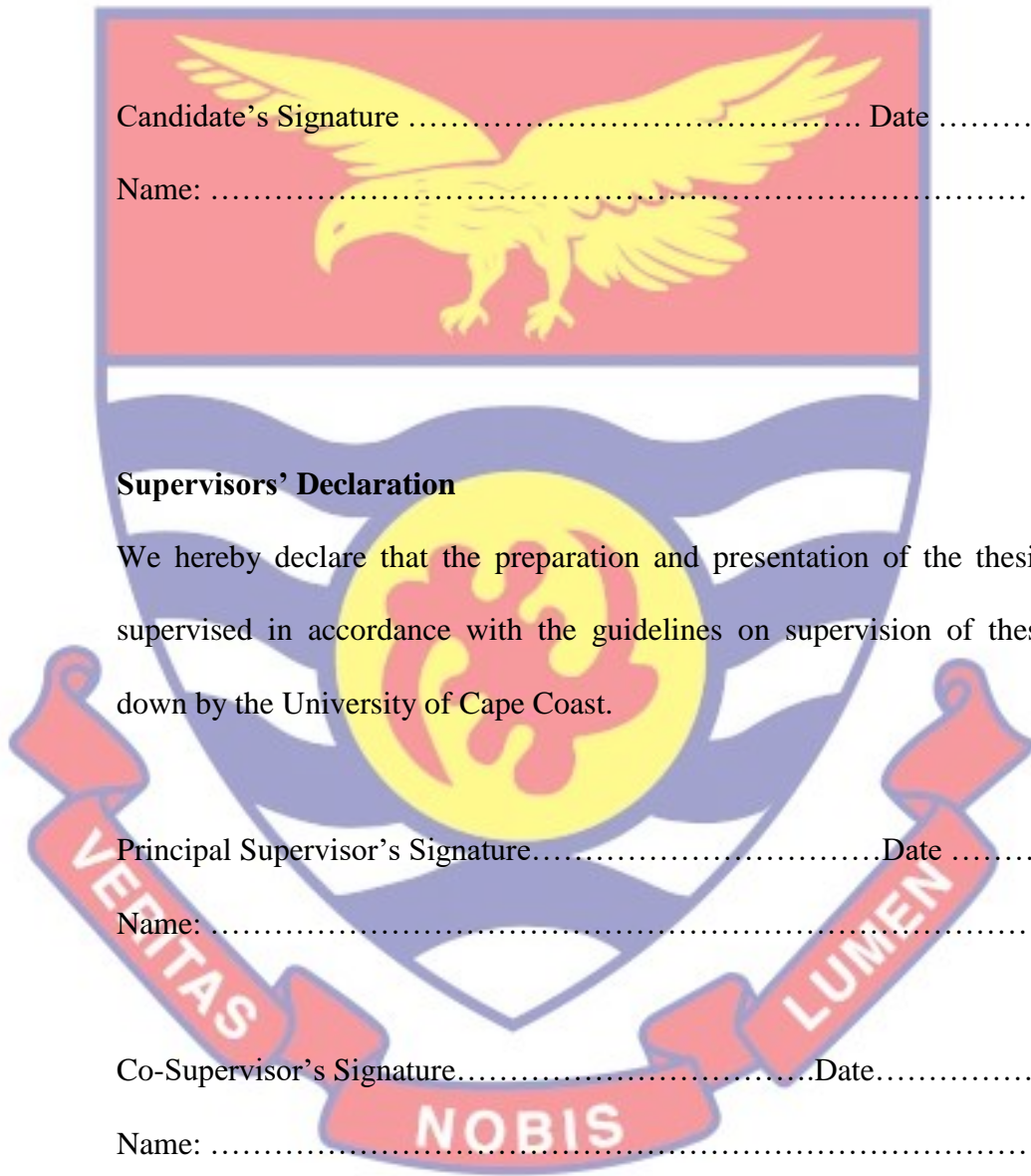
Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature…………………………Date ……………

Name: ………………………………………………………………………………

Co-Supervisor's Signature………………………….Date…………………..

Name: ………………………………………………………………………

ABSTRACT

This study investigated job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. The purpose of the study was to establish the correlations between job satisfaction, academic workload and level of perceived stress among participants. The study adopted the cross-sectional survey design using the descriptive approach of research. The proportional stratified sampling, simple random sampling, and purposive sampling techniques were applied to select the sample for the study. Questionnaire was used to collect data from 159 participants. The research questions were analysed using means and standard deviation while the hypotheses were tested using the Simple Linear Regression, Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Independent Samples t-test, and the One-way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA). The study revealed that the most stressful source of lecturers' stress was teaching large class-size, and the most preferred coping strategy for mitigating stress was the use of alcohol/stress reducing drugs. The findings further revealed that academic workload predicted lecturers' perceived stress level, academic workload inversely correlated level of job satisfaction, and that lecturers' perceived level of stress was negatively associated with their level of job satisfaction. However, gender, age, and status of lecturers did not influence their perceived level of stress. The study recommended that more lecturers should be employed to commensurate with the increasing lecturer-student ratio so as to ease stress among lecturers. It is also recommended that lecturers should be provided with counselling to assist them to use healthy coping strategies to mitigate work-related stress.

KEY WORDS

Academic workload

Coping strategies

Job satisfaction

Lecturers

Perceived stress

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DEDICATION

To Prof. Lawrence K. Owusu-Ansah, Mr. Albert K. Koomson, Mr. Akwasi

Addae-Boahene, and the blessed memory of Mrs. Margaret E. Taylor.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANOVA   Analysis of Variance

COLTEK   College of Technology Education, Kumasi

EAP   Employment Assistance Programme

HSE   Health and Safety Executive

SD   Standard Deviation

SPSS   Statistical Product and Service Solution

UCC   University of Cape Coast

UEW   University of Education, Winneba

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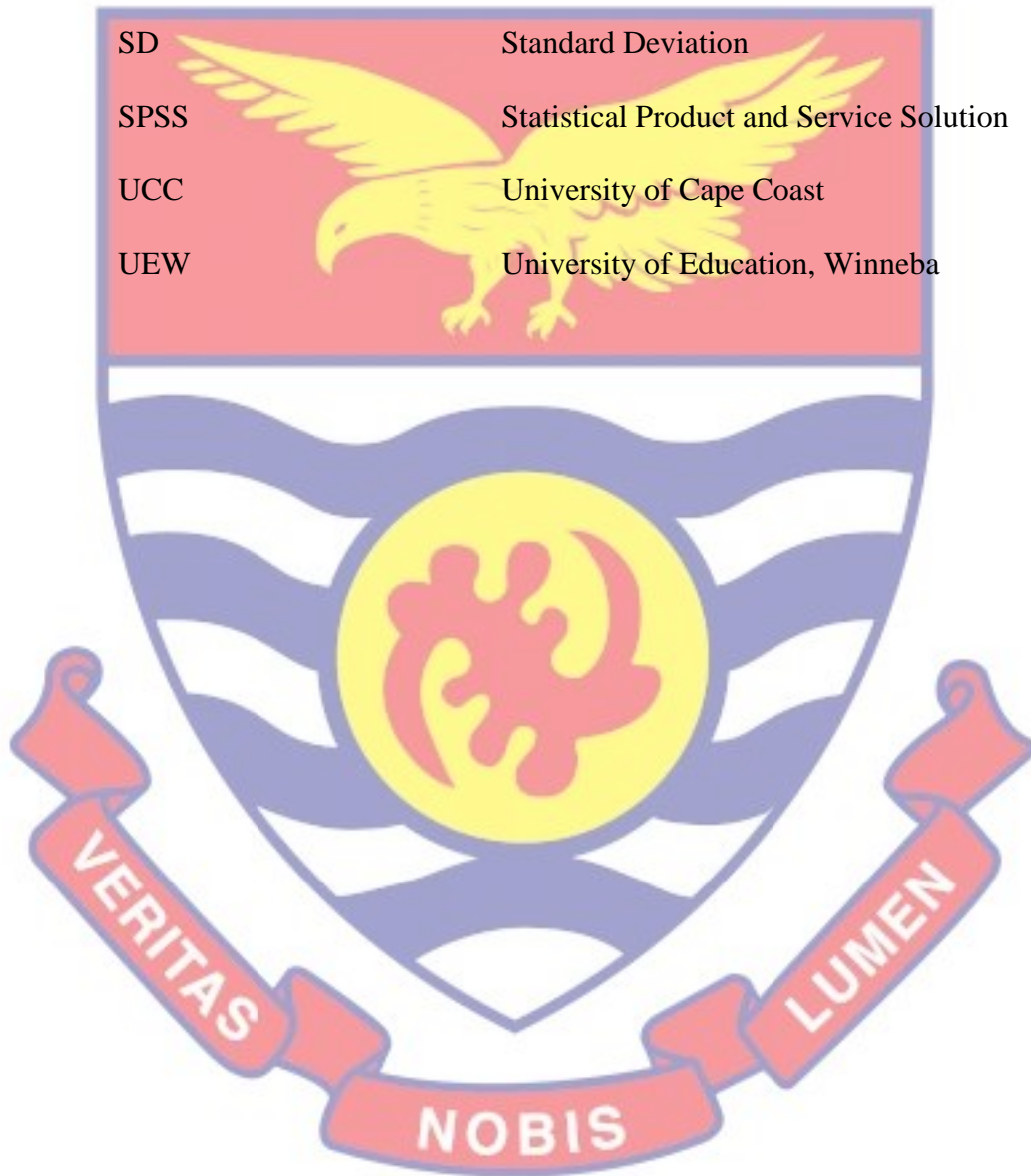
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress, and coping strategies among lecturers at the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. The increasing desire by many for higher education and the expansion in programmes offered by higher institutions of education to meet this demand inevitably puts pressure on the human resource of the institution, especially, the teaching staff. As a consequence, there could be increasing prevalence of work-related stress which affects lecturers' health and commitment to work. Stress manifestation among academics has implications for lecturers themselves, their students, the institution, and the entire nation. It is imperative, therefore, to investigate these perceived work-related stress factors and coping strategies that are employed by lecturers to reduce or curb the negative effects of work-related stress. The findings would help formulate managerial policies toward lecturers' welfare and career development as well as institutional growth and development. This chapter, thus, focuses on the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation, limitations, definition of terms, and organisation of the study.

Background to the Study

Education in Ghana before the arrival of the Europeans was mainly informal but after their arrival they established a formal system of education which has come to stay with us. Universal education thereafter became and

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still is a core component of Ghana's economic and social development hence attempts in eradicating illiteracy have been a constant objective of education policies in Ghana for several decades. Through all these, there is also the frantic effort in ensuring equitable access to education by all citizens of Ghana. The ultimate goal of education is to offer individuals an opportunity to acquire knowledge, skills and attitude that will prepare them for meaningful living. Such a training is purported to help make life meaningful for the self, others and society. A person who goes through the education process is groomed to be a rational human being, with functional and complete mind to offer their quota to the service of humanity. As individuals go through the education system, the organised body of instructions and training they receive are later translated to the world of work to help build all sectors of the economy. The development of a nation, therefore, depends upon how well its citizens are educated. The wheel on which the 'education train' propels is no mean persons but teachers. Arguably, teachers are the most important group of professionals of a nation's assets. All other professionals pass through the tutelage of teachers; from the kindergarten through to the tertiary education level. As the dynamics of society evolve, new ideas surface and new learning takes place every moment from the cradle to grave. In the light of this, individuals strive to better their lots by enrolling on various programmes of study in order to acquire the needed knowledge and skills.

Undoubtedly, the increasing number of students that teachers have to deal with in this era is becoming overwhelming. Teachers' daily work activities encompass the teaching and learning and equally performing administrative duties. Teachers have the responsibility of the students' holistic

development. The teacher plays multiple roles in the lives of their students. For instance, the teacher is an administrator, role model, friend, and counsellor for the students. When the demands placed on teachers at any level of the institutions of learning exceed their capacity to cope, they may become susceptible to stress. According to Lazarus (2000), stress is incongruence fit between person and the environment, one in which the individual's resources are taxed or exceed, forcing the person to usually struggle in complex way to cope. In sum, the success of any educational programme depends largely upon the effectiveness of the teachers' works.

Work can interfere with life in certain occupations and teaching is an example of such occupations. Teaching is an occupation which does not end at the workplace. Teachers virtually carry their work home more often than not. For some occupations and in fact, for some people, work does not spill over to the home which is rather not the case in the teaching profession as the nature of the work involves thorough preparation outside the classroom. Hence, even when at home and not at the workplace, teachers have a lot to do by way of reading and research, notes preparation, setting and marking of tests/assignments/project works, and preparation of teaching and learning resources. Stress could come about as a result of pressure at home and at the work place. Work activities cross borders to the home, thereby interfering with life outside work. Individual lecturers may try their best to clearly define the borders but the parameters are porous owing to their job requirement. According to Winslow (as cited in Schieman, Milkie and Glavin, 2009), for many working adults, the nature of work force changes and family composition have resulted in increased difficulties to balance work and family

life. For instance, the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health identifies work-home interference as one of the most pervasive and problematic workplace stressors; underscoring its devastating effects on health outcomes and family-related processes (Kelloway, Gottlieb & Barham; Bellavia & Frone as cited in Schieman et al., 2009). It is, therefore, worthwhile for teachers to manage the boundaries between work and home life in ways that foster a balance between the two domains towards the management of stress. According to Leka, Griffiths and Cox (2003), work is recognised world–wide as a major challenge to workers' health and healthiness of their organisations. It is more likely that workers who are stressed may more likely be unhealthy, poorly motivated and less productive at work.

The education system in Ghana has gone through several reforms within the last few decades. Notable among them is that of 1987 Reform which gave a new phase to education policies in the country. Some of the key issues included increasing the place of vocational education and training, and of information and communication technology (ICT) within the education system (Ministry of Education, 2010). The reform brought with it modification of programmes in order to promote practical contents of the school curriculum. The reform of 1987 thus succeeded in establishing a new education structure as well as increasing enrollment and number of infrastructure. The State by this reform provides a free and compulsory education for all. The Free, Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) provided an action plan for the period 1996-2005 which focus was to bridge the gap in primary school, improve teaching and learning materials and

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teacher's living conditions (Ministry of Education, 2010). The education system in this country is divided into three phases, namely: basic education (kindergarten, primary, and junior high); secondary education (senior high, technical & vocational education); tertiary education (universities, and colleges). It is worth noting that education at the basic level (between the ages of four and fifteen years) is compulsory but the subsequent levels seem to be choice by default. The second cycle education is as well very necessary because it is from there that individuals may move on to any of the tertiary institutions of their choice. Since 2017, the government of Ghana has made senior high school education free. This new policy of free senior high school education has also significantly shot up enrollment in the schools.

Statistical records show that since 2008, enrollment has continually increased at all levels of education (primary, JHS, SHS, and Tertiary), (Amenya, 2009). The desire for secondary education as well as tertiary education is now a common place. Almost every parent wants his or her child to access secondary as well as tertiary education, which is good because the world is now in a technological age that is being driven by education of which ever form. Not only the youth, but also adults are in the race for higher education. Higher education has thus become the bedrock of the nation's economic, political and social development since modernisation has made it impossible to ignore it. This has brought expansion in programmes offered by universities to meet the heightened desire for higher education.

The university has core functions such as teaching, research, and community service to perform in order to realise its core mandate. The human resource responsible for the discharge of these duties is the teacher who is

referred to in the university as Lecturer. In this era of globalisation, the balance in time distribution between workload and family management is an important concern. In higher education, the lecturer is the pillar of excellence of an institution and whose role can have a high impact on the quality of teaching and learning. This is because the lecturer is the closest individual to the students in the university in achieving various levels of knowledge (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) in Bloom's Taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). The lecturer may likely experience occupational stress which is as a result of overwhelming psychological and physical state that results when the resources of an individual are not sufficient to cope with the demands of pressure of the situation.

In the wake of carrying out these duties the lecturer may come face-to-face with work-related stress issues owing to workloads that have the potential of disorienting his or her psychological and physical well-being. It is also possible that the employees' job satisfaction level may be affected due to work stress. Laws and Fiedler (2012), and Winefield and Boyd (2008) opine that the high job and environmental condition among academic staff in the university translate into work-related stress, while according to Dagdeviren, Musaoglu, Omurlu, and Oztora (2011), the environmental factor has bearing on job satisfaction among academic staff in the university. According to Imeokparia and Ediagbonya (2013), stress is the condition that results when person and environment transactions lead an individual to perceive a discrepancy, either real or imagined between the demand of a situation and the resource of the person's biological and social system. Research has consistently reported time pressure, high self-expectations, as well as research and publication demands

as significant sources of job stress (Barnes, Agago & Combs, Smith, Anderson & Lovrich, Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix as cited in Salami, 2009). The fact is that prolonged or acute stress, as asserted by the Health and Safety Executive [HSE], 2012), can have negative impact on an individual's mental and physical health. HSE (2012) is of the view that stress could lead to other behaviours such as more tobacco smoking, excessive alcohol or caffeine consumption and skipping meals, which can also lead to health problems. Gelabert (2007) similarly opines that persons who experience prolonged and or intense stress are at the risk of suffering from serious illnesses such as, cardiovascular, hormonal, neurological autonomic, and immunological diseases just to mention a few. Consequently, work-related stress has ill-health implications which have the capability of undermining the achievement of goals, both for individuals and organisations.

From the institutional point of view, stress can be associated with the classroom overcrowding and inadequate resources to achieve effective academic work (Awino & Agolli, 2008). It is worthy of note that stress has become an integral part of occupational demands on lecturers. With increased enrollment and multiple access programmes offered to students all year round, it is obvious that the demands of lecturing job have increased. These multiple access programmes include regular intake, sandwich and distance programmes. This in a way is likely to heighten the level of stress among lecturers in Ghanaian universities.

There is a general understanding that excessive workload may have a negative impact on lecturers which can impact negatively on the emotional and physical health, and may relatively impair the quality of teaching and

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commitment of lecturers. Byrne and Hall (1989), for example, found out that role conflict, work overload, classroom climate and decision-making are all organisational factors that contributed to lecturers' stress and eventual burnout. The workload of a research-intensive university lecturer could be categorised into four groups namely, teaching, conducting research, civil obligation and administration (Makinde & Alao, 1987). It is no gainsaying that lecturers experience emotional and cognitive reactions to stress, especially due to external pressures and self-imposed expectations (Misra & McKean, 2000). The manifestation of burnout is a function of stressors triggered at the environmental, organisational and personal levels.

I have witnessed lecturers reporting numerous stressors during term-time, including academic demands and social adjustment. The impact of stress in terms of human suffering, social and occupational impairment and mental illness is, therefore enormous (Crider, Goethals, Robert, Kavanagh & Solomon, 1989). Academic workload and perceived stress would predict the type of coping strategies used by lecturers. Studying workload and job satisfaction and their relating stress among lecturers have implications for improving understanding of work-related stress as well as for enhancing their working life.

Occupational stress within the academia can be managed for good physical and emotional well-being of university lecturers by prevention, reduction, or by helping them to cope with it. Employers (Management) have the duty to ensure that employees are not taken ill. Lecturers themselves must be mindful of their own health as in good health they can always be on top of their job, all things being equal. It is also in the economic interest of any

organisation to prevent stress because, according to Blonna (2005), stress is likely to lead to high staff turnover, increase in sickness, absenteeism, early retirement, increased stress in those staff still at work, reduced work performance and reduced job satisfaction.
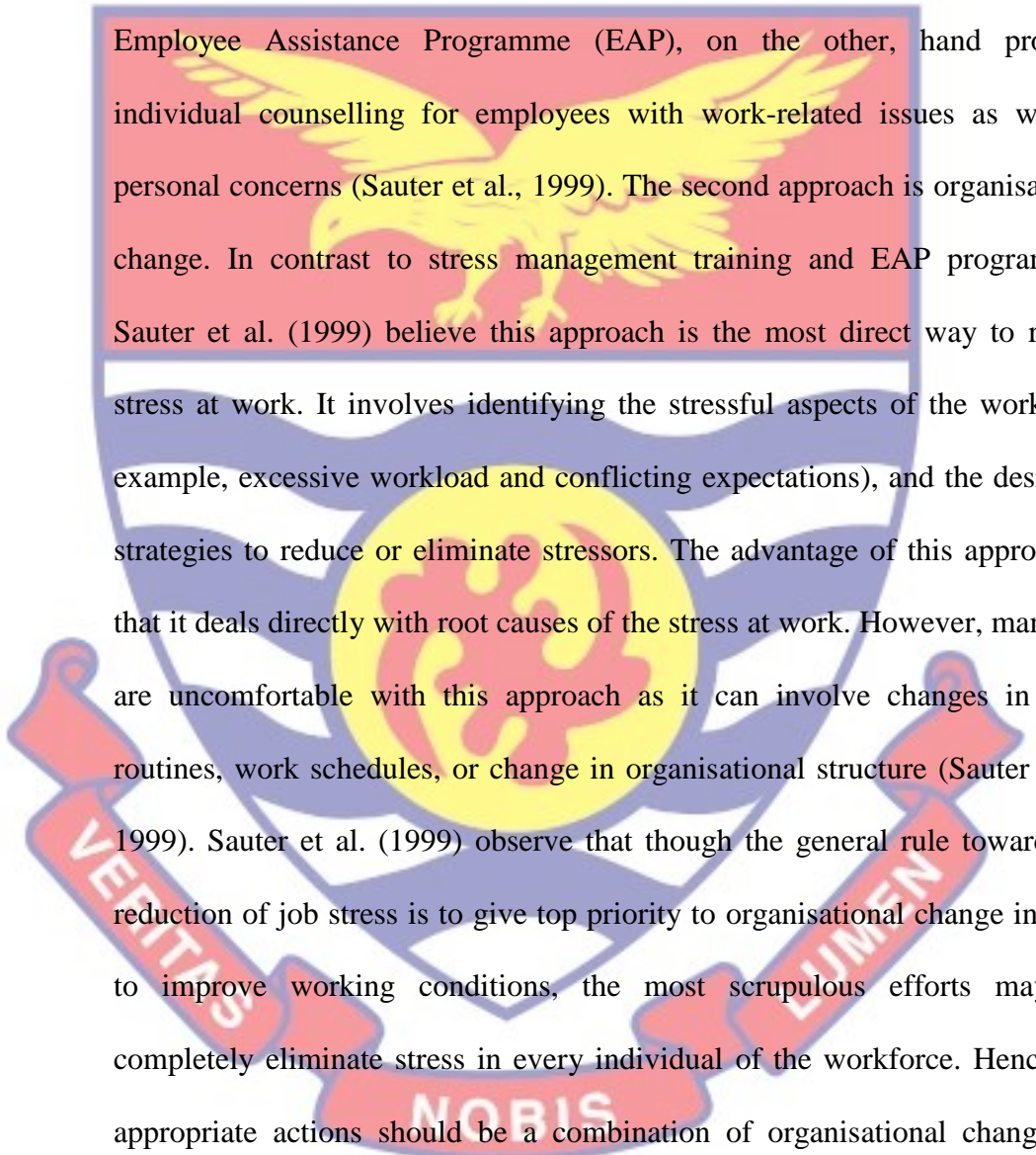
Many studies suggest that psychologically demanding jobs that allow employees little control over the work process increase the risk of cardiovascular disease. It is widely believed that job stress increases the risk for development of back and upper extremity musculoskeletal disorders. Several studies suggest that differences in rates of mental health problems, such as depression and burnout, for various occupations are due partly to differences in job stress levels. Others too believe stressful working conditions may interfere with safe work practices and may set the stage for injuries at work. Furthermore, some studies suggest a relationship between stressful working conditions and health problems, such as, suicide, cancer, ulcers, and impaired immune function (Sauter, Hurrell, Murphy, & Levi, 1997).

University lecturers themselves must be able to manage stress in the wake of high student intake with substantial deficit in human resource and infrastructure expansion. They should access support services such as guidance and counselling to help them reduce, cope or prevent work-related stress they might be experiencing in order to be effective and productive in the discharge of their duties as teachers, researchers, and community service givers. Stress related variables such as psychological or emotional well-being, physical health, and job satisfaction are cogent to the survival of the lecturer in the academia, hence, at all cost lecturers must manage stress.

Stress management has no single definition as individuals respond to stress differently. All the same, stress management has to do with how individuals take control of their thoughts, emotions, and behaviours in order to deal with the everyday issues of life. Though life event and issues could be sometimes overwhelming, one can put in specific measures to reduce the pressure so as to be in control of the situations and events at hand. Stress management, therefore, involves altering stressful or overwhelming situations if possible, changing one's responses when it is impossible to change the situation, taking care of oneself, and making time for rest and relaxation. The utmost, step, therefore is recognising the true source or sources of stress in one's life and making effort to manage them. When one knows the stressors, one would be in a better position to poise him or herself toward reducing, preventing and or coping with stress for physical and mental health. The university lecturer must learn healthier ways to manage stress. His or her contribution to his or her psychological and physical health is to be receptive to different techniques and strategies that focus on making him or her calm and in control. Good human resource management practices must also be put in place by employers to mitigate employees' work-related stress.

Sauter, Murphy, Colligan, Swanson, Hurrell, Scharf, Sinclair, Grubb, Goldenhar, Alterman, Johnston, Hamilton, and Tisdale (1999) postulate that two different approaches are best used to deal with stress. The first, according to Sauter et al. (1999) is to provide stress management training and employee assistance programme (EAP), to help improve workers' ability to cope with difficult work situations. They posit that stress management training helps workers to understand the nature and sources of stress, and it also assists them

know how stress affects a person's health. Stress management training further equips employees with personal skills to reduce stress. Hence, teaching workers time management or relaxation exercises, for example, are vital skills to manage work-related stress. Additionally, stress management training rapidly reduces stress symptoms such as anxiety and sleep disturbances. The Employee Assistance Programme (EAP), on the other, hand provides individual counselling for employees with work-related issues as well as personal concerns (Sauter et al., 1999). The second approach is organisational change. In contrast to stress management training and EAP programmes, Sauter et al. (1999) believe this approach is the most direct way to reduce stress at work. It involves identifying the stressful aspects of the work, (for example, excessive workload and conflicting expectations), and the design of strategies to reduce or eliminate stressors. The advantage of this approach is that it deals directly with root causes of the stress at work. However, managers are uncomfortable with this approach as it can involve changes in work routines, work schedules, or change in organisational structure (Sauter et al., 1999). Sauter et al. (1999) observe that though the general rule towards the reduction of job stress is to give top priority to organisational change in other to improve working conditions, the most scrupulous efforts may not completely eliminate stress in every individual of the workforce. Hence, the appropriate actions should be a combination of organisational change and stress management to prevent stress at work (Sauter et al., 1999).

In any work environment, as employees engage in their day-to-day work activities towards achievements of personal goals which also translate into organisational goals, there come along expectations as well. As

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employees give of their best for the achievement of personal and institutional goals, organisations should also position themselves to meet employees' wants, needs, and personal desires which are good indicators for job satisfaction in the work place. Mullins (as cited in Aziri, 2011) explains Job satisfaction as being more of an attitude, and an internal state which could be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitatively or qualitatively. In consequence, when employees appraise their contributions to the achievement of institutional goals and are satisfied that their expectations are met, they become satisfied and give of their best to the achievement of personal and institutional goals. In contrast, when employees feel that circumstances in the work environment do not contribute to their expectations and the realisation of personal goals, anxiety may set in, which may also result in work-related stress. Therefore, dissatisfaction with some aspects of one's jobs may lead to job stress, which has the likelihood of making one ineffective. Some employees may even decide to leave the job. To this end, Crossman (2003) observes that dissatisfied employees may turn to be unproductive and have the uttermost tendency to quit their work.

Also, Aziri (2011) asserts that one of the most often cited definitions on job satisfaction is the one given by Spector that says job satisfaction has to do with how people feel about their work and its various aspects. It has to do with the extent to which people like or dislike their work. This then implies that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction can appear in any given work situation. Furthermore, Job satisfaction according to Hoppock (as cited in Aziri, 2011), is the combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to genuinely say he or she is

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satisfied with his or her job. Thus, satisfied employees may be much more productive and remain within the organisation for a longer period, all other things being equal, according to Crossman (2003). Job satisfaction, in effect, contributes positively to a worker's physiological and psychological well-being. Employees' feeling of satisfaction may prevent work-related stress.

According to Hoppock's definition, even though job satisfaction is under the influence of many external factors, it remains something internal that has to do with how the employee feels about his or her work. Job satisfaction, therefore, presents a set of factors that cause a feeling of satisfaction (Aziri, 2011).

Spector (1997) enumerates three vital features of job satisfaction. The first is that organisations should be guided by human values. Such an organisation will be oriented towards treating workers fairly and with respect which serve as a good indicator of employee effectiveness. Secondly, the behaviour of workers depending on their level of job satisfaction will affect the functioning and activities of the organisation's business. What this implies is that job satisfaction will result in positive behaviour and stress-free feeling, while dissatisfaction from the work will result in negative behaviour of workers, and stressful feelings. Thirdly, job satisfaction may serve as indicators of organisational activities. Through job satisfaction evaluation of different levels of satisfaction in different organisational units can be defined (Spector, 1997).

In the context of the university, therefore, job satisfaction may, to a large extent, be influenced by factors, such as work policies, working conditions, income, interpersonal relationships, achievement, recognition, job

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security, responsibility, advancement, and the nature of the work. Thus, the favourableness of these factors translates into employee job satisfaction and stress-free work index, while the non-favourableness of these factors may translate into employee job dissatisfaction, which may results in work-related stress. The lecturer's Job satisfaction, therefore, is his or her sense of achievement and success in his or her work and these are generally perceived to be directly linked to productivity as well as to personal well-being. The absence of job satisfaction on the part of the lecturer may result in work-related stress.

Statement of the Problem

Population growth and technological development have resulted into many individuals enrolling on programmes in tertiary institutions. This is to enable individuals enhance their social and occupational mobility. This heightened desire for higher education has made tertiary institutions in Ghana to experience changes that relate to increase in student numbers as against paucity in infrastructural expansion and overstretched faculty capacity to meet high service demand. For instance, university lecture theatres are accordingly over-crowded, likewise laboratories. Furthermore, universities in Ghana have been challenged by the problem of funding to increase access and run many programmes to boost Internally Generated Funds (IGF). The aforementioned changes have resulted in a seriously compromised learning environment in public universities. Inevitably, these changes have the capability to significantly impact on the institutions, lecturers' academic workload and quality of service delivery. Situations of such nature if not properly managed have the potential to generate high stress levels among university lecturers.

Blix and Mitchell (2004), Wiley (2005), and Jarvis (2002) have asserted that teachers experience significant amount of stress in the wake of discharging their duties. According to Travers and Cooper (as cited in Johnson; Cooper, Cartwright, Donald, Taylor, & Millet, 2005), the amount of stress a person experiences at work is likely to be as a result of the interplay of factors, such as the type of occupation, the presence of work stressors, the amount of support they receive both at work and home.

The University of Education, Winneba is the sole institution established as Education University charged with the responsibility of producing professional educators (UEW, 2019a). At the University of Education, Winneba (UEW), Lecturers' job engagement involves teaching, research and community service. As part of the teaching which is a mandate of UEW, lecturers supervise student-teachers on teaching practice. The regular students' teaching practice is a three-face exercise, namely: Pre-Internship, Internship, and Post-Internship. Students on sandwich programme have a two-face teaching practice exercise, namely: On-campus and Off-campus Teaching Practice. Lecturers also have administrative responsibilities to perform as part of their routine work activities.

The research component of the UEW's mandate also places demands on lecturers to conduct research and publish papers to enhance their teaching, as well as contribute to knowledge and also inform policy formulation. As a matter of fact, a lecturer's promotion on the job depends, to a larger extent, on the number of research publications one has to his or her credit.
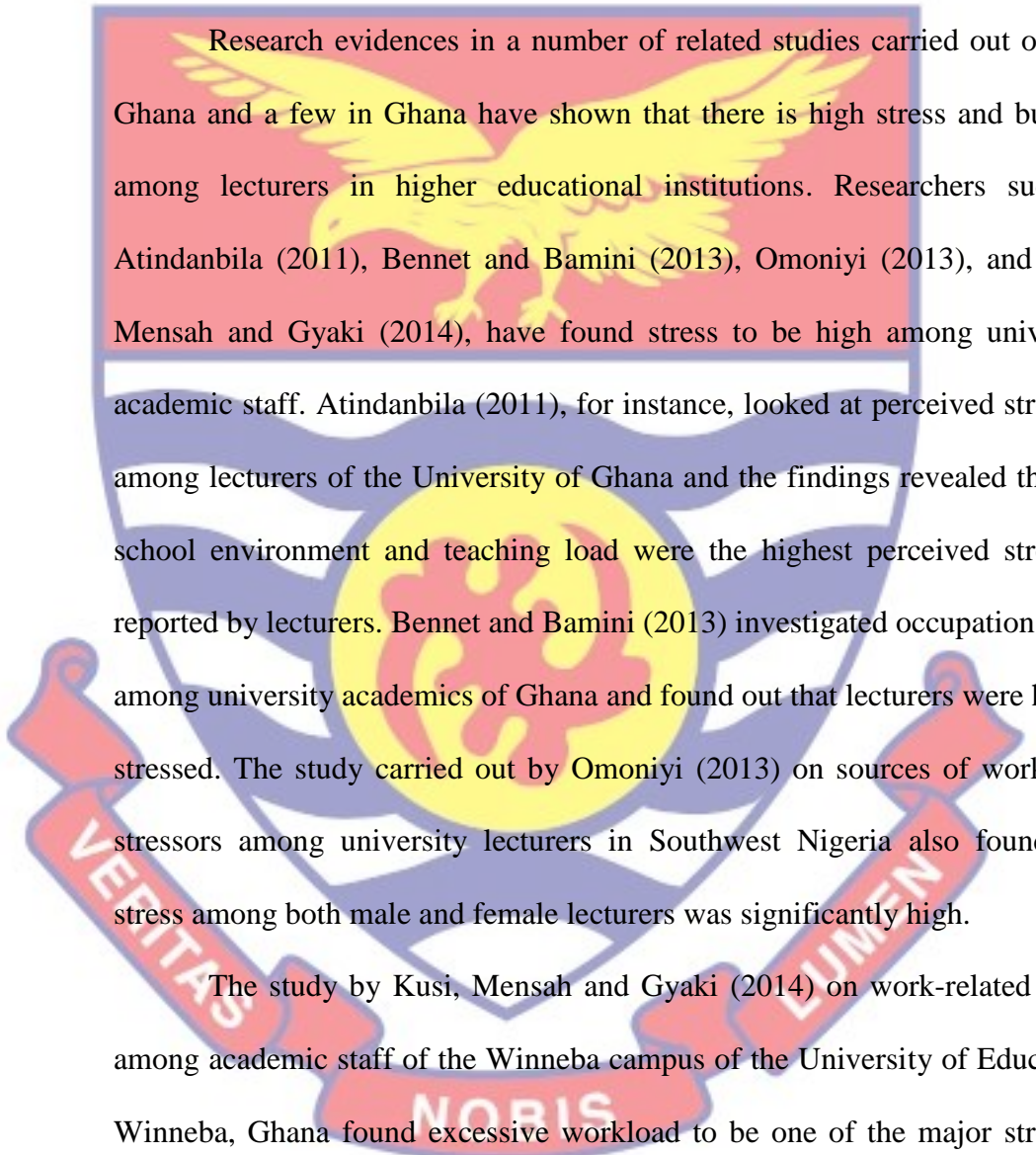
There is also the community service component of lecturers' job requirement which is essential to UEW's success in fulfilling its core mandate.

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It is the responsibility of lecturers to render services within the university community and its catchment areas. Lecturers contribute to the larger community by engaging in activities and assuming responsibilities to help make their communities a better place. It is worth noting that these job requirements of teaching, research, and community service are the work activities that qualify lecturers to rise through the professional ranks of senior lecturer, associate professor, and professor. Lecturers, therefore, are saddled with the pressure of the actual teaching load with its related activities, working on research papers for publications, and performing community service. These responsibilities demand total conviction of lecturers, and they are really stressful.

The University of Education, Winneba runs regular, evening (part-time), distance, and sandwich programmes hence, from January through to December lecturers have virtually no rest as they are engulfed in the above mentioned activities in addition to their family and social life responsibilities.

In relation to the above, it is common to hear discourses among lecturers punctuated with concerns of how involving and stressful their work has become and complaints of ill-health and subsequent visits to the university health facility as well as other health facilities. Furthermore, concerns about undue delay and non-payment of monies due them, as well as work incentives not being in commensuration with the type of work activities they perform, and some unfavourable institutional policies are among lecturers' complaints. All these seem to suggest that lecturers are overwhelmed with work. The work seems demotivating, to some extent, for a number of lecturers. The effects of these concerns if not properly addressed could lead to ill-health, employee

attrition, absenteeism and reduced productivity. In recent times the university has recorded some unexplained sudden deaths among academic staff and although not medically proven, some people have attributed these unfortunate happenings to the stressful nature of lecturers' work. The ultimate losers in this case are students who are at the receiving end of the equation.

Research evidences in a number of related studies carried out outside Ghana and a few in Ghana have shown that there is high stress and burnout among lecturers in higher educational institutions. Researchers such as Atindanbila (2011), Bennet and Bamini (2013), Omoniyi (2013), and Kusi, Mensah and Gyaki (2014), have found stress to be high among university academic staff. Atindanbila (2011), for instance, looked at perceived stressors among lecturers of the University of Ghana and the findings revealed that the school environment and teaching load were the highest perceived stressors reported by lecturers. Bennet and Bamini (2013) investigated occupation stress among university academics of Ghana and found out that lecturers were highly stressed. The study carried out by Omoniyi (2013) on sources of workplace stressors among university lecturers in Southwest Nigeria also found that stress among both male and female lecturers was significantly high.

The study by Kusi, Mensah and Gyaki (2014) on work-related stress among academic staff of the Winneba campus of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana found excessive workload to be one of the major stressors among academic staff. It is, therefore, not surprising that Kusi et al (2014) put the situation blatantly as, "indeed, lecturers are dying as they continually work under increasing pressure to meet targets set by the university" (p.23). The issue of stress among lecturers, I believe, may not be peculiar to only the

Winneba campus, which is one of the campuses of the University of Education, Winneba, but the remaining campuses as well since they are all involved in similar job routines. This, therefore, makes it imperative to carry out a research study that includes all four campuses of the University for broader and indepth understanding of the situation at hand so that per the findings, recommendations and suggestions would be advanced for consideration by the university authorities and lecturers toward management of perceived stress.

Although similar works on stress among academic had been done such as the above mentioned ones and others, most of these studies only focused on stressors, thereby making them employed different methods. I, therefore, believe that the various variables in this study warrant different methodology in looking at stress in academia. Hence, my approach will make a more significant difference from previously used methodologies. It is also for the reason that not much work has been done in Ghana on the specific topic I have chosen hence studying it would contribute immensely to literature.

Given that there is paucity of studies that have investigated the relationship between job stress and burnout relating to workloads among lecturers and the moderating roles of coping strategies in the relationship, it has become academically imperative to investigate how workload relates to job stress and how job stress relates to job satisfaction among lecturers. Furthermore, the negative consequences of job stress on the work of lecturers call for further research on the workloads-job stress linkage in order to increase our understanding on how to mitigate this problem among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to investigate job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba. It was also to establish the correlations between job satisfaction, academic workload and level of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Identify the sources of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba,

2. Find out coping strategies that are used by lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba to mitigate and cope with perceived stress,

3. Explore any academic workload prediction on perceived stress level of lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba,

4. Find out the correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba,

5. Find out the relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

6. Find out whether demographic factors, such as gender, age and status of lecturers will influence their stress perception level

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the sources of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba?

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2. What are the coping strategies used by lecturers of the university of Education, Winneba to mitigate stress?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided the study.

1. H_0: There is no significant predictive effect of academic workload on perceived stress level among lecturers of the University of Education Winneba.

    H_1: There is a significant predictive effect of academic workload on perceived stress level among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

2. H_0: There is no significant correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

    H_1: There is a significant correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

3. H_0: There is no significant relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

    H_1: There is a significant relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

4. H_0: The perceived level of stress among male and female lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba will not be significantly different.

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H_1: The perceived level of stress among male and female lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba will be significantly different.

5. H_0: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to age will not be significantly different.

H_1: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to age will be significantly different.

6. H_0: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to academic status is not significantly different.

H_1: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to academic status is significantly different.

Significance of the Study

Studying job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress, and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana, holds benefit for the institution, lecturers, counselling practices and assessment, and government in the following ways. Firstly, the findings of this study may provide management of the University of Education, Winneba with baseline information on academic workload and its possible stress effects on lecturers so as to help formulate policies to curb the negative effects of stress on lecturers. Also, it would provide lecturers with information on some possible stress effects in their line of duty. Furthermore, the study would unveil how lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba manage their academic work activities in order to mitigate work stress. Moreso, from such

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information, counsellors would derive appropriate intervention strategies to help the lecturers prevent, reduce, or cope with stress. Lastly, this study would offer government the bases to allow human resource department of the University of Education, Winneba and other tertiary institutions to recruit more lecturers to commensurate the student population intake. Although considerable research has studied stress and burnout, further research was warranted to identify new factors that might mediate academic workload - job stress link.

Delimitations of the Study

The study involved lecturers in all the four campuses of the University of Education Winneba, Ghana namely: Kumasi and Asante-Mampong campuses in the Ashanti Region; and Ajumako and Winneba campuses in the Central Region. The study evolved around job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress, coping strategies of lecturers, and influence of demographic factors, such as gender, age and status of lecturers.

Limitations of the Study

This study, like many other empirical studies, is not without its limitations. My sample consisted of one public university in Ghana and the generalisability of results is limited. The results and findings of this study might have considerably varied with an increased sample size. The results of just one university may not represent all universities in Ghana. Involvement of other public universities would generate dispersed results and findings. The study did not consider non work-related stress factors that could equally contribute to stress experiences of participants. Survey data are self-reported

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information, therefore, authenticity of participants' report of what they think and do is difficult to establish.

Definition of Terms

Academic workload, for this study, is defined as the totality of all the activities engaged in by the teacher in the university both in and outside the lecture hall. The lecturers perform both teaching and non-teaching duties which constitute their academic workload.

Coping strategies in this study refer to a number of different approaches the lecturer employs to reduce and or manage the stressful event or situation in which he/she finds him or herself.

Job satisfaction in this study refers to the degree to which the lecturer views his or her work as favourable and as such is motivated by several factors to diligently commit him or herself toward institution and personal productivity. It can also be said to be how content the lecturer is with his or her job or the extent to which the lecturer likes his or her job.

Lecturers in the study refer to persons who teach in the University of Education, Winneba.

Perceived stress is explained in this study as a state of tension experienced by lecturers facing an intense demand which they perceive as threatening. It is the demands, constraints and pressures of everyday life that leads to emotional imbalances which are collectively termed as stress.

UEW in this study stands for the University of Education, Winneba

Organisation of the Study

The research has been organised into five chapters. Chapter one, which is the introduction, looks at the background to the study, statement of the

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problem, purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, limitations of the study, and definition of terms. Chapter two deals with literature review and it covers theoretical, conceptual and empirical evidence of the problem under study. Also in the study is conceptual framework. Chapter three contains the research methods and it focuses on research design, study area, population and sampling procedure, data collection instruments, validity and reliability, ethical consideration, data collection procedure, and data processing and analysis. Chapter four examines and analyses research results and findings. Finally, chapter five summarises, draws conclusions from the findings and provides counselling implications, recommendations, contribution to knowledge, contribution to policy, and suggestions for further research.
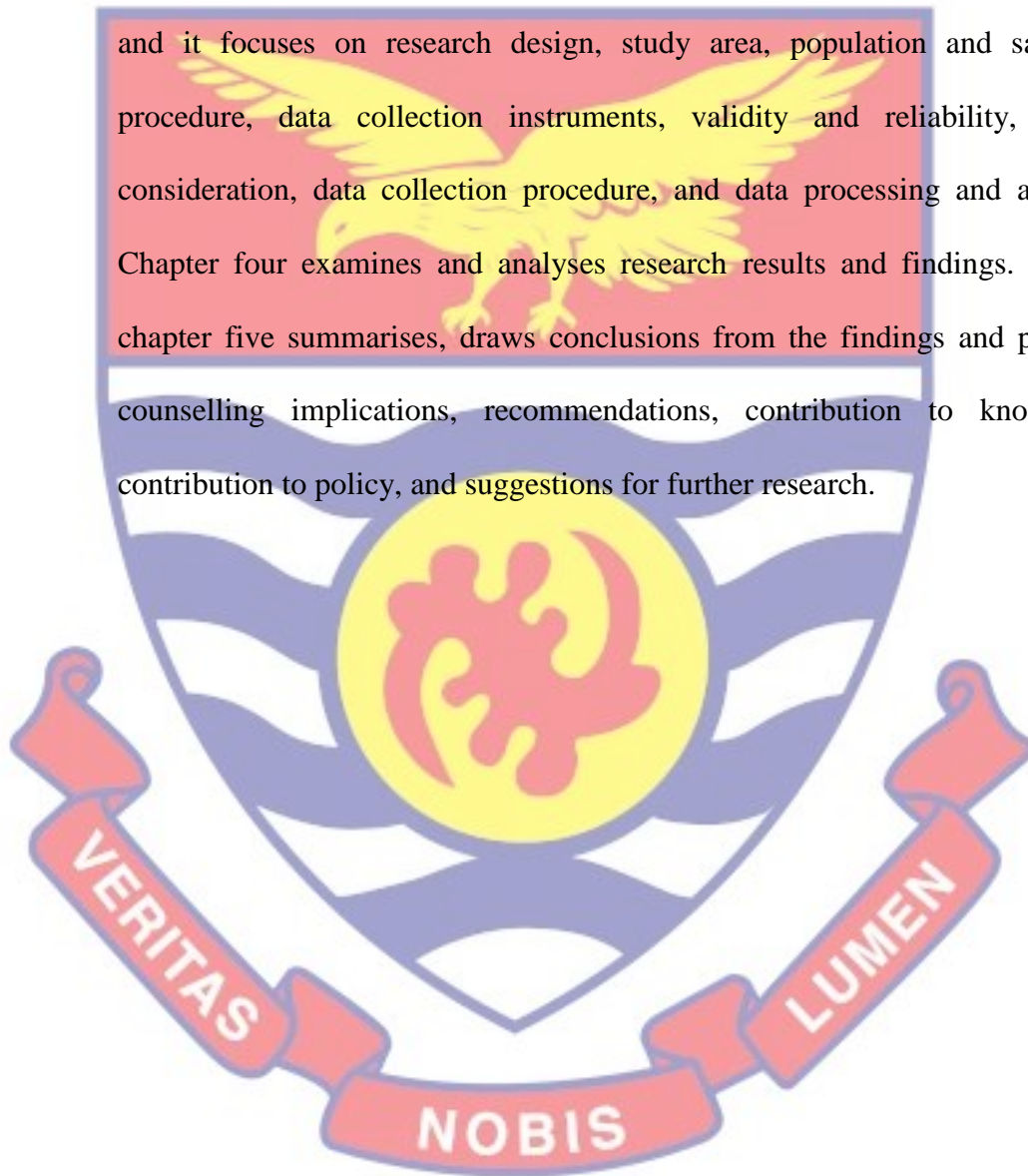
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The study sought to investigate job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. The literature review of this study has been presented under the following headings: theoretical framework, conceptual review and empirical review. A conceptual framework has been developed to cover the major variables in the study. The theoretical framework focuses on Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Theory, Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, and Herzberg Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction. Conceptual review of the key variables in the study (academic workload, perceived stress, coping strategies, and job satisfaction) were also looked at. The empirical review also focuses on sources of perceived stress, work-related stress and coping strategies, and perceived stress and job satisfaction. The conceptual framework also deals with academic workload, perceived stressors, coping strategies and job satisfaction of lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba. The summary on the literature review has been provided to end the chapter.

Theoretical Framework

Though stress is recognised as composite and dynamic process, it is predominantly subjective in nature, rather than an objective phenomenon. Stress can be defined as the imbalance between person's perceived

environmental demands and their perceived ability to cope with these demands (Cox; McGrath as cited in Winefield, Gillespi, Stough, Dua & Hapuararchi, 2002). According to Lazarus (1990), a comprehensive understanding of stress involves assessing all the important facets of the stress process which include the key environmental and personal antecedents, the intervening processes, indicators of the immediate stress response, and the longer-term consequences of stress for individuals and the workplace. The theoretical framework underpinning this study is based on Person-Environment (P-E Fit) theory and the Transactional model of stress. These frameworks, according to Salami (2011), are broadly accepted for conducting research on job-stress and burnout.

Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Theory

The Person-Environment fit theory was initially proposed by French, Rodgers, and Cobb in 1974. According to Caplan (1987b), the theory has several properties which may be of theoretical and empirical value in understanding adjustment in organisations. One property is the operational need for assessing characteristics of the person and of the environment along commensurate dimensions. This property, as asserted by Caplan (1987b), makes it possible to define goodness of fit as the discrepancy between person (P) and environment (E). A second property is the importance of distinguishing between objective and subjective measures of fit and its components. This property, according to Caplan, makes it possible to define accuracy of perception as a discrepancy between objective and subjective fit. A third property is the distinction between fit defined in terms of abilities-environmental demands and needs environmental supplies (Caplan, 1987b).

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Mayer and Dale, (2010) view Person–Environment Fit (P–E Fit) theory as the degree to which individual characteristics harmonise with those of his or her environment. "The core premise of P-E fit theory is that stress arises not from the person or environment separately but rather by their fit or congruence with one another" (Edwards, Caplan and Harrison, 1998, p.2). According to Edwards et al. (1998), theories of stress have recognised that both the person and environment are vital in understanding the nature and consequences of stress. They explained that Person constructs relevant to stress research include behaviour, locus of control, hardiness, and coping styles, while the environment has been interpreted as stressful life events, daily hassles and chronic stressors, such as role conflict and ambiguity, role overload and underload, and job demands and decision latitude. Edwards et al. (1998) further assert that the dual emphasis on the person and environment in stress research is characteristic of the interactive perspective in psychology, which indicates that behaviour, attitudes, and well-being are determined jointly by the person and environment. In the light of this, "the match between attributes of the person and attributes of the environment reflects the concept of person-environment (P-E) fit" (Roberts & Robins, 2004, p.89).

In similar vein, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) assert that the Person–Environment Fit (P–E fit) perspective is conceptualised as the interaction between the person and environment and it is key to understanding people's cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions. This, according to Dawis and Lofquist (1984), hinges importantly on employee's adjustment to the work environment, which is central to employee overall well-being. In the occupational stress and well-being literature, Dawis and Lofquist (1984)

postulate that the fit concept has been characterised as having two components: (a) the degree of match, or congruence between the demands people are confronted with at work, and their abilities to meet those demands (demands–ability fit); and (b) the match or congruence between the person's needs which include physical and psycho-social needs and the resources available to him or her. To this end, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) opine that the theory hinges on the amount of a "stimulus" (for example, workload, work complexity, level of authority, and social interaction with work colleagues) that an individual prefers to have, and the actual level of the various stimuli.

Furthermore, Harrison (1978) states that P-E fit theory characterises needs in general terms and these encompass innate biological and psychological requirements, values acquired through learning and socialisation, and motives to achieve desired ends. Supplies refer to extrinsic and intrinsic resources and rewards that may fulfill the person's needs, such as food, shelter, money, social involvement, and the opportunity to achieve (Harrison, 1978). Harrison (1985) also states that the first type of P-E fit involves the fit between the demands of the environment and the abilities of the person. Demands, Harrison explains, comprise quantitative and qualitative job requirements, role expectations, and group and organisational norms, while abilities include aptitudes, skills, training, time, and energy the person may muster to meet demands. The second type of P-E fit entails the match between the needs of the person and the supplies in the environment that pertain to the person's needs.

Edwards, Caplan and Harrison (1998) opine that the fundamental premise of the P-E fit theory is that stress arises from misfit between the

person and environment. The core elements of the P-E fit theory is characterised by three basic distinctions. The first and most basic distinction is between the person and environment. This distinction, as asserted by Edwards et al. (1998) is a prerequisite for the conceptualisation of P-E fit and provides the basis for examining reciprocal causation between the person and environment.

The second distinction, as observed by Edwards et al. (1998) is between objective and subjective representations of the person and environment. The objective person refers to attributes of the person as they actually exist, while the subjective person signifies the person's perception of his or her own attributes such as the person's self-identity or self-concept. The objective environment includes physical and social situations and events as they exist independent of the person's perceptions, while the subjective environment refers to situations and events as encountered and perceived by the person (Edwards et al., 1998). The objective person and environment, according to Harrison (1978), are causally related to their subjective counterparts.

The third distinction, Edwards et al. (1998) postulate is a two-fold type of the P-E fit. The first type involves the fit between the demands of the environment such as, quantitative and qualitative job requirements, role expectations, and group and organisational norms; and the abilities of the individual. The second type of P-E fit entails the match between the needs of the person and the supplies in the environment that pertain to the person's needs.

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In addition, four types of correspondence between person and environment constructs have been distinguished. First is the objective P-E fit, which refers to the fit between the objective person and the objective environment. The second is the subjective P-E fit, or the fit between the subjective person and the subjective environment. The third is contact with reality, which means the degree to which the subjective environment corresponds to the objective environment. The final one is accuracy of self-assessment, which represents the match between the objective person and the subjective person (French et al., 1974, 1982; Harrison, 1978, 1985; Caplan, 1983, 1987a).

Edwards et al. (1998) postulate that the initial proposal of the P-E fit theory showed that good mental health is signified by trivial differences on objective P-E fit, subjective, contact with reality, and accuracy of self-assessment. Subsequent refinements of the theory, however, point out that objective P-E fit has little impact on mental health unless it is perceived by the individual and thereby translated into subjective P-E fit (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Furthermore, Caplan (1983), Lazarus (1983), and Taylor and Brown (1988) note that when stressors are potentially overwhelming, some disengagement from objective aspects of the situation or self may dampen anxiety and facilitate adaptation, thereby promoting mental health. To this end, Edwards et al. (1998) observe that current treatments of P-E fit theory emphasise subjective P-E fit as the critical pathway to mental health and other dimensions of well-being.

There is also the commensurate dimension of the P-E fit theory. Edwards et al. (1998) opine that for both needs-supplies fit and demands-

abilities fit, P-E fit theory requires that person and environment constructs are commensurate, meaning they refer to the same content dimension. For instance, needs-supplies fit regarding achievement should entail the comparison of need for achievement with opportunities for achievement in the environment. In the same vein, demands-abilities fit regarding quantitative work load would involve comparing the amount of work to be done with the amount of work the person can do (Edwards et al., 1998). Commensurate dimension, Edwards et al. (1998) observed, is required for the conceptualisation and measurement of P-E fit, because the degree of fit between an individual to the environment can be determined only if both refer to the same content dimension and can be measured on the same scale. Likewise, demands-abilities fit regarding quantitative workload would involve comparing the amount of work to be done with the amount of work the person can do. Edwards et al. (1998) observe that without commensurate dimension, it is impossible to determine the proximity of the person and environment to one another thereby rendering the notion of P-E fit meaningless. The requirement of commensurate dimension, as indicated by Cohen and Edwards (1989) and Parkes (1994), distinguishes P-E fit theory from more general interactionist models of the person and environment, such as those examining the moderating effects of personality on the relationship between environmental stressors and health.

Harrison (1985) also points out that just as the person's functioning and survival depend on the fulfillment of needs, the effectiveness and survival of an organisation depend on the fulfillment of demands it places on its employees. These demands, Caplan (1983) observed, are manifestations of the

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needs of the organisation, and employees' abilities may be viewed as supplies by which the needs of the organisation can be fulfilled. For example, the functional and operational needs of an organisation may be translated into position descriptions that articulate specific job demands, and human resource personnel may seek to fulfill these needs by attracting, selecting, and retaining a supply of qualified employees (Schneider & Schmitt, 1992).

To expatiate further on the theory, Caplan, Cobbs, French, Harrison and Pinneau (1980), and Harrison (1978) opine that in the P-E fit theory, subjective P-E misfit leads to two sets of outcomes. One set of outcomes comprises psychological, physical, and behavioural strains. Symptoms of physiological strains include elevated blood pressure, elevated serum cholesterol, and compromised immune system functioning. Physical is defined as deviations from normal functioning. Symptoms of psychological strains include dissatisfaction, anxiety, dysphoria, or complaints of insomnia or restlessness. Behavioural symptoms of strain include smoking, overeating, absenteeism, and frequent utilisation of health care.

Edwards et al. (1998) explained that when such responses constitute risk factors for disease, as in the case of smoking, overeating, and elevated blood pressure, the cumulative experience of strains over time can lead to mental and physical illnesses such as chronic depression, hypertension, coronary heart disease, peptic ulcer, and cancer. Conversely, sustained good P-E fit can produce positive health outcomes (Edwards & Cooper, 1988; Harrison, 1978, 1985). The second set of outcomes involves efforts to resolve P-E misfit, and these are identified as coping and defense. Coping entails efforts to improve objective P-E fit, either by changing the objective person

(adaptation) or the objective environment (environmental mastery). For instance, a person experiencing excess work demands may seek training to enhance his or her abilities or attempt to negotiate a decreased workload with one's supervisor (French et al., 1974; Harrison, 1978).

According to French et al. (1974), defense involves efforts to enhance subjective P-E fit through cognitive distortion of the subjective person or environment (e.g., repression, projection, denial) without changing their objective counterparts. For instance, an individual may respond to role overload by overestimating his or her abilities or by downplaying or ignoring excess demands (French et al., 1974). Another form of defense is described by French et al. (1974), who indicate that a person may respond to subjective misfit by reducing the perceived importance of the dimension on which misfit occurs, as when a person disengages from unattainable goals. Harrison (1978) notes that defense may also include the denial of experienced strain, such that the person acknowledges subjective P-E misfit but discounts its resulting negative impacts on health.

It should, however, be noted that the terms coping and defense, according to Caplan (1987a), do not imply that defense is more primitive or undesirable than coping. For Lazarus (1983) indicates that defense mechanisms such as denial could be adaptive, particularly when the objective person and environment cannot be changed. The choice an individual makes from these alternative methods of adjustment is influenced by various person and environment factors, such as stable preferences, coping styles, and environmental resources and constraints.

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Edwards et al. (1998) opine that these two sets of P-E fit outcomes are likely to be interrelated in that coping may reduce or eliminate objective misfit, which may in turn resolve subjective misfit and reduce strain. Defense, on the other hand, may reduce the effects of objective misfit on subjective misfit, thereby influencing strain. In either case, coping and defense influence strain through their effects on subjective P-E fit. In contrast, strain may influence the choice or success of attempts to resolve P-E misfit through coping and defense (Edwards et al., 1998).

In sum, the Person-Environment (P–E) fit theory postulates that high strain occurs when there is a mismatch or incongruence between the person's needs and what they receive or are confronted with at work (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). To this end, there needs to be a match between what people want and what they receive, as well as a match between their abilities and the demands placed upon them. Lack of match (misfit) may create strain and reduce a person's sense of psychosocial well-being. However, demands-ability and needs-supply match are considerably more relevant to people when the stimuli are important to them.

In the workplace context therefore, major outcomes of misfit could result in increased psychological strain and decreased psychosocial well-being. Other potential outcomes include job dissatisfaction, reduced commitment to the organisation, and greater turnover intentions. Hence, the interaction between a person and his or her environment determines whether or not there is fit or misfit, thereby indicating likelihood to stressful situations.

Consequently, the Person-environment fit model proposed by Edwards, Caplan and Harrison (1998) views stress as arising from a misfit,

objectively or subjectively, between the requirements of the job, its skills and traits of a person. The underlying assumption is that human behaviour is a function of the person and the environment, and that a person's occupational satisfaction, stability and achievement depend on the congruence or fit between the person's personality and the environment in which the person works. In work situations, according to Hoffman and Woehr, Vogel and Feldman (as cited in Salami, 2011), higher degrees of fit predict positive work outcomes. This then implies that individual's decision-making performance reaches an optimal level when the decision-makers' cognitive capability matches the complexity of their environment as the P-E fit theory opines. According to Clark- Murphy (2010), the person-environment perspectives suggest that for optimal productivity, individuals should be compatible with their environments. Jacques (1989) also asserts that for optimal productivity organisations should be designed on the person-environment fit based on individual cognitive capacity at every level of the organisation.

Salami further observes that in the workplace context, the individual's attributes are interests, transferable skills, career motives and values, personality preferences, career orientations, self-concepts and sense of self-efficacy, while the work environment include individual's expectations and perceptions regarding workload, control over one's work, tangible and intrinsic rewards of work, the relationship and sense of community among co-workers, perceptions of fairness in the workplace, and the role of personal and organisational values (Herr et al. as cited in Salami 2011). Salami (2011, p.122) therefore asserts that "if the fit between an individual and environments is incompatible, stress results. Similarly, lack of fit between the demands

placed on individuals and their abilities to meet those demands can result in stress." In view of this, although the fact still remains that some level of stress is good for human existence (positive stress also known as eustress), there must always be congruence between an individual and his or her environment for stress (negative stress also known as distress) not to occur.

Transactional Model of Stress and Coping

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping is a framework which emphasises appraisal to evaluate threat, harm, and challenges, which result in the process of coping with stressful events and situations (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The transactional model of stress and coping assumes that stress occurs as a result of series of transactions between the person, environment, and situations or events (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Hellhammer, Wust, and Kudielka (2009) have observed that the result of the transaction is capable of generating severe and persistent psychological and somatic distress. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), the level of stress experienced in the form of thoughts, feelings, emotions and behaviours, as a result of external stressors, depends on appraisals of the situation or event by a person. This appraisal, Holroyd and Lazarus (1982) assert, involves a person's judgment of whether internal or external demands exceed resources and ability to cope when demands exceed resources, and whether these are threatening to one's well-being.

Holroyd and Lazarus (1982) believe that a number of themes capture the transactional nature of stress and those processes best express the nature of the transaction. The themes are: (a) Stress is a product of the transaction between the individual and the environment. (b) The authority and power of

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the transaction are based on the process of appraisal that binds the person and the environment. Lazarus puts it, "relational meaning" that the person constructs from the transaction and this lies at the heart of the stress process. (c) There are two types of appraisal and these are primary and secondary. It is through these appraisals that the focus is shifted to what people think and do in a stressful encounter. This represents a process-oriented approach (Lazarus, 1999, 2001). Lazarus opines that this reflects the changing person–environment relationship and provides an insight into the nature of the stress process itself. (d) The appraisal process offers a causal bridge to the discrete emotions that best express the nature of the stress experience.

Lazarus (2001) observes that the primary appraisal is where the person acknowledges that there is something at stake. The individual then considers the significance of the encounter and evaluates it in terms of its personal meaning. The secondary appraisal is where focus turns to what an individual can do about the situation (Lazarus, 1999). This, according to Lazarus (2001), is where the person evaluates the availability of coping resources to manage stress. An individual cognitively appraises stressors as threats or challenges. On the one hand, threat appraisals occur when resources such as knowledge, skills, among others, are considered insufficient to face a stressor. On the other hand, challenge appraisals occur when a person perceives he or she might benefit from the encounter with the stressor and consider their resources sufficient. Cognitive appraisals buffer the relationship between stressors and outcomes, such as wellbeing and health (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987). Threat appraisals, specifically, are negatively related to physical health and positively to psychological symptoms (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986b).

According to Mayor (2015), threat appraisals are related to physiological responses that promote exhaustion and disease.

Edwards and Cooper (1990) believe that the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping presented by Lazarus and his associates is worthy of note because it incorporates elements of both environmental demands and employee abilities (D-A) and environmental supplies and employee values (S-V) fit. They assert that the D-A fit in particular, underlies Lazarus' notion that stress involves a relationship between a person and the environment in which environmental demands are appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being. The value component of S-V, according to Edwards and Cooper (1990), is also clearly evident in the concept of commitments, which reflects the pattern of goals, motives and values a person holds. In the transactional model, when demands exceed resources (D-A misfit), situations are characterised as stressful only when meeting these demands will enhance an individual's commitment (resolve or preserve S-V). Thus, the transactional model of stress and coping integrates D-A and S-V fit which shows that stress-related transactions between the individual and environment involve both D-A and S-V misfit (Edwards & Cooper, 1990). To this end, Edwards (1996) did an examination of the completing versions of the person-environment (P-E) fit approach to stress and found out, among other things, that S-V fit was linked primarily to dissatisfaction and D-A fit to tension, but both versions were related to both forms of strain.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction

Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory which he developed in 1959 comprised two set of factors that defined working attitudes of employees and the level of their performance. Herzberg named the factors Motivation and Hygiene. The Motivation factors refer to intrinsic factors that increase job satisfaction while the Hygiene factors refer to extrinsic factors that prevent workers' or employees' dissatisfaction. Herzberg however added that the abundance of the Hygiene factors might not necessarily result in workers' job satisfaction. Therefore, to increase employees' performance and productivity, there is the need to address the Motivation factors (Yuosoff, Kian, & Idris (2013).

The Two-factor theory assumes that extrinsic factors do not contribute much to workers' motivation needs; the presence of such factors only prevents job dissatisfaction at the workplace. The extrinsic factors also known as job context factors are the external working conditions that help erase workings' feelings of dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction arises when employers fail to provide for employees' extrinsic factor needs. The intrinsic factors which are referred to as the job content factors are the factors that actually contribute to workers' level of job satisfaction. These factors bring meaning to workers and propel them unto higher performance and productivity levels. When workers are satisfied with their motivation needs they become efficient and their productivity level increases appreciably (Yousoff et. al., 2013). According to Yousoff, et al. (2013), the two factor theory which comprise the intrinsic and extrinsic factors are interdependent. The presence of external factors do not necessarily provide job satisfaction, they only eliminate workers' job

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dissatisfaction. On the contrary, sufficient provision of intrinsic factors cultivates employees' inner growth and development that lead to heightened performance and productivity.

Furthermore, Hassard, Teoh and Cox (2018) assert that job satisfaction theories also have a strong overlap with theories that explain human motivation. The most common and prominent theories in this area, according to Hassard et al. (2018), includes Maslow's needs hierarchy theory. Maslow's needs hierarchy was developed to explain human motivation in general though its main tenants are however applicable to the work setting, and have been used to explain job satisfaction (Hassard et al. (2018). Locke (as cited in Brown and Sargeant, 2007) opines that the assumption of content theorists is that fulfilment of needs and attainment of values can lead to job satisfaction. According to Maslow's view of needs, there exists job satisfaction when the job and its environment meet a person's needs. The hierarchy of needs are categorised as physiological, safety and security, affection and social activity, esteem and status, and self-actualisation (Brown & Sargeant, 2007). For example, within an organisation, financial compensation and healthcare are some of the benefits which help an employee meet their basic physiological needs. Safety needs can manifest themselves through employees feeling physically safe in their work world, as well as job security and or having suitable organisational structures and policies. When these needs are met or satisfied, employees can feel they belong to the workplace but when they are not satisfied then the reverse holds.

Vroom (1964), points out that the word "motivation" is derived from the Latin word "movere", which means "to move". In the context of this,

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motivation therefore becomes a driving force. Schulze and Steyn (2003) assert that to understand persons' behaviour at work, managers or supervisors must be aware of the concept of needs or motives, which will help "move" their employees to act.

According to Robbins (2001), motivation is a needs-satisfying process which is an internal force and it is dependent on the needs that drive a person to achieve. This implies that when a person's needs are met or satisfied by certain factors, the person will exert superior effort toward attaining organisational goals. Theories of motivation can be used to explain the behaviour and attitude of employees. The theories include content theories, based on the assumption that people have individual needs, which motivate their actions (Teck-Hong, & Waheed, 2011).

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, also known as the two-factor theory, has received widespread attention as having a practical approach toward motivating employees (Herzberg, 1966). In 1959, Herzberg published his analysis of the feelings of 200 engineers and accountants from over nine companies in the United States. These professionals were asked to describe experiences in which they felt either extremely bad or exceptionally good about their jobs and to rate their feelings on these experiences (Herzberg, 1966).

Based on Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction, responses about good feelings are generally related to job content, which is referred to as motivators, while responses about bad feelings are associated with job context, referred to as hygiene factor. Motivators entail factors built into the work itself, such as achievement, recognition, responsibility and advancement.

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Hygiene factors are extrinsic to the work, or they are in the work environment. Examples of these are interpersonal relationships, salary, supervision and company policy (Herzberg, 1966).

Under Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, salary is associated with the lower-level needs, such as physical and security needs. Maslow (1954) stated that once the lower-order needs are met, higher-order needs will become most important. Thus, additional salary increases do not motivate employees any further. To improve job satisfaction and performance level of workers, managers must work on motivators by providing opportunities for career advancement and development, as workers value motivators more than hygiene factors (Teck-Hong, & Waheed, 2011).

Yousoff, Kian and Idris (2013) assert that Herzberg's Two-Factor theory has been widely used on variety of motivational researches across different industries and generations for various reasons. One reason is that Herzberg's Two-Factor theory provides an integration of individuals' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors that is able to really cover other motivation theories. Secondly, motivation and hygiene factors introduced by Herzberg have found similarities among other motivation theories under content theories as each theory carries various employees' need for motivation in similar terms (Borkowski as cited in Yousoff et al., 2013).

Particularly, responsibilities, achievements, growth, promotion, recognition and work itself categorised under Herzberg's motivation factors have been found to be similar with Maslow's self-actualization and self-esteem, and Alderfer's growth need, as well as McClelland's need of achievements. Moreso, relationship with peers, personal life, and supervision

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categorised under Herzberg's hygiene factors are consistent with Maslow's belongingness, Alderfer's relatedness need, and McClelland's need of affiliation (Yousoff et al., 2013).

Furthermore, Yousoff et al. (2013) observed that status under hygiene factors is similar to need for power under McClelland's Theory of Need. Similarly, salary and benefits, work conditions, job security, company policy and administration are also found to be consistent with Maslow's Safety and Physiological Need, as well as Alderfer's Existence Need. In comparison with Motivational theories, the Two-Factor theory, according to Yousoff et al. (2013), provides more comprehensive sets of factors that cover basic individual internal and external needs to exert their additional efforts into jobs.

Concepts of Person-Environment (P-E) fit are also apparent in other areas of organisational behaviour research. For instance, the fit between environmental supplies and employee values (S-V) fit is reflected in Locke (1976) theory of Job satisfaction, which suggests that satisfaction results from the perception that one's work fulfills important job values. Similarly, the theory of work adjustment by Dawis and Lofquist (1984) proposes that satisfaction results from a correspondence between one's values and reinforcer patterns available at work.

According to Edwards and Cooper (1990), environmental supplies and employee values (S-V) is also incorporated into job characteristics theory. This presupposes that when individuals with a strong desire for personal growth are combined with enriched jobs, motivation and satisfaction result. Environmental demands and employee abilities (D-A) fit underpins most models of personal selection in which the generally accepted paradigm is to

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analyse job demands, define abilities required to meet these demands and hire individuals with requisite abilities (Schneider, 1978, Smith & Robertson, 1989).

Conceptual Review

Academic Workload Overview

In assigning and evaluating faculty workload, there is the need to consider all factors and aspects of faculty work. Chipman-Johnson (2008) asserts that there is some degree of controversy that surrounds the issue of workload, and as such the issue of equity needs to be advocated. It is argued that in the determination of faculty workload flexibility of purpose is paramount. This is because faculty has different strengths and interests and departments have different demands and requirements. Many faculty members are dissatisfied with the traditional means of measuring and evaluating their work (Boyer as cited in Chipman-Johnson, 2008).

There seems an uneasy calm among lecturers in the university as regards the unequal distribution of work and an evaluation system that takes adequate cognisance of the enormity of work that engulfs lecturers. In determining faculty workload I will apply the operational definition developed by Yuker (as cited in Chipman-Johnson, 2008, p.49) which says, "Faculty workload refers to all activities that are related to professional duties and responsibilities, teaching, research, interacting with students, institutional service, service to community and professional development." From this definition it should be noted that "teaching load" is not synonymous with "workload". Chipman-Johnson therefore referenced Winkler as noting that workload goes beyond classroom teaching and teaching involves preparation,

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consultation with students, and evaluation of their work. What this implies is that workload goes beyond the nominal hours of contact with students in the lecture hall.

Of late pressure is being put on universities to account for the work their faculty do. This has become necessary because teaching load and workload are not synonymous. The university lecturer does other things in addition to the teaching, and it is also clear that teaching load is an aspect of faculty's workload hence there is the need to cogently define and demonstrate what faculty workload entails (Chipman-Johnson, 2008). According to her, the traditional evaluation of workload based on the number of contact or teaching hours taught is inadequate. Furthermore, Hammons and Schade (as cited in Chipman-Johnson, 2008) described calculating workload based on credit hours of teaching as obsolete practice which must be "retired to a museum of education." Chipman-Johnson further stated that though contact hours might be an indication of work time than hours, workload had still been oversimplified and as such do not reflect the complexity of faculty responsibilities (Yuker as cited in Chipman-Johnson, 2008). This, therefore, points to the fact that non-traditional method or formulas need to be applied in assigning and assessing workload.

There are many factors that need to be considered when it comes to the issue of what constitutes faculty workload. For instance, some researchers like Winkler, Hauck and Hill are of the view that factors such as class size, number of sessions taught, contact hours taught, instructional methods, new courses, duplicate preparation, office hours, preparation time and others also need to be taken into consideration when evaluating workload (Chipman-Johnson, 2008).

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In relation to this, an ideal workload should be the totality of all duties performed by faculty, in this regard the lecturer. In addition to the factors mentioned above, there are other elements that make up workload duties and even variation in workload assignments. For example, faculty in institutions of education and other professional institutions could have a wide range of non-teaching responsibilities such as, supervision of teacher trainees, supervision of fieldwork students, writing and coordinating grants and so forth. It, therefore, seems clear that the type of institution also has an impact on the kind of assignment of workload, and Yuker (as cited in Chipman-Johnson, 2008) noted that teaching loads are usually lowest at research universities and highest at community colleges.

Perceived Stress

Inasmuch as individuals would have preferred a stress-free life, it appears such a wish may not be a reality because stress is a fact of everyday life. It is worth noting that not all stress is negative or bad. In his early work on the concept stress, Selye (as cited in Kendall, Murphy, O'Neill, Burnsnall, 2000) conceptualised two categories of stress. These are good or desirable stress (eustress) and bad or undesirable stress (distress). Eustress, on the one hand, is pleasant. It has a challenging effect, and can produce positive effects such as the maximisation of output and creativity. In contrast, distress is evident when an individual perceives himself or herself as not having the ability to control a stressful event, or situation. Distress, on the other hand, may result in decrees productivity and negatively impact overall levels of well-being. Even though everyone manifests a response to stress, reactions vary widely across individuals.

Stress is what happens to one's mind or body as a result of an individual's evaluation of an event or situation in the mind or psyche and the behaviour in response to the circumstances labeled as stressful. Stress, as stated earlier, can be positive (eustress) or negative (distress). This study, however, is referring to negative stress which has the potential to affect an individual's physical and emotional health. How an event or situation is looked at and perceived as stress-inducing event and one's reaction to it eventually causes stress. In accordance with Lazarus's (1990) definition, perceived stress is a condition subjectively experienced by an individual who identifies an imbalance between demands addressed to him or her and the resources available to encounter these demands. Lazarus (2000) sees the term stress as being complex and multidimensional negative emotion. Robbins and Judge (as cited in Bowen, Rose & Pilkington, 2016) refer to stress as an unpleasant psychological process that may happen as a response to environmental pressures. Furthermore, Selye looks at stress to be the outcomes of demands on the body during experiences of fight or flight. It is the body's attempt to maintain homeostasis/physical equilibrium (Selye as cited in Bowen et al., 2016).

Edwards et al. (1998) assessed the definition of stress proposed by Harrison (1985) which states that stress arises when the environment does not provide adequate supplies to meet a person's needs, or when the abilities of the person fall short of demands that are prerequisite to receiving supplies. Edwards, et al. (1998) drew attention to three features of the definition that should be noted. First, stress is defined not in terms of the person or the environment, but rather as their degree of misfit. Second, contrary to some

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definitions of stress, Harrison's definition stipulates that misfit between demands and abilities itself does not itself constitute stress. Rather, excess demands generate stress only if meeting demands is required to receive supplies, or if demands have been internalised as goals or motives of the person, as when norms or role expectations are accepted by the person as guidelines for his or her own behaviour. Third, P-E fit theory views subjective misfit as the critical pathway from the person and environment to strain (Edwards, et al., 1998). From the assessment of Harrison's definition of stress, Edwards et al. (1998, p. 7) explained stress as "a subjective appraisal indicating that supplies are insufficient to fulfill the person's needs, with the provision that insufficient supplies may occur as a consequence of unmet demands."

Furthermore, Brannon, Feist and UpDegraff (2014) observe that stress has a three dimensional definitions. These are as a stimulus, as a response, and as an interaction. These views of stress, according to Furman et al. (2018), have been combined into various theories, but the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping by Lazarus & Folkman (1984) has dominated the field of stress research. The theory proposes that a person's perception of a psychological situation determines whether or not the event is actually stressful. Hence, an individual's perceptions of threat, vulnerability, and ability to cope determine if an event is perceived as a stressor rather than the actual event itself (Furman et al., 2018).

Anything that causes stress is termed as a stressor. These stressors are all over the environment and they can have substantial damaging effect on mental and physical health. However, as Kinman (1998) noted, stress is

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unavoidable in a person's life whether this is associated with their personal or work life. As mentioned earlier stress is not always in the negative; implying that there is also positive stress. In its entirety, therefore, stress is defined by Gelabert (2007, p.10) "as an emotional reaction occurring in the presence of certain stimuli (stressors or stressing situations) that usually trigger the body's coping mechanisms to face the new circumstance." He further noted, however, that stress is not necessarily always a negative phenomenon as it is generally the body's normal reaction to certain stressors such as when one senses imminent danger or even hearing of good news.

According to Gelabert (2007), stress could be categorised as being chronic stress and simply being under pressure. Chronic stress can lead to physical health problems such as high blood pressure or hypertension, headaches and exhaustion, pains in the neck, and stomach ulcers; whereas psychological problems include anxiety, low self-esteem and depression. Cohen, Janicki-Deverts and Miller (2007) assert that experiencing chronic stress can result in people having difficulties with cognition (thinking) and behaviour.

Similarly, the Health and Safety Executive (2012) also outlines how stress can lead to other behaviours, such as more tobacco smoking, excessive alcohol or caffeine consumption and skipping meals, which can also lead to health problems. Prolonged or acute stress, according to Cooper, Dewe and O'Driscoll (2001), can have a negative impact on an individual's mental and physical health. It is, therefore, in the economic interest of any organisation to prevent work stress because stress, according to Blonna (2005), is likely to lead to high staff turnover. Hence, increase in sickness; absenteeism; early

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retirement; increased stress in those staff still at work; reduced work performance and reduced job satisfaction are potential circumstances that have the capacity to culminate into recipe for low productivity and loss of manpower. Situating all these in the contest of this study one would agree that perceived work-related stress among academics, if not mitigated, has the capability of undermining the achievement of individual and institutional goals.

Coping Strategies

Stress has major impact on mental and physical health and this makes it imperative to put in strategies to help reduce or cope with it. Coping strategies are different depending on the situation and the person who is experiencing stress. They provide tools for people who struggle with stressors or stressful situations to have an improved positive outlook.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p.141) defined coping strategies 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." The coping strategies are generally divided into three types as follows: problem-focused strategies, emotion-focused strategies, and avoidance. Problem-focused coping embraces a wide array of problem-oriented strategies, whereas emotion-focused coping aims at regulating the stressful feelings or emotions associated with the stressful situation. Avoidance is an attempt to avoid stressful situations and may include either seeking out other people or engaging in other activities. Undoubtedly, coping strategies are an attempt by a person to control or minimise the quantum of stress being experienced (Lazarus & Folkman (1984).

Brannon et al. (2014) opine that coping serves two functions of managing or changing the stressor causing distress and regulating emotional responses to the stressor. Problem-focused coping strategies, therefore, aim at changing the source of the stress while Emotion-focused coping strategies aim at managing the emotions that accompany the perception of stress. Such strategies, they say, have the objective of restructuring one's thoughts in order to minimise negative emotions and stress associated with the event or situation that causes the stress. Additionally, the level of distress experienced by a person is dependent on the goodness of fit between the stressor and the coping strategy. Brannon et al. (2014) assert that Problem-focused strategies are more effective for handling controllable stressors, and emotion-focused strategies are more effective for handling uncontrollable stressors.

Furthermore, Furman, Joseph and Miller-Perrin (2018) are of the view that individuals often engage both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies to address the same stressor. When used in combination, problem-focused and emotion-focused coping can either enhance or inhibit one another. According to them, if for instance, an individual focuses on finding solution to a problem, this would effectively change any emotional distress they might have been experiencing, and this would make their emotion-focused coping easier. Furman et al. (2018) equally believe that there are many other diverse coping strategies which include avoidance or escape. They explain that this is the situation where a person denies that an event happened or fantasises about alternative outcomes. There is also Meaning-focused coping in which a person believes that everything happens for a

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reason. This then results in the individual seeking benefit or purpose in the stressor.

Kausar (2010) posits that most studies confirm two major related findings. The first is that a situation is evaluated as stressful whenever the individual perceives an inadequate ability to cope with it. The second is that stressors perceived as controllable elicit more proactive coping mechanisms while those perceived as uncontrollable elicit more avoidance strategies. Kausar (2010) further observes that variations in the conceptualisation of coping have led to numerous ways of classifying coping strategies. For instance, he cited Lazarus and Folkman as offering a commonly used definition of coping which involves constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external or internal demands (Lazarus & Folkman as cited in Kausar, 2010).

In this regard, Higgins and Endler (as cited in Kausar, 2010) grouped coping strategies into three. These are task-oriented, emotion-oriented, and avoidance-oriented. The task-oriented strategy is problem-focused and it involves taking direct action to alter the situation itself to reduce the quantum of stress it elicits. In the emotion-oriented strategy, efforts are directed at altering emotional responses to stressors. It also includes attempts to reframe the problem in such a way that it no longer evokes a negative emotional response and elicits less stress. Lastly, avoidance oriented coping includes strategies such as avoiding the situation, denying its existence, or losing hope. It also includes the use of indirect efforts to adjust to stressors by distancing oneself, evading the problem, or engaging in unrelated activities for the

purpose of reducing feelings of stress (Mattlin; Lazarus & Folkman; Roth & Cohen as cited in Kausar, 2010).

Coping strategies can be either positive or negative. Positive or adaptive strategies decrease the amount of stress perceived and experienced, while negative or maladaptive strategies diminish symptoms of stress without addressing the real problem or disorder. All coping strategies have the adaptive goal of reducing or dealing with stress, but some strategies can actually be maladaptive (unhealthy) or merely ineffective and can lead to dysfunctional and non-productive results (https://courses.lumenlearning.com/ boundless-psychology/chapter/coping-with-and-managing-stress/).

According to Mayor (2015), gender traits also predict coping mechanisms. Throughout life, individuals are explicitly, implicitly, or vicariously taught which behaviours are desirable for men or women in society. Masculine traits are positively related to active coping, and negatively related to avoidance coping (Lengua and Stormshak, 2000). In sum, people adapt ways to cope with situations they are experiencing. A person either employs the problem-focused coping strategy, which is the active coping or the problem-solving, and the emotion-focused coping, which entails avoidance and disengagement (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986a). Among these two major coping strategies problem- focused coping, according to Folkman et al. (1986b), is related to better health outcomes. This, however, is not finite since a person can also seek for social support to help cope with stressful situations.

Social support is also a vital system to help manage stress. The perception or reality of care or assistance from others is vital to successful

stress management. It is, therefore, important to develop positive coping strategies in order to achieve effective results. This involves the cognitive and behavioural efforts that one puts in place with the aim to reduce, tolerate or manage the demands that exceed and overwhelm his or her resources. Stress is human specific. What one person might find stressful may not necessarily be stressful for another person. Additionally, the response of several persons in the same stressful situation may be different. The individual is the key player in stress management strategies. Individuals, therefore, need to recognise and analyse for themselves the signs and causes of stress at work. Understanding one's own personal sense of stress is a necessary part of the process that will enable coping mechanisms or strategies to impact one's health.

Job Satisfaction

Various researchers and practitioners in the field of occupational and organisational psychology have provided their own diverse definitions of what job satisfaction is all about. Job satisfaction is defined by Locke 'as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences' (Locke cited in Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014, p. 11). Job satisfaction in this vein has to do with how people feel about their job and its various aspects. In this respect, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction can appear in any given work situation (Aziri, 2011). Spector (1997, p. 2) also defined job satisfaction as "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values." Furthermore, Job satisfaction is the degree of favourableness with which employees view their work and is an important factor impacting a person's motivation and productivity (Armstrong, 2006; McHugh, 1999). It

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could be deduced from the above definitions that an individual becomes satisfied on the job when he or she enjoys what he or she does, she does it well, and his or her efforts are recognised and rewarded. Thus, the term "job satisfaction" refers to the attitudes and feelings people have about their work. This notwithstanding, there is also the possibility that people may not always be satisfied due to situations and circumstances at the work place or with the work itself, thereby making them to be dissatisfied with the work they do. In the light of this, Armstrong (2006) posits that an individual's positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction whereas negative and unfavourable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction.

Furthermore, Aziri (2011) asserts that most definitions cover the affective feeling an employee has toward his or her job which could be the job in general or their attitudes towards specific aspect of it. For instance, it could be relationships with colleagues and supervisors, salary or working conditions and or the extent to which work outcomes meet or exceed expectations in the workplace. All of these and others are seeming factors that may determine the level of job satisfaction an employee may have in his or her work. Nonetheless, job satisfaction is not only about how much an employee enjoys work. It could as well be one's dissatisfaction in the job. Consequently, according to Aziri (2011, p.78), "Job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that workers have towards their work."

Many Authors also hold various views concerning job satisfaction. Generally, the central view holds that an increase in job satisfaction increases worker productivity, while job dissatisfaction decreases employee productivity. For instance, Job satisfaction is viewed as an emotional state in

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which a person perceives various features of his/her work or the work environment (Wright & Cropanzano, 1997; Robbins, 2001; Shikdar & Das, 2003). Locke (1976) indicated that job satisfaction most commonly affects a person's physical health, mental health and social life. In addition, Rain, Lane and Steiner (1991) observed that job satisfaction is connected to life satisfaction, whereby people who are satisfied with their occupation may tend to be happy with their lives as well, and the inverse also holds. Coster (1992) is also of the view that work could have positive effect on people's lives. Undoubtedly, job satisfaction has a major effect on people's lives.

Additionally, Breed and Breda (1997) indicated that job satisfaction may result in absenteeism, complaints, and labour unrest. Undoubtedly, satisfied workers may be much more productive and be retained within the organisation for a longer period. Conversely, dissatisfied employees may be ineffective and may have a greater tendency to quit their jobs (Crossman, 2003).

Statt (as cited in Aziri, 2011) sees job satisfaction as the extent to which a worker is content with the rewards he or she gets out of his or her job, particularly in terms of intrinsic motivation. It can also be explained as a worker's sense of achievement and success on the job which is generally perceived to be directly linked to productivity as well as to personal well-being (Kaliski as cited in Aziri, 2011). Brown and Sargeant (2007) assert that though extensive research had been done in the area, there are still some major controversies as to what the real factors that contribute to workers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction at the workplace are. They assert that while some findings have suggested that individuals are intrinsically motivated by factors, such as

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achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement that they find in doing job-related tasks. Other studies highlight the dominance of extrinsic factors, such as salary, company policies, and administrative as well as supervisory practices as important means of motivating employees (Hackman & Oldman; Herzberg; Butler; Gruenburg; Seybolt as cited in Brown & Sargeant, 2007).

Aziri (2011) further observes that Job satisfaction is under the influence of several factors so when having the discourse about factors of job satisfaction it should also be kept in mind that the same factors can also cause job dissatisfaction. The premise, therefore, is that in measuring job satisfaction one could either be satisfied or dissatisfied. Koustelios (2001), therefore, asserts that lower level of job satisfaction is directly associated with lower level of life satisfaction and has an effect on an individual's life. When individuals become dissatisfied with their job, the logical consequence is either they consider quitting their job or their productivity level consciously or unconsciously decreases, which adversely affect the individual and the institution at large.

Empirical Review

A number of studies on work stress among teachers at the various level of the education ladder have been carried out and the literature shows that teacher stress is a real phenomenon. Stress is a subject which is hard to avoid. The specific stress experienced by people often depends on the nature and demands of the setting in which they live. Teachers, engineers, doctors, managers and people in other professions experience different types of stress, and at different degrees or levels. Work-related stress among teachers is not

only limited to Ghana but is a worldwide issue which governments as well as management of educational institutions need to be aware of by noting the factors that possibly lead to stress so as to take necessary steps towards stress reduction. Most of what is known about stress among university workers is derived from several international research works although there are in existence a few local works. According to Omoniyi (2013), there is strong evidence that the higher education sector workforce particularly represent the vulnerable occupation group when it comes to occupational stress.

Sources of Work-related Stress

Stress experienced by university lecturers as opined by Blix and Mitchell (2004) was directly related to limited resources or time shortage and other causes, such as slow career advancement, inadequate salaries and poor faculty communication. The literature also identified additional sources of academic pressure to include heavy workload, role ambiguity, conflicting work demands, frequent interruptions and striving for publications (Goldenburg & Wadell as cited in Omoniyi, 2013). According to Travers and Cooper (as cited in Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, Donald, Taylor, & Millet, 2005), the amount of stress a person experiences at work is likely to be as a result of the interplay of factors, such as the type of occupation, the presence of work stressors, the amount of support they receive both at work and home, and the coping mechanisms they use to deal with stress. They noted, for example, that in the teaching profession, teachers experience stress from work overload.

Similarly, a study conducted in Croatia by Slickovic, and Maslic Sersic (2011) aimed to investigate exposure to stress at work among university

teachers in Croatia. It was also to establish if there were differences between men and women as well as between positions. The study was carried out online and included a representative sample of 1,168 teachers. This included all teaching positions: assistants (50 %), assistant professors (18 %), associate professors (17 %), and professors (15 %). Fifty-seven percent of the sample was women. Six groups of stressors, namely, workload, material and technical conditions at work, relationships with colleagues at work, work with students, work organisation, and social recognition and status were measured. Sliskovic and Maslic Sersic (2011) found that teachers in higher education were exposed to high levels of occupational stress, more especially those holding middle positions and women in particular. The results indicated that Women reported greater stress than men. In relation to position, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors reported greater stress related to material and technical conditions of work and work organisation than assistants professors, who in turn, found relationships with colleagues a greater stressor. Professors, reported lower exposure to stress at work than associate professors and assistant professors.

Winefield and Jarrett (2001) conducted a study among staff members of an established Australian Metropolitan University. High levels of psychological stress were observed though trait anxiety and job satisfaction were normal. Psychological distress (stress) was highest and job satisfaction was lowest among academic staff engaged in both teaching and research. The general university staff reported high levels of autonomy and social support from colleagues. Those engaged in both teaching and research (lecturers), however, reported increased pressure arising from funding cuts to universities,

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resulting in heavier teaching loads and greater difficulty in securing research funds, as well as a decline in facilities and support for both teaching and research. According to Winfield et al. (2002), Australian university staff, particularly academic staff, were found to be highly stressed. Diminishing resources increased teaching loads, student-staff ratios, pressure to attract external funds, job insecurity, poor management and a lack of recognition and reward were some of the key factors driving the high level of stress among staff.

A study by Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, and Stough (2001) was carried out to understand stress experience of work-related stress, and perceptions of the sources of work-related stress, consequences and moderators of stress. The study constitutes the initial phase of a longitudinal investigation of occupational stress within Australian universities. Both non-academic and academic reported a substantial increase in stress during the previous 5 years. Gillespie et al. (2001) found that academics reported higher levels of stress than the non-academics. Five major stressors were identified. These were inadequate funding and resources, work overload, poor management practice, job insecurity, and inadequate recognition and reward. The majority of the participants reported that job-related stress was having an injurious impact on their professional work and personal welfare. Aspects of the work context, such as support from co-workers and management, recognition and achievement, high morale, and flexible working conditions, and personal coping strategies, such as stress management techniques, work and non-work balance, tight role boundaries and lowering standards, were reported to help cope with stress. The findings, according to Gillespie et al.

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(2001), provided a timely insight into the experience of stress within universities.

Hogan, Carlson, and Dua (2002) investigated stressors and stress reactions among university personnel in a large university in the United States (US). The participants of the study were administrative, teaching, and clerical support staff. A total of 831participants took part in the study. They found that work and non-work stress positively correlated with behavioural, cognitive, and physiological reactions to stress as well as with negative emotionality. Work and non-work stress also predicted meaningfully with medical symptoms; non-work stress also correlated with reported medical symptoms. Non-work stress also correlated at an appreciable level with reported medical utilisation. Social support did not generally buffer the effect of stress or reactions to stress. Hogan, Carlson, and Dua (2002) also found that support staff reported higher levels of non-work stress and lower levels of work-related stress, but that two measures of work stress did not differentiate administrative and instructional personnel. Younger staff (age 50 and below) reported higher levels of work and non-work stress while older staff (age 50 and above) reported less stress. There were no gender differences in reported work-related stress. However, female staff members reported higher levels of non-work stress than male staff, irrespective of job category.

Mayor (2015) evaluated gender roles and traits in stress and health. He observes that since stress impacts health considerably, the work focused on gender differences in stress and their explanations. He particularly asserts that social roles and gender traits explained part of the observed gender differences in health and stress. Mayor proposed socio-cognitive explanations of gender

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differences in health. This was shown by examining the magnitude of gender differences in health. It was found out that beyond biological considerations, there existed socio-cognitive explanations of gender differences in health and stress. The work further examined the literature on women's disadvantage in health and stress. Among the 30 most common diagnostic groups in primary care, 90% were more common in women than in men. Individuals' behaviour, their social environment, and genetic factors can cause women's health disadvantage. The environment explains part of the gender differences in health, and this might be mediated by stress. Women and men differ in their exposure and reactions to stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Kudielka et al., 2007). Women experience more chronic stressors than men (McDonough & Walters, 2001; Matud, 2004) and women, according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), consider stressors as more threatening than men. It was revealed that that gender roles and traits, more especially masculinity, explained part of the gender differences in stress, more specifically, cognitive appraisal and coping. Stress in turn deteriorates health. In sum, Mayor (2015) posits that traditional socialisation was advantageous for men in terms of health.

Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008) carried out a cross-sectional survey on a sample of 595 participants with the objectives, among others, to identify the indicators of occupational stress of academic staff in South African higher education institutions, and to investigate whether occupational stressors predict ill-health. The study reported higher levels of stress relating to pay and benefits, overload and work-life balance. Analysis of variance revealed differences between the levels of occupational stress and ill-health of demographic groups. Two stressors, namely, overload and work-life balance

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contributed, significantly to ill-health of academics. To this end, with the accumulated evidence that job stress leads to adverse health outcomes, in the academia, more equitable reward systems may reduce the high levels of stress academics experience regarding pay and benefits. Additionally, as excessive workload also plays a central role in the process that may lead to stress and health related issues, reducing workload seems warranted.

A study by Masuku and Muchemwa (2015) was carried out to explore stress levels, symptoms, and common stressors for lecturers at Solusi University in Zimbabwe. Thirty-six (36) full-time lecturers were used for the study. Findings revealed that most of the lecturers were stressed and others exhausted. The most common stressors were increased workloads, need to hit targets/deadlines, and long working hours respectively. Lecturers were heterogeneous in their response with regard to increased workloads. In its entirety though, there was no significant difference in responses in relation to gender, age, faculty, and workload.

Achibong, Bassey and Effiom (2010) sought to identify sources of stress among university academic staff of Cross River University of Technology, Nigeria with regard to 4 occupation-related areas- interpersonal relationships, research, teaching and career development, and to determine if gender difference existed in stress level of academics in the study variables. The sample consisted of 279 academic staff. Findings revealed that interpersonal relationship with students was the greatest source of stress to academic staff. With respect to research, sourcing funds for research was the highest source of stress. With regard to teaching, it was collation of results, while sourcing funds for career development was the highest with respect to

career development. Overall result showed that career development was the greatest source of stress to academic staff. The results also indicated that male and female academics differed in perceived stress level in teaching.

Adebiyi (2013) examined occupational stress among Ekiti State University academic staff. The purpose of the study was to investigate the occupation-related stress and also to know the influence of gender, faculty and experience on stress experience in lecturers. The findings revealed that gender and years of experience did not influence stress in lecturers, but that stress experiences varied from faculty to faculty. Similarly, Omoniyi (2013) carried out a research to determine sources of workplace stressors among university lecturers in south west Nigeria. It was revealed that lecturers experience stress. She found out several sources of stressors, such as academic experience, poor conferences/research incentives, state of lecturers' office accommodation, lack of facilities for research, students' project and thesis supervision, as inducing stress in lecturers in various degrees. With regard to gender and stress, Omoniyi (2013) found out that the level of perceived stress among male and female lecturers was not significantly different. High levels of stress may be attributed to individual vulnerability, work environment which may include organisational influences and the work itself, among other things, have the capability to negatively affect lecturers. The variable of gender differentiation could also bring stress, according to the findings.

Another study by Atindanbila (2011) examined perceived stressors that lecturers at the University of Ghana encounter in their work. Data were collected from four hundred and thirty-two (432) respondents involved in the study. Stressors, such as school environment, teaching load, and professional

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distress respectively were reported as main perceived stressors while administrative role was reported as the least perceived stressor. The study also brought to the fore that most of the lecturers had moderate stressors and that there was no difference in global stressors with regard to gender and faculty, though junior lecturers perceived more stressors than senior lecturers and professors. It was further revealed that all the five faculties experience similar levels of stressors.

Arthur (2016) investigated occupational stress among police officers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The study sought to examine factors that influence occupational stress among police officers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The study adopted a cross-sectional design using mixed method approach of research. The study revealed that majority of the police officers considered the organisational aspects of their work as more stressful as compared to the physical hazards associated with their work. Notable among these stressors were lack of accommodation for personnel, performing two or more responsibilities at the same time, inadequate or using poor quality equipment, public criticism and "never off duty". Findings revealed that the most commonly used coping strategies by the police officers in the study were, doing what has to be done one step at a time, and thinking about how best to handle a problem. Findings also revealed that age, gender, rank, and years of service had no significant differences on perceived work-related stress among police officers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. However, findings showed that marital status and educational levels of participants had significant differences on perceived level of stress among participants.

Issah, Abubakari and Wuptiga (2015) researched into the state of academic facilities and its influence on teachers' job stress in Tamale Polytechnic. Results of hypothesis tested showed that status of school facilities influence teacher job stress significantly. This shows that not only the work itself but the work environment as well is capable of imposing stress on lecturers. Hence, inadequate or complete lack of academic facilities may not only impair academic productivity, but exert undue stress on teachers and available facilities.

Asonaba and Yankyera (2015) researched into how female teachers managed stress and teacher burnout. The study was carried out in the West Akim Municipality of Ghana. The study aimed at exploring the causes, effects, and ways of improving work-related stress for better standard of education. Twenty-five female teachers were selected from eighteen primary and junior high schools through purposive sampling technique for the study. The study employed descriptive cross-sectional survey design. The study revealed that the stress level of the female teachers was high. Work over-load and interpersonal relationship were found to be the main causes of stress of the female teachers. It was also found out that majority of the female teachers strongly agreed that stress made them perform below standard. This brings into focus the issue of imbalance between demand and response capacity when it comes to individuals and work. The person-environment fit theory is, therefore, at work in this regard since, according to Meyer and Dale (2010), if the fit between the individual and his or her environment is incompatible, stress results. In the same vein, lack of fit between the demands placed on individual and his or her ability to meet the demands can result in stress.

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Kusi, Mensah and Gyaki (2014) researched on work-related stress among academic staff of the Winneba campus of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. A sequential explanatory mixed-method design was used for the study. The study sampled 65 lecturers. According to the findings, excessive workload was one of the major stressors among academic staff. Lecturers' experience of stress was also attributed to large class size and students' research project supervision. The resulted concern was stress related ill-health of the academic staff. It could be observed that university lecturers' work is such that every aspect of it is prone to emit stress. It is, therefore, not surprising that Kusi et al. (2014, p.23) put the situation blatantly as, "indeed, lecturers are dying as lecturers continually work under increasing pressure to meet targets set by the university."

Kusi, Robertson and Danso-Mensah (2019) explored the causes and effects of stress among senior staff administrators at the University of Education, Winneba (Winneba Campus), Ghana. The study employed the mixed method approach. The findings revealed that excessive workload, time pressures, bureaucracy in processing of documents and difficulty in approaching bosses were among the causes of stress to the administrators. The study further revealed that the administrators experienced some health-related problems due to stress.

Ember and Ember (as cited in Safaria, Othman, & Wahab, 2012) argue that scientists should not draw their conclusions based on only data drawn from one culture and generalise it to another culture of a different condition from the culture where data was taken. This opinion was reiterated by Rafaei and Rahman as well as Matsumoto and Juang (as cited in Safaria et al., 2012)

who posited that the major reason cross-cultural study is essential to use it to test theories in non-western culture. According to them, many East Asian countries have different values, beliefs, norm and attitudes and these conditions may raise concerns about the universal application of western theories in non-western culture. Based in this observation Safaria, Othman and Wahab (2012) examined the effect of gender, academic rank, employment status, and university type on job stress among university academics in cross-cultural settings. The aim of the study was to investigate the effect of gender, academic rank, employment status, and university type of academics on perceived job stress in two nations: Pahang in Malaysia, and Jogjakarta in Indonesia.

The results indicated that gender, university type, and academic status were predictors of job stress in Pahang and Jogjakarta sample. For instance, gender was found to have had influence on job stress. The results revealed that women academics in both the Pahang and Jogjakarta groups had a higher job stress level than male academics. Female academics experienced had higher job stress level than male academics. Safaria et al. (2012) linked the rationale behind such revelation to the theory of differential exposure stress hypotheses which states that women experience more stress in their lives than men. Women are said to be more prone and vulnerable to stress and psychological tension than men. Safaria et al. (2012) attributed this to the fact women carry more burdens and bear difficulties and hardship in the workplace and in their family than men.

Concerning academic rank tested in the study, there was a significant difference in the level of job stress based on academic rank of participants in

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either group. The results, thus, showed that rank of academics had an effect on the level of perceived level of job stress. A teacher with lower academic status was more stressful than the one with higher academic status because each rank had different workload level. These differences in workload have implications on strain and tension in daily work demands of academics.

Also, in the study, employment status of academics had an effect on job stress especially in the Jogjakarta sample but not in the Pahang sample. Another demographic variable that affected job stress was the university type where academics worked. It was found that academics who worked in private university had the higher job stress level than academics who worked in public university. This effect happened in Pahang sample and Jogjakarta sample. This, according to Safaria et al. (2012), may be as a result of the quantum of workload, organisational culture, task diversity, and lecturer-student ratio difference between the public and private universities. In general, the finding showed that all predictors had effect on job stress experienced by academics in the two countries.

Rauschenbach, Krumm, Thielgen, and Hertel (2013) conducted both a literature review and a meta-analysis of age and indicators of work-related stress which aimed to address age differences in the experience of work-related stress (irritation). They argued that the ongoing demographic changes in many industrialised countries affected managerial decisions in many ways, and require sound knowledge of systematic age differences in central work-related variables. The paper was based on life-span approaches, and the focus was on age differences in different components of the work-related stress

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process, and meta-analysis existing empirical studies on the relationship between age and short-term indicators of work-related stress.

According to Rauschenbach et al. (2013), the study was the first meta-analysis on the relationship between age and short-term consequences of work-related stress. The literature review revealed that age might affect several components of the stress process at work. However, as these effects were partly conflicting, they might nullify each other in the overall relation between age and stress. The meta-analysis showed no general correlation between age and irritation as a short-term indicator of work-related stress. Rather, the relationship was significantly moderated by type of occupation and gender.

Akinmayowa and Kadiri (2014) investigated the factors associated with stress among academic staff in a Nigerian university. It was to ascertain if there was significant difference between stress and selected socio-dynamic variables of academics staff. Data were collected from 313 randomly selected academic staff from a research population of 1,442. Findings revealed that all tested variables: academic workload, student-related issues, research and career development, interpersonal relationship and administrative-related issues were significantly associated with stress among academic staff. The results further revealed no significant difference in the level of stress among academic staff with respect to gender, age, teaching experience and academic rank or status. Significant difference was, however, observed in the level of stress among academic staff with respect to marital status. The study recommended, among others, that the university authority should establish an

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Employee Assistance Programme (EAP) to provide professional services and assistance to academic staff suffering from stress-related problems.

Sindhu (2014) examined stressors among college teachers. He observed that individuals of different designation or status have different attitudes with regard to stress and coping strategies. As such, it was important to analyse the responses of participants according to their designation or status. On this basis, teachers were classified into three categories, namely, associate professors, assistant professors and lecturers. Sindhu (2014) used 200 teachers for the study. Associate professors were 80 (40%), assistant professors were 92 (46 %), and lectures were 28 (14%). The results revealed that 86% of the participants were under the pressure of work stress, 56% of the participants were under the pressure of role stress, 59.5% of the participants were under the pressure of personal development stress, 74% were under the pressure of interpersonal relationship stress and 47.5% participants were under the pressure of organisational climate stress. Sindhu (2014), therefore, concluded that majority of the participants were under the pressure of work stressors as the mean scores showed that the most influencing stress factor was work stressors (M = 3.66) followed by interpersonal relationship stressors (M = 3.23), personal development stressors (M = 3.13), role stressors (M = 2.90) and organisational climate stressors respectively. The tested hypothesis showed a significant difference between designation and stressors. The findings indicated that the college teachers were most affected by work stress. It was, therefore, recommended that the teachers should adapt coping strategies to overcome the stress.

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Shkembi, Melonashi, and Fanaj (2015) investigated workplace stress among teachers in Kosovo. The study aimed to identify age and gender-related patterns of workplace stress as well as examine the role of marital status, educational level, and working experience in a sample of Kosovo teachers. The study also examined different types of stressors reported by teachers. Results showed that 33.2% (265) participants reported high levels of stress. Workplace stress was significantly predicted by place of residence and level of education, but not age, gender, marital status, or working experience. As regards the specific stressors, the most frequently reported were inadequate wages (36.8%), physical working environment (30.1%), and undisciplined students (26.2%).

Also, out of all specific stress-related factors, level of education and place of residence were the only significant predictors. More specifically, findings on level of education showed that lower levels of education were related to higher stress. Shkembi et al. (2015) posited that a possible explanation could be that a lower level of education might make it more difficult to successfully manage some challenges of the teaching role. They, however, suggested their claim should be tested in further research as results actually showed no differences in the types of stressors by level of education.

Shkembi et al. (2015) further investigated whether place of residence would predict stress. Their results showed that teachers from rural areas reported higher levels of stress as compared with those from urban areas. Undisciplined students and lack of respect from supervisors were suggested as two of the main stressors. These findings suggest that it might be particularly important to further assess context-specific stressors in rural areas, as it

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seemed teachers in those contexts were faced with peculiar challenges different from those in urban areas. Although the other variables did not significantly contribute to the predictive model of stress, they showed significant correlations with stress levels. For instance, results showed higher stress levels among older participants. The strongest stressors reported in the older age groups were unclear responsibilities, physical working environment, and inadequate wages. Also because older age and experience go together, older teachers might think they deserve higher wages due to their greater working experience. The researchers also reported unsuitable physical environment seems to be a greater burden for older rather than younger teachers (Shkembi et al., 2015).

According to Shkembi et al. (2015), teachers with more working experience reported inadequate wages and work overload as significant stressors. In terms of gender, results showed no significant differences in stress levels, thus, men and women did not differ significantly in reported stress levels. In addition, both men and women did not differ in terms of the specific stressors they reported. This suggested that there was no gender disparity in the appraisal of stressors in the working environment. Shkembi et al. (2015) concluded that the three top rated stressors reported by teachers were inadequate wages, the physical working environment, and undisciplined students. These results, they observed, had clear implications for research informed policies in Kosovo, which should aim towards improving performance by reducing levels of stress and improving overall quality of life among teachers.

Ekienabor (2016) examined the impact of job stress on employees' productivity and commitment. The study sought to investigate the impact of job stress on employees' productivity and commitment among academic staff of Nigeria universities. The major findings of the study were that job stress had an impact on the productivity of employees. Workers reported that they were not too happy with their working environment. The study also found that there was an impact of job stress on employees' commitment. Employees felt uncared for by the institution. The results showed that there was equally an impact of job stress on the productivity of employees. Ekienabor (2016) posits that employee job performance diminishes when higher level of stress exists with no managerial concern for solution. Existence of higher stress level among workers eventually leads to loss of skilled employees which also affects organisational reputation. These situations, he added, call for immediate concern from Management to employ effective stress management practices to increase employee satisfaction and overall employee performance.

Burman and Goswami (2018) carried out a systematic review of literature on work stress. The paper reviewed a total of 203 research papers from different authors of different countries from 1997 to 2017. The research papers were classified on the basis of year of publication, author profile, research methodology, country of research and type of industry. The studies showed that impact of work stress not only affect the physical and psychological state of employees, but also affect their job performance and productivity. It also revealed that work stress had an adverse impact on workers' health and they suffer from different diseases, such as coronary heart disease, blood pressure, depression, anxiety, and nervousness. Burman and

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Goswami (2018) came up with the following observations. They observed that large number of study has been conducted on work stress but little has been done to reduce the stress. It has also been observed that proper coping mechanism and tools were not being used to reduce the stress. They further stated that those mechanisms could only be read in the researched papers.

Yikealo, Tareke, and Karvinen (2018) investigated the level of stress among College of Education students in Eritrea Institute of Technology. The study sampled 123 participants from the institution. The study was a descriptive one and it assessed five domains of stress namely, physiological, psychological, social, academic, and environmental. The results showed a moderate level of stress among students. Among the domains that were assessed, academic and environmental stressors were found contributing most to the students' level of stress. The findings also indicated that a student's gender and grade points average level had no statistical significant association with students' levels of stress.

Edwards and Rothbard (1999) conducted a study in some universities in the United States and used person–environment fit theory to examine how the comparison of work and family experiences to the person's values relates to stress and well-being. Data were collected from 1,758 employees to assess fit regarding autonomy, relationships, security, and segmentation for both work and family, and examined the relationship of fit with work and family satisfaction, anxiety, depression, irritation, and somatic symptoms. In general, well-being improved as experiences increased towards values and improved to a lesser extent as experiences exceeded values. Wellbeing was also higher when experiences and values were both high than when both were low. These

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relationships were generally strongest for within-domain fit and well-being (i.e., work fit and work satisfaction, family fit and family satisfaction), and several relationships were moderated by work and family centrality.

Van Vianen (2018) reviewed the basic tenets of Person-Environment Fit theory. The review addressed the following three basic principles of person–environment fit theory: (*a*) The person and the environment together predict human behaviour better than each of them does separately, (*b*) outcomes are most optimal when personal attributes (e.g., needs, values) and environmental attributes (e.g., supplies, values) are compatible, irrespective of whether these attributes are rated as low, medium, or high, and (*c*) the direction of misfit between the person and the environment does not matter. The review of person–job and person–organisation fit research of Van Vianen (2018) that used polynomial regression to establish fit effects provided mixed support for the explanatory power of fit. She asserts that individuals report most optimal outcomes when there is fit on attributes they rate as highest, and they report lowest outcomes when the environment offers less than they need or desire.

Zvada and Thomas (2019) researched into causes and implications of stress among academic staff: A case of the Catholic University in Zimbabwe. The study investigated stress management and coping mechanisms employed by members of the academic staff at Catholic University in Zimbabwe. The study employed a descriptive survey research design and 50 academics were sampled through the use of convenient sampling technique. It adopted questionnaires and structured interview to obtain the relevant data for the study. Zvada and Thomas (2019) found academic staff members in

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Zimbabwean universities were experiencing high levels of occupational stress. They found out that the percentage of academic staff showing signs of stress were high and this affected their motivation. It was also revealed that heavy workload, poor motivation strategies, lack of funding, long working hours and poor working conditions were the main drivers of stress among faculty members. The study also found that other stressors among academics also included poor remuneration, high student-lecturer ratio, poor balance of home and work pressure, not engaging in recreation or leisure activities and long hours of working. The findings of the study further showed that there was the need to reduce workload of university lecturers in Zimbabwe, particularly at the Catholic University. Zvada and Thomas (2019) also found out that stress was related to age as it was more prevalent among academic staff that were 56 years old and above.

Work-related Stress and Coping Strategies

Safaria (2013) conducted a qualitative study with the aim of exploring the sources of job stress and type of coping strategies among academic staff from two countries, namely: Pahang, Malaysia and Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The researcher used qualitative design and phenomenology technique to conduct the study. The interview data was transcribed and the researcher analysed it based on categories, themes, and coding. The study involved 22 academics. The finding confirmed that job stress was still a problem among academician in their day-to-day work activities. Work activities of academics more often created and stimulated stress reactions (Safaria, 2013). The study found seven stressors categorised into: (1) inadequate role occupancy, (2) increasing work demands, (3) deficient role preparedness, (4) insufficient role

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support, (5) role ambiguity, (6) role conflict and (7) work-family conflict. There were four responses of stress that was shown by university academics, namely: (1) behavioural responses, (2) emotional responses, (3) cognitive responses, and (4) physiological responses. Participants gave the following reasons for being in the teaching profession: (1) being a lecturer was a life choice, (2) teaching being a noble work, (3) could share knowledge with others, (4) love for the profession, and (5) the joy to teach students. According to Safaria (2013), participants used problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping, seeking social support, using religious coping, and making meaning of strategies to manage work-related stress.

Kataoka, Ozawa and King (2014) sought to investigate occupational stress and its related factors among university teachers in Japan. Results indicated that university teachers had some mental health problems in relation to gender, professional position, conditions of taking paid leave, job satisfaction, job control, social support, and coping skills. The results also indicated that ineffective coping styles lead to poor mental health.

Misigo (2015) investigated gender influence on perceived stress level and coping strategies of under graduate university students in Kenya. The sample comprised (97 male and 90 female) students drawn from three public universities in the western part of Kenya. This study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design. Results showed a significant difference in the stress mean scores of male students and female students. Female students reported higher stress levels than male students. Female participants also reported positive stress coping skills, such as seeking help from counsellors and

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friends, while male participants reported negative coping strategies such as taking alcohol and using drug.

Mohamed and Mohamed (2016) as well conducted a study in four females' colleges at Hafr al-Batin University in Saudi Arabia to investigate the factors causing occupational stress and coping strategies among the academicians. Ninety-one (91) academic staff, comprising professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, and instructors were used for the study. Moderate level of occupational stress was reported among the academics. The most predominant coping strategies of physical stress were found to be walking, setting priorities, eating a balanced diet and taking time for rest, as well as praying, thinking positively, going for shopping and talking to someone to manage psychological stress.

Anbumalar, Dorathy, Jaswanti, Priya, and Reniangelin (2017) carried out a study to investigate whether there is a relationship between perceived stress level and coping strategy and also gender differences in the perceived levels of stress and stress coping strategies among college students in Chennai. Findings regarding gender and stress coping strategies revealed that male participants significantly differed from those of female. Specifically, females reported higher feelings of anxiety, fear, crying, depression and blaming self as reactions to stressors than males, while males reported higher use of anger, smoking and thinking more about finding ways to solve the problem. Results also showed a significant relationship between perceived stress level and coping strategy. Also, female students reported higher levels of perceived stress than their male peers. The argument advanced by Nolen-Hoeksema (1990) that women face a number of burdens in everyday life as a result of

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social status and roles relative to men and these strains contribute to higher stress, perhaps could explain the findings.

Yikealo and Tareke (2018) equally investigated stress coping strategies among College of Education students in Eritrea Institute of Technology, Mainefhi. A self-developed college students coping strategies scale which entailed 15 items was used to collect data from participants. The results showed that students used more positive stress coping strategies than negative ones. The findings also revealed that there was no statistically significant relationship between gender and the stress coping strategies.

Haseeb and Sattar (2018) carried on a qualitative study with the purpose of exploring the causes of workplace stress among university teachers in Pakistan and the strategies they used to handle the stress. The study used the narrative approach. Semi-structured interviews were conducted from a sample of 12 university teachers, representing three public universities of Lahore. All the participants were male faculty members and the range of their age was 40-57. The study indicated workload, long duration of work hours, lack of professional development, role conflict, unsupportive university administration, lack of resources, and inappropriate behaviour from students as the major causes of job stress among university teachers. Out of these stressors the teachers reported that the major source of workplace stress was workload. Participants also revealed, as reported by Haseeb and Sattar (2018), that they had too much workload because of the supervision of post graduate degree research works. The teachers further stated bad administration and management of university as cause of stress. It was also reported that low social status of teachers in society causes them stress. The teachers indicated a

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number of coping strategies they used to cope with job stress. According to Haseeb and Sattar (2018), though the teachers indicated that they did not get a formal training in how to cope with work stress, they reported that they tried to mitigate stress by attending seminars, listening to motivational speeches, and spending extra time in the office in order to finish their work.

Furman, Joseph, and Miller-Perrin (2018) examined the relationship between perceived stress, coping strategies, and the health indicators of sleep and nocturnal BP dipping in a college sample. Participants included 131 students, 60.3% of which were women. Participants completed the Perceived Stress Scale, Brief COPE, Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index, a sleep diary, and wore an ambulatory BP monitor for 24 hours. According to Furman et al. (2018), linear regression demonstrated that controlling for economic status, perceived stress, and maladaptive coping were significantly associated with poorer sleep quality. Maladaptive and adaptive coping, however, did not moderate the association between perceived stress and poor sleep quality. There were no significant associations between stress and coping and nocturnal BP dipping.

Zvada and Thomas (2019) researched into causes and implications of stress among academic staff: A case of the Catholic University in Zimbabwe. The study investigated stress management and coping mechanisms employed by members of the academic staff at Catholic University in Zimbabwe. The study employed a descriptive survey research design and 50 academics were sampled through the use of convenient sampling technique. It adopted questionnaires and structured interview to obtain the relevant data for the study. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse data gathered

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from participants to compare relationships among variables. Zvada and Thomas (2019) found, among other things, that academics experienced stress related disorders. Most stress related disorders experienced by the faculty members of the university were sleeping problems, feeling overwhelmed, fatigue and various pains, including headaches. Findings further indicated poor interpersonal relationships, work overload, poor conditions of service, large class size, and lack of professional development as the major stress emitting sources among academic staff.

Faculty members, according to Zvada and Thomas (2019), adopted coping strategies, such as confronting, distancing themselves, church-going, seeking social support, accepting responsibility, escaping/ avoidance, planned problem-solving and positive reappraisal to manage the stressful situation they find themselves. The structured interview interaction sought to inquire from interviewees the best ways of coping with stress and the responses given included, exercising, attending church, time management, recreation, which most felt included drinking alcohol with friends, and spending time with positive people and family. The study established a positive relationship between causes of stress and the coping strategies of stress. The study, therefore, recommended training of staff in stress coping mechanisms and creating awareness of activities that mitigated stress as many academic staff members were unaware of stress coping mechanisms (Zvada & Thomas, 2019).

Amponsah, Adasi, Mohammed, Ampadu and Okrah (2020) researched on stressors and coping strategies: The case of teacher education students at University of Ghana. This research examined the stressors that teacher

education students of the University of Ghana usually encounter and the coping strategies that they frequently use. The study sampled 270 second and third year undergraduate students for the 2018/2019 academic year. The findings of the research revealed that 'working to meet scholastic requirements", "inadequate supply of power and water in halls", and "changes in eating and sleeping habits", were three major stressors experienced by teacher education students. Furthermore, learners utilised numerous approaches, such as praying or meditating, and self-diverting actions as coping strategies. Learners also used more adaptive coping strategies, than maladaptive and avoidance coping strategies. Overall, resident students were found to be more stressed than non-resident students. Also, the study showed that resident students were more prayerful and easily got help and advice from lecturers or teaching assistants but deeply averse with substance abuse, such as using tobacco/alcohol/drug to feel better compared with their non-resident counterparts (Amponsah et al., 2020).

Work-related Stress and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a psychological attribute of the worker which he or she enjoys and makes him or her feels good. It is observed that the level of employee's job satisfaction is determined by four main groups of factors. These factors are intrinsic and extrinsic, personal attributes and work environment. These include the pay, working hours, managerial styles, job design, stress and various demographic factors (Shaju & Subhashini, 2017). Zafirovski (as cited in Shaju & Subhashini, 2017) is equally of the view that factors that may affect workers' job satisfaction are, economic aspects, interpersonal relations, working conditions and personal fulfillment.

Zafirovski asserts that the discourse that employee satisfaction improves service quality is grounded on the theory of equity in social exchanges which involve a series of interactions to generate obligations that are unspecified. Spector (1997) opines that since job satisfaction is an indication of psychological wellness, job satisfaction has high relevance for organisations. An individual's expectations and his or her actual accomplishments determine whether the person may or may not be satisfied in the job. Job satisfaction is, therefore, an outcome of employee's observation of how healthy his or her work provides those things that are considered significant. This found its root in the two-factor theory developed by Herzberg et al. (1957). The factors are intrinsic and extrinsic. Under this theory, intrinsic factors are considered as motivators or satisfiers and extrinsic factors as hygiene factors as dissatisfiers.

Ogunlana, Okunlaya, Ajani, Okunoye, Oshinaike (2013) investigated the indices of job stress and job satisfaction among academic librarians in selected federal universities in South West Nigeria. The study revealed that the mean scores for satisfaction were low for workplace characteristics. It further showed that female librarians had significantly lower job satisfaction as compared to their male counterparts and a positive correlation was found between job satisfaction and librarians' job stress. The findings also revealed that majority of the librarians had low job satisfaction level and higher levels of job stress.

Ahsan, Abdullah, Fie, and Alam (2009) investigated the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction and the determinants of job stress that were examined under the study included management role, relationship with others, workload pressure, homework interface, role ambiguity, and

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performance pressure. The sample consists of public university academics from Klang Valley area in Malaysia. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between four of the constructs tested. The results further showed that there was a significant negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.

Dhuryana and Hussain (2018) studied the effect of job security and workload on job satisfaction of teachers among higher education institution in southern Punjab**.** They found a significant relationship between workload and job satisfaction and concluded that workload significantly influence job satisfaction. The study also found positive significant relationship between job security and job satisfaction. This finding was confirmed by Dachapalli and Parumasur (2012) that opinion of high job security is linked to frequency to increase the level of job satisfaction among staff. The logical explanation to this could mean that when employees' opinion on job security is low, they constantly live in fear of losing their job any moment, thereby making them not to enjoy the work they do.

Shaju and Subhashini (2017) did an exploratory research which sought to discover how the dimensions of job satisfaction are significantly related to the job performance of an employee. Data were collected from employees working in Automobile industry, Punjab having experience of above or below 10 years, so as to ensure relatively accurate responses on performance evaluation at different groups of employees in the Automobile Industry. The sample size of 250 participants was used for the study. The result showed a positive correlation between the dimensions of job satisfaction and performance of workers at both supervisors and workers levels working in the

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Automobile Industry. The implication here is that when employees are satisfied with their work content and the work context, their work performance is enhanced, all other things being equal.

Surveys in some institutions in Britain on workplace stress among university workers had showed causes and consequences of occupational stress and job dissatisfaction as common features of academic life. For example, investigation into work attitude brought to light university staff being considerably more demoralised than twenty (20) other occupational groups investigated. Academics were reported to have indicated feeling less valued by their employers and reported lower levels of satisfaction and job security than other groups. Over fifty percent (50%) of respondents surveyed indicated that their jobs stressed them most of the time. Similarly, unsatisfactory management practices were cited as the most cause of work-related stress. Furthermore, 58% of academics apportioned blame to management for the stress they experienced (Anthony, as cited in Omoniyi, 2013).

A cross-sectional study was carried out on 1,210 Chinese university teachers in Northeast Region of China by Pan, Shen, Liu, Yang and Wang (2015) to find out factors associated with job satisfaction among them. Hierarchical linear regression analysis revealed that turnover intention, occupational stress and chronic disease had negative impacts on job satisfaction, whereas perceived organisational support, psychological capital and higher monthly income were positively associated with job satisfaction among the university teachers. Respondents had a moderate level of job satisfaction. Demographic and working characteristics were associated factors

for job satisfaction. Perceived organisational support showed the strongest association with job satisfaction. The researchers concluded that improving the perceived organisational support might increase the level of job satisfaction for university teachers.

Abdul (2012) examined the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction: The case of Pakistan, Universities. The result indicated that no significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and overall occupational stress; inverse relationship was found between the occupational stress and overall job satisfaction in faculty members of private universities. There was however no relationship between occupational stress and overall job satisfaction in the case of male and female faculty members of the universities. The study also found that university teachers who were of younger age were more sensitive to occupational stress and job satisfaction than the older ones.

Also, Ofeke, Oginiyi and Chia (2016) employed a cross sectional survey with the objective to analyse occupational stress, work environment and job embeddededness as predictors of job satisfaction. Data were collected from 300 female teaching employees of Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki in South-Eastern Nigeria. Result revealed a positive prediction between occupational stress, work environment and job embeddedness on employee's job satisfaction.

In the study carried out by Bennet and Bamini (2013) which sought to investigate occupational stress among the university academics of Ghana, 100 respondents were used and the following findings were reached. The associations were discussed in the context of occupational variables (job

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satisfaction, job involvement, job commitment, job environment, and job ambiguity) and occupational stress. Job satisfaction and job involvement had a strong correlation. It was also found out that between job satisfaction and job commitment there was a significant relationship. Bennet and Bamini (2013) found a positive correlation with job involvement and job commitment. There was also a significant correlation with job involvement and environment. A positive significant correlation was found between job environment and job ambiguity. The above was observed by Bennet and Bamini (2013) as indicative of the fact that there was significant relationship between the observed variables and occupational stress thereby implying that majority of the variables had significant relationship with occupational stress.

Pimpong, Oti-Agyen, Kumah and Kyeremeh (2019) examined the levels of job satisfaction among staff of the College of Technology Education, Kumasi (COLTEK) of the University of Education, Winneba. The sample of 201 staff members were used for the study. The study found that staff of COLTEK was intrinsically than extrinsically satisfied with their work. Majority of participants were males but females were more satisfied than their male counterparts. It was found that a person's rank/position did not determine his or her level of job satisfaction level. In contrast, qualification determined the level of job satisfaction among participants. Thus, the higher the worker's qualification, the higher the level of job satisfaction they had. According to Pimpong et al. (2019), the findings further showed that age was not a determinant of workers' job satisfaction level. This is because dissatisfaction decreased as age increased up to a point, and then it heightened again. Also,

findings indicated that tenure did not determine the level of job satisfaction among staff.

Hoboubi, Choobineh, Ghanavati, Keshavarzi and Hosseini (2017) researched the impact of job stress and job satisfaction on workforce productivity in an Iranian Petrochemical Industry. The study investigated the job stress, job satisfaction, and workforce productivity levels, to examine the effects of job stress and job satisfaction on workforce productivity. It was also to identify factors associated with productivity decrement among employees of an Iranian petrochemical industry. Hoboubi et al. (2017) reported that the results indicated levels of employees' perceived job stress and job satisfaction were moderate-high and moderate, respectively. Also, their productivity was evaluated as moderate. The relationship between job stress and productivity indices was, however, not significant. There was a rather significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and productivity indices. The regression modeling demonstrated that productivity was associated significantly with shift schedule, the second and the third dimensions of job stress (role insufficiency and role ambiguity), and the second dimension of job.

Schulze (2006) examined factors influencing the job satisfaction of academics in higher education in South Africa. Variables measured included teaching, research, community service, administration, compensation, promotions, university management, co-workers' behaviour and physical conditions. Demographics characteristics that could influence job satisfaction of the academics were also considered. These were the university context, being employed on full-time or part-time basis, rank, ethnic group, union membership and gender. Schulze (2006) found that the academics were

positively inclined towards general job satisfaction. Respectively, job satisfaction had the highest correlation with physical conditions and support, research and other benefits the university offers. On the other hand, factors that caused dissatisfaction included government interference in teaching, poor quality of students' work, lack of time to do research, shortage of research assistants, uncertainty about how to do research and the quality of their research efforts, promotion criteria and politics surrounding promotion, time spent on administrative work, the amount of paperwork involved and the level of interaction at meetings, poor academic communication among colleagues, salaries in comparison with salaries outside the higher education system, lack of funding to attend conferences, and lack of recognition for work done within the institution (Schulze, 2006).

King and Steve (2014) investigated Age, Resilience, Well-Being, and Positive Work Outcomes and reported that Meta-analytic correlations have found that global job satisfaction was positively related with age. This they said held even in studies that had controlled for tenure. The findings indicated that older workers were more satisfied with their jobs than their younger counterparts for reasons other than just tenure. According to King and Steve (2014), there were many potential reasons for this positive relationship between age and job satisfaction. For example, older employees typically earned more than younger employees, and may be more likely to be in jobs that provided them with high levels of autonomy and flexibility. Processing Theory of Salancik and Pfeffer (as cited in King and Steve, 2014), is that higher satisfaction is a way to justify a long commitment to a job or career. The relationship between age and job satisfaction was a little less clear at the

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facet level of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was frequently broken into facets to cover the different domains of work.

Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011) examined what motivated employees in the retail industry, and examined their level of job satisfaction, using Herzberg's hygiene factors and motivators. In the study, convenience sampling was used to select sales personnel from women's clothing stores in Bandar Sunway shopping mall in the state of Selangor. Linear regression analysis was performed to test the relationship between Herzberg's motivation-hygiene factors and job satisfaction. Further analysis was performed to assess to what extent the love of money mediates the relationship between money and job satisfaction. The results showed that hygiene factors were the dominant motivators of sales personnel job satisfaction. Working conditions were the most significant in motivating sales personnel. Recognition was second, followed by company policy and salary. Teck-Hong and Waheed (2011) observed that there was the need to delve more deeply into why sales people place such a high importance on money. Based on the general test for mediation, the love of money could explain the relationship between salary and job satisfaction.

Rozman, Treven and Cancer (2017) investigated the differences between the motivation and satisfaction of employees from different age groups in the workplace. The paper was based on research including a survey of two age groups of employees in Slovenia. The Mann-Whitney U test was employed to verify differences in the motivation and satisfaction in the workplace between the two groups. Findings revealed that older employees were more motivated by flexibility in the workplace, autonomy at work, good

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interpersonal relationships in the workplace. Employees also reported being motivated by the possibility of working at their own pace, being respected among employees, and enjoying equal treatment regardless of their age. Rozman et al. (2017) reported that participants were more satisfied with interpersonal relationships in the company, their work, working hour and the distribution of work obligations, and facilitation of the self-regulation of the speed of work performed. They also observed that motivation and satisfaction of employees changed as individuals advanced in age. Using this information, managers and employers could apply appropriate measures to contribute to employees' well-being and better workplace performance, better working relationships with colleagues, higher productivity, and greater creativity (Rozman et al., 2017).

Mustapha (2013) conducted a study to examine the influence of interpersonal relationship and faculty workload on job satisfaction among academics in public universities in Malaysia. The researcher employed systematic random procedures to gather data were from 320 lecturers from four public universities in Kelantan, Malaysia. The result showed a positive significant correlation between interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction. It further showed that there was a moderately strong correlation between workers' workload and job satisfaction. It, thus, confirmed an inverse significant correlation between faculty workload and job satisfaction. Academics who felt they had a good balance between work and their private life were more satisfied with their works.

Mustapha and Ghee (2013) also examined faculty workload as antecedent of job satisfaction among academic staff of higher public education

in Kelantan, Malaysia. The study sought to test the influence of daily workload on job satisfaction. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test the relationship between the variables. The result indicated a positive significant relationship between interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction. However, daily workload and satisfaction was inversely correlated. It showed that there was moderately strong correlation between workers' daily workload and job satisfaction. This result showed clear evidence that there was an inverse significant correlation between faculty workload and job satisfaction. Lecturers who felt they had a good balance between work and their private life were more satisfied with their works.

Relating the above findings of the respective literature to this study, it could be hypothesised that lecturers' job could be stressful due to a number of variables or perceived stressors such as job environment, job ambiguity, job satisfaction, job involvement and the like. The teaching and learning environment, lecturers' commitment level, and excessive workload, among others, can affect their job satisfaction and these can greatly influence the attitude of lecturers, their productivity level, and students' learning. It could also be deduced that stress is human specific and even perceived stressors can as well be relative. In different work environments but similar occupation, there could be differences in what an individual perceives as stressors and his or her reactions to them. Furthermore, there is the indication that university lecturers' job is susceptible to stress. This is no exception to Kahn's assertion that certain occupations are noted to more likely involve emotional elements of work. This assertion presupposes that employees in such occupations are likely to be more susceptible to stress than those in occupations that do not

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require emotional display. Examples of employees whose works involve emotional display are nurses, social workers, teachers, prison officers and policemen, (Kahn, as cited in Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, Donald, Taylor, Millet, 2005).

Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework is a research tool intended to assist a researcher develop awareness and understanding of the situation under scrutiny and to communicate it. If conceptual framework is clearly articulated, it bears potential usefulness as a tool for enabling the researcher to make meaning of subsequent findings. Conceptual framework is, therefore, an abstract indication of how the basic concepts and constructs are expected to interact in the actual setting and the experiences that form the foundation of the research study (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). This study requires a model focused on the essential components on which data collection and analysis would be based. The study assumes that various aspects in a lecturer's assigned roles, for example, number of credit hours of teaching per week, number of students taught, and the related sub-roles (organisation of quizzes, marking of test papers, etc.), research work, administrative work (faculty and departmental headship, serving on committees) and community service, define his or her workload.

The study also assumes that there are factors that impact on job satisfaction. The existence of or lack of these factors may influence the quality of the lecturer's productivity. Also within the framework is the strategies used by lecturers to manage, reduce and cope with work stress. These, therefore, formed the key conceptual framework factors underlying this study.

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ACADEMIC WORKLOAD
- Teaching load
- Setting of exam question
- Marking scripts/assignments
- Projects/theses supervision
- Teaching practice supervision
- Administrative duties
- Carrying out research
- Community service activities

PERCEIVED STRESSORS
- Excessive workload
- Administrative duties
- Interpersonal relationship
- Home- work interface
- Working conditions
- Personal development
- Payment schemes
- Job security

COPING STRATEGIES
- Appraisal-focused
- Problem-focused
- Emotion-focused
- Social support

JOB SATISFACTION

Motivation & Hygiene factors

Figure 1- A Conceptual Framework of Academic Workload, Perceived Stressors, Coping Strategies and Job Satisfaction of Lecturers of UEW (Designed by Researcher)

Brief Explanation of the Key Variables of the Framework

Academic Workload: Academic or faculty workload is the totality of the day-to-day activities that constitute the university lecturer's work. Workload in the framework, therefore, constitutes the actual teaching load, setting of questions and marking/scoring of scripts/assignments, supervision of students' projects/theses, supervising students during pre-internship, internship, and post internship. It also includes on-campus teaching practice supervision and off-campus teaching practice supervision. In addition are interacting and counselling of students, carrying out research for publication. The academic workload furthermore includes performing administrative duties

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and carrying out community services. These then place heavy workload on lecturers. In relation to this, Omolawon (2010) observes that the work of a modern university lecturer demands working round the clock with multiple responsibilities of teaching, research and community service. Work overload has, thus, been reported as the most significant source of stress among the academic staff of higher institutions of learning. Sources of stress among academic staff of the university could either be external (environmental), internal (personal) or both. Academic workload of the university lecturer, therefore, has the capacity to emit a lot of stress if not well-managed. As such, this study deems it fit that it forms part of the conceptual framework hence its inclusion.

Perceived stressors: Anything that causes stress is termed a stressor. These stressors are all over the environment and they can have substantial damaging effect on mental and physical health. At the UEW lecturers perceive the following as stressors: Excessive workload, time constraints, students' disciplinary issues, family and work-life balance' role-conflict/ambiguity, unclear work appraisal system, administrative responsibilities, job security, inadequate instructional facilities, inadequate annual leave, time pressure and deadlines, teaching large class size, actual teaching load, students' project and thesis supervision, criteria used for promotion, state of lecturers' office, setting examination questions, marking, scoring and grading of students' papers, preparation of examination results, invigilation of examinations, lecture notes preparation, delays in remunerations, teaching practice supervision, and participation in university fund raising activities.

However, inasmuch as Kinman (1998) noted that stress is unavoidable in a person's life whether the stress is associated with their personal or work life, stressful activities and situations such as the above have the capability of undermining the achievement of goals, both for individuals and the institution. In a study such as this, it is appropriate to examine perceived stressors of the UEW lectures, hence having it as part of the framework underpinning the study.

Coping Strategies: Coping strategy concept forms part of the conceptual framework of this study. It provides tools for people who struggle with stressors or stressful situations to have an improved positive outlook so as to overcome or diminish the amount of stress experienced. Psychological and social support collectively serves a vital role to help manage stress. The perception or reality of care or assistance from others is vital to successful stress management. For instance, discussing how one feels about the pressure of work with colleagues, friends, and relatives, or consulting a counsellor for professional help are strategies that can mitigate stress. The appraisal-focused strategy involves an attempt to modify thought processes associated with stress by tying to alter the way one thinks about the problem and approach it differently. The problem-focused strategy involves taking direct action to alter the situation itself to reduce the quantum of stress it elicits. The emotion-oriented strategy involves modifying emotions accompanying stress perceptions by distracting and managing one's mental state. Attempts are made to reframe the problem in such a way that it no longer evokes a negative emotional response and elicits less stress. It also includes the use of indirect

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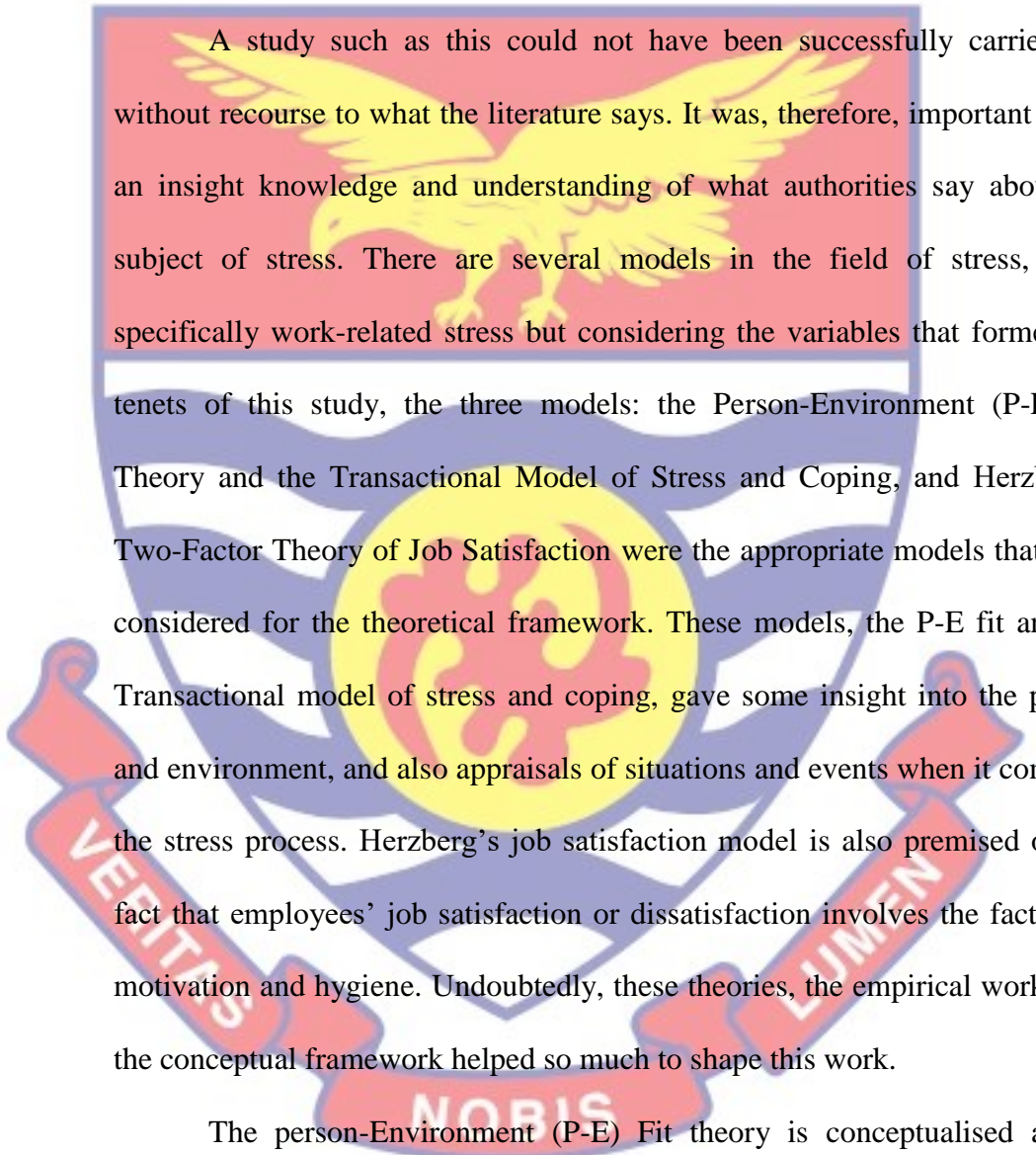
efforts to adjust to stressors by engaging in unrelated activities for the purpose of reducing feelings of stress.

Job Satisfaction: In every organisation there are issues and situation that can make employees to be satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. This study has, therefore, adapted Herzberg's Two Factor Theory on job satisfaction which he developed in 1959 as part of the constituent factors for the conceptual framework. The underlying concept of Herzberg's theory is the fact that in the work environment employees are under the influence of factors that cause job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Herzberg calls these hygiene factors and motivators. For instance, an employee's satisfaction or dissatisfaction in his or her work could arise as a result of perception that one is being treated fairly or not being treated fairly with regard to work policies, salaries, supervision, job security, recognition, and interpersonal relationship, status, achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibilities, potential for advancement, and possibility of growth, and so forth.

Chapter Summary

The study sought to investigate job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. Relevant related literature was reviewed. The review covered theoretical framework, conceptual review and empirical review. The conceptual framework was also developed. The theoretical framework that underpinned the study were the Person-Environment (P-E) Fit theory initially proposed by French, Rodgers, and Cobb in 1974, the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping developed by Lazarus and Folkman 1984 and Herzberg Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction developed in 1959.

Conceptual Review comprising overview of key variables in the study which were job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies, and which also formed the bases of the conceptual framework were expounded on in relation to the study. Stress is viewed as predominantly subjective in nature rather than an objective phenomenon.

A study such as this could not have been successfully carried out without recourse to what the literature says. It was, therefore, important to get an insight knowledge and understanding of what authorities say about the subject of stress. There are several models in the field of stress, more specifically work-related stress but considering the variables that formed the tenets of this study, the three models: the Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Theory and the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction were the appropriate models that were considered for the theoretical framework. These models, the P-E fit and the Transactional model of stress and coping, gave some insight into the person and environment, and also appraisals of situations and events when it comes to the stress process. Herzberg's job satisfaction model is also premised on the fact that employees' job satisfaction or dissatisfaction involves the factors of motivation and hygiene. Undoubtedly, these theories, the empirical works and the conceptual framework helped so much to shape this work.

The person-Environment (P-E) Fit theory is conceptualised as the interplay between the person and the environment as Dawis and Lofquist (1984) assert. The P-E concept has two components. The first is the degree of match or congruence between the demands people are confronted with at work and their abilities to meet those demands. The second is the match or

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congruent between the person's needs and the resources available to him or her (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Furthermore, according to Edwards, Caplan and Harrison (1998), the fundamental premise of P-E fit theory is that stress arises from misfit between the person and environment. The Person-Environment (P-E) Fit theory, therefore, postulates that strain and stress occur when there is a mismatch or incongruence between the person's needs and what they receive and are confronted with at work. In the light of this, Lazarus (1990) opines that for a comprehensive understanding of stress, all the necessary facets of the stress process which include key environmental and personal antecedents, intervening processes, indicators of immediate stress response, and the long-term consequences of stress for individuals and the workplace should be considered.

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping assumes that stress occurs as a result of series of transactions between the person, environment, and situations or events (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Hellhammer et al. (2009) are also of the view that the result of the transaction between the person and environment is capable of generating severe and persistent stress. According to Lazarus and Folkman (19984), the level of stress experienced depends on a person's appraisal of a situation or an event. This appraisal, Holroyd and Lazarus (1982) observe, involves a person's judgment of whether internal or external demands exceed resources and ability to cope when demands exceed resources and these are threatening to wellbeing. In relation to this, Lazarus (2001) observes two forms of appraisal. The primary appraisal is where the person acknowledges that there is something at stake. The individual then considers the significance of the encounter and evaluates it in terms of its

personal meaning. The secondary appraisal is where focus turns to what an individual can do about the situation (Lazarus, 1999). This, according to Lazarus (2001), is where the person evaluates the availability of coping resources to manage stress.

Job satisfaction was one of the key variables in this study. Herzberg's Two-factor theory of job satisfaction developed in 1959 formed the point of reference as far as the variable job satisfaction was concerned. According to the theory, two set of factors define working attitudes of employees and the level of their performance. Herzberg named the factors Motivation and Hygiene. The Motivation factors refer to intrinsic factors that increase job satisfaction while the Hygiene factors refer to extrinsic factors that prevent workers' or employees' dissatisfaction. The theory assumes that extrinsic factors do not necessarily contribute much to workers' motivation needs but the presence of such factors only prevent job dissatisfaction at the workplace. The extrinsic factors, also known as job context factors, are the external working conditions that help erase workers' feelings of dissatisfaction. Job dissatisfaction, therefore, arises when employers fail to provide for employees' extrinsic factor needs. The intrinsic factors, which are referred to as the job content factors, are the factors that actually contribute to workers' level of job satisfaction. These factors bring meaning to workers and propel them unto higher performance and productivity levels (Yousoff et. al., 2013).

The conceptual review under the literature review looked at academic workload, perceived stress, coping strategies and job satisfaction. Academic workload refers to all activities that are related to the professional duties and responsibilities of lecturers. Lecturers' job requirement, therefore, comprises

teaching and its related activities, research, and community service. Chipman-Johnson (2008) noted that workload goes beyond classroom teaching and teaching involves preparation, consultation with students, and evaluation of their work. It is clear that teaching load is an aspect of lecturers' academic workload. Hence, there is the need to define academic workload to embrace the broader details of the university lecturers' mandate of teaching, research and community service.   According to Chipman-Johnson (2008), the traditional evaluation of workload based on the number of contact or teaching hours taught is inadequate.

According to Lazarus (1990), perceived stress is a condition subjectively experienced by an individual who identifies an imbalance between demands addressed to him or her and the resources available to encounter these demands. Stress can be positive (eustress) or negative (distress). Negative stress has the potential to affect an individual's physical and emotional health. How an event or situation is looked at and perceived as stress-inducing event and one's reaction to it eventually causes stress.

When a person is saddled with the pressure of work the logical thing to do is to find ways of dealing with such work pressure so as to bring the situation under a reasonable control. Coping strategies are the attempts by an individual to control the pressure or manage the amount of stress being experienced. Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p.141) defined coping strategies as "constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person." The coping strategies that were looked at were appraisal-focused, problem-focused, emotion-focus strategies, and also social

support. All these are various ways through which stress processes are managed towards physical and psychological well-being.

The empirical review component of the literature review looked at various related studies on sources of work-related stress, work-related stress and coping strategies, and work-related stress and job satisfaction. A number of studies were looked at in relation to this present study on job stress, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of higher institutions of leaning. Several studies found sources of work-related stress to include, but not limited to excessive workload, role ambiguity, conflicting work demands, student-teacher ratio, inadequate recognition and reward, inadequate funding and resources, job insecurity, interpersonal relationship with students, the school environment, inadequate academic facilities (Winefield & Jarret, 2001; Gillespie et al., 2001; Achibong et al., 2010; Atindanbila, 2011; Omoniyi, 2013; Asonaba & Yankyera, 2015; Issah, Abubakari & Wuptiga, 2015).

The review of related literature concerning work-related stress and coping strategies among academics brought to bear that academicians were exposed to high levels of stress. Some of the reviewed works showed that healthy and positive coping strategies such as seeking for social support, engaging in religious activities, healthy eating, and taking sufficient rest among others were used by participants in those studies to manage stress. However, some negative and unhealthy stress coping strategies were also reported (Safaria, 2013; Misigo, 2015; Mohammed & Mohammed, 2016; Yikealo, 2018; Zvada & Thomas, 2019). Concerning work-related stress and job satisfaction, most of the literature showed significant relationship between

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stress and job satisfaction while others also showed positive correlation between workload and job satisfaction (Ahsan et al., 2009; Abdul, 2012; Bennet & Bamini, 2013; Shaju & Subhashini, 2017; Dhuryana & Hussain, 2018).

The conceptual framework which also underpinned the study was on workload, perceived stressors, coping strategies and job satisfaction of the study participants were measured. Some of the items under workload were, actual teaching load, setting of questions and marking of scripts/ assignments, supervision of students' project work/thesis, teaching practice supervision among others. Also, some items captured under perceived stressors were excessive workload, administrative duties, interpersonal relationship, and working conditions among others. The coping strategies were measured under the heading, appraisal-focused, problem-focused, emotion-focused, and social support. The final item was the job satisfaction component which was measured along motivation and hygiene factors, an adaptation of Herzberg's Two-factor theory. The next chapter looks at the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to investigate job satisfaction, workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. It was also to establish the correlations between job satisfaction, academic workload and level of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. This chapter discusses the methodology adopted to carry out the study. The chapter presents the research design, study area, population, and sampling procedure used in the study. The data collection instrument, data processing and data analysis procedures are also discussed.

Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey design. The descriptive survey design provides a numeric description of trends, attitudes, beliefs or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population; and from the sample results the researcher generalises or draws reasonable inferences to the population (Creswell, 2014). Also, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2015), descriptive survey involves acquiring information about one or more groups of people's characteristics, opinions, attitudes, or previous experiences by asking these individuals questions and tabulating their answers. The ultimate goal, as explained by Leedy and Ormrod, is to learn about a large population by surveying a sample of that population. The researcher poses a series of

questions to willing respondents; summarises their responses with percentages, frequency counts, or more sophisticated statistical tools. The researcher then draws inferences about a particular population from the responses of the sample.

Survey research typically employs a face-to-face interview, a telephone interview, or a written questionnaire to examine a situation as it is. Creswell (2012) asserts that surveys help describe the trends in a population or describe the relationship among variables or compare groups and they are most suitable in assessing trends or characteristics of a population, learning about individual attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and practices, among others. This study employed written questionnaire to collect the data. Osuala (2001) opines that the design is highly regarded by policy makers in educational research as data gathered by way of descriptive survey represents field conditions. I therefore believe the design is appropriate because this study sought to explore possible associations among the variables under investigation.

There are several advantages to using surveys. They can be administered in a short time, they are economical as a means of data collection, and they can reach a geographically dispersed population. The researcher can canvass respondents anonymously without biasing their responses. However, some weaknesses are that survey data is self-reported information, reporting only what people think rather than what they do. Sometimes low response rates make it difficult for researchers to make claims about the representativeness of the results to the population. Furthermore, surveys do not control for many variables that might explain the relationship

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between the independent and dependent variables, and they do not provide respondents flexibility in responding to questions - unless questions are open-ended (Creswell, 2012). These notwithstanding, the researcher used all possible means to control the weaknesses. Since written questionnaire was used to collect the data, I adhered to confidentiality, anonymity, and practices that did not bias participants' responses. I followed up on participants in order to augment response rate. In addition, I selected a sample large enough to be representative of the population so that claims or inferences could be drawn from the sample to the population, for Creswell (2012, p.381) asserts that "in survey research, it is important to select as large a sample as possible so that the sample will exhibit similar characteristics to the target population."

Study Area

The University of Education, Winneba (UEW) was established in September, 1992 as a University College under PNDC Law 322. On 14th May, 2004 the University of Education Act, Act 672 was enacted to upgrade the status of the University College of Education of Winneba to the status of a full university. The University College of Education of Winneba brought together seven diploma awarding colleges located in different towns under one umbrella institution. These colleges were the Advanced Teacher Training College, the Specialist Training College, and the National Academy of Music, all in Winneba; the School of Ghanaian Languages, Ajumako; the College of Special Education, Akwapim-Mampong; the Advanced Technical Training College, Kumasi; and the St. Andrews Agricultural Training College, Asante-Mampong (UEW, 2019b).

"The University of Education, Winneba (UEW) has a mandate to train competent professional teachers for all levels of education as well as empower its products to conduct research, disseminate knowledge and influence educational policy in Ghana" (ITECPD, 2018, p. iv). The Winneba Campus is the seat of the Vice-Chancellor with the satellite campuses at Kumasi, Asante-Mampong, and Ajumako. Winneba Campus which is the main campus of the University and spreads over three sites (North, Central and South) is within the Winneba Municipality. The Kumasi Campus which hosts the College of Technology Education is sited 280 kilometres north of Accra and about 320 kilometres away from Winneba, the main campus. The Asante-Mampong Campus hosts the College of Agriculture Education and is situated 51 kilometres north-east of Kumasi. The Ajumako Campus which is also in the Central Region hosts the College of Languages Education. The University of Education, Winneba has student population of 69,506 and staffing position (teaching and non-teaching staff) of 2,161 (UEW, 2019b).

Population

A population is the entity about which the researcher generalises the study results and it is defined by Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen and Walker (2014, p.161) as "all members of any well-defined class of people, events, or objects." Hence, for this study the population is all lecturers in the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. The population of the lecturers in the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana is 515. This number comprises 406 males and 109 female and they fall between the ages of 30 and 70 years. Their educational qualification ranges from Master of Science (MSc.)/Master of Arts (M.A)/Master of Education (M.Ed.), Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) to Doctor

of Philosophy (Ph.D.). They are made up of Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers, Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors, and Professors.

Sampling Procedure

According to Mills and Gay (2016), sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals in such a way that the selected members represent the larger group from which they were drawn. Sampling can, therefore, be explained as the process by which a sample or a sub-group is selected for a study. I used purposive sampling to select the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) for this study. I employed proportional stratified sampling, simple random sampling, and purposive sampling procedures to draw the sample for the study. Mills and Gay (2016, p.159) posit that proportional stratified sampling "involves strategically selecting participants from a subgroup." They also defined simple random sampling as "the process of selecting a sample so that all individuals in the defined population have an equal and independent chance of selection for the study" (p.156). Purposive sampling, also referred to as judgment sampling, according to Mills and Gay (2016, p.167), "is the process of selecting a sample that is believed to be representative of a given population." The implication here is that I selected the sample based on my experience and knowledge of the group to be sampled. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), sample size for a study depends on the purpose of the study, the nature of the population under scrutiny, and the sample being representative of the population from which it is drawn. Also, the confidence level, confidence interval and non-response rate should be taken into account when determining the size of the sample for the study. Therefore, based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size

determination table, I sampled 259 out of 515 lecturers in the University of Education, Winneba for the study.

I employed proportional stratified sampling, simple random sampling, and purposive sampling strategies to draw the sample for the study. First, the proportional stratified sampling method was used to draw the male participants from the various campuses as the institution already exists in strata. In order to guarantee that the sample was a fair representation of the male population of the institution, there was the need to select a proportion to the size of the stratum (each campus). Thus, out of 264 males on the Winneba campus, 93 were sampled, Kumasi campus had 82 males and 35 were sampled. Asante-Mampong campus had 37 males out of which I sampled 17 participants, and Ajumako campus had 23 males out of which I sampled 8 participants for the study. In all, a sample size of 153 males was earmarked for this study.

After drawing the sample for the males, I used all the females to form part of the samples for the various campuses. This was necessary because as compared to the males, the females were relatively fewer, hence my decision to use all of them. The following is the breakdown of the female population of the various campuses: Winneba had 78 females, Kumasi had 16 females, Asante-Mampong had 4 females, and Ajumako had 8 females. In all, the 106 females were used for the study. Finally, to get the males to add to the females, I applied the simple random sampling method, specifically, sampling without replacement for the selection. This was to ensure that all the males in the sample had equal and independent chance of selection for the study. This I did by assigning numbers to the males and writing the numbers on pieces of

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paper and putting them in a bowl. I mixed them up, and randomly selected a number to be included in the sample. I recorded the information on the piece of paper to include that person in the sample and then set that piece of paper aside. I repeated the exercise until I had the sample size for the males. Thus, 153 males and 106 females were sampled to make up the sample size of 259.

Table 1 shows the tabular form of the distribution of the population and sample by university campus and gender.

Table 1 – Distribution of the Population and Sample by University Camus and *Gender*

University Campuses	Population			Sample		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Winneba	264	78	342	93	78	171
Kumasi	82	19	101	35	16	51
Mampong	37	4	41	17	4	21
Ajumako	23	8	31	8	8	16
Total	**406**	**109**	**515**	**153**	**106**	**259**

Source: Survey data, 2019

Data Collection Instrument

I developed the questionnaire items I used to collect data from the participants for this study. The questionnaire was designed based on issues relating to academic workload, perceived stressors, coping strategies, and job satisfaction of University lecturers gathered from the literature. The questionnaire consisted of five sections comprising 100 items altogether. The items focused on how participants perceived their academic workload and its impact on their perceived stress level. The items also covered issues on what lecturers perceived as sources of stress in their line of work, and coping strategies they used to mitigate perceived work stress. Last but not least, there was a portion that ascertained the level of job satisfaction among participants.

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Section A of the questionnaire collected demographic information. The items were constructed in such a way that participants were required to supply or tick as appropriate alternative responses provided. The section had 10 items that sought information about lecturers' gender, age, status, years of teaching experience at the University of Education, Winneba, campus, number of courses taught per semester, hours of teaching per week, class-size, if involved in administrative duty, and the administrative position.

Sections B, C, D, E and F of the questionnaire were structured in a 5-point Likert type scale. Each scale had statements that presented a number of possible responses and participants were asked to tick the options that corresponded to their choice. To score the items, the response categories were weighted in a descending order of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 for all the scales.

Section B had 16 items on academic workload. The list of statements measured some work activities that might emit some level of stress in lecturers' line of work. Participants were required to tick (√) the box that corresponded to their choice concerning each statement. Response options to the items were "Extremely High Level", "Very High Level', "High Level", "Low Level", and "Very Low Level". To score the items, the response categories were weighted. The numeric values were 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. The sum of all the weights of the items checked by participants represented the individual total score. The total individual score indicated the participant's perception of work activities' level of stress. The highest expected possible score was 16x 5 (number of items in the subscale x highest weight) and the lowest expected possible score of 16 x 1(number of items in the subscale x lowest weight). Therefore, the highest score of 80 and the

lowest score of 16 were expected and these scores indicated the stress level of some work activities in the line of work of participants. Summing up, the maximum score of 80 for mean that the work activities being measured emit an extremely high level of stress, while the minimum score of 16 means that the work activities being measured emit very low stress.

Section C (stress perception level) had 20 items that had to do with various stress perception levels of participants. Participants were to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed to the statements by ticking ($\sqrt{}$) the box that corresponded to their choice. Response options to the items were "Strongly Agree", "Agree', "Neutral" "Disagree", and "Strongly Disagree" and the numeric values were 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

To score the items, the response categories were weighted. Numeric values of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1were assigned to Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D), or Strongly Disagree (SD) respectively. Data on the gender of participants was taken. The sum of all the weights of the items that was checked by the participant represented the individual total score. The total individual score indicated the participant's stress perception level. The highest expected possible score was 20 x 5 (number of items in the subscale x highest weight) and the lowest expected possible score of 20 x 1(number of items in the subscale x lowest weight). Therefore, the highest score of 100 means the individual' stress perception is high, while the lowest score of 20 means the individual' stress perception is low. These scores indicated a participant's stress perception.

To score the items, the response categories were weighted. Numeric values of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1were assigned to Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A),

Neutral (N), Disagree (D), or Strongly Disagree (SD) respectively. The sum of all the weights of the items that was checked by the participant represented the individual total score. Therefore, the highest score of 100 and the lowest score of 20 were expected and these scores indicated a participant's stress perception. The total scores for each participant were computed and the mean scores of the age categories were compared and the mean scores were used for the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Section D (sources of perceived stress) had 22 items on what participants perceived as sources of stress in their line of work as lecturers. The response options were "Extremely Stressful", "Very Stressful, "Stressful", "Not Stressful", and "Not At All Stressful" and the numeric values were 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Participants were asked to tick ($\sqrt{}$) the box that corresponds to their choice concerning each item. These were summed up to get a total of 15 (5+4+3+2+1 = 15) with a mean score of (15 ÷ 5) 3.00 for the descriptive statistics. The following decision making points were, therefore, arrived at for the items being measured. To get the decision-making points the weighted responses were summed and the mean calculated 15 (5+4+3+2+1 = 15) with a mean score of (15 ÷ 5) 3.00 for the descriptive statistics. The following decision making points were, therefore, arrived at for the items being measured. Items with the mean scores of 1.00 to 1.99 were considered "not stressful", items with mean scores of 2.00 to 2.99 were considered "stressful", whereas Items with mean scores from 3.00 to 3.99 were considered "very stressful" source of stress, and items with the mean score of 4.00 to 4.99 (5.00) were considered "extremely stressful" source of stress (See Table 9).

Section E (coping strategies subscale) consisted of 17 items that might or might not be true about how participants tried to reduce, mitigate stress. Response options to the items were "Strongly Agree", "Agree', "Neutral" "Disagree", and "Strongly Disagree" and the numeric values were 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Participants were required to tick ($\sqrt{}$) the box that corresponds to their choice concerning each statement. Subscale E (coping strategies) had a list of 17 items on coping strategies participants used to reduce, cope with, or mitigate stress. Each of statement may or may not be true about how participants tried to reduce, cope with or mitigate work-related stress. The responses were ranked to ascertain the strategies preferred most by participants.

The sum of all the weights of the items that were checked by the participants represented the individual total score. The total individual score indicated the participant's coping strategies of work stress. The highest expected possible score was 17x 5 (number of items in the subscale x highest weight) and the lowest expected possible score of 17 x 1(number of items in the subscale x lowest weight). Therefore, the highest score of 85 and the lowest score of 17 were expected and these scores indicated coping strategies participants used to reduce, cope with or mitigate work-related stress. These were interpreted (5+4+3+2+1 = 15). Consequently, a mean score of 15 ÷ 5 = 3.00 was considered the decision-making point. Therefore, the mean point of 3.00 was considered the decision-making point for the item on the scale being measured (coping strategies subscale E). Items with mean scores of 1.00 to 1.99) were considered "less frequently used coping strategy", Items with mean scores of 2.00 to 2.99 were considered "moderately frequently used coping

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strategy", whereas Items with mean scores from 3.00 to 3.99 were considered "very frequently used coping strategy", and items with mean score of 4.00 - 4.99 (5.00) were considered "most frequently used coping strategies" (See Table 10).

Section F (job satisfaction subscale) consisted of 15 items on job satisfaction. Participants were asked to indicate whether they were satisfied or dissatisfied with some aspects of their work as lecturers by ticking (√) in the various boxes the responses that corresponded to the given items. Response option were "Very Satisfied", "Satisfied", "Neutral" "Dissatisfied", and "Very Dissatisfied" and the numeric values were 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Subscale F had 15 items.

To score the items of subscale F, the response categories were weighted with the numeric values, of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1were assigned to Very Satisfied (VS), Satisfied (S), Neutral (N), Dissatisfied (D), or Very Dissatisfied (VD) respectively. The sum of all the weights of the items that were checked by the participants represented the individual total score. The total individual score indicated the participant's level of job satisfaction. The highest expected possible score was15 x 5 (number of items in the subscale x highest weight) and the lowest expected possible score of 15 x 1(number of items in the subscale x lowest weight). Therefore, the highest score of 75 and the lowest score of 15 were expected and these scores indicated participant's level of job satisfaction.

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

Mills and Gay (2016) explain validity and reliability as follows: "Validity refers to the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to

measure and permits appropriate interpretation of scores" (p.186). Reliability, on the other hand, "is the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it is measuring" (p.191). Stangor (2004) remarked that content validity is the most powerful technique available to the researcher through which questionnaire can be validated. To ensure that face and content validity of the instrument were achieved, I gave copies of the questionnaire I developed to my supervisors who are experts in Counselling Psychology and also to experts in Measurement and Evaluation to examine, scrutinize, and make their contributions on the items of the various scales I also pre-tested the instrument.

Pre-Testing

The questionnaire was pre-tested at the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast. Thirty-one Lecturers, 21 males and 10 females were used for the pre-testing of the instrument. I pre-tested the instrument at the College of Education Studies of the University of Cape Coast because they shared similar characteristics as those of the main study group. The pre-test group therefore had similar job responsibilities as the population under study.

The purpose of the pre-test was to determine and ensure that the instructions given to participants to answer the questions were clear and well-understood. It was also to determine the suitability of items on the various scales. Additionally, the pre-test was conducted to ensure that participants understood each statement that had been used. Participants were required to answer all items and provide necessary views and comments for improving the questionnaires. The pre-testing also helped to identify completion time and allowed participants to comment on any questions that needed clarification.

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In sum, I welcomed any form of feedback regarding the questionnaires and this aided its improvement. The pre-testing of the instrument, therefore, provided the opportunity to examine whether the developed survey tool was appropriate for the population, if the wording was clear and concise, and how long the instrument took to complete. All items on the instrument except the demographic information were Likert type scale. The reliability estimates for the questionnaire was established using the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of internal consistency.

Table 2 shows the tabular form of the reliability estimate of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Table 2 – *Reliability Estimate Using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients*

Sub-scale	No. of Items	Reliability Coefficients
Academic workload	16	0.953
Academic workload Effects	20	0.925
Perceived Sources of Stress	22	0.950
Coping Strategy	17	0.650
Job Satisfaction	15	0.872
Overall	**90**	**0.854**

Source: Survey data, 2019

Ethical Considerations

In carrying out this research, it is prudent that the processes of conducting the research are subjected to ethical considerations. This is necessary for ensuring verification, anonymity and confidentiality. Ethical consideration is necessary both in the conduct (including data collection and analysis) and reporting of the research information. To this end, I sought for ethical clearance from the Institutional Review Board of the University of

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Cape Coast. After satisfying the clearance procedures for the conduct of the research, I obtained an introductory letter from the Department of Guidance and Counselling, Faculty of Educational Foundations, College of Education Studies of the University of Cape Coast to send to the authorities of the University of Education, Winneba for permission to carry out the study in all the four campuses of the institution. Copies of the introductory letter were equally submitted to the College Registrars of the various campuses of the institution to collect data from lecturers for the study. Lastly, I sought the consent of lecturers for their participation in this study with the assurance that strict adherence to their anonymity and confidentiality was paramount in the data collection, analysis, and reporting the research findings of this study.

Data collection Procedure

My familiarity with the academic and social milieu of these four campuses of the institution enabled me to manage the research process effectively. The issue of access was central to this research since the richness of research data depends significantly on the degree of access to the sources of data.

I visited all the campuses of the institution to deliver copies of the permission letter and also explained to them the rationale and importance of the study. Participants were communicated to about the exercise and their maximum support was sought. I scheduled and visited the research sites on different days to distribute the questionnaires. I handed over the questionnaires to the participants I met but those I did not meet I put the questionnaires in envelops and with the assistance of the Heads of Department and their Administrative Assistants we contacted participants them on phone and they

requested I leave the questionnaires in their pigeon holes. Dates were agreed upon for collection of the questionnaires. I made several trips to the research sites to administer and retrieve the questionnaires. At the end of the data collection exercise, I had 159 participants responding to and returning the questionnaires. There was therefore a response rate of 61.38%. I collected the data within a period of four months.

Data Processing and Analysis

I used both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyse the data that I collected for the study. I used mean and standard deviations for the descriptive statistics. For the inferential statistics, I used Simple Linear Regression, Regression, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Independent Samples t-test, and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). All six hypotheses were tested at an alpha level of 0.05 of significance.

The computer programme that was applied is the Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) for Windows Version 22.0 software. I numbered and edited the data, scored the questionnaire, coded the items and entered the data from the instrument into the computer programme. I then inputted the data into the programme and cleaned them for the analyses. During the data cleaning, I found out that questionnaire numbered 12 had the grade point 7 as a response to item number 12 on scale B. I pulled out the said responded questionnaire and found out the response that was ticked by the participant was "Strongly Agreed" (SA) which had the grade point 5. I subsequently went back to the Data View of the SPSS for Windows Version 22.0 software to effect the change.

The two research questions were analysed and interpreted using descriptive statistics such as, mean and standard deviations, while the inferential statistics was used to test the six hypotheses. Simple Linear Regression, Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Independent Samples t-test, and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test the hypotheses in the study. All six hypotheses were tested at an alpha level of 0.05 of significance.

To analyse the data collected on research question 1 which sought to find out what lecturers perceived as sources of stress in their line of work, I utilised descriptive statistics that indicated central tendencies in the data (mean and standard deviations). Research question 2 sought to find out coping strategies of lecturers. Data collected on this was analysed using descriptive statistics that indicated central tendencies in the data (mean and standard deviation).

The Simple Linear Regression was used to analyse Hypothesis 1. The use of this statistical technique was necessary in order to determine the strength of the effect that the independent variable (workload) had on the dependent variable (perceived stress) under consideration. The Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was employed to analyse hypothesis 2, and hypothesis 3. The study being more or less a correlational study needed this statistical test to show if relationship existed between the two variables under consideration. It indicated both the direction and magnitude of the relationship. I used the Independent Samples t-test to analyse research hypothesis 4 to find any difference in gender perception. The Independent Samples t-test was appropriate because the two groups (males and females)

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involved in the study were drawn independently from a population without any pairing or other relationship between the two groups. Hypothesis 5 was tested with One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to compare for age difference in perceived stress level among participants. This statistical tool allowed for comparison of two or more age group categories as against perceived stress level of participants. Data on age of participants were collected and they were put in ranges for easy analysis. Similarly, I applied One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to analyse hypothesis 6. In view of the above, I believe that the Simple Linear Regression, the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, the Independent Samples t-test, and the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were the appropriate statistical tools to test the hypotheses in this study.

To analyse the data collected on **research question 1** which sought to find out what lecturers perceived as sources of stress in their line of work, I utilised descriptive statistics that indicated central tendencies in the data (mean and standard deviations). **Research question 2** sought to find out coping strategies of lecturers. Data collected on this was analysed using descriptive statistics that indicated general tendencies in the data (mean and standard deviations).

Hypothesis 1 was tested using Simple Linear Regression to determine the prediction of academic workload on perceived stress level among participants. The subscales B (academic workload) and C (stress perception levels) of the questionnaire were used. Participants were requested to indicate the quantum of stress emitted by some work activities on subscale B (academic workload data) using the given responses. On subscale C (stress

perception level data) participants were requested to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements provided. The sum of all the weights of the items that was checked by the participants represented the individual total score. The total scores for each of the two subscales, subscale B (academic workload data) and subscale C (stress perception level data), were computed and the mean scores were used for the analysis. The means for the two variables were computed to determine prediction effect of academic workload on perceived stress level among participants

Hypothesis 2 was tested using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient to determine whether there existed a significant correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among participants. The subscale B (academic workload data) and subscale F (job satisfaction data) of the questionnaire were used. The mean scores for the two variables were computed and compared to determine if there was correlation between academic workload pressure and level of job satisfaction among participants.

Correlation Assumption Testing for Hypothesis 2

In the conduct of the correlational analysis using the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients there is the need that some assumptions are met in order to determine the strength of the correlations. According to Cohen (1988), testing the assumption for the determination of the strength of the correlations can be checked using the scatterplot, which is a graphical approach. Graphical approaches were thus used to test the linearity and normality assumptions for Hypothesis 2. Figure 2 shows a wriggled distribution of scores on the linearity test.

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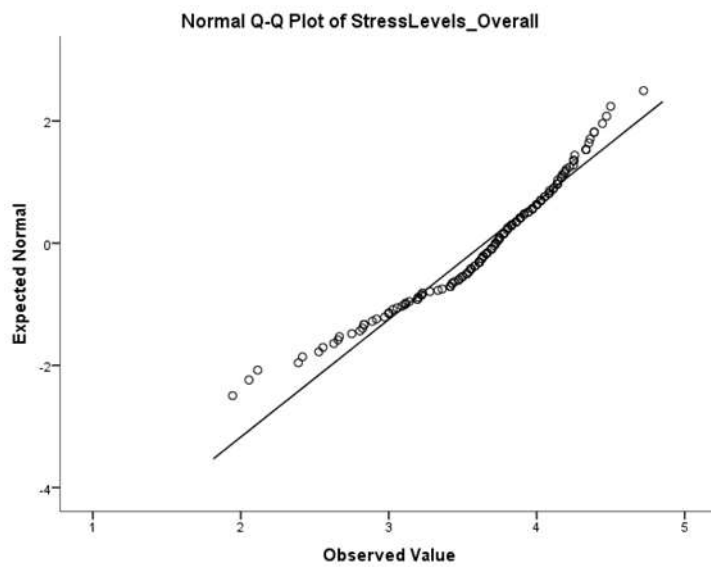
Figure 2 - Distribution of scores on Linearity Test
Source: Survey data, 2019

In the same vein, Figure 3 showed a fairly normally distribution for normality. Majority of the scores were positively skewed with some in the normal curve.
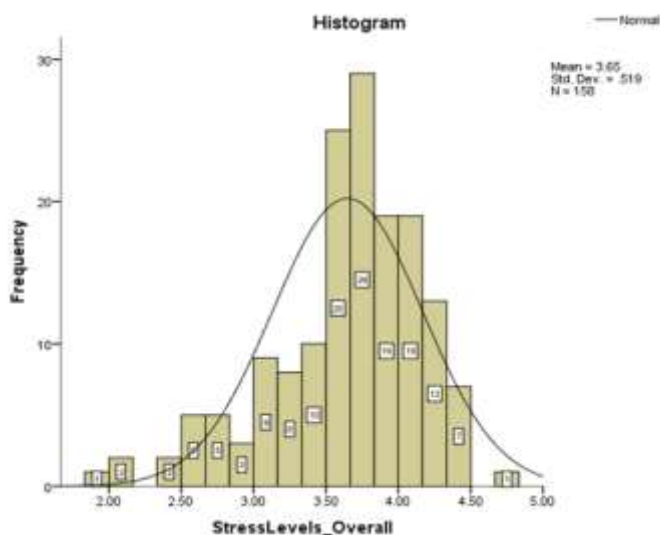
Figure 3- Distribution of scores for Normality Test
Source: Survey data, 2019

Hypothesis 3 was tested using Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient to determine whether there existed relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among participants. The total

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scores for each of the two subscales, subscale D (sources of perceived stress data) and subscale F (job satisfaction data), were computed and the mean scores were used for the analysis. The means for the two variables were computed and compared to establish the existence of a relationship. The correlation coefficient indicated the direction and strength of the relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among participants.

Correlation Assumption Testing for Hypothesis 3

Two important assumptions for the use of correlation are normality and linearity, which are explored in this section. The study tested normality for the dependent variable (Job Satisfaction) using the Kolmogorov Smirnov (K-S (158) = 0.69, p > .05) and the Shapiro-Wilk (S (158) = 0.99, p> .05). According to Field (2013), normality p-value greater than .05 implies that the behaviour is a homogeneous for members of the population being studied. In the current study, statistically, the two tests were tenable for the use of Pearson's Correlation Product-Moment for the study with p-values greater that .05 (Table 3).

Table 3 - *Tests of Normality for Job Satisfaction*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Job Satisfaction	.069	158	**.062**	.992	158	**.489**

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
Source: Survey data, 2019

Graphically, Figure 4 confirms the K-S test with majority of the scores on Job Satisfaction were under the normal curve; and indication of the variable applicable to the samples in this study.

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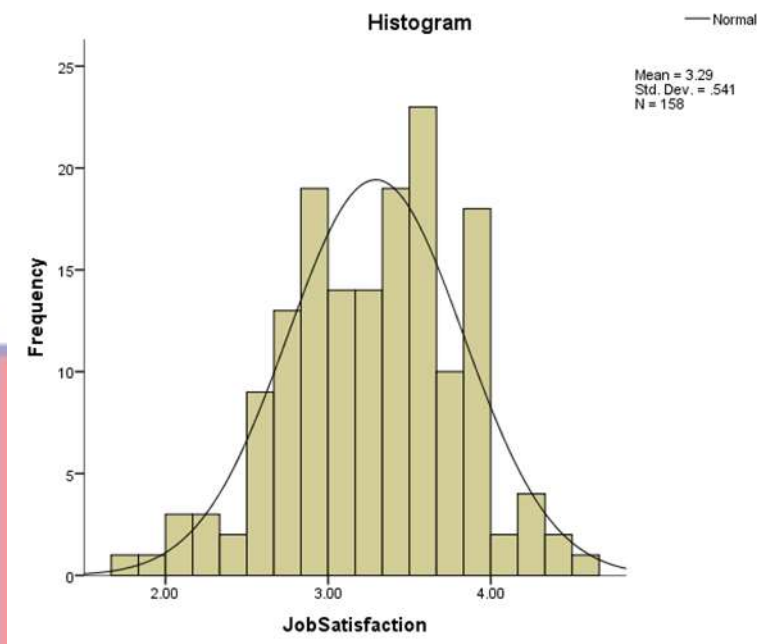
Figure 4 – Confirmation of K-S Test for Scores on Job satisfaction
Source: Survey data, 2019

Figure 5 also depicts the linearity of the dependent variable (job satisfaction). The graphical representation also shows majority of the scores followed the straight line (fairly); and indication of relationship existing in the data. This gives the study a framework for the use of the parametric statistics (Pearson r) for the Hypothesis 3.

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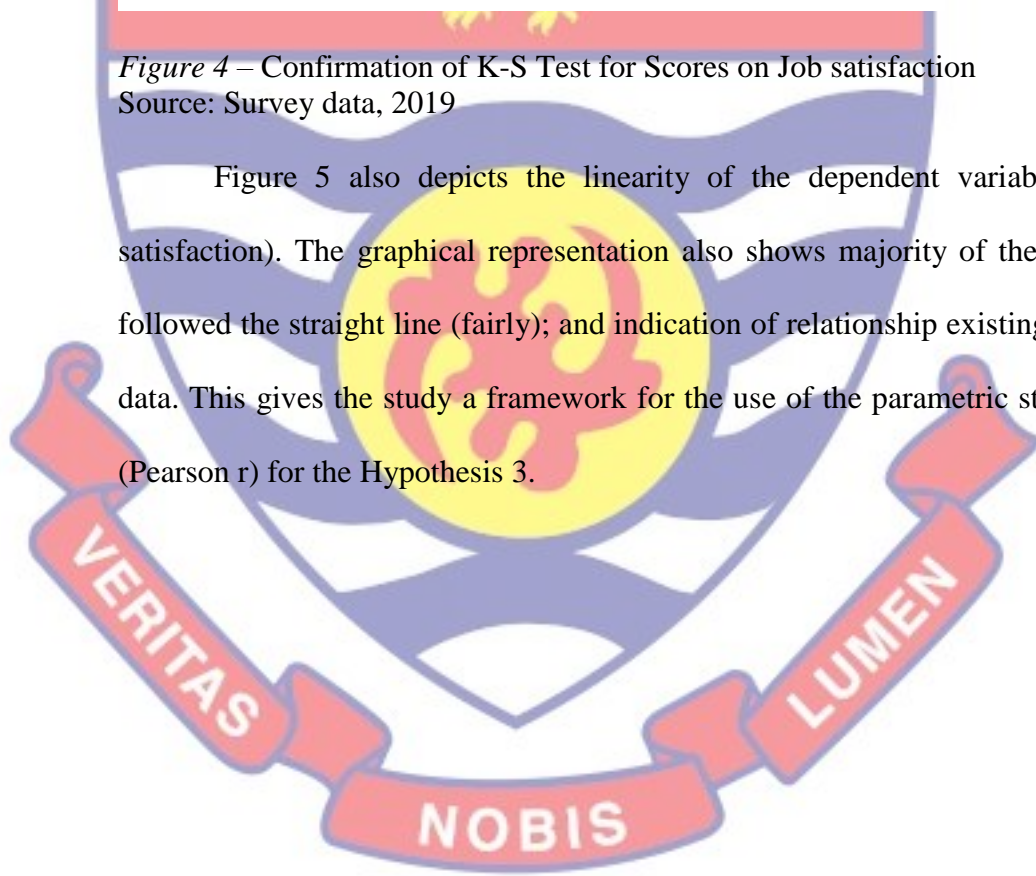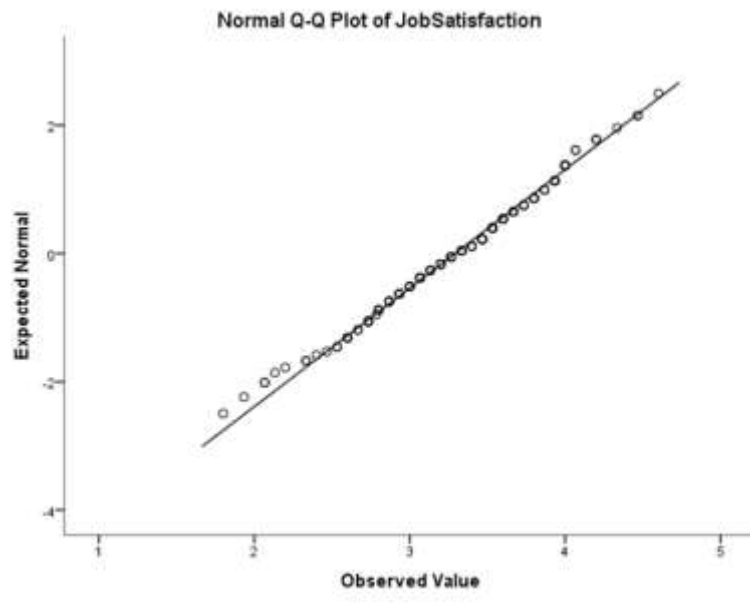
Figure 5 – Linearity of Independent Variable (job satisfaction)
Source: Survey data, 2019

Independent samples t-test was used to test **hypothesis 4**. There were 20 items in subscale C (stress perception level data). Participants were requested to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. The sum of all the weights of the items that was checked by the participants represented the individual total score. The total individual score indicated the participant's stress perception level. Also, data on gender of participants were collected. The total score for each participant was computed and the scores were used for the Independent Samples t-test to test hypothesis 4. This was done to determine whether significant difference existed between the means of males and females in their perceived level of stress.

Hypothesis 5 was analysed using One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). There were 20 items in subscale C on participant's perception stress level. In each of the statements participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement to the statements. Participants, thus, gave responses to the statements. Also, data on age of participants were collected.

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The sum of all the weights of the items that was checked by the participants represented the individual total score. The total individual score indicated the participant's stress perception. The scores were computed and used to run the analysis.

Hypothesis 6 was also analysed using One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). There were 20 items in subscale C on stress perception levels that participants were requested to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. Also, data on academic status of participants were collected. In each of the statements participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement to the statements. Participants, thus, gave responses to the statements. The sum of all the weights of the items that was checked by the participants represented the individual total score. The total individual score indicated the participant's stress perception.

Chapter summary

This study is a descriptive survey and the study area comprised Winneba and Ajumako in the Central Region of Ghana, and Kumasi and Asante-Mampong in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The population was academic staff in the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana which was 515. The proportional stratified sampling, the simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques were used to draw the sample from all four campuses for the study. A sample size of 159 participants took part in the study. I used Likert type scale questionnaire to collect data from the participants for this study. The instrument was pre-tested tested before taking it to the research site for its administration. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data that was collected for the study. The

computer programme that I applied to run the analysis was the Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) for Windows Version 22.0 software. The two research questions were analysed and interpreted using descriptive statistics while the inferential statistics was used to test the six hypotheses. Simple Linear Regression, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Independent samples t-test, and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test the hypotheses in the study. This study, like many other empirical studies, is not without its limitations.

My sample consisted of one public university in Ghana and the generalisability of results is limited. The results and findings of this study might have considerably varied with an increased sample size. The results of just one university may not represent all universities in Ghana. Involvement of other public universities would generate dispersed results and findings. The study did not consider non work-related stress factors that could equally contribute to stress experiences of participants. Survey data are self-reported information, therefore, authenticity of participants' report of what they think and do is difficult to establish. The next chapter looks at results and discussion.

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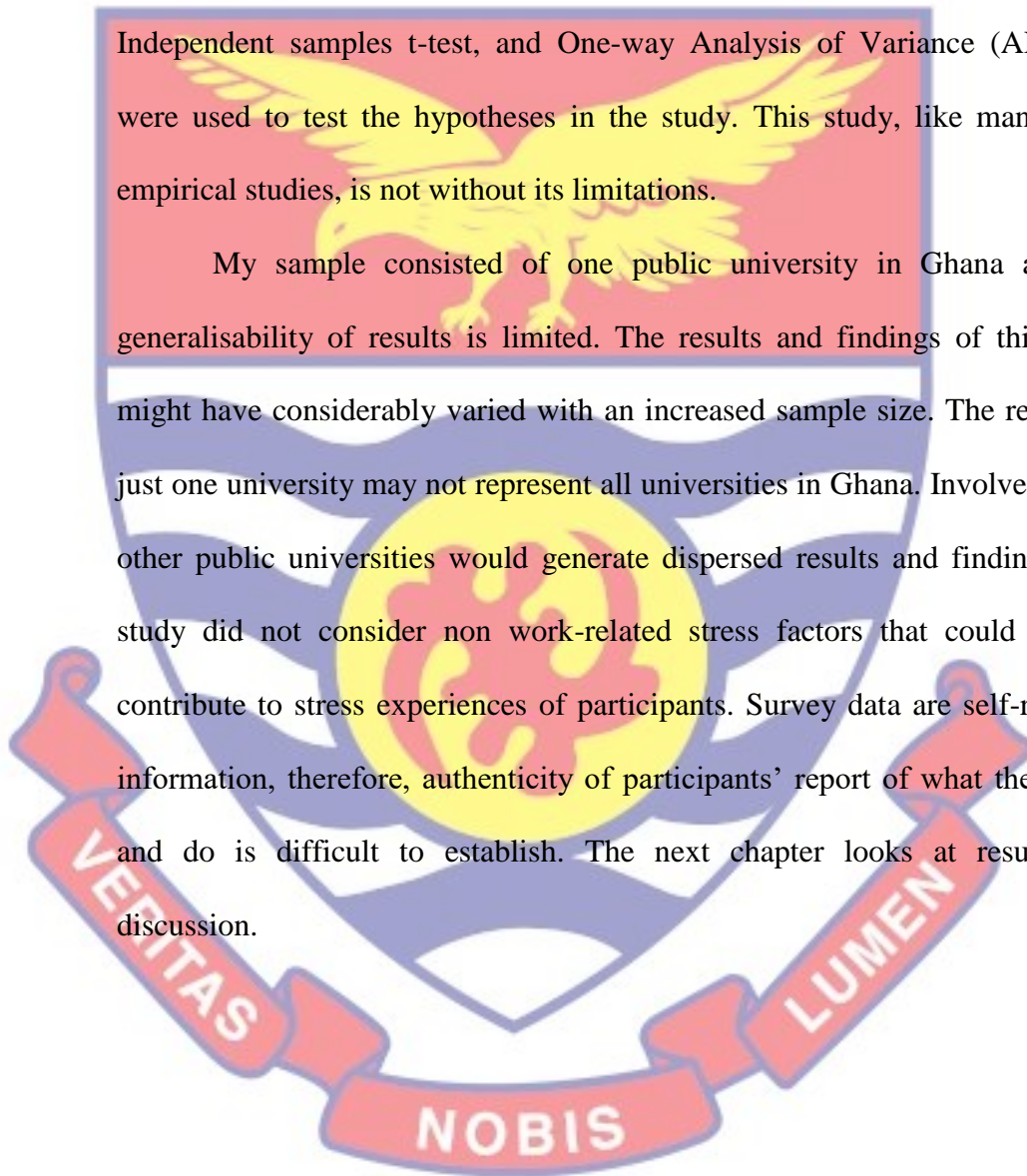
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study and discussions on the findings. The main purpose of this study was to investigate job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba. It was also to establish the impact of academic workload on perceived stress levels, correlations between academic workload and job satisfaction levels, and perceived stress levels and job satisfaction levels among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

The chapter has been organised into two segments. The first segment of the chapter commences with some relevant demographic variables (gender, age, status, campus, contact hours, largest class-size) of the participants in this study and the results for the research questions and hypotheses. Results of the two research questions and the six hypotheses are presented and tables are provided to illustrate and support the findings. The second segment of the chapter also presents the discussion of the findings. Discussion and implications of findings are offered alongside the findings.

Demographic Statistics of Characteristics of participants

A total of 159 University lecturers participated in this study. Table 4 presents the cross-tabulation of gender and age distribution of participants.

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Table 4- *Cross-tabulation of Gender and Age of Lecturers*

Age	Male	Female	Total	% Total
30-40	44	9	53	**33.33**
41-50	35	18	53	**33.33**
51-60	27	10	37	**23.27**
61-70	14	2	16	**10.07**
Total	**120**	**39**	**159**	**100.00**
% Total	*75.47*	*24.53*	*100.00*	

Source: Survey data, 2019

The results from Table 4 show that 75.47% (n = 120) were males and 24.53% (n = 39) were females participated in the study. This implied that the males in the sample were more than the females in the sample group by 50.94%. (n = 81). The distribution from the table also indicate that 33.33% (n = 53) of lecturers were between the ages of 30-40 years. Likewise, 33.33% (n = 53) were also between the ages of 41-50 years with 10% (n = 16) being 61-70 years, the highest age group participants. Thus, majority of the participants were in the age group of 30-50 years. However, the study seemed to attain a gender disparity with 50.94% (n = 81) variation between males and females in the sample data. In respect to this gender strength difference in this study, I have observed that the lecturer population in UEW is highly skewed toward males. This situation informed my decision to include all the female lecturers of the Institution in the study but unfortunately, only 39 out of the 106 participated due to diverse reasons.

Among the demographic variables provisions were made for participants to indicate their status and also the university campus of UEW where they lecture. Table 5 presents the cross-tabulation of status and campus of lecturers.

Table 5- *Cross-tabulation of Status and Campus of Lecturers*

Status	Campus				Total	%Total
	Winneba	Ajumako	Kumasi	Asante-Mampong		
Assistant Lecturer	11	4	6	3	**24**	**15.09**
Lecturer	32	4	23	7	**66**	**41.51**
Senior Lecturer	27	1	20	8	**56**	**35.22**
Associate Professor	9	0	2	1	**12**	**7.55**
Professor	0	0	0	1	**1**	**0.63**
Total	**79**	**9**	**51**	**20**	**159**	**100.00**
% Total	*49.69*	*5.66*	*32.07*	*12.58*	*100.00*	

Source: Survey data, 2019

It is evident in Table 5 that 159 participants took part in this study. They comprised Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers, Senior Lecturers, and Associate Professors and Professors. Participants were drawn from Winneba campus, Ajumako campus, Kumasi campus, and Asante-Mampong campus of the University of Education, Winneba (UEW). The results from Table 5 indicate that among the status distribution, 41.51% (n = 66) of the participants were in the Lecturer category. This was somehow closely followed by the Senior Lecturer category with 35.22% (n = 56). The highest category in the sample being the Professor status (Associate Professor and Professor) was rather 8.18% (n = 13). The Winneba campus of the institution had the Associate Professor representation of 5.66% (n = 9). This was followed by Kumasi campus with 1.26% (n = 2) Associate Professor representation. Asante-Mampong had the Associate Professor representation of 0.63% (n = 1) and Professor representation of 0.63% (n = 1). Ajumako, however, had no

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Professor status representation, (n = 0). It could be realised from the status distribution from Table 5 that there were some form of status disparity. This though was not deliberate as participants were sampled before they were asked to indicate their status as part of the demographic information required from them.

The next demographic variable was the largest class-size for the courses taught by lecturers in the semester under review. This was cross-tabulated with gender of participants. Table 6 shows the results.

Table 6 – *Cross-tabulation of Largest Class-size for Courses taught in the Semester and Gender of Lecturers*

Largest class-size for courses taught this semester	Gender			
	Male	Female	Total	% Total
1-200	72	29	101	63.52
201- 400	35	6	41	25.79
401- 600	8	4	12	7.55
601-800	3	0	3	1.88
801-1000	2	0	2	1.26
Total	120	39	159	100.00
% Total	*75.47*	*24.53*	*100.00*	

Source: Survey data, 2019

Results from Table 6 show that majority of participants 63.52% (n = 101) had the class size of 1-200, while 25.79% (n = 41) of the participants had the class size of 201-400 with 1.26% (n = 2) having the largest class-size of 801-1000. The largest class size for lecturers seem to be concentrated around 63.52% (n = 1-200) with the smaller number of lecturers 1.26% (n = 2) having the biggest class size in the sample data.

Variables in the demographic information included the number of contact hours lecturers had per week. This was cross-tabulated with campus of lecturers. The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7- *Cross-tabulation of Contact Hours per Week and Campus of Lecturers*

Number of contact hours per week	Campus				Total	% Total
	Winneba	Ajumako	Kumasi	Asante Mampong		
3-12	26	4	12	10	52	32.70
13-22	36	4	15	9	64	40.25
23-32	16	1	11	1	29	18.24
33-42	1	0	9	0	10	6.29
43-52	0	0	3	0	3	1.89
53-62	0	0	1	0	1	0.63
Total	79	9	51	20	159	100.00
% Total	49.69	5.66	32.07	12.58	100.00	

Source: Survey data, 2019

Results from Table 7 shows that 40.25% (n = 64) of participants had between 13-22 contact hours with students per week, while 32.70% (n = 52) of participants had between 3- 12 contact hours per week with only 0.63% (n = 1) of participants who had between 53- 62 contact hours per week, the highest contact hour per week among the sample in this study. From the results in Table 7 Kumasi campus in comparison with the other campuses in relation to the number of contact hour per week had lecturers in each of the contact hour range.

Additional demographic variable included status of participants and this was cross tabulated with gender of participants.

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Table 8 presents status and gender distribution of participants in the study.

Table 8– *Cross-tabulation of Status and Gender of Lecturers*

Status	Gender			
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**% total**
Assistant Lecturer	17	7	24	15.10
Lecturer	54	12	66	41.51
Senior Lecturer	38	18	56	35.22
Associate Professor	10	2	12	07.55
Professor	1	0	1	0.62
Total	**120**	**39**	**159**	**100.00%**
% Total	*75.47*	*24.53*	*100.00*	

Source: Survey data, 2019

The results from Table 8 show the status and gender of participants who took part in the study. The sample was made up of 120 males and 39 females. They comprised Assistant Lecturers, Lecturers, Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors, and Professors. The results from the table indicate that among the status distribution, 15.10% (n = 24) of the participants were in the Assistant lecturer category. This number is made up of 17 males and 7 females. The Lecturer category from Table 8 is also made up of 54 males and 12 females which collectively represents 41.51% (n = 66). Table 8 further shows the results of the Senior Lecturer status distribution of 35. 22% (n = 56). This category also comprises 38 males and 18 females. Also from the results in Table 8 is the status of Associate Professor. This category is also made up of 10 males and 2 females, representing 07.55% (n = 12). Last but not least is the Professor status. The results from Table 8 show that this category is represented by a male lecturer, representing 0.62% (n = 1).

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Nominal variables, such as age, gender, and rank were important in how hypotheses testing in the current study and provided context for conclusions and recommendations for career counsellors. The answers to the two research questions are followed by the results of hypotheses 1 – 6 presented using Simple Linear Regression, Person Product Moment of Correlation, Independent Samples t-test, and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Results of Research Questions

Research Question 1

What are the sources of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba?

Research question 1 sought to find out what UEW lecturers perceived as sources of stress in their academic work. Based on a 5-point Likert type scale (5 = 'Strongly Agree' to 1 = 'Strongly disagree'), results in Table 9 shows various sources of stress among lecturers.
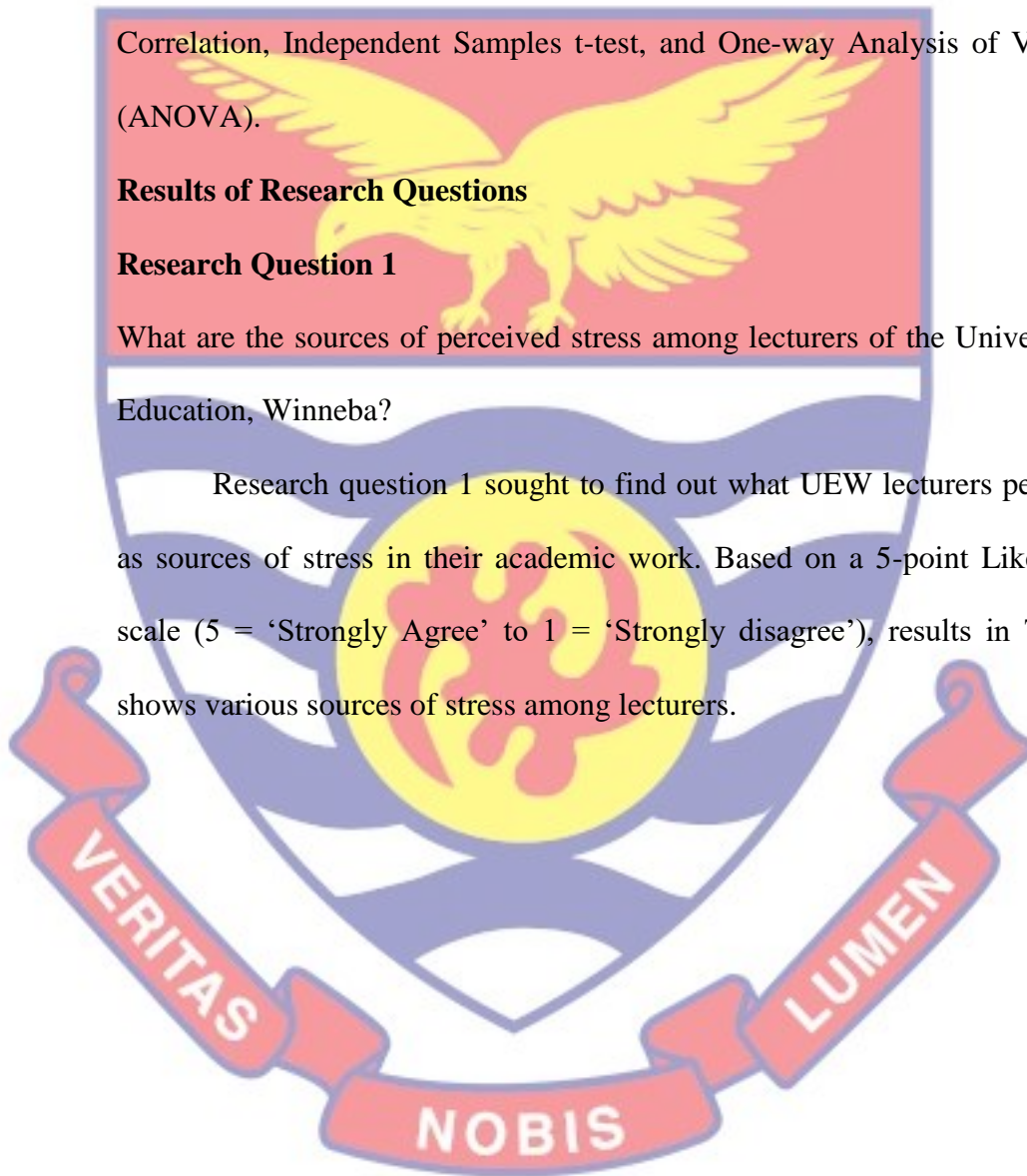
Table 9- *Descriptive Statistics of Sources of Perceived Stress among UEW Lecturers*

S/N	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Teaching large class-size	4.03	0.92
2	Marking/scoring/grading of students' papers	3.91	0.88
3	Students' project/thesis supervision	3.87	0.95
4	Over all academic workload	3.85	0.85
5	Inadequate annual leave	3.76	1.05
6	Inadequate instructional facilities	3.75	0.93
7	Time constraints	3.72	0.79
8	Preparation of examination results	3.65	0.93
9	Teaching practice supervisions	3.61	1.01
10	Criteria used for promotion	3.60	1.09
11	Actual teaching load	3.51	0.97
12	Family and work-life balance	3.47	1.01
13	State of Lecturers' offices	3.41	1.14
14	Setting examination questions	3.23	0.90
15	Delays in payment of remuneration/salaries	3.20	1.33
16	Lecture notes preparation	3.15	0.97
17	Invigilation of examinations	3.13	1.02
18	Administrative responsibilities	3.09	1.10
19	Students' disciplinary issues	3.06	0.96
20	Unclear work appraisal system	3.04	1.00
21	Participation in University fund generation activities	2.94	1.05
22	Job security	2.87	1.18

Source: Survey data, 2019

Key

    1.00 – 1.99 = Less stressful source of stress

    2.00 – 2.99 = Moderately stressful source of stress

    3.00 – 3.99 = Very stressful source of stress

    4.00 – 4.99 = Extremely stressful source of stress

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The results from Table 9 revealed that teaching large class-size was identified as the extremely stressful source of stress among lecturers (M = 4.03, SD = 0.92), followed by marking/scoring/grading of students' papers (M = 3.91, SD = 0.88). Next to it is students' projects/theses supervision (M = 3.87, SD = 0.95), closely followed by overall academic workload (M= 3.85, SD = 0.85), while the moderately stressful source of stress was job security (M = 2.87, SD = 1.18). Since stress could emanate from the teaching of large class-sizes of students with its attended activities such as marking, scoring, and grading of students' papers; supervision of students' projects/theses and overall academic workload among others as shown in this study, there is the need for lecturers to adapt effective coping strategies to mitigate stress.

Research question 2

What are the coping strategies used by lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba to mitigate stress?

Research question 2 sought to find out the coping strategies used by lecturers of UEW to mitigate perceived stress. Based on a 5-point Likert type scale (5 = 'Strongly Agree' to 1 = 'Strongly disagree'), results in Table 10 presents varieties of coping strategies that lecturers used to mitigate stress in their line of work.

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Table 10- *Descriptive Statistics of Coping Strategies Used by Lecturers of UEW*

S/N	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	I use alcohol/stress reducing drugs to relax.	4.35	1.00
2	I participate in religious activities.	4.05	0.86
3	I think more of the positives/benefits of what my work has to offer me.	3.87	0.80
4	I manage my time effectively to reduce stress.	3.56	0.92
5	I try to get adequate sleep.	3.54	1.05
6	I discuss how I feel about the pressure of work with colleagues.	3.53	1.12
7	I engage in a hobby other or other personal activities	3.45	1.07
8	I watch movies/TV to take my mind off work pressure.	3.38	1.14
9	I try to get emotional support from friends or relatives.	3.28	1.00
10	I take direct actions to get around the stressful situation.	3.25	0.85
11	I accept the fact that my line of work is stressful and nothing can be done about it.	3.10	1.18
12	I eat lots of my favourite food.	3.03	1.04
13	I make time to exercise regularly.	2.96	1.07
14	I practice relaxation techniques.	2.92	1.15
15	I force myself to contain the pressure in the teaching work.	2.85	1.25
16	I refuse to accept that my work puts a lot of pressure on me.	2.76	1.24
17	I consult a counsellor for professional help	2.31	1.06

Source: Survey data, 2019

Key

1.00 – 1.99 = Less frequently used coping strategy

2.00 – 2.99 = Moderately frequently used coping strategy

3.00 – 3.99 = Very frequently used coping strategy

4.00 – 4.99 = Most frequently used coping strategy

Results from Table 10 reveal that the use of alcohol/stress reducing drugs to relax was the most frequently used coping strategy participants used to manage stress (M = 4.35, SD = 1.00). This is followed by participation in religious activities (M = 4.05, SD =0.86), thinking more of the positives/benefits of what the work has to offer (M = 3.87, SD = 0.80), and effective time management (M = 3.56, SD = 0.92) respectively. The results in Table 9 also show that consulting a counsellor for professional help to manage stress is the least coping strategy that lecturers resorted to. Stress is said to be human specific and as such individuals adopt various strategies to manage stressful experiences. Coping strategies are described by stress management experts as adaptive (positive) and therefore healthy or maladaptive (negative), unhealthy ways to manage stress (Kirby, Shakespeare-Finch, & Palk (2011). Hence, the report in Table 10 of the use of alcohol or drugs as the most frequently used coping strategy (M = 4.35, SD = 1.00) by lecturers to mitigate stress is undoubtedly unhealthy, and therefore, has implications for counselling. Moreso, the results indicated a rather least response (M = 2.31, SD = 1.06) for the item that stated, "I consult a counsellor for professional help". This implies that not many lecturers consider consulting a counsellor for professional help in managing stress worthwhile and this is shown by the results in Table 10.

Results of Hypotheses

This section presents the findings from the six hypotheses formulated to guide the study based on appropriate statistics such as Simple Regression, Correlation, Independent Samples t-test, and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Results of Hypothesis 1: Predictive Effect of Academic Workload on Stress Levels

Hypothesis 1 predicted that different work schedules required of Faculty at the workplace could affect their stress levels. Specifically, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_0: There is no significant predictive effect of academic workload on perceived stress level among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

H_1: There is a significant predictive effect of academic workload on perceived stress level among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

On a Likert type scale (1-5), 159 valid scores were entered into the simple regression model. The stress level for Faculty ranged between 3.11 and 4.17 ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 0.52$) with workload also between 3.23 and 4.32 ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 0.54$). The regression results in Table 11 indicate that the two variables (perceived stress and academic workload) were highly related ($r = 0.79$) with R-squared $= 0.62$ for the sample statistics. However, the model showed 0.002 shrinkage between the R-squared and Adjusted R-Squared; indicative of how well the model predicted the population parameter for the current study.

Table 11- *Model Summary for Hypothesis 1*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.790[a]	.623	.621	.32596

a. Predictors: (Constant), Workload

Source: Survey data, 2019

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Statistically, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) computation accompanying the Model Summary table show a significant statistic between the independent and dependent variables (F (1) = 259.97, $p < 0.05$)

Table 12- *ANOVA[b] Statistics Accompanying the Regression Model*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	27.622	1	27.622	259.965	.001[a]
	Residual	16.682	157	.106		
	Total	**44.304**	**158**			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Workload
b. Dependent Variable: Stress Levels Overall
Source: Survey data, 2019

Practically, the adjusted *R*-squared statistics indicated that if the entire population of the University of Education, Winneba lecturers were used in this study, their workload would have significantly accounted for 62.3% of their stress levels (within 95% confidence interval). The Standardised Beta score (Appendix D) for Workload factor was also 79% (Beta = 0.79, t = 16.12, p = .001). The Beta coefficient implies that without the constant in the regression model (see Table 11), workload alone was a strong predictor of lecturers' stress level in this study.

Based on the Adjusted R-squared, the study rejected the null hypothesis that workload will not significantly predict lecturers' stress level in this study and concluded that indeed, large class-sizes, administrative duties, inadequate annual leaves, lack of instructional resources and other stressors discussed in Research Question 1 are contributors to Faculty stress level.

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Results of Hypothesis 2: Correlation between Academic Workload Job

Satisfaction Levels

The objective of Hypothesis 2 was to determine whether Faculty members would report that their academic workload had an association with their job satisfaction scores in this study. Hence, a null hypothesis was formulated to test this objective as:

H_0: There is no significant correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

H_1: There is a significant correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

The study considered Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient as the most suitable statistical model for Hypothesis 2. With a sample size of 159, there was an inverse statistically significant association ($r = -0.19$; $p < 0.05$; 2-tailed) between academic workload and job satisfaction levels as shown in Table 13. The study accordingly rejected the null hypothesis in favour of the alternate and concluded that a reduction in a Faculty member's academic workload had a significant impact on increasing his or her job fulfillment. Though, a weak relationship, the results is important for career counsellors in explaining Faculty job satisfaction in Ghanaian universities. Thus, a job design for lecturers that seeks to reduce their academic workload could significantly boost their intrinsic job satisfaction score by a margin on the agreeable scale employed in this study.

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Table 13- *Relationship between Lecturers' Academic Workload and Job Satisfaction*

`		Job Satisfaction
	Pearson Correlation (*r*)	-.199[*]
Workload	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012
	N	159

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

Results of Hypothesis 3: Relationship between Perceived Stress Level and Job Satisfaction Level

As lecturers experience work related stress from instructional and extra-curricular activities (referred to in this study as academic workload), the current study decided to test whether the two factors have an association with each other. This was translated into a null hypothesis as;

H_0: There is no significant relationship between level of perceived stress and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

H_1: There is a significant relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

Table 14 shows the results of Hypothesis 3 with 159 lecturers successfully completing the stress and job satisfaction questionnaires designed for this study. A significant negative and weak association ($r = -0.32$, $p < 0.05$) has been recorded between lecturers' stress levels and job satisfaction levels scores in the Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis.

Table 14- *Pearson (r) between Lecturers' Stress and Job Satisfaction Scores*

		Stress Levels Overall
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	**-.315**[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	159

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on the Pearson's Correlation Analysis, the study rejected the null Hypothesis 3 in favour of the alternative that states that lecturers' stress levels is be significantly associated with their job satisfaction reports. With the inverse *r*-score (-0.32), the current study concludes that as a Faculty member's stress level reduces, he or she is more likely to report favourable outcome on job satisfaction scale with 5% margin of error.

Results of Hypothesis 4: Gender Differences on Lecturers' Perceived Stress Level

Hypothesis 4 aimed to examine differences on stress levels between male and female lecturers at the University of Education, Winneba as;

H_0: The Perceived level of stress between male and female lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba is not significantly different.

H_1: The perceived level of stress among male and female lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba is significantly different.

Descriptive statistics showed 120 males with a lesser mean score ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 0.54$) than 39 females ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 0.49$) on work-related stress measures. Based on the non-significant results of the Levene's test of equal variances ($F = 0.14$, $p > 0.05$) in Table 15, the study employed Independent Samples t-test for Hypothesis 4. With the equality of variance assumption met (important criterion for t-test) the most appropriate model considered was the

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Independent Samples t-test for verification of the mean difference of 0.12 (3.61-3.73) between the sexes in this study. Within the 95% CI, the t-statistics showed that gender was not a significant differentiator of lecturers' work-related stress levels in the current study (*t* (157) =1.22, *p* > 0.05). The null hypothesis was accordingly retained and the conclusion is that it appears female and male lecturers experience equal work-related stress in the University. Guidance and counselling implications are discussed in the discussion section of this thesis.

Table 15- *Independent Samples t-test for Lecturers' Gender and Perceived Stress Levels*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% *CI* of the Diff.	
	F	*Sig.*	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	*SE* Diff.	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.143	.705	-1.222	157	.224	-.11908	.09745	-.31157	.07341
Equal variances not assumed			-1.282	70.163	.204	-.11908	.09291	-.30437	.06621

Source: Survey data 2019

Results of Hypothesis 5: Age Influence on Perceived Stress Level

Research Hypothesis 5 sought to test age's influence on lecturer's work-related stress in the current study.

H_0: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to age will not be significantly different.

H₁: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to age will be significantly different.

The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to age is not significantly different. Table 16 shows the descriptive statistics of age groupings and their scores on academic stress factor. On the scale of 1 to 5, the average scores for the age groups ranged between 3.50 and 3.75 with relatively low *SD* scores.

Table 16- *Descriptive Statistics of Lecturers' Age and Perceived Stress Level*

Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
30-40	53	3.5900	.60906	.08366	3.4221	3.7579
41-50	53	3.6808	.41542	.05706	3.5663	3.7953
51-60	36	3.7540	.49139	.08190	3.5878	3.9203
61-70	16	3.4975	.55637	.13909	3.2011	3.7940
Total	158	3.6485	.51943	.04132	3.5669	3.7301

Source: Survey data (2019)

Using a One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Table 17 contains the omnibus results for the age groupings and stress levels. The between group statistics showed that age was not significant ($F_{(3)} = 1.244$, $p > 0.05$) in predicting lecturers' perceived stress levels in this study. Hence, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis 5.

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Table 17- *One-Way ANOVA for Age and Perceived Stress Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.002	3	.334	1.244	**.296**
Within Groups	41.358	154	.269		
Total	**42.360**	**157**			

Source: Survey data (2019)

Results of Hypothesis 6: Academic Status Influence on Lecturers' Perceived Stress Levels

Hypothesis 6 aimed to examine differences in perceived stress levels in respect to academic status among lecturers at the University of Education, Winneba.

H_0: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to academic status is not significantly different

H_1: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to academic status is significantly different

Four categories of Faculty were reported based on the University's classification of academic staff in public universities. From Table 18, associate professors and professors were grouped (M = 3.52, SD = 0.66), senior lecturers (M = 3.74, SD = 0.44), Lecturers (M = 3.58, SD = 0.55), and assistant lecturers (M = 3.69, SD = 0.51).

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Table 18- *Descriptive Statistics of Academic Status in the University*

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	95% CI for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min.	Max.
Assistant Lecturer	24	3.70	.51	.10	3.48	3.91	2.42	4.47
Lecturer	66	3.576	.55	.07	3.44	3.71	2.06	4.72
Senior Lecturer	56	3.74	.44	.06	3.62	3.86	2.82	4.50
Professor	12	3.52	.66	.19	3.10	3.94	1.94	4.19
Total	**158**	**3.6485**	**.51943**	**.04132**	**3.5669**	**3.7301**	**1.94**	**4.72**
Model Fixed Effects			.51774	.04119	3.5671	3.7298		
Random Effects				.05053	3.4877	3.8093		

Source: Survey data (2019)

The study also tested the equality of variance assumption needed for One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and confidently reported that though the sample sizes for the four groupings differed, that could not be reported for their mean scores in this study (F (3) = 0.76, p = 0.52). Table 18 shows that the omnibus One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistics was not statistically significant in categorising lecturers on the work-related stress scale used in this study. The study then failed to reject the null Hypotheses 6 and concluded that just as Senior Academics (Professors and Senior Lecturers) seems to be experiencing same level of work-related stress levels, the same applied to the early career academics (Assistant Lecturers' and Lecturers' groups). Since the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) model was non-significant, the study did not consider post-hoc tests for Hypothesis 6.

Table 19 - *One-Way ANOVA Results for Status and Perceived Stress Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.080	3	.360	1.343	**.262**
Within Groups	41.280	154	.268		
Total	42.360	157			

Source: Survey data 2019

Discussion of Results

The main purpose of the study was to investigate job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress, and coping strategies and to establish the correlation between job satisfaction, academic workload, and the level of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba. It was also to establish the impact of academic workload on perceived stress levels, correlations between academic workload and job satisfaction levels, and perceived stress levels and job satisfaction levels among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.
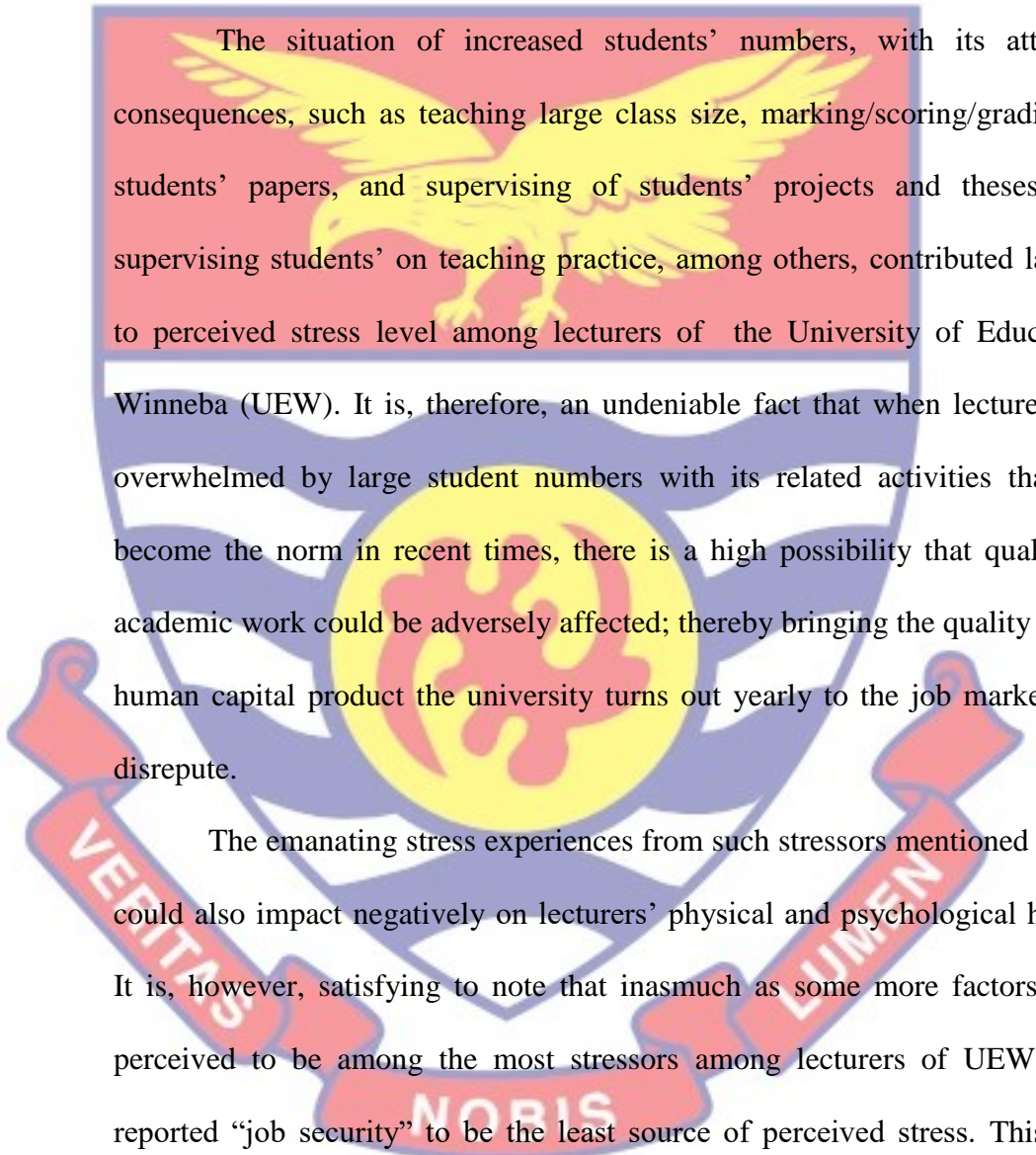
Sources of Perceived Stress among Lecturers

The first research question sought to find out the sources of perceived stress that lecturers encounter in their line of work. A number of perceived stressors were enumerated. The study found out that the most stressful source of perceived stress among lecturers was "Teaching large class-size". This was followed by "marking/scoring/grading of students' papers, "supervision of students' projects work/theses", and "overall academic workload" respectively. Lecturers reported "job security" to be the least source of

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perceived stress. For "teaching of large class-size" to emerge as the impactful source of perceived stress among other perceived stressors listed in the scale could be due to the increased intake of students in recent years with minimal expansion of university infrastructure as well as inadequate instructional facilities, which also happened to be among one of the most perceived stressors. This finding is in consonance with findings of Kusi, Mensah and Gyaki (2014) that "large class-size" was also a major contributing factor of stress experienced by lecturers.

The findings additionally had lecturers reporting "marking/scoring/ grading of students' papers", students' project works/ theses supervision", and overall academic workload" to be the second, third and fourth most very stressful perceived sources of stress. These go to buttress the fact that in addition to the actual teaching load, which also translates into increased contact hours of teaching for lecturers that subsequently result in lecturers teaching numerous students thereby having a lot to mark/score, and enter grade in order to submit results of students, is as a result of overwhelming large class-size (lecturer-student ratio) and its attended consequences. This result is consistent with the findings of Kusi et al. (2014) that excessive workload was identified as the most frequent source of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba campus. This was attributed to highly disproportionate lecturer-student ratio as well as too many programmes that were introduced without employing adequate lecturers to teach on the programmes. Findings by Atindanbila (2011) equally showed that sources of stress among lecturers included teaching load. It is also consistent with the findings of Jarvis (2002) and Masuku and Muchemwa

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(2015) that workload is the leading perceived stressor among lecturers. Even though inadequate instructional facility was found to be one of the perceived sources of stress in this study, it did not support the findings of Omoniyi (2013) who found lack of instructional facilities as being topmost source of perceived stress among lecturers in the University.

The situation of increased students' numbers, with its attended consequences, such as teaching large class size, marking/scoring/grading of students' papers, and supervising of students' projects and theses, and supervising students' on teaching practice, among others, contributed largely to perceived stress level among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba (UEW). It is, therefore, an undeniable fact that when lecturers are overwhelmed by large student numbers with its related activities that has become the norm in recent times, there is a high possibility that quality of academic work could be adversely affected; thereby bringing the quality of the human capital product the university turns out yearly to the job market into disrepute.

The emanating stress experiences from such stressors mentioned above could also impact negatively on lecturers' physical and psychological health. It is, however, satisfying to note that inasmuch as some more factors were perceived to be among the most stressors among lecturers of UEW, they reported "job security" to be the least source of perceived stress. This may suggest that lecturers were doing their best to manage work-related stress, which may also imply that job change may not be an option to be desired even as lecturers experience work-related stress at various levels. This then brings

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us to the next discussion on what measures the lecturers put in place to cope with perceived stress.

Coping Strategies used by Lecturers to Mitigate Work-Related Stress

Research Question Two sought to find out about the coping strategies lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba used to mitigate work-related stress. Generally, adaptive coping strategies help to reduce stress. However, some strategies may actually increase stress, and in turn, may be considered maladaptive. Undoubtedly, as coping strategies could also be appraised as adaptive (healthy) and maladaptive (unhealthy), it was worthwhile for counselling implications to investigate the coping strategies the lecturers of UEW used to mitigate stress in their line of duty.

Participants used a number of coping strategies to manage work-related stress. It is worth noting that a person's coping style is a vital resource of psychological adjustment to stressful situations. Among the items lecturers reported "I use alcohol/stress reducing drugs to relax" as the most coping strategy. This revelation is rather an unhealthy or a maladaptive way to try to manage stress because of the health implications this may pose to lecturers. This finding is congruent with results of a related study by Ravindran, Shankar and Murthy (2019) which indicated that cancer patients have adapted maladaptive coping strategies more often than the adaptive ones. Utilising adaptive coping may enhance functional, emotional and physical well-being of individuals. Furthermore, the report of "I use alcohol/stress reducing drugs to relax" as a coping strategy for stress should be of great concern as maladaptive coping strategies are detrimental to a person's psychological and physical well-being. Moreso, maladaptive strategies are short-term measures because

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they hinder one's ability to face the reality of the stressful situation so as to develop more adaptive copying responses. It is possible, therefore, that persons who use adaptive coping strategies perceive a greater sense of control in the stressful situations.

This notwithstanding, the additional findings in this study showed that lecturers used adaptive coping strategies to mitigate work stress. "I participate in religious activities", "I think more of the positives/benefits of what my work has to offer me", and "I manage my time effectively to reduce stress" respectively were the second, third, and forth most reported coping strategies used by lecturers. This finding is congruent to Amponsah et al. (2020) who found that learners utilise more adaptive coping strategies than maladaptive and avoidance coping strategies. It also supported by Haseeb and Sattar (2018) whose findings showed coping mechanisms that University Teachers used to manage work stress were adaptive (positive). The finding also aligns with the findings of Yikealo and Tareke (2018) who indicated that students used more positive stress coping strategies than negative ones to manage stress. Though these positive or adaptive measures taken by lecturers to mitigate work related stress are encouraging for health reasons, per the findings of this study that the most reported coping strategy was "I use alcohol/stress reducing drugs to relax", there is still the need for counsellors in the university to offer stress management seminars to support lecturers to effectively manage work-related stress.

As stated earlier in the literature review on the subject coping strategies, Folkman and Lazarus (as cited in Kausar, 2010) assert that coping strategies primarily assume to have two functions which involve managing the

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problem causing stress and governing emotions relating to those stressors. In line with these assumptions Kausar (2010) posits that most studies confirm two major related findings. The first is that a situation is evaluated as stressful whenever the individual perceives an inadequate ability to cope with it, while the second is that stressors perceived as controllable elicit more proactive coping mechanisms while those perceived as uncontrollable elicit more avoidance strategies. In sum, as lecturers perceived their academic workload as stressful, and they seem to be making all efforts to mitigate the work-related stress by the use of various coping strategies, they should equally not shy away from seeking professional assistance for appropriate coping strategies for good physical and psychological well-being.

Predictive Effect of Academic Workload on Perceived Stress level of Lecturers

Based on the result obtained from hypothesis 1 it was evident that academic workload and perceived stress were highly related ($r = 0.79$ with R-squared $= 0.62$) for the sample statistics. This implied that academic workload significantly predicted perceived stress level of University of Education, Winneba lecturers based on the Adjusted R-squared. The predictor was further examined and indicated that academic workload significantly predicted perceived stress levels score, (F (1) $= 259.97$, $p < 0.05$). The significant prediction of academic workload on lecturers' perceived stress levels could negatively impact the quality of teaching and learning. It can, therefore, be deduced that if the entire population of lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba were used in this study, academic workload would have significantly accounted for 62.3% of their stress levels. It is evident that large

class size, actual teaching load, Students' projects/theses supervision, teaching practice supervision, administrative duties, inadequate annual leave, inadequate instructional facilities, and other perceived sources of stress discussed in Research Question 1 are contributors to faculty perceived stress level.

The findings corroborated the findings of Kusi et al. (2014) in their study on work-related stress among the academic staff of the University of Education, Winneba Campus. According to their study, the interview data suggested that majority of participants felt that workload demands made on them were high. They further reported participants attributed the high workload demands to the large number of students they handled and the increased number of programmes both at the regular and sandwich sessions with limited number of lecturers. This situation of workload stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba is also consistent with those of previous studies who reported similar results (Gillespie, et al., 2001; Atindanbila, 2011; Masuku & Muchemwa, 2015; Kusi, Robertson & Danso-Mensah, 2019). This though did not support the findings of Omoniyi (2013) who reported poor conferences/research incentives as the key source of work place stressor among lecturers.

The issue of academic workload stress may stem from the fact that lecturer-student ratio is very high and this can hamper effective interaction between lecturers and students. It could also affect effectiveness in the mode of lesson delivery of lecturers. This high lecturer-student ratio could be as a result of multiple programmes the university offers which does not commensurate the number of lecturers that teach various courses on the

various programmes. A point well noting is the fact that many lecturers teach as many as 3 to 5 courses in a semester for the regular programmes, not to mention courses lecturers teach in the sandwich programmes. One could conclude that lecturers are stressed up as a result of excessive academic workload demands placed on them. The situation is beyond their adjustive resources. For according to Lazarus (as quoted in Burman & Goswani 2018, p.112), "Stress occurs when there are demands on the person, which tax or exceed his adjustive resources." Continuous endurance of excessive amount of work-related stress by lecturers may negatively affect their work performance and their health. This may also have implications for students, the institution, and the country at large. There is, therefore, the need for stress intervention programmes to assist lecturers to manage work-related stress for good physical and psychological well-being.

Correlation between Academic Workload and Job satisfaction Level of Lecturers

The objective of hypothesis 2 was to determine whether faculty members would report that their academic workload had an association with their job satisfaction scores in this study. The result indicated an inverse statistically significant association ($r = -0.19$; $p < 0.05$; 2-tailed) between academic workload and job satisfaction. The finding of the study is consistent with Mustapha (2013) who found that workload and satisfaction inversely correlated. Similarly, the study of Mustapha and Ghee (2013) indicated that there was negative significant relationship between daily faculty workload and job satisfaction. The finding of Dhuryana and Hussain (2018) also revealed

that there was a significant association between teachers' workload and their job satisfaction level.

According to Armstrong (2006), job satisfaction is the extent of favourableness with which an employee perceives his or her work and is a significant factor that impacts a person's motivation and productivity. In the work environment of the university lecturers, the job requirement revolves around factors that may contribute to their job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. Aziri (2011, p.78) asserts, "Job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that workers have towards their work." Herzberg (1957) views the concept of job satisfaction as having two dimensions. These are intrinsic factors also known as motivators or satisfiers and the extrinsic factors, also known as hygiene, dissatisfiers, or maintenance factors. The motivators relate to job content, that is, the work itself which include achievement, recognition, responsibility, and advancement. The Hygiene relates to job context, that is, the work environment and relations, and working conditions. Locke, (as cited in Brown and Sargeant, 2007), opines that job satisfaction content theorists are of the view that needs fulfillment and attainment of values can lead to job satisfaction. Hence, Maslow's view of individual needs and job satisfaction is said to exist when the job and its environment meet an individual's needs. With the results one may doubt whether the lecturers' academic workload and its environment are congruent to their needs.

In relation to the submission above, a reduction in a faculty member's academic workload will have a significant impact on increasing his or her job fulfillment. This may be achieved by recruiting more lecturers to

commensurate the increased student-lecturer ratio so as to ease the stressful situation lecturers go through in the higher institutions of learning in the country. For instance, reports in the demographic descriptive statistics of this study revealed that many lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba teach four to five, and in a few cases, six courses a semester. Also, most lecturers reported having administrative duties to perform in addition to the many courses they teach. It is also imperative to enhance the inadequate infrastructural and instructional facilities to ease the large class-size in universities. In relation to large class-size, it is evident in the demographic information in this study that 27.79% of participants, though the second highest, handled a class-size that ranges from 201 to 400 per class. How effective does a situation of this kind enhance effective student-lecturer interaction and effective lesson delivery? Though the correlation showed a weak relationship, the result is important for career counsellors in explaining faculty job satisfaction in Ghanaian universities.

Consequently, a job design for lecturers that seeks to reduce their academic workload could significantly boost their intrinsic job satisfaction levels. It is important, therefore, to reconsider the academic workload of lecturers in order to achieve a reasonable satisfaction as a means to enhance psychological well-being, employee loyalty and institutional performance.

Relationship between Perceived Stress Level and Job Satisfaction level of Lecturers

Hypothesis 3 aimed to find the relationship between perceived stress levels and job satisfaction levels of lecturers. The current study tested whether the two variables had an association with each other. A negative and weak

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association (r = -0.32, p < 0.05) was recorded between lecturers' perceived stress level and job satisfaction level. This finding is consistent with the study of Ahsan et al. (2009) whose results show that there was significant negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. Similarly, Abdul (2012) examined the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction of Pakistan universities and found out that an inverse relationship between the occupational stress and overall job satisfaction in faculty members of private universities. The finding in this is also parallel with the study of Ofeke et al. (2016) who reported that occupational stress had significant relationship with job satisfaction.

In the context of P-E fit theory, findings relative to large class-size, inadequate annual leave, inadequate instructional facilities, criteria for promotion, family and work-balance, time constraints, state of lecturers' office, delays in payment of remuneration/salaries, students' disciplinary issues, unclear work appraisal, and job security, reported by lecturers as perceived stressors could indicate a mismatch between an individual and the environment. Whereas findings regarding overall workload, actual teaching load, lecture notes preparation, setting examination questions, marking /scoring/grading of students' papers, supervising students' projects/theses, teaching practice supervision, administrative responsibilities, preparation of examination results, and invigilation of examinations could indicate presence of fit between demands and abilities.

From the above one could deduce that the constituents of lecturers' work activities are capable of emitting stress and it is needful for lecturers to find healthy ways to ease the work tension so as to maintain good physical and

psychological health. Although there was an indication from the findings on the coping strategies used by lecturers to manage work-related stress that some of the strategies were maladaptive, they employed some adaptive measures to mitigate stress. As opines by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), a person's perception of stress is influenced by both the perceived external threat and the individual's assessment of ability to deal with the stressors. Even though the job itself exerts numerous demands, lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba are competent and they are making sacrificial efforts to meet their job demands.

Gender Difference on Perceived Stress Level of Lecturers

The objective for the hypothesis 4 was to examine differences on perceived stress level between male and female lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba. The descriptive statistics showed 120 male lecturers with a lesser mean score ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 0.54$) than 39 female lecturers mean score ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 0.49$) on work-related stress measures. Within the 95% CI, the t-test showed that sex was not a significant differentiator of lecturers' work-related stress levels in the current study (t (157) = 1.22, $P > 0.05$). It appears male and female lecturers experience equal work-related stress in the University. In terms of gender therefore, the results showed no significant difference in stress levels; thus, male and female lecturers did not differ in reported perceived stress levels. This finding is in line with some researches in the area. Winefield and Jarret (2001) found that with regard to stress levels, there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers. Also, Akinmayowa and Kadiri (2014) found no significant difference in the level of stress experienced by male and female lecturers in a Nigerian

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University. Similarly, Shkembi et al. (2015) reported workplace stress was not significantly predicted by gender. The finding in this study however did no support findings of some previous studies which revealed that women reported higher levels of stress than men (Safaria et al. 2012; Slickovic, & Maslic Sersic, 2011, & Anbumalar et al. 2017). Furthermore, Okebukole and Jegede as well as Blix et al. (as cited by Atindanbila, 2011) similarly found that female lecturers reported more stressors than male lecturers. In another finding however, Borge and Riding (1991) found male teachers reporting greater stressors than female teachers.

Stress, as stated earlier, has health implications and needs to be addressed head on. Research has shown evidence of the fact that work-related stress is mentally and physically unhealthy for men and women, given that both sexes are more likely to develop psychiatric disorders when exposed to the ever increasing levels of stress in the workplace (Cifre Vera, Signani, 2016). According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), and Kudielka, Hellhammer and Kirschbaum (2007) although women and men may suffer from specific stressors that can affect their physical and mental health, they differ in their exposure and reactions to stressors. For example, women experience more chronic stressors than men and women consider stressors as more threatening than men. Both sexes find themselves at higher risks for heart problems and strokes. McCormack and Cotter (2013) assert that several studies have shown that women suffer these effects more than men, particularly, as they move up the organisational ladder. Women are likely to suffer acute health problems when exposed to stressors of the job. This may most likely be due to attempting to balance work and family chores.

Even though everyone manifests a response to stress, reactions widely vary across individuals. It is worth noting that not all stress is negative or bad. In his early work on the concept stress, Selye conceptualised two categories of stress. These are good or desirable stress (eustress) and bad or undesirable stress (distress) (Kendall et al., 2000). Distress, which is the type of stress being referred to in this study, may result in decrease productivity and negatively impact overall levels of well-being of lecturers. Although stress is an integral part of everyday life and cannot be simply avoided, it is evident in the findings of this study that lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba go through very stressful work demands as a result of their academic work requirement. Both male and female lecturers are involved in same mandatory academic work rudiments of teaching, research, and community service. Therefore, no matter the sexes involved, there is the need for guidance and counselling interventions to support male and female lecturers to manage work-related stress experiences.

As indicated in the discussion on the first hypothesis in this study, we see the various items that participants reported as being stressful. Moreso, the demographic information of participants showed both male and female lecturers of the university having large class sizes, having many courses to teach, having many credit hour of teaching, and equally having administrative duties to perform. It is, therefore, not surprising to note that in this study that male and female lecturers experience equal level of work-related stress; hence, they do not differ in their perceived levels of stress. This though did not concur with the argument advanced by Nolen-Hoeksema (1990) that women
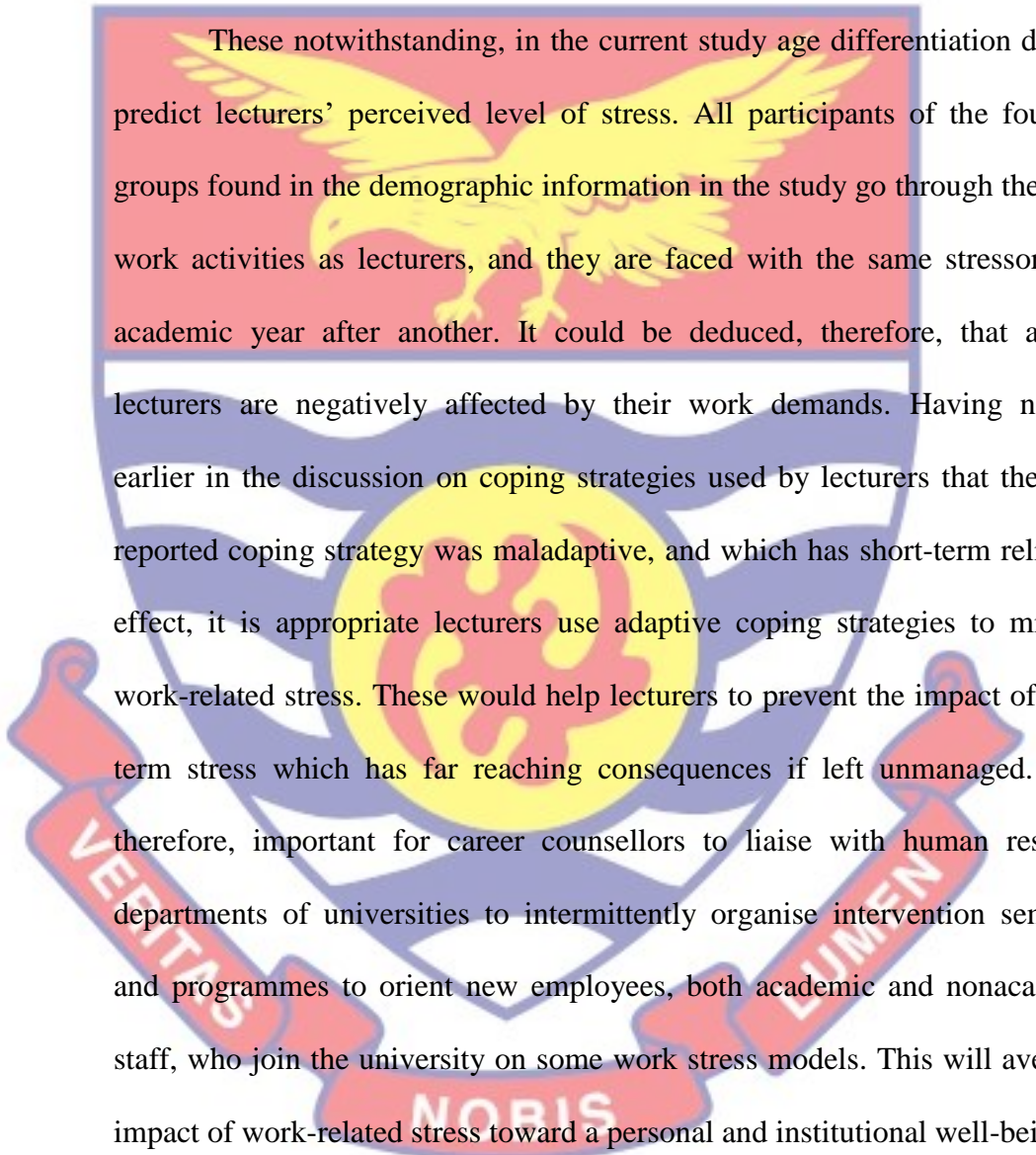
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face a number of burdens in everyday life as a result of social status and roles relative to men and these strains contribute to higher stress.

Age Influence on Perceived Stress Level of Lecturers

For guidance and counselling interventions, research hypothesis 5 sought to investigate whether lecturers' age would influence lecturers' levels of perceived stress in the current study. The results revealed that age was not significant (F (3) = 1.244, p > .005) in predicting lecturers' academic stress levels. This finding is supported by Akinmayowa and Kadiri (2014) who researched on stress among academic staff of a Nigerian University. Their results showed that members of academic staff do not differ in their levels of stress with respect to age. Also, Shkembi et al. (2015) reported that age was not a significant factor in predicting workplace stress. Furthermore, in the study of Masuku and Muchemwa (2015) on occupational stress among university lecturers: a case of Zimbabwe, they found that there was no statistically significant difference in respect to age.

It is a common fact that naturally as humans age they become susceptible to stress. This, though, does not mean that the younger person may not experience stressful situations. According to Rauschenbach et al. (2013), literature showed that age might impact many components of the stress process at the workplace but because the effects are partly conflicting, they might annul each other in the total relationship between age and stress. Thus, as to whether older employees or younger employees experience high demands at work, may be dependent on the type of task demands. They further explained that it is plausible that an individual's appraisal of stressor may be age-related shifts as a result of several factors. For example, age-related

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resources, such as accumulated knowledge, might favour the older employees in the appraisal of existing demands as less stressful than the younger colleagues. Alternatively, age-related losses, such as physical capabilities and cognitive resources may cause the older workers to appraise work demands as more stressful.

These notwithstanding, in the current study age differentiation did not predict lecturers' perceived level of stress. All participants of the four age groups found in the demographic information in the study go through the same work activities as lecturers, and they are faced with the same stressors one academic year after another. It could be deduced, therefore, that all the lecturers are negatively affected by their work demands. Having noticed earlier in the discussion on coping strategies used by lecturers that the most reported coping strategy was maladaptive, and which has short-term relieving effect, it is appropriate lecturers use adaptive coping strategies to mitigate work-related stress. These would help lecturers to prevent the impact of long-term stress which has far reaching consequences if left unmanaged. It is, therefore, important for career counsellors to liaise with human resource departments of universities to intermittently organise intervention seminars and programmes to orient new employees, both academic and nonacademic staff, who join the university on some work stress models. This will avert the impact of work-related stress toward a personal and institutional well-being.

Academic Status Influence on Lecturers' Perceived Stress Level

Hypothesis 6 aimed at examining stress levels in respect to academic status of lecturers. The result indicated no statistically significant difference. The finding showed that the higher status groups (combined) as well as lower

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status groups (combined) did not significantly differ on their levels of job satisfaction. This implied that just as senior academics (professors and senior lecturers) seem to be experiencing same level of work-related stress, the same applied to the early career academics (assistant lecturers and lecturers groups). In this study therefore, status did not influence perceived stress levels among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba (F (3) = 0.76, p = 0.52). This study is supported by the study of Akinmayowa and Kadiri (2014) that academic staff did not differ in their level of stress in respect to academic rank. The finding of this study is consistent with the finding of Pimpong et.al. (2019) which indicated that university staff's rank/position did not determine their levels of job satisfaction. In contrast, Atindanbila (2011) and Safaria et al. (2012) found statistically significant differences in the perception of stress based on position or rank.

From earlier submissions in the results and discussion section of this study, it is evident that participants in the study have high work demands which are stressful. The findings also show that the perceived levels of stress among lecturers were not sex or age specific. Likewise, in the attempt to find whether academic status of lecturers would influence their perceived levels of stress, results showed no statistically significant difference. These findings are, however, not surprising since in the university system, like any other work establishment, the work demands placed on lecturers are irrespective of gender, age or academic status. For example, the demographic information showed that a greater number of lecturers were involved in administrative duties irrespective of their academic status; except for certain instances where lecturers in the higher ranks (senior lecturer or professor) are assigned specific

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additional duties. Furthermore, handling of large classes, teaching many courses, and having excess credit hours of teaching are concerns that cut across all the academic status in the university.

The key concern is that the increased demands placed upon lecturers may affect their job performance as well as their well-being. For, according to Omolara (as cited in Ogunlana et al., 2013), stress is dynamic and mutual in relationship between the individual and environment, and sources of stress can span from ruinous events to infuriating incidents. Bowen, Rose, and Pilkington (2016) postulate that findings of studies undertaken by researchers show that university staff experience high workload demands and long hours of work. Dinham (2004), however, asserts that stressors do not elicit a stress response in the individual until he or she appraises it as exceeding the available resources. There is also the possibility that a given level of stress leads to different effects across people and across time. Irrespective of status, stress in the academia can have ripple effects on the lecturers themselves, their students, the institution, and society if not well-managed.

Summary of Key findings

The following findings emerged from the data analysis:

1. Teaching large class size was reported by participants as the most impactful source of stress. This was closely followed by marking/scoring/grading of students' papers, projects/theses supervision, and overall academic workload respectively.

2. The most frequently used coping strategy by participants to mitigate stress was identified to be the use of alcohol/stress reducing drugs to relax. Participants also identified participation in religious activities,

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thinking more of the positives/benefits of what the work has to offer, and effective time management respectively as coping strategies they used to mitigate stress.

3. Academic workload predicted lecturers' perceived stress level.

4. Academic workload inversely correlated the level of job satisfaction among lecturers.

5. Lecturers' perceived levels of stress were negatively associated with their job satisfaction level.

6. Sex was not a differentiator of lecturers' perceived level of stress.

7. Age did not influence work-related stress of lecturers in this study.

8. Academic status of lecturers did not influence their perceived stress level.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study, its findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. Also, counselling implications, contributions to knowledge, contributions to policy, and suggestions for further research are also presented.

Summary of the Study

This study investigated job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. The purpose was to establish the correlations between job satisfaction, academic workload and level of perceived stress among participants. The study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. The population for the study was the academic staff of all the four campuses of the institution. I used proportional stratified sampling, simple random sampling, and purposive sampling techniques to draw the sample for the study. The following two research questions and six hypotheses underpinned the study:

Research Questions

1. What are the sources of perceived stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba?

2. What are the coping strategies used by lecturers of the university of Education, Winneba to mitigate stress?

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Hypotheses

1. H_0: There is no significant predictive effect of academic workload on perceived stress level among lecturers of the University of Education Winneba.

    H_1: There is a significant predictive effect of academic workload on perceived stress level among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

2. H_0: There is no significant correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

    H_1: There is a significant correlation between academic workload and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

3. H_0: There is no significant relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

    H_1: There is a significant relationship between perceived stress level and the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba.

4. H_0: The perceived level of stress among male and female lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba will not be significantly different.

    H_1: The perceived level of stress among male and female lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba will be significantly different.

5. H_0: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to age will not be significantly different.

    H_1: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to age will be significantly different.

6. H_0: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to academic status is not significantly different.

    H_1: The perceived level of stress among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba in respect to academic status is significantly different.

Chapter two of the report dealt with the literature review and was organised under four major headings, namely: theoretical framework, conceptual review, empirical review, and conceptual framework. The theoretical framework focused on Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Theory, Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, and Herzberg Two-factor Theory of Job Satisfaction. The conceptual review covered the key variables in the study (academic workload, perceived stress, coping strategies, and job satisfaction). The empirical review also focused on sources of perceived stress, work-related stress and coping strategies, and perceived stress and job satisfaction. The conceptual framework that was developed covered the major variables (academic workload, perceived stressors, coping strategies and job satisfaction) in the study.

Chapter three of the report was the research methods component. The study employed the descriptive survey design and data were collected using

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questionnaire. The population was the academic staff in the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. The sampling techniques that were used to select the sample size of 159 participants for the study were purposive sampling, proportional stratified sampling, and simple random sampling. Two research questions and six hypotheses guided the study. The research questions were analysed and interpreted using mean and standard deviations. The hypotheses were tested with the following statistical tools: Simple Linear Regression, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Independent samples t-test, and One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Summary of Main Findings

The major findings that emerged with regard to the objectives of the study are further summarised. In relation to the investigation into job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana, the major findings are enumerated:

1. Research question 1 sought to find out the sources of perceived stress among lecturers of UEW. The results showed that teaching large class size, marking/scoring and grading of students' papers, supervision of students' project works and theses, and overall academic workload respectively were the most impactful sources of stress among lecturers.

2. Research question 2 sought to find out the coping strategies used by lecturers of UEW to mitigate perceived stress. The result indicated that the most frequently used coping strategy by lecturers to mitigate stress was the use of alcohol or stress reducing drugs to relax. Lecturers also reported participating in religious activities, thinking more of the

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positives or benefits of what the work has to offer, and effective time management respectively as coping strategies they used to mitigate stress.

3. Hypothesis 1 investigated academic workload's predictive effect on lecturers' perceived stress level. The result showed that academic workload predicted lecturers' perceived stress level.

4. Hypothesis 2 sought to determine whether lecturers would report that their academic workload had an association with their job satisfaction level. The results indicated that academic workload inversely correlated the level of job satisfaction among lecturers of UEW.

5. Hypothesis 3 aimed to find the relationship between perceived stress level and job satisfaction level among lecturers of UEW. The results revealed that lecturers' perceived level of stress were negatively associated with their job satisfaction level.

6. Hypothesis 4 was to examine differences on perceived stress levels between male and female lecturers of UEW. The results showed that sex was not a differentiator of lecturers' perceived levels of stress.

7. Hypothesis 5 sought to investigate whether lecturers' age would influence their level of perceived stress. The results showed that age did not influence work-related stress of lecturers in this study.

8. Hypothesis 6 aimed at examining stress levels in respect to academic status of lecturers of UEW. The results brought to light that academic status of lecturers did not influence their perceived stress level.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of the study.

Large class-size, marking/scoring and grading of scripts, supervising students' project work and thesis, inadequate instructional resources and overall academic workload contributed to faculty stress level. Hence, reduction of the number of students per class, and provision of adequate instructional resources will ease faculty members' work-related stress.

Reduction in Faculty members' academic workload will have a significant impact on increasing their job fulfillment. Thus, a job design for lecturers that seeks to reduce their academic workload could significantly boost their intrinsic job satisfaction score by a margin on the agreeable scale employed in this study.

As Faculty member's stress level reduces, he or she is more likely to report favourable outcome on job satisfaction scale with 5% margin of error.

It appears female and male lecturers experience equal work-related stress in the university. This may be attributed to the fact that in academia work allocation is not gender specific. Teaching staff, whether male or female, have the same job mandate of teaching research and community service. Therefore, the hassles of the academic work demands placed on individual are irrespective of gender differentiation even though experts believe men and women may differ in their exposure and reaction to stressors.

The literature has it that age might impact various components of the stress process at the workplace. Moreso, the experiences of stress is dependent on individual's appraisal of stress. Undoubtedly, it is possible that whether younger employees or older employees experience high demands at work may depend on the type of task demands. In this study, however, the age categories involved in the study did not differ in their stress perception levels.

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Moreso, demographic characteristics, such as sex of lecturers in this study did not influence their level of perceived stress. In similar vein, academic status of Faculty members made no differences in their stress perception levels. Just as senior academics (professors and senior lecturers) seem to experience same level of work-related stress, the same applied to the early career academics (assistant lecturers and lecturers). These finding are, however, not surprising because in the university system, like any other establishments, work demands placed on lecturers are irrespective of academic status or position though one may argue that work experience among the groups could make a difference.

Implications for Counselling

From the study it is clear that the most dominant source of stress among lecturers was teaching large class-size. This comes with attended activities, such as having to do exceedingly more in relation to marking/scoring and grading of student's papers, supervising students' project works, theses, and teaching practice supervision exercises. There is also the aspect of dealing with group behaviours that characterises large class-size. Additionally, it was also evident that most lecturers were involved in administrative duties, thereby increasing their overall academic workload. Lecturers are also mandated to carry out research, and render community services. It is possible that in the wake of these activities lecturers may experience stress. To minimise stress, lecturers should be assisted to devise innovative classroom management techniques to deal with the large class-size. Lecturers should also be taught group dynamics to enable them gain the principles of handling group behaviours.

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It is encouraging to note that lecturers take personal responsibility to manage the stressful conditions in the line of their work as academics by adapting some stress coping strategies. However, one of the findings of this study showed that the most frequently used coping strategy to mitigate stress was the use of alcohol and stress reducing drugs to relax when stressed out. This form of coping strategy is short-lived and unhealthy. Counsellors need to teach lecturers appropriate coping strategies in order to reduce the use of maladaptive coping strategies to mitigate work-related stress. This can be done through the organisation of intermittent seminars and workshops to help lecturers acquire practical skills and techniques to manage work-related stress.

There is also the issue of lecturers not patronising the expertise of counsellors. Lecturers seem to have the idea that guidance and counselling services are meant for students. They seem to perceive that they are above counselling service. Lecturers must be helped to appreciate the fact that no one is above counselling, and that they must feel free to engage the expertise of counsellor for professional assistance to manage work-related stress and any personal-social concerns they may have. There is the need for special orientation programme for newly recruited lecturers to prepare them for the university work.

Since work-related stress has health implications, counsellors in the universities should liaise with the Health Directorate and Management to put in place some form of routine health check for staff. This will enable workers, both teaching and non-teaching, to have the opportunity to know their health status in order to seek for medical help should there be the need.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions, I would like to make the following recommendations:

1. One major finding of the study is that teaching large class-size, making/scoring and grading of students' papers, supervision of students' projects' project works and theses, and overall academic workload respectively were the most impactful sources of stress among lecturers of the University of Education Winneba. Based on this, it is recommended that more lecturers should be employed to meet the increasing student in-take toward an appreciable lecturer-student ratio.

2. Another major finding of the study is that the most frequently used coping strategy by lecturers of UEW to mitigate stress was the use of alcohol/stress reduction drugs to relax when stressed up. This coping strategy is not adaptive or healthy enough. It is, therefore, recommended that lecturers should make use of adaptive coping strategies that will enable them mitigate stress. Lecturers should, therefore, patronise the expertise of the counsellors in the institution to assist them with coping strategies and stress management skills to mitigate stress.

3. One other finding of this study is that academic workload predicted perceived stress level of UEW lecturers. Based on this, it is recommended that academic workload of lecturers should be reduced so as to ease stress of lecturers.

4. Furthermore, a finding of the study is that there was a negative and weak association between perceived level of stress and job satisfaction

level among lecturers of UEW. Even though the association was a negative and weak one, it is recommended that Management of the institution should put in measures, such as increasing the teaching staff ten-day compulsory annual leave to a 30-day one, and strictly adhering to its observance without placing any institutional demands that will take away that period of rest, and improving generally the working conditions under which lecturers work. These may help minimise the quantum of stress experienced by lecturers to boost their job satisfaction level. This may also increase lecturers' performance and productivity levels for the benefit of students, the institution and the nation.

Contributions to knowledge

1. Study has affirmed the fact that excessive academic workload impact perceived level of stress among lecturers.

2. The study has revealed teaching large class-size as the most stressful source of lecturer stress.

3. The findings of this study have brought to the fore that the coping strategy most frequently used by lecturers to mitigate work-related stress was the use of alcohol/stress reducing drugs; this though is not a healthy practice.

4. The study has established that lecturers should consult professional counsellors to assist them with healthy and appropriate coping strategies to mitigate work-relates stress.

Contributions to Policy

1. The findings of this study have confirmed the need for Government to give clearance for Management of universities to employ more lecturers to commensurate the increasing student-intake in public universities. Employing more lecturers would not only minimise the high lecturer-student ratio in universities, but it will help reduce the teaching of large class-size and minimise the issue of excessive academic workload among lecturers.

2. Counselling centers in the university should establish intermittent organisation of seminars and workshops to assist lecturers to acquire coping strategies and techniques to mitigate work-related stress.

Suggestions for Further Research

To further explore issues concerning work-related stress the following suggestions are made for further studies:

1. It is suggested that the study should be conducted in the remaining Public Universities in Ghana so as to have a wider representation.

2. It is suggested that a qualitative study on the topic be conducted for indepth insight into work-related stress in the academia.

3. It is suggested that intervention studies should be done on appropriate coping mechanisms towards reduction of work-related stress.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

PERCEIVED STRESS-JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (PS-JSQ) FOR UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

I am a Ph.D student of the University of Cape Coast currently undertaking a research on job satisfaction, academic workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information for my thesis, which is a requirement of the Doctor of Philosophy Degree (Ph.D.) in Guidance and Counselling. The information collected will be strictly used for research purpose. Confidentiality of the information is absolutely assured. I therefore kindly solicit for your cooperation. Thank you.

SECTION A: Demographic/Background Information

INSTRUCTION: Please tick or indicate where applicable the appropriate responses to the following statements.

1. Your gender: Male [ ]   Female [ ]

2. Your Age: 30-40 [ ]   41-50 [ ]   51-60 [ ]   61-70 [ ]

3. Status: Assistant Lecturer [ ]   Lecturer [ ]   Senior Lecturer [ ]
   Associate Professor [ ]   Full Professor [ ]

4. Campus: Winneba [ ] Ajumako [ ]   Kumasi [ ] Asante-Mampong [ ]

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5.   Number of years taught in the University of Education, Winneba. Please indicate……….

6.   How many courses are you teaching this semester? 1[ ]   2 [ ]   3 [ ]   4 [ ] 5 or more [ ]

7.   How many contact hours of teaching do you have every week for this semester? Please indicate...........................

8.   What is the largest class size of the course(s) you are teaching this semester? Please indicate…………………

9.   Are you involved in any administrative duties? (a) Yes [ ]   (b) No [ ]

10. If 'yes' to question 9, kindly indicate the position(s) Please specify all positions applicable. ………………………………………………….

SECTION B: Academic Workload

INSTRUCTION: The scale in this section has a list of statements on some work activities that may create some level of stress. Use the following options to respond to the statements. Please tick as appropriate:

Extremely High Level (EHL=5); Very High Level (VHL=4); High Level (HL=3);   Low Level (LL=2); Very Low Level (VLL=1)

Item	Statement	EHL	VHL	HL	LL	VLL
11	Teaching large class-size					
12	Teaching early in the morning					
13	Teaching late in the evening					
14	Engaging in community service activities					
15	Serving on various committees					

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16	Teaching large class-size without microphone					
17	Teaching in congested lecture halls					
18	Teaching more than 12 credit hours per week					
19	Performing administrative duties					
20	Setting of examination questions					
21	Marking & scoring assignments/examination scripts					
22	Invigilating end of semester examinations					
23	Keying in students' results online					
24	Supervising students' project works/theses					
25	Supervising students' teaching practice/internship					
26	Working on research papers for publication					

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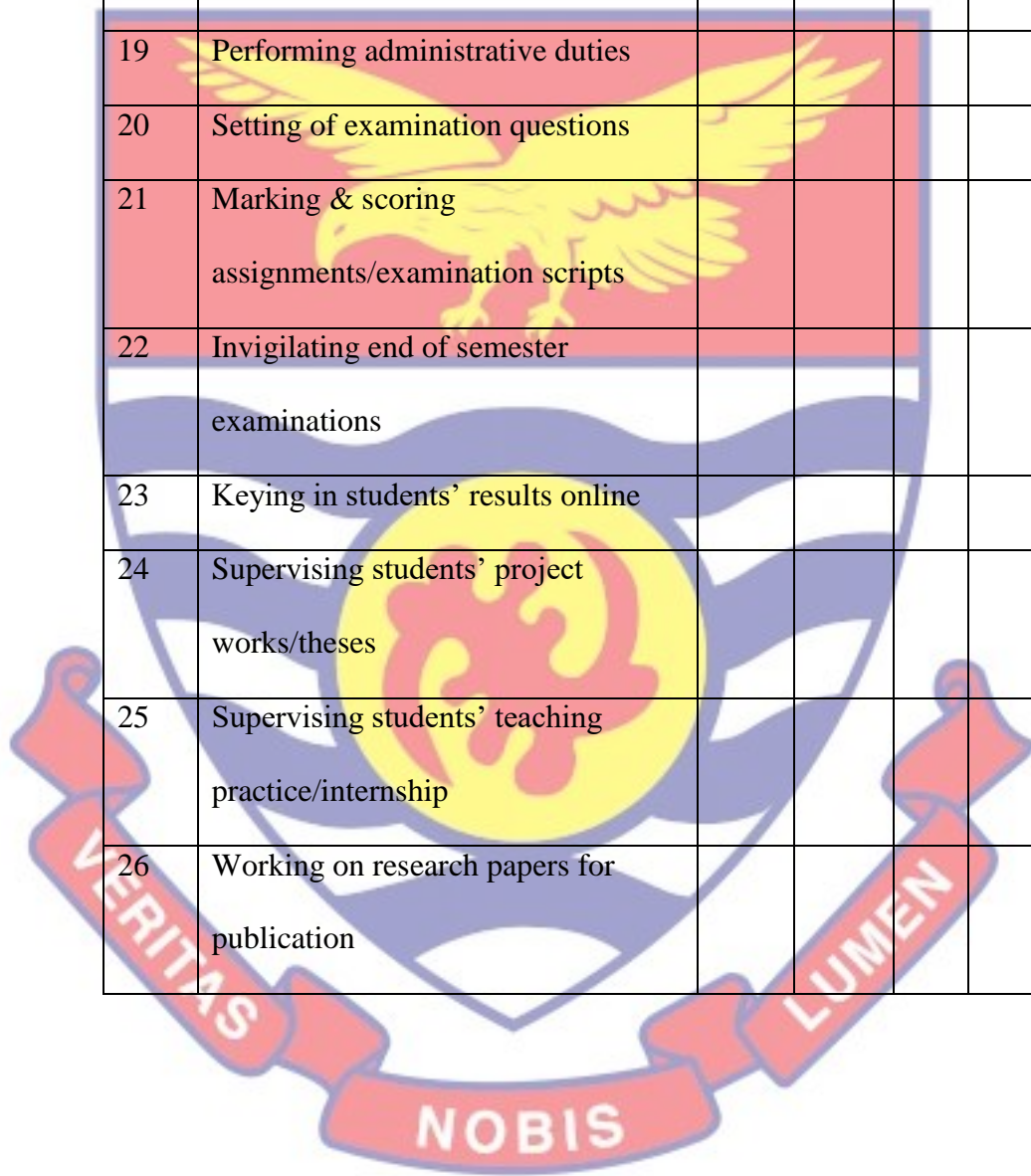
SECTION C: Perceived Stress Level

INSTRUCTION: **Please read each item very carefully and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by ticking the box that corresponds to your choice concerning each statement. The responses are as follows:**

Strongly Agree (SA=5); Agree (A=4); Neutral (N=3); Disagree (D=2); Strongly Disagree (SD=1)

Item	Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
	Physiological Effect					
27	I experience frequent backaches due to work pressure.					
28	I experience frequent headaches due to work pressure.					
29	Thoughts of my academic workload make it difficult for me to sleep at night even if I am tired.					
30	I do not feel exhausted as a result of my academic work activities.					
31	Excessive academic workload has disrupted my eating pattern.					
	Emotional Effect					
32	I often feel tensed and get easily irritated as I go about my work.					
33	Thoughts of my academic workload usually make me feel calm and at ease.					
34	I feel the work pressure is taking a toll on my					

	health.					
35	I feel stressed up because of academic workload.					
36	My academic workload makes me to sometimes worry about my health.					
	Psychological Effect					
37	Academic workload is adversely affecting my personal life.					
38	I feel overwhelmed with my excessive teaching load.					
39	I am becoming more and more disinterested in social activities as a result of work pressure.					
40	I easily feel anxious over petty issues					
41	I am not at all pressured with my excessive academic workload.					
	Social Effect					
42	I have limited time space to socialise with my colleague lecturers.					
43	I get ample time to socialise with the non-teaching staff of the Institution.					
44	My work reduces the quality time I spend with my family much to my displeasure.					
45	My work involves a lot of travel away from home.					
46	My work is so much demanding that I am unable to pay much attention to things at home.					

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SECTION D: Sources of Perceived Stress

INSTRUCTION: This section is about what you perceive as stressors in your work. Use the following options to respond to the statements. Please tick as appropriate:

Extremely Stressful (ES=5); Very Stressful (VS=4); Stressful (S=3); Not Stressful (NS=2)   Not At All Stressful (NAAS=1)

Item	Statement	ES	VS	S	NS	NAAS
47	Overall academic workload					
48	Time constraints					
49	Students' disciplinary issues					
50	Family and work-life balance					
51	Unclear work appraisal system					
52	Administrative responsibilities					
53	Job security					
54	Inadequate instructional facilities					
55	Inadequate annual leave					
56	Teaching large class size					
57	Actual teaching load					
58	Students' project/thesis supervision					
59	Criteria used for promotion					
60	State of lecturers' office					
61	Setting examination questions					
62	Marking/scoring/grading of students' papers					
63	Preparation of examination results					
64	Invigilation of examinations					
65	Participation in university fund generating activities					
66	Teaching practice supervisions					
67	Lecture notes preparation					
68	Delays in payment of remuneration/salary					

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SECTION E: Coping Strategies

INSTRUCTION: The scale in this section is made up of a list of statements each of which may or may not be true about how you try to reduce, cope with or manage stress. Please tick as appropriate using the following responses:

Strongly Agree (SA=5); Agree (A=4); Neutral (N=3); Disagree (D=2); Strongly Disagree (SD=1)

Item	Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
69	I discuss how I feel about the pressure of work with colleagues.					
70	I try to get emotional support from friends or relatives.					
71	I consult a counsellor for professional help.					
72	I engage in a hobby or other personal activities.					
73	I participate in religious activities.					
74	I watch movies/TV to take my mind off work pressure.					
75	I try to get adequate sleep.					
76	I practice relaxation techniques.					
77	I make time to exercise regularly.					
78	I eat lots of my favourite food.					
79	I take direct actions to get around the stressful situation.					
80	I manage my time effectively to reduce stress.					
81	I accept the fact that my line of work is stressful and nothing can be done about it.					
82	I use alcohol/stress reducing drugs to relax.					
83	I think more on the positives/benefits of what my work has to offer me.					
84	I refuse to accept that my work puts a lot of pressure on me.					
85	I force myself to contain the pressure in the teaching work.					

SECTION F: Job Satisfaction

INSTRUCTION: This section is about how satisfied or dissatisfied you are with some aspects of your work. Use the following options to respond to the statements. Please tick as appropriate the following responses:

Very Satisfied (VS=5); Satisfied (S=4); Neutral (N=3); Dissatisfied (D=2); Very Dissatisfied (VD=1)

Item	Statement	VS	S	N	D	VD
86	Remuneration/salary					
87	Job security					
88	Work policies					
89	General working conditions					
90	Attitude of colleagues toward me					
91	Attitude of students toward me					
92	Procedure for promotion					
93	Prestige value of my work					
94	Channels for addressing grievances					
95	Circulation of information to lecturers					
96	Work responsibilities					
97	Recognition for good work done.					
98	My overall academic workload.					
99	Opportunities for in-service training					
100	Management's attitude toward lecturers' concerns/needs					

THANK YOU

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APPENDIX B

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS
DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

Telephone: 0332091854
Email: dgc@ucc.edu.gh

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: DGC/L.2/VOL.1/ 93

8th May, 2019

Your Ref:

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

We introduce to you, Theresa Dede Lawer a student pursuing a Ph.D Programme in Guidance and Counselling at the Department of Guidance and Counselling of the University of Cape Coast. As a requirement, she is to submit a Thesis on the topic: *"Job Satisfaction, Workload, Perceived Stress and Coping Strategies among Lecturers of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana"*. We are by this letter affirming that, the information she will obtain from your institution will be solely used for academic purposes.

We would be most grateful if you could provide her the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

Rev. Fr. Dr. Anthony K. Nkyi
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

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APPENDIX C

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 0558093143 / 0508087830/ 0244207814
E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh
OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/536
YOUR REF:
OMB NO: 0990-0279
IORG #: IORG0009096

C/O Directorate of Research, Innovation and Consultancy

24TH SEPTEMBER, 2019

Ms Therasa Dede Lawer
Department of Guidance and Counselling
University of Cape Coast

Dear Ms Lawer,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CES/2019/35)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for the implementation of your research protocol titled **Job satisfaction, workload, perceived stress and coping strategies among Lecturer of the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.** This approval requires that you submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

Please note that any modification of the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD
UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

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APPENDIX D

BETA TABLE

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.742	.182		4.085	.000
Workload	.768	.048	.790	16.123	.000

a.   Dependent Variable: StressLevels_Overall

Source: Survey data, 2019

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