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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS AMONG MUSIC EDUCATORS IN THE STATE OF MICHIGAN

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS AMONG MUSIC EDUCATORS IN THE STATE OF MICHIGAN

By

Phillip Stubblefield

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS AMONG MUSIC EDUCATORS IN THE STATE OF MICHIGAN

by

Phillip Stubblefield

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between stress, job satisfaction and teaching assignments among Michigan music educators.

Two instruments were used to obtain the necessary data for the study. The Job Description Index (JDI) by Smith, et al. (1967), and the Stress-Related Questionnaire (SRQ), a self-constructed questionnaire, were used to measure job satisfaction and level of stress on the job.

Two hundred and sixty-two music educators in the state of Michigan during the 1982-83 school year made up the population for this study.

The results of this study can be summarized as follows:

1. There is a negative relationship between the level of stress and the level of job satisfaction for Michigan music educators.

2. There is no significant difference between the amount of stress experienced at each grade level.

3. There is no significant difference between stress and teaching assignment.

4. There is a significant difference between the amount of stress by gender and stress and years of teaching experience.

5. There is no significant difference between job satisfaction and demographic variables: sex, age, level of education, size of school system, and years of teaching experience.

6. Mean scores for the job satisfaction components of pay, promotion, people and work were lower than supervision scores.

7. The mean score for promotion was the lowest of the five aspects of job satisfaction.

8. The mean score indicated that placing high expectation on self was the greatest source of stress for Michigan music educators.

9. The mean score for threatened with personal injury was the lowest for sources of stress for Michigan music educators.

Dedicated to

the Memory of my Father

Paul Brooks Stubblefield (†1959)

and my Brother

Victor Stubblefield (†1969)

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When I began investigating the effects of job related stress among music educators in the state of Michigan, I had not realized the magnitude of such a task. I could almost always find a personal reference in the stress I experienced at every obstacle in my research.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

The race is not won by the swift nor the strong

But by he that endureth to the end . . .

--Traditional Black Interpretation of Ecclesiastes IX:11

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background for the Study

Stress, a significant factor in today's world, has revealed itself in all aspects of one's life--home, work, and the social environment. Within the work force, supervisors are concerned about employees who continually exhibit many of the behaviors of stress. Ralph T. Collins, staff psychiatrist and neurologist of the Kodak company, reports that 80 percent of the employees' emotional problems are related to stress. Although many causes of stress originate off the job and only disrupt it, supervisors must be prepared to aid employees no matter what the cause (Collins, 1974). Stress has many obvious forms; but others are not so apparent. A partial list includes hunger, thirst, heat, cold, insecurity, social change, conflict, fear, grief, exertion, fatigue (mental and physical), anxiety, frustration, depression, dominating parents or spouse, job dissatisfaction, and resentment. No matter in what form stress manifests itself, it causes a pattern of reactions which are basically dependent upon the individual's conscious and unconscious assessment of life, job, and social situation.

Stress is an integral part of living and is not something to be eliminated from life. Without it, one would become bored, remain emotionally immature, and there would be little human endeavor. Stress research has focused much attention on stressful stimuli or situations

to which everyone is exposed to a greater or lesser extent in the natural course of life. These stimuli or situations, called "life events" include experiences such as marriage, birth of a child, divorce and death of a loved one. Stress is the driving force which enables people to successfully meet the challenge of life events.

Human resources are often the most expensive resources for any business. Employee problems generated by stress, such as lowered production, inadequate attention and concentration, health problems, high absenteeism, and personality clashes cost the employer money and effective performance. The list of ways in which stress affects an individual's behavior includes abuse of marijuana, amphetamines, sleeping pills, alcohol, and other drugs; overeating; psychological withdrawal, ill-temper, and sleeplessness. More severe cases manifest themselves in criminal involvement and suicide (Seiden, 1971).

Mental and physical stress is a phenomenon that is forcing thousands of American teachers out of today's classrooms (NEA Reporter, 1979). This is termed the "teacher burnout syndrome." Burnout occurs when stress of a job reaches the overload point. According to several psychological studies (Monate & Lazarus, 1977; Cherniss, 1980; and Pines, 1981) burnout occurs most often in those professions that deal directly with people--specifically, health, social service, law enforcement, and teaching. Stress in teaching is of major concern in teacher education and educational programs across the country. Educational journals such as Today's Education, Educational Research, and Contemporary Education, have described and defined stress and teacher burnout in America's schools, the effects upon

children in the classroom, and the national tragedy which is developing. Stress has been singled out as a major cause for teacher burnout, and considerable time has been devoted to identifying the stressors contributing to the widespread malaise which continues to persist in the schools (Alley & Cardinell, 1979). National Education Association (NEA) president Willard McGuire (1979) has stated:

> A major new malady has afflicted the teaching profession and threatens to reach epidemic proportions if it isn't checked soon. The effects of stress have already stricken thousands of sensitive, thoughtful, and dedicated teachers--teachers who are abandoning the profession. Additional thousands may join their peers, for they fear for their physical and mental health . . . teacher burnout is a condition that results from stress, tension, and anxiety in its victims. It is caused by the many horrendous problems that plague teachers and that they receive little help in dealing with (p. 5).

The National Education Association believes that the dynamics of the society and increased demands on education have produced adverse and stressful classroom and school conditions. These conditions have lead to increased emotional and physical disabilities among teachers and other school personnel. Educators today find themselves under added pressures each year with the public continually demanding more of them through federally mandated programs such as mainstreaming special education students and state-legislated programs such as competency testing. Today's educational professionals also state that this same public is also now less supportive of school and education professionals (Alley, 1980). In addition to a lack of community support, teachers are being stressed from a number of other sources--specifically, violence and vandalism in the schools, disruptive students, inadequate salaries, involuntary transfers,

interferring parents, oversized classes, excessive paperwork, and little support from administration (McGuire, 1979). The National Education Association is stepping up its programs to assist teachers in coping with stress and providing instructional techniques for classroom management and discipline. The NEA is also putting forth an effort to bring about community understanding of stress-related problems and how these problems are affecting the school, student, teacher, and community (McGuire, 1979, p. 5).

The Michigan Education Association (MEA) has taken an assertive position on the issue of stress and its effects on Michigan educators. The MEA presented to its teachers the Platform and Resolutions adopted by delegates at the 1982 Representative Assembly. Among the twelve resolutions, the ninth resolution specifically addressed the concerns of stress on teachers and other personnel. The resolution states:

> The Michigan Education Association believes that the dynamics of our society and increased public demands on education have produced adverse and stressful classroom and school conditions. These conditions have led to increased emotional and physical disabilities among teachers and other school personnel.
>
> The Association urges its local affiliates, in cooperation with local school authorities, to develop stress management programs that will facilitate the recognition, prevention, and treatment of stress-related problems.
>
> The Association further urges that the harmful effects of stress on teachers and other school personnel be recognized and it demands procedures that will ensure confidentiality and treatment without personal jeopardy (p. 10).

Stress related problems among music educators are increasing (Davis, 1978). Music teachers are affected by stressors which other classroom teachers are not experiencing. The music educator must

adhere to general classroom duties required by all teachers and also teach large groups of students simultaneously (i.e., band, orchestra, choir). The music educator is subjected constantly to performance pressures, which often require extra hours of rehearsals before and/or after school, and assumes myriad extra responsibilities contained in the public relations aspect of the job. Marching band, orchestra, and choral directors often develop outstanding reputations based on their organizations' accomplishments. The more enthusiastic and successful the director, the more students the music program will attract (Davis, 1979). Among the music educators' concerns are transportation arrangements, maintaining a supportive attitude with the booster organization, and the organization and execution of fund-raising projects. The transient music educator is faced with job-related stress also. The work schedule, arranged by the administration, has been designed with little or no teacher input. For many of the transient music educators there is no home-base school, thus resulting in feelings of isolation and alienation. In addition, they have no teacher support group with which to identify or share common teaching concerns. Transient music teachers may service three or more schools. Therefore, he/she is often responsible for transporting materials and instruments from school to school. The work day of the transient music teacher can be long, tedious, and stressful.

Statement of the Problem

An examination of the literature in music teaching did not indicate studies which expressly addressed the effects of stress and

the music educator. However, literature relating to stress and the professional educator has been researched widely. The problem to be studied is to determine how stress effects music educators in relationship to their job satisfaction and teaching assignment.

Need for the Study

Stress and career burnout have been addressed in the literature of education, business management, medicine, and the behavioral sciences. Professionals in many areas are aghast at seeing colleagues stagnate in their career development or even leave the profession completely (Cardinell, 1981). Many teachers are leaving the classroom because they are casualties of professional burnout and no longer have the energy and enthusiasm necessary for effective teaching (McGuire, 1979). This study will provide a basis for identifying definitions from which to analyze the nature of stress and burnout in the music field. Often teachers are unaware of burnout symptoms and the effects caused by them. This study will aid an awareness of the dynamics within the professional music educator's maturation during his/her career. Results from such a study can be very beneficial to higher education, teacher training programs, and music education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of stress in relation to job satisfaction, teaching assignment, and demographic variables among Michigan music educators.

Hypotheses

During the course of this study, five hypotheses will be examined.

Hypothesis 1

Michigan Music educators who experience greater amounts of stress will be more dissatisfied with their jobs than those music educators who experience less stress.

Hypothesis 2

The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with grade levels.

Hypothesis 3

The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with teaching assignment within a music curriculum.

Hypothesis 4

There will be statistical differences in amounts of stress experienced among Michigan music educators based on the following demographics: (a) gender, (b) age groups, (c) ethnic background, (d) level of education, (e) income level, (f) size of school system, and (g) years of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 5

There will be statistical differences in degrees of job satisfaction among Michigan music educators based on the following demographics: (a) gender, (b) age groups, (c) ethnic background, (d) level of education, (e) income level, (f) size of school system, and (g) years of teaching experience.

In conjunction with the five hypotheses, this study will investigate the following related questions:

1. What area of the music educator's job is most satisfying as revealed in the JDI?
2. What area of the music educator's job is least satisfying as revealed in the JDI?
3. What area of the music educator's job is most stressful as revealed in the (SRQ)?
4. What area of the music educator's job is least stressful as revealed in the (SRQ)?

Limitations of the Study

This study will be limited to examining the relationships between stress, job satisfaction, and teaching assignment; illness will not be a consideration. Only full-time teachers will make up the population for this study. The teacher with an 80 percent teaching load will be considered a full-time teacher. The teacher with a teaching load less than 80 percent will be considered a part-time teacher. Finally, this study is limited to music educators who are presently teaching in the state of Michigan and should not be generalized to the total population of music educators across the country.

Procedures for Study

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between stress, job satisfaction, and teaching assignment among music educators in the state of Michigan. As the first step in identifying the population for the study, a letter requesting permission to study music educators in the state of Michigan was sent to the presidents of each professional organization: Michigan School Band and Orchestra Association (MSBOA); Michigan School Vocal Association (MSVA); and Michigan Music Educators Association (MMEA) (Appendix A). The presidents were asked to send a mailing list of their membership. From each list a stratified random sample was taken of a population of 500 music educators at all grade levels and areas: secondary, junior high/middle school, vocal, band, orchestra, elementary, the generalist, a combination of music levels and a combination of music and different subject areas. Each teacher was asked to complete a stress-related questionnaire specifically designed to measure job-related stress for the music

educator and a five-part job descriptive index (JDI) to measure job satisfaction.

Two instruments were used in this study to provide the necessary data. To measure stress, a stress-related questionnaire (SRQ) in the form of a Likert scale was developed for music educators (Appendix C). The questionnaire was an adaptation of an instrument developed by Parker (1979) for school counselors in the state of Michigan. Lists of sources of stress were developed from a brief questionnaire given to music educators at the 1982 Michigan Music Educators Conference, Ann Arbor, Michigan, and the 1982 Music Educators National Conference, San Antonio, Texas.

To measure job satisfaction, the Job Description Index (JDI) (1968), developed by Smith et al., was used (Appendix C). The JDI consisted of 72 items, 18 in each subscale of work, supervision, and people, and nine in each of pay and promotions.

The analysis of data used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for testing Hypothesis 1. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 5. Each hypothesis was tested for significance at the .05 level.

Definitions

Stress

Cary Cherniss (1980) states that although there has been, and will continue to be, some debate concerning the nature of the stress response in humans, there seems to be a growing consensus

regarding the general definitions and mechanisms. Both researchers and clinicians tend to define stress as a situation in which environmental demands tax or exceed the resources of the person (Lazarus & Launier, 1978). Whenever an individual encounters a demand, resources are mobilized to meet it. When demands and resources are relatively balanced, stress is minimal. However, when the balance is destroyed because the demands escalate or the resources for meeting them dwindle, then stress develops. This stress should mobilize the individual to take action that ultimately corrects the imbalance between demand and resources, thus re-establishing psychological equilibrium (p. 44).

Burnout

For the purpose of this study, the burnout definition used is that of Freudenberger (1980). He states: "Burnout: to deplete oneself. To exhaust one's physical and mental resources. To wear oneself out by excessively striving to reach some unrealistic expectation imposed by oneself or by the values of society" (p. 16).

Stressor

Any event or circumstance which causes the body to respond to it, whether positively or negatively, is a stressor. The stressors do not, themselves, produce the stress; it is the demand for an emotional response from the body which the event (stressor) triggers that produces the stress.

Overview

The remainder of this study will be comprised of four chapters, the references and appendices. Chapter II will contain a review of literature. It will include literature in the fields of education, music education, and job satisfaction. Chapter II also will contain material from subject areas outside the field of music education. Chapter III will include a description of the procedures. Chapter IV will consist of the analysis of data, and Chapter V, the summary, discussion, conclusions, implications and recommendations for future research. The appendices will contain tables and documents pertinent to the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Research into the relationship between stress and specific variables is diverse, and in many fields, extensive. The relationship of stress to illness and performance has received the attention of medical scientists, psychologists, epidemiologists, and sociologists during the past several decades (Appley & Trumbull, 1965; Cannon, 1919; Selye, 1978; Lazarus, et al., 1965). In contrast, research into the relationship between stress and teaching has received very little attention. Research on factors such as intelligence, distraction, working conditions, job satisfaction, and demographic variables in teaching and their relationship to stress are virtually nonexistent in the literature. This dearth of information seems to require further discussion and investigation.

Much of the literature review contains the works and writings of a diversified group of contributors, ranging from counselors to epidemiologists. Because of the diverse research perspective each authority has utilized divergent definitions of the term "stress." Cherniss (1980) has stated that although there has been, and will continue to be, some debate concerning the nature of the stress response in humans, there is a growing consensus regarding the general definitions and mechanisms. Both researchers and clinicians have defined stress as a situation in which

environmental demands tax or exceed the resources of the person (Lazarus & Launier, 1978; Frendenberger, 1980; Cherniss, 1980). Whenever an individual encounters a demand, resources are mobilized to meet it. When demands and resources are relatively balanced, stress is minimal. However, when the balance is destroyed because the demands escalate or the resources for meeting them dwindle, then stress develops. Stress should mobilize the individual to take action that ultimately corrects the imbalance between demands and resources, thus re-establishing psychological equilibrium (Cherniss, 1980, p. 44). This chapter will further explore the field of stress as defined by Cherniss.

For purposes of providing a thorough discussion of the many topics within the field of stress, the review of literature is organized into four areas: (1) implication of stress; (2) stress and job satisfaction; (3) stress in teaching; and (4) stress and music education.

Stress research has developed historically in two largely separate spheres. The study of psychosocial stimulus is sequestered primarily within the psychological sciences, while physical stimuli have been studied mostly within the physiological sciences.

Implications of Stress

Physiological Stress

An overview of scientific studies indicates that stress produces certain changes in man's physiological, motoric, and cognitive functioning. The groundwork for research into the relationship of bodily changes to emotions (fear, anxiety, pain, anger) was established by

Walter Cannon, a physiologist. Cannon (1929) hypothesized that the excitation of the sympathetic division of the autonomic nervous system brought about a multitude of glandular, smooth muscle, and metabolic responses which caused such a dramatic change as increased heart rate and blood pressure, plus the mobilization of sugar in the blood (p. 196). He suggested that certain gross patterns form the basis of the body responses and that many of the individual changes physiologists observe can best be understood as being parts of coordinated whole-body response syndromes. The stress response pattern of the body, as hypothesized by Cannon, can be described by a series of bodily reactions involving the organs of the body shown in Figure 1. The response pattern begins in the center of the brain, in the hypothalamus, where reactions are to some extent dictated by the conscious part of the cerebral cortex. Among the many functions of the hypothalamus is the stimulation of emotions such as fear, rage, and intense pleasure, which usually accompany stress. It also serves to regulate sex, growth, and reproduction. In determining the reaction to stressful stimuli, the hypothalamus acts in two ways. The hypothalamus first serves to control the autonomic nervous system, which regulates the involuntary activities of the body's organs. Second, chemical messages, or hormones, are released directly into the bloodstream by the activation of the pituitary gland. These two systems working together control the functioning of almost every part of the body.

Once the process of reacting to stress has begun, the muscles of the body tighten at the command of the autonomic nerves, breathing

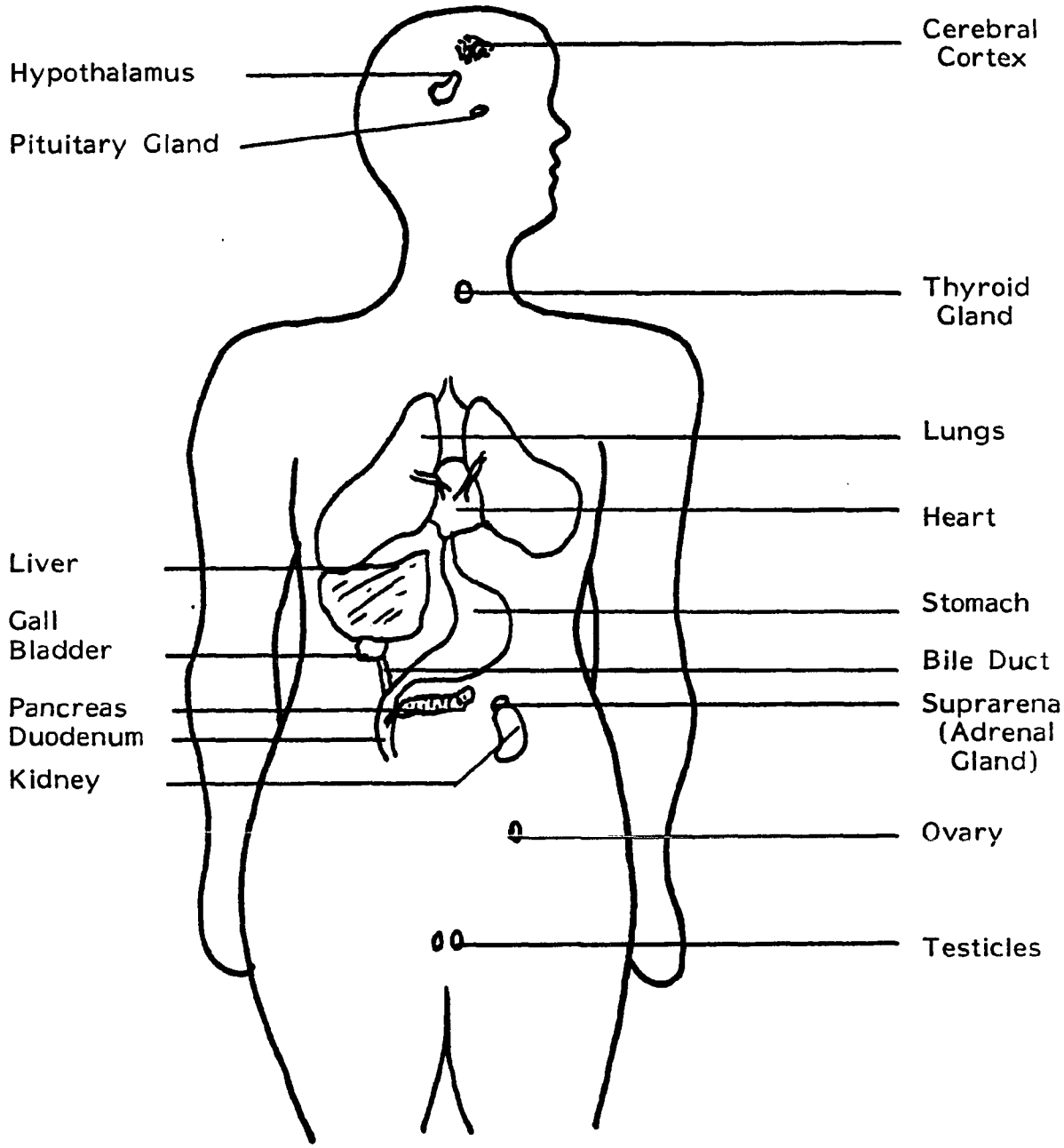


Figure 1.--Organs of the body affected by stressful stimuli (Cannon, 1929).

is deeper and faster, the pulse rate and blood pressure rise as the blood vessels contract. Superficial blood vessels just under the skin almost close, nostrils and throat passages expand, while other body functions cease. The stomach and intestines halt digestion and muscles controlling bowels and bladder loosen. Perspiration increases, saliva and mucus production decrease and sense organs sharpen.

The adrenal glands release hormones which affect circulation, reinforce the autonomic nervous system in elevated heartbeat and blood pressures, signal the spleen to release more red blood corpuscles, enable the blood to clot more quickly, stimulate the liver to produce more sugar, give the oxygen more fuel to burn, and increase the amount of fat in the blood.

The pituitary gland also secretes hormones that play a significant role in the manner in which the body responds to stress. The thyrotropic hormone, or TTH, serves to provide stimulation to the thyroid. This enables the body to produce more energy. The adrenocorticotrophic (ACTH) hormone causes the outer layer of the adrenals to produce about thirty other hormones that represent sure signs of stress. In most laboratory experiments, the ACTH concentration in the blood is used as an indication of the intensity of stress.

The body is then prepared for quick decisions, vigorous action, and defense against enemies. The following physiological reactions are observed: dilation of pupils which allows for more sensitive seeing, more acute hearing and smelling, faster breathing, pale skin due to blood leaving the vessels near the skin, perspiration, and increased heart rate.

In providing this scientific description of the basic autonomic response of the body to stress, Cannon stated that the response varies in its force, depending on how important the challenge is perceived to be, but the pattern of the body's response will remain the same. This arousal condition, described by Cannon (1932), was referred to as the "fight-or-flight" syndrome. He observed that it is as if the body had prepared itself quickly, efficiently, and comprehensively for physical battle or for energetic flight to escape the problem situation.

An endocrinologist, Hans Selye (1936), was one of the first to introduce the concept of stress into the life sciences (Appley and Trumbull, 1967). He agreed with Cannon that the human body possesses a life-saving reaction pattern--the response which comes into play in a variety of pressure situations. In his studies, Selye (1963) attempted to demonstrate how physical and psychological "stressors" may lead to "diseases of adaptation" via a series of "nonspecific" biological responses called the "General Adaptation Syndrome" (GAS). The GAS is the defensive physiological reaction of the organism which is set in motion by any noxious stimulus. The three stages of the GAS are:

1. An Alarm Stage: It represents the initial response of the individual to a stressor and characterizes a general call to arms of the body's defensive forces. A series of changes occur which involve the adrenal cortex, the thymus and the tissues of the gastrointestinal tract. The body prepares to fight stress by releasing hormones from the endocrine glands. Heartbeat and respiration increase, blood sugar level rises, muscles tense up, pupils dilate and digestion slows. If the occurring syndrome is not diminished, it leads to the manifestation of the next stage:

2. The Stage of Resistance: It is opposite in reaction to the alarm reaction. In the alarm reaction, when the adrenal discharges visible granules of secretion into the blood stream, the stores of this gland are depleted and the cortex accumulates a reserve of secondary granules. If stress is overcome, the body repairs the damage that was done, the physical signs of stress disappear and resistance to the source of stress is increased. Continuous and prolonged exposure to the stressor leads to the eventual loss of one's adaptation and the individual enters the third stage:

3. The Stage of Exhaustion: The symptoms are similar to those in the alarm reaction. If this stage is reached and stress continues long enough, the body's capacity for adaptation is exhausted and such stress-related illnesses as severe headaches, ulcers and high blood pressure can appear.

Psychological Stress

There are at least three reasons for the apparent popularity of stress as a psychological concept (Appley & Trumbull, 1965). The first might be called a "bandwagon" effect. Since the term gained some attention and status as a research topic, it has been used as a substitute for what would otherwise have been called anxiety, conflict, emotional distress, extreme enviornmental conditions, ego-threat, frustration, threat to security, tension or arousal. Secondly, because of its wide use in the biological field, the use of the term suggested both apparent and the real possibility of correlating psychological events with physiological substrate. The third reason is the genuine interest in stress phenomena and the possibilities of establishing a link between areas of clinical, psychosomatic, and various types of traditional experimental research (p. 2).

The concept of psychological stress is, in fact, an inference from either (1) manipulations of the environment (external and/or

internal), or (2) from measurements of change in response (internal and/or external) (Appley & Trumbull, p. 4). Individual differences, styles, patterns of response, and prepotent tendencies appear to be the rule rather than the exception in studies of psychological stress. With the exception of extreme and sudden life-threatening situations, it is reasonable to state that no stimulus is a stressor to all individuals exposed to it (Applye & Trumbull, 1967).

Frustration or psychological harm refers to blockage or delay in progress toward some goal. Social-psychological stress can arise from situational conditions which lead to a subjective or cognitive appraisal of threat. Threat, like frustration, can involve actual or anticipated harm to the physical self, the psychological self, and/or interpersonal relations. The threat may also derive from conditions of the physical and/or social environment which deprive the individual of opportunities to satisfy physical, psychological, and/or interpersonal needs (Monat, Richards, & Lazarus, 1977).

Many researchers have used the term "ego-strength," "stress-tolerance," and "frustration-tolerance." It is perhaps doubtful that there is such a thing as a general stress-tolerance in people (Appley & Trumbull, 1965). There is more likely to be a greater or lesser insulation from the effects of certain kinds of stress-producers rather than a general stress-tolerance in poeple. The common idea of a threshold of tolerance for stress implies that stress-producing agents must reach a given strength in order to arouse a response. Differing thresholds are apparent depending on the kinds of threats that are encountered, and the individual equation in assessing reactions to

stress. Not only must a situation be of a given intensity to lead to stress, it must also be of a given kind for a particular person (p. 10).

According to Levine (1966), stress can be a social-psychological phenomenon--a matter of the relationship between the individual and the environment within which the individual finds himself (p. 54). Causes of stress can, therefore, lie in the individual and his environment. Howard and Scott (1965) classify stress-producing stimuli as being biochemical (disease producing germs or hormonal changes in the body), psychological (internal conflicts in the individual personality), physical (serious challenges presented by natural disaster), or social-cultural (p. 54).

In support of Levine (1966), Lazarus (1966) has indicated two types of stress stimul: physiological and psychological. "Physiological" stress refers to forms of stress in which there is some detectable change in the body, such as microbehavioral reactions and biochemical or autonomic disturbances. "Psychological" stress refers to situations in which, in addition to or instead of physiological changes, there are reports of disturbed affects and/or changes in the adequacy of cognitive functioning (p. 55).

Cannon (1929), Selye (1956), Lazarus (1966) and Smelser (1963) agree that stress can be distinguished in three basic types: systemic or physiological, psychological, and social. Systemic stress is concerned primarily with the disturbances of tissue systems (e.g., Cannon, 1929; Selye, 1956), psychological stress with cognitive factors leading to the evaluation of threat (e.g., Lazarus, 1966),

and social stress with the disruption of a social unit or system (e.g., Smelser, 1963). While many researchers believe the three types of stress are related, the nature of this relationship is far from clear (Mason, 1975). Most surprising is the lack of agreement on a definition of "stress" among those researchers closest to the field (Monat, Richards, and Lazarus, 1977). In spite of disagreement through the years over the meaning of the term "stress," probably the single most remarkable historical fact about it is its continued widespread usage in the sciences.

Stress and Illness

The interest many investigators find in the study of stress is often attributable to an interest in the biological, psychological, and sociological stress factors believed to contribute to the development of physical and mental disorders. Although this study will not include an investigation of the issues and literature of the linkage between stress and illness, it is necessary to point out some of the theoretical positions relating stress and illness and its influence on relative stress studies.

Studies relating stress to illness appear with regularity in major sociological, psychological, psychosomatic, and psychiatric publications, and less frequently in clinical medicine and epidemiology. Providing insight into the disarray of stress-illness research, Greenberg (1977) stated:

> What bothers researchers today is not the question of whether stress can cause disease . . . studies clearly indicate that emotional stress does contribute to high blood pressure, gastrointestinal problems and apparently to a side variety of other illnesses in some individuals. Rather,

> the unanswered questions deal more with who becomes ill under stress, why other persons remain totally unaffected and healthy under stress (p. 394).

Adding to reasons for the ambivalence in stress-illness research, Appley & Trumbull (1967) concluded that researchers often do not take the following into consideration in their research:

1. Stress is probably best conceived as a state of the total organism under extenuating circumstances rather than as an event in the environment.

2. A great variety of different environmental conditions is capable of producing a stress state.

3. Different individuals respond to the same conditions in different ways.

4. The same individual may enter into a stress state in response to one presumably stressful condition and not to another.

5. Consistent intra-individual but varied inter-individual psychobiological response patterns occur in stress situations. The notion of a common stress reaction needs to be reassessed.

6. The behaviors resulting from operations intended to induce stress may be the same or different, depending on the context of the situation of its induction.

7. The intensity and the extent of the stress state and the associated behaviors may not be readily predicted from a knowledge of the stimulus conditions alone, but require an analysis of underlying motivational patterns and of the context in which the stressor is applied.

8. Temporal factors may determine the significance of a given stressor and thus the intensity and extent of the stress state and the optimum measurement of effect (p. 11).

A critique of problems inherent in specialized areas of stress-illness research are reported in the results of the June 1973 Conference on Stressful Life Events: Their Nature and Effects (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974). Contributions from researchers of different

disciplines covered the gamut of problems in conceptualizing and measuring stressful life events over the previous 10 years. The presentations of the conference as included in the volume are outlined:

1. Research programs on relationships between stressful life events and episodes of physical illness.
2. Clinical research programs on relations between stressful life events and particular types of physical and psychiatric disorders.
3. Community research on relations between stressful life events and psychiatric symptomology.
4. Methodological research on stressful life events.

Just as the interests of the researchers in the presentations are varied, so are the results of their work, adding to the interest and controversy.

Research in stress and illness has no doubt received its greatest impetus from the work of Hans Selye. Until the last decade, Selye's work was widely accepted and largely unchallenged. Recently, however, several researchers (e.g., Lazarus, 1974; Mason, 1971) have criticized aspects of Selye's position, particularly his total commitment to the concept of the physiological nonspecificity of the stress response. Mason and Lazarus have offered theoretical viewpoints and presented empirical evidence which strongly suggest Selye has overstated the role of nonspecificity in the production of illness. Mason (1975) has suggested that the pituitary-adrenal cortical system is remarkably sensitive and responds easily to emotional stimuli. This is important for many laboratory situations designed to study physical stressors very often elicit discomfort or pain. Lazarus (1974)

indicated that the role of specificity in illness creates more varied options, since the nature and severity of the stress disorder could depend on at least three factors: (1) the formal characteristics of the environmental demands, (2) the quality of the emotional response generated by the demands, or in particular individuals facing these demands, and (3) the processes of coping mobilized by the stressful commerce (p. 327). It may be too early to evaluate adequately the role of nonspecific and specific factors in the etiology of illness, but there is a growing belief in their importance. The studies which have been conducted over the past years have produced many clues to the effects of stress and have provided a solid base upon which more significant research has been done.

The list of stress-linked disorders is continually growing. Currently, ailments such as heart disease, high blood pressure, ulcers, asthma, skin allergies, sexual problems, infertility, pain and urinary tract infections are among those attributed to stress (Roger, 1978). Schildkraut (1979) adds arthritis attacks, diabetes, dental problems, viral diseases, female problems (menstrual disorders, pelvic pain, fluid retention, excessive hair growth), and even cancer to his listing of stress-linked illnesses.

A recent report by Locke in Science News (1978) revealed indications of stress-illness links at the cellular level. In the study of 117 randomly selected college students, Locke tested the hypothesis that stress alone is not sufficient to impair immunity. His premise was that the crucial factor would be how well a person coped with stress. The results indicated that:

> Test subjects were classified as good copers or poor copers on the basis of a 91-item, self-reporting list of stresses during the past year, month and several weeks, along with the week prior to testing. Each student rated his or her own stresses--such as death in the family, probation, pregnancy, rejection from a graduate program and homosexual encounters--in terms of how much readjustment they entailed. Those ratings were matched against the self-reported symptoms (nervousness, depression, sleeping problems, etc.) to yield a coping level (p. 151).

Locke's study concluded that "susceptible individuals, characterized by psychobiological adaptive failure (or poor coping), may have diminished cell-mediated immunity in the presence of high life stress symptoms" (Science News, 1978, p. 151).

Three possible ways in which stress might lead to illness (Monat, Richards, and Lazarus, 1977), have been reported. The first is by the disruption of tissue function through neurohumoral influences under stress such as in the case of a pounding heart, sweating, trembling, and fatigue. A second way is by engaging in coping activities that are damaging to one's health--for example, by trying to advance occupationally or socially by means of a pressured lifestyle, by taking minimal rest, by poor diet, heavy use of tobacco, alcohol or other drugs. The third way stress leads to disease is by psychological and/or sociological factors which consistently cause the person to minimize the significance of various symptoms. A person may frequently interpret pain or illness symptoms in such a way as to neglect seeking medical aid when it is crucial. Avoidance of doctors or of medical attention can come about as a defense mechanism. Much avoidance can be fatal in certain instances, as in the case of heart attack victims who delay seeking medical attention, thereby decreasing their chances of survival (Hackett & Cassem, 1975).

As apparent from the previous discussion, studies relating stress to illness appear with remarkable regularity in the literature. Though most of the studies concur that there is a definite relationship between stress and illness, the studies are not so emphatic about how it occurs. They conclude that onset of illness is the outcome of multiple characteristics of the individual interacting with a number of interdependent factors in the individual's social context.

Stress and the Helping Professions

Several psychological studies have indicated that over-stress is most often experienced by those working in helping professions of health, social service, law, law enforcement, and teaching. Many human needs are met through the intervention of highly trained professional personnel. As Schein (1972) noted, "The professions have always been the agent by which society dealt with its major problems" (p. 2). During the past nine decades, the significance of these professions has grown. The proportion of professionals in the population has increased more than threefold according to census data in 1980. In 1890, 3.78 percent of the population between the ages of 25 and 64 were professionals. In 1920 the percentage has increased to 4.4 percent, and by 1960 it had risen to 13 percent (Veysey, 1975).

Also, during recent decades, the number of professionals and specialties within professions have expanded. The original three professions of law, medicine, and the clergy have increased in size, influence, and internal differentiation. As the original three professions have grown and differentiated, distinctly new professional

and "semi-professional" fields have emerged, such as social work, teaching, psychotherapy, and engineering (Cherniss, 1980).

At the same time the social and economic importance of the professions and of human services have grown, public concern and criticism also seem to have increased. As Hasenfeld and English (1974) stated, there has been growing dissatisfaction with the fairness and effectiveness of many human service organizations, often reaching the level of a "consumer revolt." Many criticisms have been put forth: they have not been accountable; they tend to neglect the poor and dispossessed; they focus too much on individual change and adjustment and not enough on change in social systems; they obstruct self-development and expression for their members; they are too concerned with status, money, and security for themselves; their monopoly of professional credentials limits our capacity to meet demands for service in the most effective ways; professional education is too long, too specialized, and too much tied to the classroom; and professional care leads to an unhealthy over-dependency and passivity in the client (Gross and Osterman, 1972).

Although the validity of these criticisms has been and undoubtedly will continue to be debated, the increasingly important role that professionals play in society almost guarantees that there will be growing concern with professional responsibility, commitment, and effectiveness. As the role of the professions in society has grown, the proportion of professionals "on their own" has declined (Cherniss, 1980). Increasingly, they work in public agencies rather than in private practice. The public agents are still professionals,

but are salaried workers as well. Being a salaried worker often creates great potential for strain and conflict between the professional and the organization, a strain that can strongly influence the attitudes and performance of the professional (p. 3).

According to Freudenberger (1980) the work of the helping professions is taxing and difficult. Rewards are often few and not visible, and pressures are constant. New situations calling for ingenuity as well as diligence are emerging continuously. The helper has come to the profession with visions of a supportive institution staffed with wise superiors and cooperative patients, students, or clients. The professional has contemplated results and tangible proof of their ability to create a difference in people's lives. What the professional finds is "red tape," harried administrators, and many other job-related stresses for which they have not been prepared. No one comes forward to ameliorate the feeling of inadequacy, and this is often where the worker's psychological make-up is challenged. If the worker has been looking for the kind of personal fulfillment he or she should be finding elsewhere, he or she will become a victim of stress (p. 153).

Sarason (1977) stated that the period following World War II could aptly be named the "Age of Psychology," for people became concerned about the issues of meaning, fulfillment, and authenticity. Work was one of those areas of life which was last to be affected by the Age of Psychology. By the mid-1960s attitudes about work began to change. Previously, a job that paid well, was secure, offered opportunities for advancement, and provided safe and pleasant working

conditions, was respected and considered a good job (p. 116). Increasingly, however, many people of the working class came to believe that something more was needed. To be truly satisfying, a job also had to provide novelty, meaning, and opportunities for creativity and personal expression. A job had to be a vehicle for self-actualization as well as economic security (Cherniss, 1980).

Initially, these new attitudes toward work were concentrated among the most highly educated. The helping professions were not exempt from this new pursuit for meaning, novelty, and fulfillment in work. The helping professions could take for granted a number of rewards, not the least of which was the opportunity to serve others. Security, a comfortable income, and high degree of respect and status also were rewards provided by the profession and they seemed to be enough for many professionals. If they were not enough, the implications were that the problem was the dissatisfied individual (Cherniss, 1980). In a study of job satisfaction in community mental health, Cherniss (1978) learned that factors most often cited as a source of satisfaction by subjects were "doing something that gives one a sense of accomplishment" (p. 23).

Stress and Job Satisfaction

Because work occupies about one-third of the employed person's time, the dissatisfactions of the work situation are paramount among the types of life stresses that are receiving frequent attention in the literature. Friis (1976) concluded that job dissatisfaction may come about as a result of a number of variables within the work setting. They include:

> The ability of the worker to decide upon the method and nature of task accomplishments, the level of occupation and role of work position, the degree of work overload, the amount of interpersonal tension and conflict among workers, socialization and selection patterns within the organziation, the degree of monotony of the tasks, and exposure to noise and other occupational hazards (p. 595).

In relating variables which are associated with job dissatisfaction, Gross (1970) categorized work stress into three areas: (1) organization career stress, risk of unemployment, the career sequence, the process of disengagement from organizations that must come at the end of one's career; (2) task stress, inability or inadequacy in performing tasks assigned, threat to things one values; and (3) organization structure stress, what follows from the demands and needs of working together to obtain any end.

Albrecht (1979) listed the principal variables in overall job satisfaction which provide an effective balance between stress and reward for the worker. The eight loading variables determined by Albrecht were: workload, physical variables, job status, accountability, task variety, human contact, physical challenge and mental challenge. To provide a full account of job satisfaction, Albrecht further stated that the obvious factors of pay and benefits, overall social climate of the work situation and quality of supervision received must be added to the eight loading factors.

The general assumption of most job satisfaction studies is that the more dissatisfied one is with a particular job, then the more stressful the job. Many studies have concerned themselves with the impact of supervision on job satisfaction. Two such studies by Pelz (1952) and Pelz & Andrews (1966) concluded that the more

consideration a supervisor showed his employees, the more satisfied they were and the less stress they experienced.

Supporting and adding to the importance of supervision as a component of job satisfaction, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson & Capwell (1957) compiled data from fifteen studies in which workers were asked what made them satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. The most frequently mentioned item of satisfaction was supervision, followed by security, job content, company and management, working conditions, and opportunity for advancement and wages. Only relationships with co-workers were mentioned more often than supervision. When the same group listed sources of dissatisfaction on the job, supervision was the fourth most frequently named job factor.

In another study, Herzberg et al. (1957) compiled data from sixteen studies in which workers were asked to rank order job factors in terms of their importance. The rank ordering was (highest to lowest): security, opportunity for advancement, company and management, wages, intrinsic aspects of jobs, supervision, social aspects of jobs, communications, working conditions, and benefits. Another major variable in job satisfaction-stress research is job content which has often created controversy with job conditions. A study of a group of accountants and engineers by Herzberg, et al. (1959) investigated job satisfaction and dissatisfaction by having the participants tell about the times in their work when they felt exceptionally good and exceptionally bad. The events concerning feeling good usually involved job content (achievement, recognition, responsibility), while those concerning feeling bad usually involved factors associated

with job conditions (company policies, wages, supervision, working conditions).

In addition, job level has frequently been correlated with job satisfaction. Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960) conducted a nationwide study which determined that 42 percent of persons in professional-technical occupations were very satisfied with their jobs, whereas only 13 percent of unskilled workers reported being very satisfied.

Kornhauser (1965) provided an explanation of this occurrence when he stated that persons who were in lower level jobs were those who complained about it and would have responded more positively by either doing something about it or leaving the job.

McLean (1976) recently conducted a study in which 865 employees at three levels of management in one company were asked about their work satisfaction, perceptions of stress in their work, and the extent of specific physical and emotional disabilities at the current time and three years previously. It was found that there was no correlation between a change in anxiety and job satisfaction (salary, hours worked, number of hours traveled from home), but there was a correlation between increases and decreases in anxiety and the perception of job stress, work satisfaction, and reported physical and health problems.

Gavin & Axelrod (1977) examined the effects of occupational stresses on the job-related strains of management personnel in an underground mining organization. Measures of job stress and strain were obtained from 95 management level employees and 13 potential moderators of stress-strain relations were assessed. The study found

that stresses such as role conflict and ambiguity, job security, participation, variation in work load, and most notably, utilization for skills, had moderate to high relationships with the psychological straings of anxiety-depression-irritation, job satisfaction, and psychosomatic complaints.

In summary, professionals have been influenced by the new norms and values of the Age of Psychology. Increasingly, they seek novelty, authenticity, and self-actualization in their work, in addition to the other rewards pursued in the past. Many professionals tend to feel cheated if they do not find these rewards; they experience a powerful sense of longing and deprivation. Midlife career changes among professionals are occurring in unprecedented numbers as professionals leave their occupations when those occupations do not offer the new, psychological rewards that have come to be seen as essential for satisfaction. Studies of stress and job satisfaction reveal that various aspects of the work situation play different roles in determining how satisfied one is with his job. Job aspects provide an effective balance between stress and reward for the worker. The general assumption of most of the studies is that the more dissatisfied one is with his job, the more stressful the job will be.

Stress in Teaching

Stress in teaching is becoming an increasing concern in teacher education and schools throughout the country. Considerable attention has been given recently to the record number of teachers voluntarily leaving the profession. Although the loss of effective

teachers is lamentable, little attention has been focused upon those individuals who would like to leave but for a variety of reasons cannot or will not. Mary Bentzen (1980) reporting on Goodlad's "Study of Schooling," found that approximately one-fourth of all teachers surveyed would not go into teaching if they had it to do over again. The National Education Association (NEA) estimates this number to be one-third of all teachers (p. 5).

The continuing concern over the effects of stress on teacher mental health attests to the fact that it is a common denominator in the lives of teachers. The nature of vacillating lifestyles and social expectations dictates that teachers face change frequently (Goodall & Brown, 1980). Alvin Toeffler (1970) has alluded to the dilemma of rapid change confronting status quo mind sets in schools. Educators must recognize that each change can bring with it psychological stress (p. 17).

Educators today find themselves under added pressures each year with the public and legislators continually demanding more of them by new programs such as mainstreaming and competency testing. Today's education professionals also indicate that these same groups are now less supportive of school and education professionals than they once were. Many teachers report great difficulty in getting the support and assistance of parents in solving the problems of their children. Demonstrating the depth of the problem, data from the most recent Gallup Poll (1980) revealed that only 65 percent of the parents of youth in public schools attended a lecture, any meeting, or any social occasion in any local school building during the last year

(Phi Delta Kappa, 1979). The same poll reported that 85 percent of adults polled would support state certification examinations for teachers and administrators. A sizable number of adults were supportive of periodic retesting of teachers to evaluate their competence in their field (p. 39). The trouble is not so much with these specific attitudes as with the trend they appear to represent--one resulting in more pressure on the educators with less public support (Alley, 1980).

In addition to lack of community support, teachers are becoming stressed from a number of other sources including violence and vandalism in the schools, disruptive students, inadequate salaries, involuntary transfers, interferring parents, oversized classes, excessive paperwork, and little support from administration (McGuire, 1979). According to McGuire, physical assaults against teachers are increasing. The NEA's 1979 Teacher Opinion Poll estimated 110,000 teachers were physically attacked by students on school property during the 1978-79 school year. Another 10,000 were attacked by students off school property. The 110,000 victims represent an increase of 57 percent over the estimated 70,000 teachers who were attacked during the 1977-78 school year (McGuire, 1979, p. 5). In addition to a fear of physical attacks, about one-fourth of respondents reported they had had personal property stolen during 1978-79, and about the same proportion said they had had personal property damaged at school.

The Tacoma (Washington) Association of Classroom Teachers (TACT) became the nation's first teacher group to secure stress insurance for its members (1978). In several TACT studies, findings

indicated the most stressful events in the teachers' lives were involuntary transfers, disciplinary problems (25 percent reported physical assaults by students and 75 percent reported verbal abuse by students and parents), notification of unsatisfactory performance, too many students in elementary classes, and difficulty in dealing with administrators.

The majority of research concerned with life-events stress has made use of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967). The SRRS consists of 43 items that are designed to represent common life events that require change in social adjustment. Weights for each item were determined by averaging ratings made by judges who were asked to rate events "as to their relative degree of necessary readjustment." The Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) is shown in Table 1. This table ranks the magnitude of life events. For example, the death of a spouse is weighted at 100 (the highest point on the scale), marriage at 50, change in recreation at 19, change in vocation at 12 (p. 214).

The procedure employed by Holmes and Rahe was replicated to develop an inventory of events thought to be related to stress associated with teaching (Cichon and Koff). The specific purposes of the Teacher Stress Events Inventory (TSEI) was to:

1. Provide a quantitative basis for the investigation of stress by assessing the magnitude of stress induced by "life events" associated with teaching;

2. Ascertain the extent of differential reactions to teaching events by educators with different background and situational characteristics (e.g., elementary or secondary school teacher); and

TABLE 1.--Social Readjustment Rating Scale.

Rank	Life Event	Mean Value
1	Death of spouse	100
2	Divorce	73
3	Marital separation	65
4	Jail term	63
5	Death of close family member	63
6	Personal injury or illness	53
7	Marriage	50
8	Fired at work	47
9	Marital reconciliation	45
10	Retirement	45
11	Change in health of family member	44
12	Pregnancy	40
13	Sex difficulties	39
14	Gain of new family member	39
15	Business readjustment	39
16	Change in financial state	38
17	Death of close friend	37
18	Change to different line of work	36
19	Change in number of arguments with spouse	35
20	Mortage over $10,000	31
21	Foreclosure of mortgage or loan	30
22	Change in responsibilities at work	29
23	Son or daughter leaving home	29
24	Trouble with in-laws	29
25	Outstanding personal achievement	28
26	Wife begin or stop work	26
27	Begin or end school	26
28	Change in living conditions	25
29	Revision of personal habits	24
30	Trouble with boss	23
31	Change in work hours or conditions	20
32	Change in residence	20
33	Change in schools	20
34	Change in recreation	19
35	Change in church activities	19
36	Change in social activities	18
37	Mortgage or loan less than $10,000	17
38	Change in sleeping habits	16
39	Change in number of family get-togethers	15
40	Change in eating habits	15
41	Vacation	13
42	Christmas	12
43	Minor violations of the law	11

3. Clarify and suggest implications for educational policy and future research (p. 92).

The TSEI was given to teachers in the Chicago Teachers' Union (CTU) who returned a total of 5,011 questionnaires. The sample represented about 2 percent of the 22,448 teachers employed by the Chicago Board of Education. Table 2 contains a list of the 35 events and descriptive statistics in rank order from most to least stressful by mean ratings. Intercorrelations across items for the total sample were all, with the exception of two pairs, significant at $p < .05$ (two-tailed), were all positive, and ranged between .015 and .690, with the majority in .30 to .50 range. This pattern of correlations suggested that the relative degrees of stress assigned to the events was highly stable across the entire sample.

Analysis of the 36 rank-ordered teaching events identified four general themes or clusters of items. The first cluster involved issues which appear to be of "priority concern." Priority concern events were: (1) managing "disruptive" children, (2) being threatened with personal injury, (3) having a colleague assaulted in school, and (4) being a target of verbal abuse by students. These events were ranked 2, 4, 7, and 11 as major concerns. The second cluster involved events that concern the theme of "management tension." This cluster included: (1) involuntarily transferred, (2) overcrowded classrooms, (3) notice of unsatisfactory performance, (4) lack of books and supplies, (5) reorganization of programs and classes, (6) implementation of Board of Education goals, (7) denial of promotion or advancement, and (8) disagreement with supervisor. These

TABLE 2.--The Teaching Events Stress Inventory.

Rank	Inventory Item #	Event	Mean	S.D.
1	11	Involuntarily transferred	77.05	34.50
2	12	Managing "disruptive" children	66.13	28.22
3	6	Notification of unsatisfactory performance	62.67	37.60
4	16	Threatened with personal injury	60.76	36.09
5	7	Overcrowded classroom	57.52	30.09
6	23	Lack of availability of books and supplies	55.93	30.21
7	3	Colleague assaulted in school	54.72	33.78
8	2	Reorganization of classes or program	54.03	24.26
9	13	Implementing Board of Education curriculum goals	52.76	31.39
10	34	Denial of promotion or advancement	52.45	35.12
11	21	Target of verbal abuse by student	51.97	32.17
12	29	Disagreement with supervisor	50.73	32.09
13	1	The first week of the school year	50.00	---
14	18	Maintaining self-control when angry	48.39	29.78
15	25	Teaching students who are "below average" in achievement level	48.20	30.45
16	32	Maintaining student personnel and achievement records	47.34	30.93
17	8	Preparing for a strike	46.68	30.16
18	15	Supervising student behavior outside the classroom	46.00	29.17
19	9	Change in duties/work responsibilities	44.79	27.25
20	17	Dealing with community racial issues	42.84	31.99
21	31	Seeking principal's intervention in a discipline matter	42.48	30.84
22	36	Disagreement with another teacher	41.58	29.65
23	24	Dealing with staff racial issues	40.25	30.54
24	28	Teaching physically or mentally handicapped children	39.51	32.31
25	35	Dealing with student racial issues	39.36	30.53
26	26	Lavatory facilities for teachers are clean or comfortable	38.89	29.92
27	14	Developing and completing daily lesson plans	38.87	28.58
28	10	Conference with principal/supervisor	36.69	28.02
29	22	Evaluating student performance or giving grades	35.11	25.62
30	33	Having a research or training program from "outside" in the school	33.90	28.54
31	5	Attendance at inservice meetings	32.74	27.16
32	27	Taking additional course work for promotion	32.40	28.96
33	19	Taling to parents about their child's problems	31.84	24.40
34	20	Dealing with students whose primary language is not English	31.30	27.40
35	30	Teacher-parent conferences	30.24	24.24
36	4	Voluntarily transferred	28.58	26.82

events were ranked 1, 5, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10 and 12 (p. 99). The third cluster of events represented the theme of "doing a good job." Events included were: (1) maintaining self-control when angry, and (2) teaching students who are below average in achievement level. These events are ranked 14 and 15. The fourth cluster is ranked by the ten lowest events, those which induce relatively little stress. This cluster included: (1) teacher-parent conferences, (2) dealing with bilingual students, (3) discussion of children's problems with their parents, (4) taking additional coursework for promotion, (5) attending inservice meetings, (6) evaluation of students, (7) conferences with the principal, and (8) doing lesson plans (p. 100).

Manera and Wright (1979) used the Q-Sort ranking instrument with educators from various areas of specialty. The Q-Sort ranking instrument was designed to distinguish high level stressors from low level stressors which teachers were given a list of stress producers. Ninety-one educators, with nearly equal numbers of men and women, ranked the Q-Sort items. These educators represented:

1. Two graduate classes of classroom teachers and public school administrators;
2. Participants at a summer workshop sponsored by the Association of Teacher Educators; and
3. Participants at a fall conference of a state unit of the Association of Teacher Educators.

The Q-Sort instrument was designed to measure the ranking of stress items common to public school teachers. The fourteen items selected for the Q-Sort included:

1. Accepting and using other people's expertise--including peers or resource people who can share information, opinions, feelings and ideas in a positive manner.

2. Activating--helping people to understand and follow instructions.

3. Judging people--evaluating student's and/or teacher's expertise and helping them to use it to increase their ability to communicate and complete tasks better while overcoming their weaknesses.

4. Decision making--arriving at a logical conclusion and developing an action plan to accomplish goals.

5. Individualized instruction--providing students with the responsibility for assignments and projects commensurate with their abilities and levels of accomplishment while still maintaining supervisory control.

6. Time management--remembering, planning, and accomplishing more tasks that are important to complete to maintain a good flow of communication.

7. Maintaining good relationships with your supervisor--being both friendly and businesslike with your dealings up the line.

8. Pacing your energy expenditures--planning and carrying out your day so you have the energy to complete the activities which must be done without undue fatigue.

9. Professional growth--providing time to study, plan course work, attend inservice and educational conferences and other activities to improve professional capabilities.

10. Building a professional reputation--making yourself known for your contributions in your professional area.

11. Discipline and classroom management--establishing and maintaining a positive learning environment where discipline problems are at a minimum.

12. Apathy--lack of interest in participating in educational activities or related events.

13. Personnel--concern for personnel problems related to declining enrollment, job security, interdisciplinary teaching, mainstreaming and special classes.

14. Curriculum--building content modules, units and course outlines for varying class sizes, articulation, K-12, interdisciplinary and changing objectives.

The participants were asked to rank the fourteen stress-producing items according to the amount of stress the item produced in their lives. The ranking was placed in three categories: (1) high stress level; (2) mid-stress level; and (3) low stress level. A minimum of four items was required in each of the three categories. The participants next selected one item from the high stress group which was most stressful and one item from the low stress group which was least stressful. Table 3 contains an analysis of the groups. Each had different feelings about stress factors in teaching. One graduate class chose "Individualized Instruction" as the number one stressor, while the other graduate group selected "Classroom Management" as its top-ranked item. The third group viewed "Judging People" as the most stressful item and "Individualized Instruction" was their second choice. The fourth group of participants represented classroom teachers and university professors and administrators. Their number one stressor was "Time Management," second was "Professional Growth," and third, "Decision Making." Consistency exists within the top three or four ranked stressors. It is also revealed that classroom management or discipline continues to receive much concern as the number one stressor in the schools. However, the four groups of educators ranked it toward the middle of the stressors.

Much of today's dissatisfaction with society is directed at the school, which is often perceived as a source for remedying all ills. School boards and administrators often attempt to accommodate all

TABLE 3.--Results of Q-Sort.

Item	1 Graduate Class N = 13		2 Graduate Class N = 14		3 ATE Summer Workshop N = 23		4 State ATE Workshop N = 41		Weighted Grand Total	Rank of Weighted Grand Total
	*RR	*WR	*RR	*WR	*RR	*WR	*RR	*WR		
1. Accepting and using other other people's expertise	14	(1)	14	(1)	14	(1)	8	(7)	10	14
2. Activating	12	(3)	13	(2)	10	(5)	9	(6)	16	12
3. Judging people	3	(12)	5	(10)	1	(14)	4	(11)	47	3
4. Decision making	7	(8)	9	(6)	7	(8)	3	(12)	34	6
5. Individualized instruction	1	(14)	2	(13)	2	(13)	7	(8)	48	2
6. Time management	2	(13)	3	(12)	4	(11)	1	(14)	50	1
7. Maintaining good relationships with your supervisor	13	(2)	10	(5)	8	(7)	12	(3)	17	11
8. Pacing your energy expenditures	9	(6)	11	(4)	6	(9)	5	(10)	29	9
9. Professional growth	6	(9)	8	(7)	5	(10)	2	(13)	39	4
10. Building a professional reputation	11	(4)	12	(3)	12	(3)	11	(4)	14	13
11. Discipline and classroom management	5	(10)	1	(14)	11	(4)	13	(2)	30	8
12. Apathy	8	(7)	7	(8)	13	(2)	14	(1)	18	10
13. Personnel	10	(5)	6	(9)	3	(12)	6	(9)	35	5
14. Curriculum	4	(11)	4	(11)	9	(6)	10	(5)	33	7

**RR = Real Rank; WR = Weighted Rank

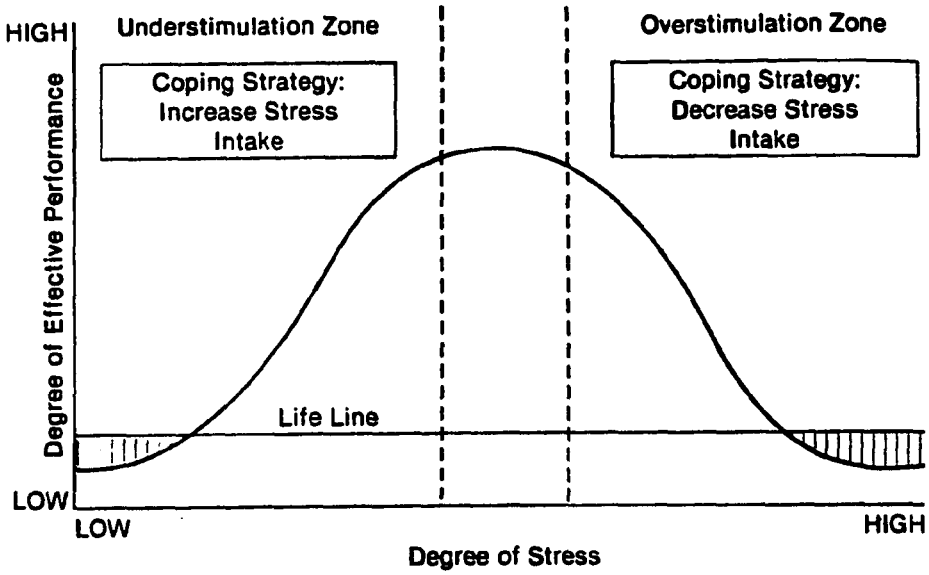
requests or demands in an effort to be responsive. According to Dillon (1978), it is the classroom teacher who eventually must try to assimilate and coordinate all the demands into a workable system while maintaining a healthy environment in which students can learn. These tasks must all be accompanied with the teacher feeling some sense of worth.

Stress and Performance

Gmelch (1977) examined the effects of stress upon teacher performance based on Anderson's inverted U-shape theory. Anderson (1976) stated:

> Psychological stress indicates that there is an optimum amount of stress in terms of its effects on performance. Stress that is higher or lower than this amount results in steadily decreasing performance. Performers under stress, then follow an inverted-U-shape function (p. 30).

Figure 2 is a graphic display of this theory. The vertical axis represents level of performance; the horizontal axis represents the degree of stress. The line performance is curvilinear with highest performance occurring when the degree of stress is at a moderate level. The effects of either radically decreased or radically increased stress levels of performance can also be determined. As the stress levels move into the overstimulation zone, the performance curve rapidly decreases. The understimulation zone illustrates a life where too little excitement and stress is occurring. The performance curve also dips quite rapidly as the degree of stress decreases. The shaded areas below the life line represent the ultimate in either understimulation or overstimulation zones. Results from Gmelch's (1977) research indicated



From: Gmelch, Walter H., *Beyond Stress to Effective Management.* Eugene, Oregon: Oregon School Study Council Bulletin, Vol. 20, Nos. 9 & 10. 1977, p. 44.

Figure 2.--Stress and Performance

that teachers with moderate stress levels related more easily to their students, made decisions well and seemed to be more creative. Teachers who fall into the overstimulated zone, suffered from low self-esteem, found it difficult to make decisions and easily became exhausted. Teachers who were placed in the overstimulated zone were more prone to illness. Last, teachers who were identified in the understimulation zone suffered from fatigue, frustration, boredom, and were generally dissatisfied with their jobs. Teachers who experienced extreme "high" or "low" levels of stress were subject to serious physical and emotional consequences. The results of this research contained no

specific reference points regarding either level of performance or degree of stress. Gmelch summarizes:

> "High" or "low" stress is not predetermined. It is relative to the individual's ability to tolerate and/or cope with stress just as high or low performance is relative to one's abilities. The bell-shaped curve is not perfect for each individual. Some teachers find it easy to adapt to, and perhaps even need, a high level of stress for high performance. Others find that even moderate levels of stress interfere with their performance level (p. 5).

Many educators in California's schools expressed that their concerns were money-related (Bardo, 1979). According to McGuire (1979), Alley (1980), VanderArk (1982), and Sarason (1977), low teacher salaries were identified as a major concern contributing to job-related stress. Lipp (1977) noted that:

> The ideal income tends to remain elusively at ten to twenty percent above the current income, even at the very highest socioeconomic strata. Depending on income as the primary source of job satisfaction therefore tends to lead consistently to frustration. Paradoxically, one's income becomes increasingly satisfying in inverse proportion to the importance attached to it. If you get pleasure from other aspects of your work, you are far more likely to be content with your income no matter how high or low it may be (p. 559).

Results from two research studies based on interviews and questionnaires indicated that no direct relationship resulted between stress and satisfaction from income (Pines, 1982). The first study involved 205 San Francisco Bay area professionals; the second was a study of 129 social service professionals. The correlations between stress and satisfaction from pay was negligible ($r = .01$) in both studies. No correlation between satisfaction from pay and overall job satisfaction, liking of the job, and liking of case load resulted. The only significant correlation from the second study was between income and agency evaluation ($r = .26$).

Stress and Teacher Job Satisfaction

In a study of ten professions (Larsen, 1976), individuals aged 30-45 indicated greater dissatisfaction with their work than any other age groups. New workers enter their profession enthusiastically, deriving high initial satisfaction. The more experienced workers in Larsen's study expressed greater work satisfaction than their middle-aged colleagues. In three school-based studies (Anderson, 1975; DiCaprio, 1974; and Tharpe, 1976) more experienced teachers reported greater work satisfaction than did the teachers with little teaching experience.

In an extensive study on professional burnout in human service organizations (Cherniss, 1980), a number of stress producers were thoroughly examined. This study focused on 28 new professionals in the process of moving from advanced training to first jobs in four professional groups: law, public health nursing, mental health, and high school teaching. Results from this study indicated that each individual's experience clearly differed. However, underlying patterns and themes proved most interesting and valuable in relationship to the effects of stress and all professions studied. Among the stress factors, several were closely associated with the teaching profession. It was revealed that student motivation and low ability levels of students were major sources of stress for teachers. Teachers who displayed an apathetic attitude and did not seem to care about their problems, and who often did nothing to help themselves, generated a negative reaction from the teacher. This type of student behavior was considered a source of strain (p. 43).

The issue of personal involvement with clients or students is viewed as a major source of uncertainty and stress among many new professionals. This dilemma is most pronounced among teachers. Teachers seemed most perplexed about how personally involved to become with students (p. 53). Several teachers expressed that students responded well to individual attention, warmth, and support which seemed to enhance student learning and motivation. However, teachers perceived real risk in taking such an approach with students and felt afraid of establishing a closeness with them.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs

Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs (1979) has been an important theory in developing conceptual ideas relating to teacher stress. Maslow attempted to explain human behavior in terms of intrinsic motivation. Inherent in Maslow's concept is the prepotency of human needs, i.e., a need is satisfied, then a higher-level need emerges which develops a drive or motivation for the human being to seek its satisfaction. Maslow categorized human needs into a hierarchy ascending from safety, love and belonging, self-esteem, self-actualization and fulfillment, to knowledge and understanding.

Williams (1978) attempted to integrate Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation into problems of teacher motivation. Williams stressed that fulfillment of human needs is essential to teacher satisfaction. Maslow's theory was tested in a study of senior teachers' psychological needs. Teachers viewed self-actualization as the most important factor; self-esteem and security were less important. It is interesting

to note that the teachers voiced the need "to help others" in achieving maximum fulfillment (Newman, 1974). Satisfaction of human needs are seldom achieved without overcoming stresses of some kind (Cardinell, 1981). While teachers face stresses common to any profession, they carry stresses unique to the special role of the school in modern society. In schools with conditions such as minimum level salaries and other working conditions unsatisfactory to teachers' basic needs, it is possible for teachers to be satisfied if they experience satisfaction of higher level needs in Maslow's hierarchy (p. 105).

Cardinell (1981) hypothesized that the most hazardous time in the life of a professional occurs when the commitment to the idea of the profession diminishes a sense of satisfaction from life and work. Underlying work commitment is a person's basic motivation toward work (Kuhlen, 1968).

In response to problems of job-related stress, the Northwest Staff Development Center (NSDC), a federally funded teacher center, has developed a program to address the issue of teacher stress (Sparks, 1979). The NSDC offered a series of workshops on the theme of Prevention and Management of Educational Stress. The goals of the workshops were:

1. To reduce the isolation that many teachers experience.
2. To identify the sources of job-related stress.
3. To identify professional strengths and successful work experiences that participants can draw on to increase their satisfaction with teaching.
4. To form a plan to prevent or alleviate distress.

The Prevention and Management of Educational Stress workshops have been presented to thousands of teachers and administrators in several states. These workshops cannot serve as a panacea for all educational problems. However, they have proven invaluable in addressing the serious problems of teacher stress (p. 39).

> Schools are stressful places. They are growing more so almost daily, and little is currently done to prepare teachers to cope with that stress. Somewhere, it is vital that beginning and experienced teachers be given skills in coping with stress (p. 30).

Stress and the Music Educator

Stress related problems among music educators have recently generated much concern (Davis, 1978). Research in music teaching does not indicate studies which expressly addressed the effects of job-related stress and the music educator. Not only are music teachers affected by sources of stress common to the teaching profession, but are also stressed with sources unique to their special role in the schools and the community. The music educator must adhere to general classroom duties required of all teachers along with being responsible for teaching large groups of students simultaneously (i.e., band, orchestra, choir). VanderArk's (1982) interviews of 24 randomly selected music teachers indicated that little or no support from school system, lack of administrative staff support, lack of budget, and pay incentive were major sources of stress. The more experienced teachers expressed that fund raising projects for extra money for their music programs produced much stress (p. 41).

The music educator is subjected constantly to performance pressures which often require extra hours of rehearsals before and/or after school and assumes myriad extra responsibilities related to the public relations aspect of the job. Marching band, orchestra, and choral directors often develop outstanding reputations based on their organizations' accomplishments. The more enthusiastic and successful the director, the more students the music program will attract (Davis, 1979). Among the music educators' concerns were transportation arrangements, maintaining a supportive attitude with the booster organization and the fund-raising projects to organize and execute. The transient music educator is also faced with job-related stress. The work schedule, arranged by the administration, has been designed with little or no teacher input. For many of the transient music educators there is no home base school, thus resulting in feelings of isolation and alienation. In addition, they have no teacher support group with which to identify or share common teaching concerns. Transient music teachers may service up to three or more schools. Therefore, they are often responsible for transporting materials and instruments from school to school. The work day of the transient music teacher can be long, tedious, and stressful.

Summary

The literature is generally supportive of the notion that relationships do exist between stress, teaching, and job satisfaction. Although this study is not concerned with stress and its relationship to illness, it is necessary to mention that stress and illness studies

appear with more regulatiry in the literature than any others. The literature review has been limited to include only that research which is supportive to the interest of this study.

Studies investigating stress and its relationship to teaching is increasing in the stress related literature. Many of the studies have encountered difficulty in their methodology, research technique, and findings, or complete understanding of the results. Much of the difficulty has arisen from a lack of congruency in the definitions of the words stress and job satisfaction. However, the research has also proven to be a sound foundation on which to focus other research in the field.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES FOR THE STUDY

Introduction

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between stress, job satisfaction, and teaching assignments among music educators in the state of Michigan. This chapter will contain a discussion of the characteristics of the population, instrument selection, procedures for implementation of the study, and the data analysis techniques.

Description of Population

The general population of interest for this study included music educators who were employed as school music teachers in the state of Michigan during the 1982-83 academic year. To represent the general population of Michigan music educators, members of the various state associations of music education were the target population. These organizations included: The Michigan School Band and Orchestra Association (MSBOA); Michigan Music Educators Association (MMEA); and the Michigan School Vocal Association (MSVA). A total population of 500 was determined to be a sufficient number of subjects for the purposes of the study. These music educators selected represented all grade levels in the areas of secondary, middle school/Junior high, vocal, band, orchestra, elementary general, a combination of music levels, and a

combination of music and different subject area. The total pool of membership in the three organizations includd 871 band directors, 217 orchestra directors, 277 elementary general music educators, and 475 secondary vocal directors. One hundred twenty-five members were randomly selected from each of the four teaching areas listed above. Every fifth member was selected from the band directors' membership list; every third member was selected from the list of orchestra directors; every third member from the elementary membership list was selected; and from the list of choral directors, every fourth member was selected. The state membership list of each organization was used because the memberships were current and the sample provided a regional representation of music educators throughout the state of Michigan.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used in this study to obtain the necessary data. To measure music educators' job satisfaction, the Job Description Index (JDI) (Smith et al., 1965) was used. In Measures of Occupational Attitudes and Occupational Characteristics (Robinson et al., 1967), the JDI is listed as "the instrument which appears to have the best credentials" of the 13 job satisfaction scales examined. "Lengthy, extensive and competent research went into the construction of this instrument, which had been administered to workers at all organization levels on a nationwide basis" (p. 101). The instrument has been widely tested with groups which range in diversity from janitors, secretaries, and farmers to bank executives. Corrected split-half internal consistency coefficients were reported to exceed .80

for each of the scales. Hulin (1966) reported evidence of stability over time. In analyzing data for female clerical employees over a 12-month period, Hulin also reported a correlation of -.27 between satisfaction and job turnover. The JDI consists of 72 items, 18 in each of the categories of work, supervision, and people subscales, and nine each in pay and promotions. Each subscale consists of a list of adjectives or descriptive phrases to which the respondent was asked to reply (see Appendix C):

"Y" for yes - if the item described present job (score 3 points)

"N" for no - if the item did not describe present job (score 0 points)

"?" for undecided - if respondent was undecided (score 1 point)

A stress related questionnaire (SRQ) in the form of a Likert scale was developed for measuring stress of music educators (Appendix C). The questionnaire was an adaptation of an instrument developed by Parker (1979) for school counselors in the state of Michigan. The development of the SRQ, which paralleled Parker's procedure, required the following:

Step 1. Sources of stress for music educators were identified.

Step 2. Grouping of the stress items within the instrument were made.

Step 3. Final design of the instrument was made.

Step 4. Validation of each item in the instrument was made.

Step 5. Final changes of discrepancies noted in the instruments were made.

Step 1: Sources of stress for music educators were identified. A list of sources of stress was developed from a brief questionnaire given to 150 music educators at the 1982 Midwestern Music Conference, Ann Arbor, Michigan, and the 1982 Music Educators National Conference, San Antonio, Texas. An original list of 120 stress items was derived from the music educators' responses.

Step 2: Grouping of the stress items within the instrument was made. The 120 items were placed into categories to eliminate replication of items. The 120-item list was reduced to 54 by a content analysis procedure. Each item was placed in one of the five categories (1) work environment, (2) teaching assignment(s), (3) administrative and community support, (4) interpersonal relationships with students and staff, and (5) concert performances. The 54 items were administered and critiqued by 28 experienced music educators who were attending 1982 summer session graduate seminars at Michigan State University.

Step 3: Final design of the instrument was made. The 54 stress items identified by the music educators were combined with 12 questions to ascertain demographic information to make up the Stress Related Questionnaire (SRQ).

Step 4. Content validation of each item in the instrument was made. Three graduate students pursuing Ph.D. degrees at Michigan State University while on sabbatical leave from their music teaching positions, and three Music Education faculty members from Michigan State University served on a panel of experts to content validate the SRQ.

Step 5: Final changes of discrepancies noted in the instrument were made. According to the ease with which the SRQ was taken and the discrepancies which were highlighted, corrections to the instrument were made. The questionnaire, in its two-part form, was ready for distribution (see Appendix C).

Twelve demographic variables made up the Personal Information Questionnaire (PIQ), a portion of the survey instrument. These twelve variables were defined in the following manner:

1. Gender: Male (1) and Female (2) were coded separately.

2. Age: Respondents' age was categoriezed as follows: 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, and over 55.

3. Ethnic Background: Respondents classified themselves as American Indian, Asian, Black, Chicano, Hispanic, White, or other.

4. Level of Education: The highest degree possessed by the respondents were coded--Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, Specialist degree, Doctorate, or other.

5. Income Level: The annual salary of the respondent was classified as follows: Below $10,000; $10,000-14,999; $15,000-19,999; $20,000-24,999; and over $25,000.

6. Size of School System: Categories of the total K-12 school system were based on the 1980-81 Analysis of Michigan Public School Revenue and Expenditures, Bulletin 1011 (p. 5).

7. Employment Status: Respondents who taught 80 percent or more were considered full-time; those teaching less than 80 percent were considered part-time.

8. School Grade Levels: Respondents were asked to report what specific grade levels their assignment encompassed.

9. Percentage of Time Taught: Subjects reported the percentage of time taught at each level (high school, junior high/middle school, or elementary) to the nearest 10 percent increment (i.e., 1-10%, 11-20%, etc.).

10. In the state of Michigan many school districts hire music teachers to teach more than one kind of music organization. Among the teaching assignments, one of the types of classes is considered the principal teaching assignment. Subjects were asked which class was considered their principal teaching assignment. Responses were coded: Band, Orchestra, Choral, Elementary/Middle School General Music, other music classes (theory, piano, guitar, jazz), or non-music classes.

11. Many music teaching assignments require a number of class preparations. In order to find out how much time teachers spent teaching in each area, subjects were asked what percentage of time they taught band, orchestra/strings, choral, general music, other music classes, or non-music classes.

12. In order to distinguish the more experienced music teacher from the less experienced music teacher, respondents were asked how long they had been in the teaching profession. Responses were coded for less than 1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-19 years, and more than 20 years.

13. In order to make a comparison between music teachers' major teaching assignment with major performance area during

undergraduate studies, subjects were asked to list their major undergraduate performance major as woodwinds, strings, piano, brass, voice, or percussion.

The complete PIQ is shown in Appendix C as the first part of the questionnaire.

Administration Procedures

A letter (Appendix A) requesting permission to contact music educators from their organizations was sent to the presidents of each professional organization: Jack Pierson, Michigan School Band and Orchestra Association (MSBOA); Douglas E. Rheam, Michigan Music Education Association (MMEA); and Roger Dehn, Michigan School Vocal Association (MSVA). Each president granted his permission (Appendix B). Mailing lists were made available by each organization's secretary. The SRQ and JDI (Appendix C) was mailed to each of the 500 persons whose names were selected by the sampling procedure. The questionnaires were accompanied by a cover letter (Appendix C) providing subjects with the purpose and need for the study and directions for completing the questionnaire. The letter was endorsed by Dr. Robert Erbes, Chairperson of Music Education area, Michigan State University, and the researcher.

Data Analysis

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were examined during this study:

Hypothesis 1

Michigan music educators who experience greater amounts of stress will be more dissatisfied with their jobs than those music educators who experience less stress.

Hypothesis 2

The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with grade level.

Hypothesis 3

The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with teaching assignment within a music curriculum.

Hypothesis 4

There will be statistical differences in amounts of stress experienced among Michigan music educators based on the following demographics: (a) gender; (b) age groupl (c) ethnic background; (d) level of education; (e) income level; (f) size of school system; and (g) years of teaching experience.

Hypothesis 5

There will be statistical differences in degrees of job satisfaction among Michigan music educators based on the following demographics: (a) gender; (b) age group; (c) ethnic background; (d) level of education; (e) income level; (f) size of school system; and (g) years of teaching experience.

In conjunction with the five hypotheses, this study investigated the following related questions:

1. What area of the music educator's job is most satisfying as revealed in the JDI?
2. What area of the music educator's job is least satisfying as revealed in the JDI?
3. What area of the music educator's job is most stressful as revealed in the (SRQ)?
4. What area of the music educator's job is least stressful as revealed in the (SRQ)?

Data Analysis Procedure

To examine the five hypotheses in this investigation, a series of correlation analyses were used to compute results. A score for the measure of job satisfaction was obtained by totaling scores on the five subscales of the JDI (work, pay, promotion, supervision, and people). Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed for the relationships tested in Hypothesis 1. A One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to compute relationships for Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 5.

In addition to the correlation statistics and an ANOVA which were used to examine the major hypotheses, an ANOVA was also used in providing responses to the four related questions in conjunction. The ANOVA again was used to compute relationships between demographic data: sex, age, ethnic background, level of education, income level, size of school system, and years of experience, and stress and job satisfaction investigation. ANOVA summary tables were used to display data from the analyses. Tests of significance were analyzed and reported using the .05 level of probability where the ANOVA produced an F-statistic to calculate significance.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used in this study. The data was analyzed on a CDC 6500 computer at Michigan State University.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Two hundred sixty-two full time music educators, or 52.3 percent of the sample population, responded to the questionnaire and JDI. A sufficient number of respondents were represented at all grade levels and teaching areas. Of the 262 subjects, 132 were male and 130 were female. For the purposes of this study, it was determined that the return was sufficiently large enough to represent a "normal" statistical population and maintain large enough size for all planned statistical procedures.

The following paragraph contains information for the scoring procedures used for each evaluation. A mean score for the (SRQ) was determined by employing condescriptive statistics. For each of the 53 test items, respondents were instructed to respond from 1-6 (i.e., 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = does not apply). When the items were tabulated only those items with responses 1-5 (i.e., 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) were calculated, thereby eliminating the response 6. For each case the sum of all values (1-5) was divided by the number of variables, thus creating the mean score for each individual case. The sample mean for the variable stress was then calculated by dividing the total responses to each test item by the total number of subjects who responded.

Because of an insufficient response, the demographic variable (c) ethnic background, found in hypotheses 4 and 5, was omitted from the study results.

Results

The results of this study will be discussed in light of each hypothesis tested. Hypothesis 1 was tested by using the Pearson product moment correlation (r).

Hypothesis 1

> Michigan music educators who experience greater amounts of stress will be more dissatisfied with their jobs than those music educators who experience less stress.

The mean scores of the (SRQ) were drawn from each music educator and compared to their individual mean scores of the five subscales of the JDI. The mean of the total (SRQ) score was compared to the mean of the total JDI score as well. Each subscale of the JDI has a possible point range of 54 and a total score of 270.

The correlation between stress and certain aspects of job satisfaction (JDI subscales) are presented in Table 4. According to the results, music educators at all grade levels and teaching assignments are experiencing job related stress which is an indication of job dissatisfaction. It is interesting to note that this finding concurs with other stress job satisfaction studies, such as Herzber (1959), Sarason (1977), and Wofford, et al. (1971). The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicate that the level of stress of Michigan music educators correlates significantly with the five subscales of the JDI beyond the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 4.--Correlation of Stress and Job Satisfaction.

Sources of Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	r	p
Work of present job	32.6908	8.3875	-.3840*	.001
Pay on present job	25.2901	13.6845	-.2418*	.001
Opportunity for promotion	12.6260	10.5601	-.1932*	.001
Supervision on present job	36.6412	12.4639	-.2824*	.001
People on present job	36.3702	12.2420	-.2502*	.001
Total Scores of JDI and Total Stress Scores	143.6183	34.3066	-.4417*	.001

*$p < .05$.

Hypothesis 2

> The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with grade level assignments within a music curriculum.

Based on the data presented, Hypothesis 2 is rejected. In Table 5, the one-way analysis of variance results, reveals no statistically significant differences between stress and grade level. An F-probability of .5336 was not found to be significant at the .05 level.

It is the researcher's belief that a large number of music educators teach at more than one grade level and the responses returned were not stratified sufficiently which affected the possibility of a statistically sufficient response to Hypothesis 2. An inspection

TABLE 5.--ANOVA: Stress by Grade Level--Analysis of Variance.

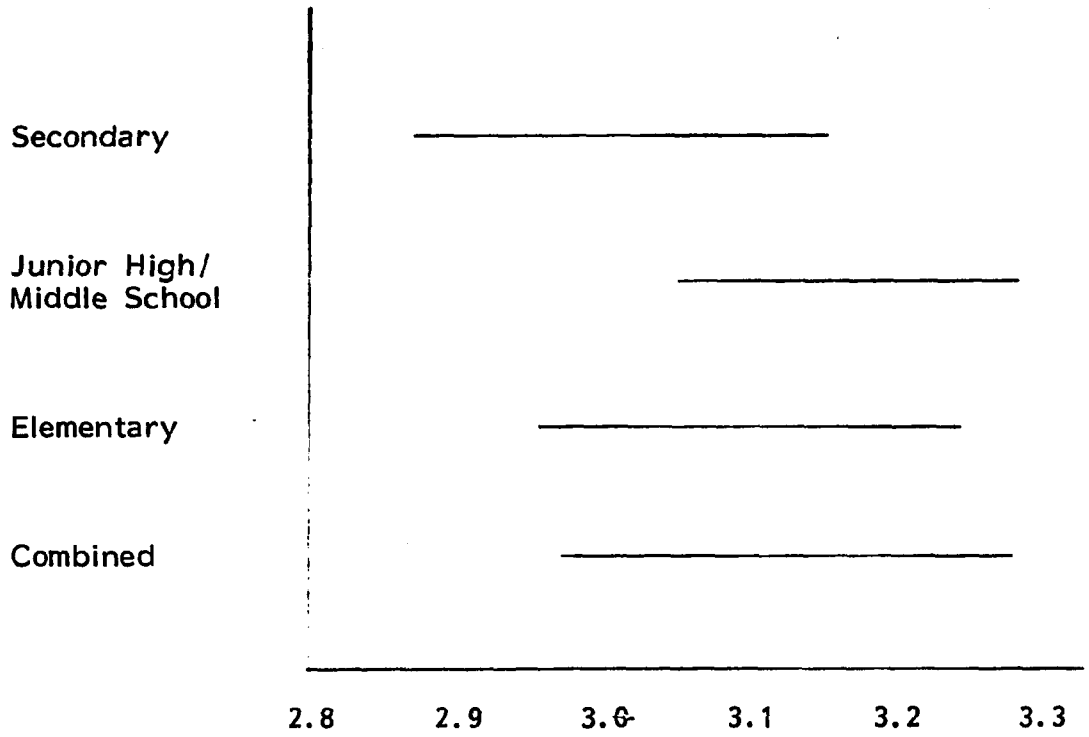
Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F Ratio	F
Between Groups	.7228	3	.2409	.732	.5336
Within Groups	84.8825	258	.3290		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			

$p < .05$

of the descriptive data (Table 6) indicates that music educators are experiencing stress at all grade levels. However, the analysis of data indicates some overlapping of mean scores for each grade level. The graph in Figure 3 visually indicates the confidence interval for the mean score of each grade level.

TABLE 6.--Stress by Grade Level.

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
Senior High	52	3.0216	.5310	.0736	2.0755	4.5319
Junior High	68	3.1759	.4946	.0600	2.0000	4.5000
Elementary School	81	3.0934	.6397	.0711	1.5161	4.3019
Combination	61	3.1163	.5969	.0763	1.3208	4.4865



Secondary:	2.8727 - 2.1694
Junior High/ Middle School:	3.0562 - 3.2956
Elementary:	2.9519 - 3.2348
Combined:	2.9635 - 3.2692

Figure 3.--Confidence Level -- Stress by Grade Level.

Hypothesis 3

> The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with teaching assignments within the music curriculum.

Based on the data presented, Hypothesis 3 is rejected. In Table 7, the one-way analysis of variance, reveals no statistically significant different levels of stress expressed by band, orchestra, choral, or general music teachers. An F-probability of .6390 was not found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence.

TABLE 7.--ANOVA of Teaching Assignments.

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F Ratio	F
Between Groups	.5540	3	.1847	.564	.6390
Within Groups	83.1174	254	.3272		
TOTAL	83.6714	257			

$p < .05$

Although results of Hypothesis 3 are not significant, the mean scores of each teaching assignment are close in response. The researcher feels that a number of music educators are teaching more than one area which has effected clear response patterns.

The descriptive data in Table 8 indicates that the effects of job-related stress is experienced in all areas of music teaching.

TABLE 8.--Descriptive Data: Stress by Assignment.

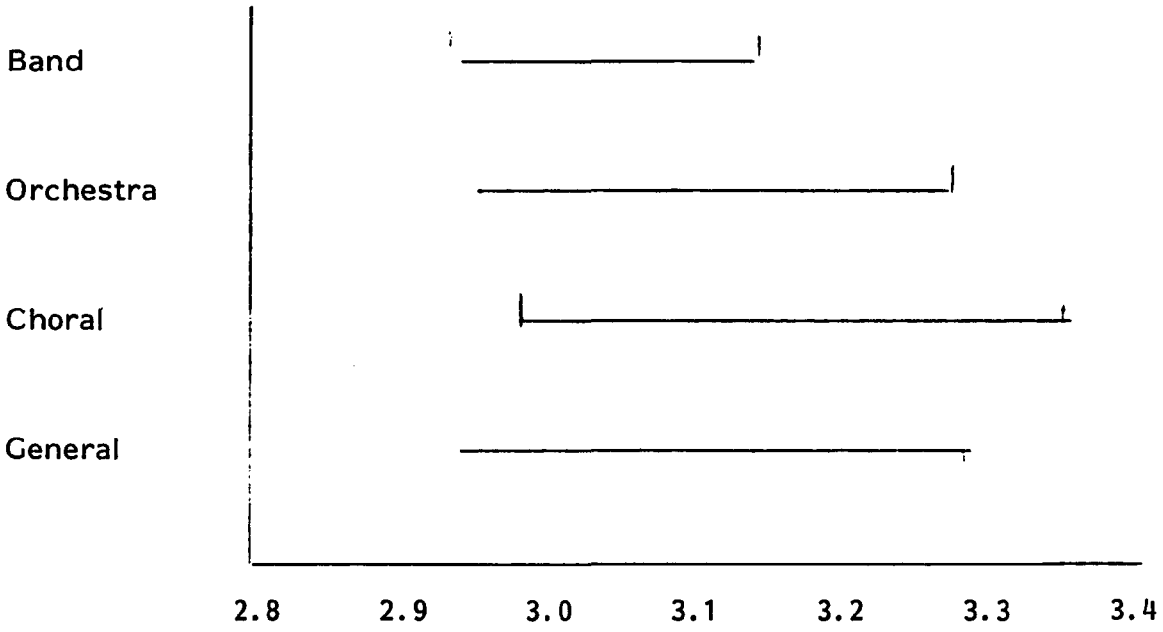
Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
Band	100	3.0444	.4881	.0488	1.3208	4.2857
Orchestra	48	3.1241	.5429	.0784	1.8113	4.0000
Choral	49	3.1633	.6188	.0884	1.7925	4.5319
General	61	3.1184	.6746	.0864	1.5161	4.5000

In Figure 4 a graphic illustration of confidence intervals for band, orchestra, choral and general music classes is shown. The confidence level supports the findings that the effects of stress are experienced by music educators regardless of teaching assignment.

Hypothesis 4

> There will be statistical differences in amounts of stress experienced among Michigan music educators on the following demographics: (a) gender; (b) age level; (c) ethnic background; (d) level of education; (e) income level; (f) size of school system; and (g) years of teaching experience

The evaluation of stress and gender and stress and years of teaching experience were each statistically significant. Table 9 contains the F-probabilities of both demographics. Complete ANOVA tables can be found in Appendix D. The reader is reminded that due to an insufficient response, the demographic variable (c) ethnic background, has been omitted.



Band: 2.9475 - 3.1412

Orchestra: 2.9665 - 3.2818

Choral: 2.9855 - 3.3410

General: 2.9456 - 3.2912

Figure 4.--Confidence Interval -- Stress by Teaching Assignment.

TABLE 9.--F-Probability for One Way ANOVA for (a) Stress and Gender and (b) Stress by Years of Teaching Experience.

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F
(a) Stress and Gender					
Between Groups	3.6964	1	3.6964	11.733	.0007
Within Groups	81.9089	260	.3150		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			
(b) Stress by Years of Teaching Experience					
Between Groups	3.6446	5	.7289	2.277	.0475
Within Groups	81.9607	256	.3202		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			

Mean scores from the (SRQ) were compared across gender. From the 262 subjects, 132 were male and 130 were female. The mean score among males was 2.9880 and the mean score among females was 3.2256. This finding is in agreement with the vast majority of stress related literature.

The analysis of variance by stress and years of teaching experience is significant at the .05 level as shown in Table 9. However, further investigation is indicated by the limited responses to the category "less than one year." Table 10 indicates only three respondents in the category and a low mean score of 2.4. The extermely low mean scores may have contributed to a statistically

TABLE 10.--Analysis of Stress and Years of Teaching Experience.

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
Less than 1 year	3	2.4784	.2085	.1204	2.3333	2.7174
1-5 years	29	3.1873	.3880	.0721	2.4231	3.8810
6-10 years	72	3.2467	.5636	.0664	1.9615	4.5000
11-15 years	65	3.0462	.5211	.0646	1.8113	4.2857
16-19 years	28	2.9780	.6200	.1172	1.5161	4.0000
More than 20 years	65	3.0573	.6536	.0811	1.3208	4.5319

significant difference in response to Hypothesis 4. By examining the mean scores and ignoring the less than one-year category, a brief plateau effect shows a decline in the amount of stress after 6-10 years of teaching experience. The decline may have been caused by professional maturity, job security or music educators who are resistant to change.

Hypothesis 5

> There will be statistical differences in degrees of job satisfaction among Michigan music educators on the following demographics: (a) gender; (b) age level; (c) ethnic background; (d) level of education; (e) income level; (f) size of school system; and (g) years of teaching experience.

Combined mean scores of the JDI were compared across gender, age level, level of education, income level, size of school system, and years of teaching experience. The correlation between demographic

variables and mean scores of the JDI subscales are presented in Table 11. Each subscale of the JDI has a possible point range of 54 and a total possible score of 270. Complete ANOVA tables for the analysis can be found in Appendix E.

TABLE 11.--Mean Scores for Five Scales of the Job Description Index.

Scale	Mean	Standard Deviation
Work	32.691	8.388
Pay	25.290	13.684
Promotion	12.626	10.560
Supervision	36.641	12.464
People	36.370	12.242

Hypothesis 5 is rejected. Mean scores of the JDI indicate that there is no significant difference between demographic variables and job satisfaction. The range of possible JDI scores presents a maximum of 54. The magnitude of discrepancies should be noted.

In conjunction with the five research hypotheses, this study also investigated the following related questions.

1. What area of the music educator's job is most satisfying as revealed in the JDI?
2. What area of the music educator's job is least satisfying as revealed in the JDI?
3. What area of the music educator's job is most stressful as revealed in the (SRQ)?
4. What area of the music educator's job is least stressful as revealed in the (SRQ)?

In response to Question 1, data from the JDI indicates that of the five measures of job satisfaction, music educators are more satisfied with supervision on present job (36.641). For Question 2, music educators indicate that they are least satisfied with opportunity for promotion (12.626).

Mean scores were computed for the 53 sources of stress as listed on the Stress-Related Questionnaire (SRQ). In response to Question 3, the mean score indicates that music educators view "placing high expectations on self" as the highest stressor. A mean score of 4.326 out of five is reported. For question 4, music educators responded that the item causing the least amount of stress is "Threaten with personal injury." A mean score of 1.794 is reported. Table 12 contains eleven stressors music educators find most stressful.

A list of ten stressors identified as being least stressful for music educators is shown in Table 13. An additional 55 stressors added by music educators can be found in Appendix F.

Several specific comments were related by music educators experiencing job-related stress in a number of situations. Several stated the following situations as most stressful:

> *. . . As a music teacher I often feel that my responsibilities are those equal to a Public Relations Representative. I've never refused any performing request from any community organizations, I've even committed several of my music groups with only a few days notice. But it appears that each time a tax cut is made, fine arts, music, orchestra, and choral programs are the first on the list to be eliminated . . . .*
>
> *. . . Giving Grades!!! I wish we didn't have to give grades. If a student is dissatisfied with their class grade the student usually threatens to drop the class or even goes so far as to drop the class.*

TABLE 12.--Sources Music Educators Find Most Stressful.

Stressor	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Placing high expectations on self	4.326	.906
2. Not able to schedule talented students in adequate numbers	3.839	1.207
3. Fund raising projects to earn money for music program	3.789	1.193
4. Job security in face of funding cutbacks	3.780	1.272
5. Dealing with declining enrollments	3.721	1.207
6. Working after school and weekends	3.648	1.300
7. Pressure to recruit students for program	3.634	1.255
8. Managing disruptive students	3.610	1.343
9. Traveling to more than one school to teach	3.610	1.421
10. Parent apathy	3.567	1.299
11. Too much paper work	3.257	1.211

TABLE 13.--Sources Music Teachers Find Least Stressful.

Stressor	Means	Standard Deviation
1. Threatened with personal injury	1.794	1.018
2. Inability to teach specific organizations due to lack of training	2.189	1.213
3. Required to perform on an instrument or voice	2.226	1.090
4. Expected to perform for out-of-town trips	2.390	1.145
5. Attending district music meetings	2.415	1.146
6. Tenure and promotion	2.159	1.183
7. Non-music teaching responsibilities (study hall, hall monitor, etc.)	2.472	1.411
8. Working with other staff members	2.498	1.082
9. Working with music boosters	2.535	1.115
10. Participating at administration's request to get involved with other school activities	2.633	1.145

. . . The budget for music in my high schools is in the low three figures. It is to support the needs of the band, orchestra, and choir--such as purchasing supplies, sheet music, for instrumental repairs, district music association membership fees, and contest entry fees . . . .

. . . Several years ago our music program was given an adequate budget--not today. Music classes had students who were in school the entire day--not with shortened periods, job-related conflicts and internal sports programs during the school day. Elementary students got 50 minutes of vocal music weekly, general music was required in grades 7-8 and instrumental music was started as early as the second semester of the fourth grade . . . .

. . . I am an orchestra director, teaching piano, high school vocal, high school orchestra, and junior high string classes. . . . I guess I am lucky--the orchestra teacher at the other high school is teaching one class of orchestra and four classes of English!

. . . In the past five weeks our Board of Education has laid off seven teachers including the band director, Despite his excellent teaching, and high quality performing groups throughout his five years of service, he lacked enough seniority to retain his position. Therefore, I've been assigned his three bands as well as my two choirs . . . .

. . . Rehearsing full orchestra for 20 minutes and being constantly interrupted by Student Council, change of schedule, school assemblies . . . .

. . . Sometimes stress can result from success; Stress is not necessarily a negative.

Summary

The data from the Stress-Related Questionnaire and the Job Description Index were used in testing the five major hypotheses and the four related questions of the study. A Pearson product-moment correlation conducted on Hypothesis 1 indicates that there is a negative relationship between the level of stress and the level of job satisfaction for Michigan music educators.

ANOVA techniques were used to examine Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 5, and the four questions related to the study. The results from these analyses can be summarized as follows:

1. There is no significant difference between stress and teaching at various grade levels;

2. There is no significant difference between stress and teaching assignment;

3. There is a significant difference between stress and sex of teacher, and stress and years of teaching experience;

4. There is no significant difference between job satisfaction and the demographic variables of gender, age level, level of education, income level, size of school system, and years of teaching experience;

5. Mean scores for the job satisfaction components of pay, promotion, people, and work were lower than supervision;

6. The mean score for promotion was the lowest of the five aspects of job satisfaction;

7. The mean score for placing high expectations on self was the greatest source of stress for Michigan music educators; and

8. The mean score for threat of personal injury was the lowest source of stress for Michigan music educators.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The final chapter of this study includes a review of the problem under investigation, the procedure followed, a literature summary, the major findings, a discussion with implications for the field of music education, and recommendations for future research.

The purpose of this study was five-fold: (1) to examine the relationship between stress and job satisfaction; (2) to examine the relationship between stress and grade level assignment within a music curriculum; (3) to examine the relationship between stress and teaching assignments within a music curriculum; (4) to examine the relationship between stress and demographic variables among Michigan music educators; and (5) to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and demographic variables among Michigan music educators.

Many authorities in the field of psychology state that stress is an integral part of life. Without stress one would become bored, remain emotionally immature, and little human endeavor would result. Stress research has focused on stressful stimuli or situations to which everyone is exposed in the natural course of life. These stimuli or situations, called "life events," include experiences such as marriage, birth of a child, divorce and death of a loved one. Stress

is a driving force which enables people to successfully meet the challenge of life events.

Every life event is stressful to some degree. However, it does not follow that all life events must be stressful to the same degree. A major question that has guided research on stressful life events is the properties or conditions that distinguish more stressful from less stressful life events. Another issue which has prompted research on stressful life events follows directly from the hypothesis that stressful life events play a role in the etiology of various somatic and psychological disorders (Dohrenwend, 1974). The questions derived from this hypothesis are concerned with specific disorders, health changes, particular types of stressful life events and stressful life events in general.

Stress is a significant factor in today's world, especially in the world of work. Chronic stress can manifest itself in the work situation through undesirable behaviors of high absenteeism, job turnovers, health problems, alcohol and drug abuse, and personality clashes.

Music educators are faced with stress-related problems not experienced by other classroom teachers. They can ill afford to allow the presence of stress in their own lives to affect the students they teach. Consequently, they must take account of themselves and their teaching performance if they are to be efficient and effective.

Job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) of music educators needs to be given much attention because it is generally agreed that the less satisfied one is with his job, the more stressful the job becomes.

Music teachers who are provided with a proper working atmosphere and opportunities to express job dissatisfaction can provide administrators with a source of information for improving the functioning of music teachers and music programs.

Music educators must be as comfortable as possible in their jobs if they are to perform satisfactorily. This includes being satisfied with their job and teaching assignments, being under minimal stress and being physically and mentally fit to handle students and job demands.

For this study, the population consisted of music educators who were employed in a school setting in the state of Michigan during the 1982-83 school year. The sample population of 500 music educators was selected from the membership list of the three professional music education associations. A stratified random sample was taken from all grade levels and teaching areas: band, orchestra, choral, elementary general, a combination of music levels, and a combination of music and different subject areas.

Two instruments were used to provide the necessary data. To measure stress, a stress-related questionnaire (SRQ) containing demographic information was developed. To measure job satisfaction the Job Description Index (JDI), developed by Smith et al. (1965) was used. This instrument contains five scales of job satisfaction: work, pay, promotions, supervision, and people. These instruments and a supportive cover letter were mailed to each member of the sample population. Two hundred ninety-two music educators responded. Only full-time teachers were considered for this study. Two hundred

sixty-two full-time music educators and thirty part-time music educators responded. Therefore, 52.3 percent of the population was used in the study.

The analysis of data included the use of the Pearson product moment correlation for testing Hypothesis 1. Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 5 were tested by the one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Each hypothesis was tested for significance at the .05 level. The ANOVA technique was also used to test for significant differences between the demographic variables and the major variables of this study. Again, the .05 level of significance was used.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used in this study. The data was analyzed on a CDC 6500 computer at Michigan State University.

Findings

In this study, five hypotheses were examined. According to the data analysis, the following results are reported:

Hypothesis 1

> Michigan music educators who experience greater amounts of stress will be more dissatisfied with their jobs than those music educators who experience less stress.

The level of stress for music educators was related negatively to their level of job satisfaction. Hypothesis 1 was accepted.

Hypothesis 2

> The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with grade level assignments within a music curriculum.

The relationship between stress and grade level assignment did not differ statistically. However, results showed some overlapping. Hypothesis 2 was rejected.

Hypothesis 3

> The amount of stress experienced among Michigan music educators will differ statistically with teaching assignments within a music curriculum.

The relationship between stress and teaching assignments did not differ statistically. Results indicated a closeness in mean scores. Hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Hypothesis 4

> There will be statistical differences in amounts of stress experienced among Michigan music educators on the following demographic variables: (a) gender; (b) age groups; (c) level of education; (d) income level; (e) size of school system; and (f) years of teaching experience.

The relationship between stress and gender and the relationship between stress and years of teaching experience were the only two demographic variables accepted as indicating statistically significant differences. Hypothesis 4 was rejected.

Hypothesis 5

> There will be statistical differences in degrees of job satisfaction among Michigan music educators on the following demographic variables: (a) gender; (b) age; (c) level of education; (d) income level; (e) size of school system, and (f) years of teaching experience.

The relationship was in fact found to be negative or non-significant. Hypothesis 5 was rejected.

Discussion

This study was essentially exploratory since no previous studies exist which focus on stress of music educators. The results of this investigation provide support for the hypothesis that stress and job satisfaction are related negatively. For music educators it is apparent that the more dissatisfied a music educator is with the job, the more stressful was the job. This is in concurrence with the limited research which has been conducted in the area of stress and job satisfaction. Also, the results seem to indicate that dissatisfaction on the job has been a source of stress. Job dissatisfaction is not only caused by stressors produced on the job. Many music educators are pleased with their work environments. Life events such as the death of a spouse, divorce, marriage, trouble with the law and personal injury or illness can cause one to become dissatisfied with self, as well as with the job.

Though the analysis of data does not indicate any statistically significant differences between stress and grade level, a close examination of mean scores shows that music educators at all grade levels are experiencing the effects of job related stress. Music educators experience the effects of stress because of the uniqueness of the profession as well as the unique sources of stress produced at each grade level. A factor analysis of the (SRQ) would help to identify the sources of stress particular to each grade level and/or organizational type. Such findings would give support to the development of coping and stress management skills and techniques for music educators through identifying potential sources of stress.

Data results indicate that there is no statistical difference among the stresses experienced by band, orchestra, and choral directors and the general music teacher. Mean scores for each teaching assignment are relatively close. A factor analysis would again help to identify sources of stress unique to each teaching assignment. Results from a factor analysis could be applied in three ways:

1. To compare and investigate the uniqueness of sources of stress among teaching assignments;
2. To develop coping and management skills and techniques to be used specifically for music educators; and
3. To provide an awareness of the effects of job related stress for music educators enrolled in university and college music education programs.

The analysis of variance conducted on the demographic variables for each stress and job satisfaction indicates statistical significant differences for two of the analyses. The significant relationship indicates that the stress level of females is much higher than the level of stress for males. This is consistent with other investigative research in the area of stress and job satisfaction. Stress by years of teaching experience is indicated as yielding statistical differences. It must be noted that this result is based on a very low mean response from three subjects which may have unduely influenced the data. Even though the teachers in this study indicate very low mean scores on the questionnaire (2.4) in relationship to the other teachers, that information is not reinforced by other research. In fact, the literature reveals that teachers with

less than one year of teaching experience greater amounts of job related stress. This may be because a lack of experience in the profession, fear to assert their teaching skills in the classroom, or a lack of college preparation to cope with job related stress.

Concurring with a vast majority of research in job satisfaction, the results of this study indicate that music educators are most satisfied with the supervision they receive on their jobs. The results also show an indication that music educators rank the category "people in the job," as a second to supervision, with only a .271 difference between the two categories. (Along with other studies reviewed, the category "promotion" or "opportunity for advancement" ranked the least satisfying.)

Data from this study supports conclusions found in the literature which relate stress and job satisfaction to educators. This study implies that stress is an identifiable factor that can be used to isolate areas of job satisfaction for the educator. The major difference between this research project and others is that this study focused on a specific population, music educators. The overall results of this study indicate that music educators need strategies to cope with job-related stress.

Implications

Music educators who are under minimal stress will be more satisfied with their classroom performance as well as student participation. The music educator will be better able to confront any problems that arise during the course of his working day and be able to make

quality decisions that will benefit all concerned. Therefore, it is important that music educators recognize the effects that stress in their lives has upon their job.

Music educators who are constantly under stress and who are displeased with their job performance or assignment can negatively effect students' learning, their music programs, and teaching staff. Based on the results of this study, Michigan music educators are experiencing the effects of job-related stress. It is the contention of this researcher that the results from this study are significant for music educators in the state of Michigan.

Music educators must become more aware of coping and management techniques to learn how to eliminate overstress from their lives and jobs. Strategies for coping can be incorporated into music departments through in-service training programs, workshops, or staff development series. Coping strategies must be developed to address the needs and situations music educators find most stressful. Stress management techniques and skills should be included in college music education curricula early in the music education students' educational program. By doing this, potential music educators will be more aware and better prepared to handle the effects of job-related stress.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results from this study suggest the following recommendations:

1. Research efforts should focus upon more clearly defining stress questionnaires for each teaching assignment for music educators: band, orchestra, choral, and the elementary generalist.

2. This study should be conducted with populations from different types of school systems: urban, rural, suburban, desegregated-integrated-segregated, and music conservatories. This research would focus on differences in music educators' kinds of stressors and stressful situations.

3. Studies should be designed which establish experimental groups of music educators who have been trained in stress management and determine its effects.

4. Research efforts should be developed to replicate this study with populations of music educators from varied racial backgrounds to determine the effects of stress and job satisfaction on this group.

5. This study should be replicated with the same population with the inclusion of stress effect on illness.

6. Research efforts should focus upon more clearly defining a job satisfaction index which illicits responses characteristic for music educators.

7. A factor analysis should be conducted to specifically delineate stressors characteristic of band, orchestra, choral, and elementary music educators.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

TO: The Presidents of: M.S.V.A.; M.S.B.O.A.; M.M.E.A.

FROM: Phillip Stubblefield
1240 Haslett Road, Apt. 8
East Lansing, MI 48823

DATE: November 12,1982

I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Music at Michigan State University presently researching the relationship between stress, job satisfaction and teaching assignments along with other variables which may affect music educators' effectiveness. This area of research, which is gaining interest, can provide teachers and teacher educators with information for improving their instruction.

In an effort to secure information concerning factors which may impinge upon the effective and efficient performance of music educators at all levels and areas (vocal, band, orchestra, elementary and the generalist), I am requesting permission to send a questionnaire and a job description index to a random sample of your membership.

Dr. Robert Erbes, Area Chairperson of Music Education Michigan State University, is supervising my research. We both feel further research in the area of stress and its effects on the music educator is pertinent. An expedient response to the permission request and a list of your membership will enable continued research.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Phillip Stubblefield

APPENDIX B

LETTERS GRANTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

MICHIGAN SCHOOL BAND AND ORCHESTRA ASSOCIATION

December 20, 1982

Mr. Phillip Stubblefield
1240 Haslett Road, Apt. 8
East Lansing, Mi. 48823

Dear Mr. Stubblefield,

I have no objection to you contacting members of M.S.B.O.A. for your project.

You should be in touch with Edwin Tower our managing sectrtary in Ann Arbor. He will send you our new membership book which is at the printers this week.

Sorry to be late in answering your letter but SI do now have a secretary and vacation is my time for correspondence.

Sincerly,

Jack Pierson, President
Michigan School Band and Orchestra Association.

MMEA MICHIGAN MUSIC EDUCATORS ASSOCIATION
STATE UNIT OF MUSIC EDUCATORS NATIONAL CONFERENCE

PRESIDENT
Douglas E. Reahm
813 Walsh S.E.
Grand Rapids, MI 49507
(O) 616-456-4776
(H) 616-247-0281

PRESIDENT-ELECT
Catherine Nadon-Gabrion
1308 Cambridge
Ann Arbor, MI 48104
(O) 313-764-5429
(H) 313-663-1447

PAST PRESIDENT
Karl Glenn
38124 Laurenwood Dr.
Wayne, MI 48184
(O) 313-961-7191
(H) 313-595-0144

SECRETARY
Robert Fisher
288 Adams Rd.
Frankfort, MI 49635
(O) 616-882-4497
(H) 616-352-9952

TREASURER
Sr. Laurena Allen
Aquinas College
1607 Robinson Rd. S.E.
Grand Rapids, MI 49507
(O) 616-459-8282 Ext. 256

EDITOR
Mary Teal
Music Department
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(O) 313-487-2255
(H) 313-665-3219

MEMBERSHIP
Robert Erbes
4743 Nakoma Dr.
Okemos, MI 48864
(O) 517-355-7658
(H) 517-349-0949

PROFESSIONAL PROGRAMS
Paul LeVeck
20400 Fleming
Detroit, MI 48234
(H) 313-892-2994

RESEARCH
Albert LeBlanc
2021 Cumberland Rd.
Lansing, MI 48906
(O) 517-353-9118
(H) 517-321-8140

GOVERNMENT RELATIONS
Ruth Ann Knapp
2124 Passolt
Saginaw, MI 48603
(O) 517-776-0610
(H) 517-792-6196

December 17, 1982

Mr. Phillip Stubblefield
1240 Haslett Road, Apt. 8
East Lansing, MI 48823

Dear Mr. Stubblefield:

I have your letter dated December 1, asking that permission be granted to use the MMEA mailing list for a project you are completing in your program at MSU. I do not recall that your previous letter to me asked for the MMEA listing. I did send you our own school roster of music teachers.

I have thought this over both for and against with regard to the MMEA, and have finally decided to grant the permission you seek. The Association does not have a policy on the use of the membership, but I feel the Association would want to assist in scholarly enterprises. It is assumed that you and your advisor will use the best professional judgement in your mailing.

Sincerely,

Douglas E. Reahm
President

TO: The Presidents of: M.S.V.A.; M.S.B.O.A.; M.M.E.A.

FROM: Phillip Stubblefield
1240 Haslett Road, Apt. 8
East Lansing, MI 48823

DATE: November 12,1982

I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Music at Michigan State University presently researching the relationship between stress, job satisfaction and teaching assignments along with other variables which may affect music educators' effectiveness. This area of research, which is gaining interest, can provide teachers and teacher educators with information for improving their instruction.

In an effort to secure information concerning factors which may impinge upon the effective and efficient performance of music educators at all levels and areas (vocal, band, orchestra, elementary and the generalist), I am requesting permission to send a questionnaire and a job description index to a random sample of your membership.

Dr. Robert Erbes, Area Chairperson of Music Education Michigan State University, is supervising my research. We both feel further research in the area of stress and its effects on the music educator is pertinent. An expedient response to the permission request and a list of your membership will enable continued research.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Phillip Stubblefield

Phillip Stubblefield

Mr. Stubblefield —
I am pleased to give permission for such a worthwhile cause. You will receive a directory from our Exec. Sec. very soon. Best wishes for your success in this project.

Roger Dehn

APPENDIX C

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE AND COVER LETTER

PHILLIP STUBBLEFIELD

1240 Haslett Road, Apt #8
East Lansing, MI 48823
(517) 337-7578

February 15, 1983

Dear Colleague:

Many music educators are concerned and interested in strengthening the effectiveness of their teaching. The relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and teaching assignments along with other variables which may affect music educators' effectiveness is one area of research gaining interest and can provide teachers and teacher educators with information for improving their instruction.

My research focuses directly upon the relationships between stress, job satisfaction and teaching assignments among music educators in the state of Michigan. I am undertaking this research for my doctoral degree in the Department of Music at Michigan State University.

Permission has been granted by the presidents of MMEA, MSBOA, and MSVA to secure more information concerning factors which may impinge upon the effective and efficient job performance of school music educators.

I am asking that you complete the enclosed questionnaires. The coded number on the questionnaire is only for the purpose of follow-up, if necessary. All results will be treated with strict confidence and all participants will remain anonymous. Your identity will not be used in any way in the dissertation or in any subsequent published materials. If you would like a copy of the results of the final report, please return the enclosed form with this questionnaire.

A self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience. I hope you will find it possible to respond within three weeks from the time received. If you have any questions regarding the questionnaires or the study, please feel free to contact me at (517) 337-7578, or my major advisor, Dr. Robert Erbes, Department of Music Education, Michigan State University (517) 355-7658.

Thank you for taking the time and energy to fill out these questionnaires.

Sincerely,

Phillip Stubblefield
Ph.D. Candidate

Dr. Robert Erbes
Department Chairman, Music Education

I would like a copy of the results of this study.

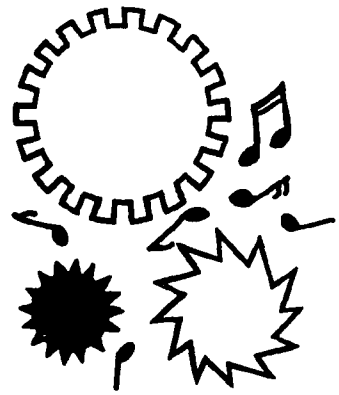
Name_____

Address_____

Return to: Phillip Stubblefield, Department of Music, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824

code number

Are You Satisfied?!?



PERSONAL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE
(PIQ)

DIRECTIONS: ***Please check [✓] the appropriate response to the following questions and fill in the blanks when that is appropriate.***

1. What is your sex?

   [ ] Male
   [ ] Female

2. What is your age?

   [ ] 18 - 24
   [ ] 25 - 34
   [ ] 35 - 44
   [ ] 45 - 54
   [ ] 55 - over

3. What is your ethnic background?

   [ ] American Indian
   [ ] Asian
   [ ] Black
   [ ] Chicano
   [ ] Hispanic
   [ ] White
   [ ] Other _____

4. What level of education have you completed?

   [ ] Bachelor's Degree
   [ ] Master's Degree
   [ ] Specialist Degree
   [ ] Doctorate Degree
   [ ] Other _____

5. What is your income level?

   [ ] Below $10,000
   [ ] $10,000 - $14,999
   [ ] $15,000 - $19,999
   [ ] $20,000 - $24,999
   [ ] Over $25,000

6. What size is your total K-12 school system?

   [ ] 50,000 and over
   [ ] 20,000 - 49,999
   [ ] 10,000 - 19,999
   [ ] 5,000 - 9,999
   [ ] 4,500 - 4,999
   [ ] 4,000 - 4,499
   [ ] 3,500 - 3,999
   [ ] 3,000 - 3,499
   [ ] 2,500 - 2,999
   [ ] 2,000 - 2,499
   [ ] 1,500 - 1,999
   [ ] 1,000 - 1,499
   [ ] 500 - 999
   [ ] Below 500

7. Based on the following definition are you:

   [ ] Part-time (80% or less teaching load)
   [ ] Full-time (more than 80% teaching load)

Teaching Levels: School levels will be determined as follows:

- *High School (9-12 / 10-12)*
- *Junior High/Middle School (6-8 / 7-8 / 7-9)*
- *Elementary (K-5 / K-6 / 1-5)*
- *Combination of above*

8. What percentage do you teach at each level?

	1-10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	91-100%
High School	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Junior High/Middle School	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elementary	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

**If three categories above total 80% or more, this represents full-time employment status.*

9. What do you consider your *principal* teaching assignment?

[ ] Band
[ ] Orchestra
[ ] Choral
[ ] Elementary/Middle School General Music
[ ] Other Music Classes (theory, piano, guitar, jazz)
[ ] Other Non-Music Classes

10. What percentage of time do you spend teaching each of the following?

	1-10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	91-100%
Band	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Orchestra/Strings	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choral	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
General Music	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Other Music Classes (theory, piano, jazz, etc.)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Non-Music Classes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

11. How long have you been in the teaching profession?

[ ] less than one year
[ ] one to five years
[ ] six to ten years
[ ] eleven to fifteen years
[ ] sixteen to nineteen years
[ ] twenty years or more

12. What was your major performance area during your undergraduate studies? If more than one, check both:

[ ] Woodwinds
[ ] Strings
[ ] Piano
[ ] Brass
[ ] Voice
[ ] Percussion

STRESS-RELATED QUESTIONNAIRE
(SRQ)

To what extent do you disagree or agree that each of the following statements adequately describe sources of stress for you in your particular job? Indicate your response by circling the number corresponding to the following statement:

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Uncertain
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree
6 = Does Not Apply

		SD	D	U	A	SA	DNA
1.	Too much paper work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Dealing with declining enrollment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Not able to schedule talented students in adequate numbers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Pressure to recruit students for your program.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Inadequate physical facilities (poor space allotment).	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Quality of physical facilities (barred windows, graffiti, dull paint, etc).	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	No practice rooms	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Keeping inventory of instruments in repair and working order.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Fund raising project to earn money for music program.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Manditory committee participation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Mood of the working environment (sexist, racist, isolated, apathetic, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Involuntarily transferred.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Inability to teach specific organizations due to lack of training.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Non-music teaching responsibilities (study hall, hall monitor, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Student teachers who are below average in achievement level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Attending district music meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Working after school and on weekends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Teaching different levels of organizations (band, orchestra, choir, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Traveling to more than one school to teach.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Lack of communication between music staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Parental apathy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Inadequate pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Inadequate program support (from administrators, counselors, teachers, parents).	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Tenure and promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Participating at administration's request to get involved with other school activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		SD	D	U	A	SA	DNA
26.	Pressure from parents and community to compete.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Job security in face of funding cutbacks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Little input, if any, in curriculum development.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Little input, if any, in intraschool policies.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	Poor concert attendance by school administrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	Lack of appreciation shown by administrators or supervisor feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Lack of communication from administrators, counselors, teachers, parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	Lack of community support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	Managing disruptive students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	Threatened with personal injury.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	Maintaining self-control when angry with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	No support group to share teacher concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	Working with other staff members.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	Working with union representatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	Working with music boosters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	The first half of the school year is more stressful than the second half.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	The second half of the school year is more stressful than the first half.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	Placing high expectations on self.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	Expected to perform for community activities (4th of July Parade, Founder's Day, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
45.	Holding chair auditions in your performing groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	Expected performances outside of the community (regional, state performances, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	Expected to perform for out-of-town trips.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48.	Expected to attend a number of contests, festivals, and competitions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	The constant drive and desire to compete.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	Performing concerts.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	Inadequate time to personally perform outside of teaching job (sing in choir, conduct, play in an organization).	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	Feeling competent to perform in several performance areas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	Required to perform on an instrument or voice.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please list below any other stresses which have not been included and rate them using the same scale as for the above listed items:

54.	_____	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	_____	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	_____	1	2	3	4	5	6
57.	_____	1	2	3	4	5	6
58.	_____	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D

ONE-WAY ANOVAS FOR TEACHING ASSIGNMENT AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

APPENDIX TABLE D-1.-- One Way ANOVA for Stress by Sex.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	3.6964	1	3.6964	11.733	.0007
Within Groups	81.9089	260	.3150		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			

APPENDIX TABLE D-2.--One Way ANOVA for Stress by Age

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	1.8174	4	.4543	1.394	.2366
Within Groups	83.7879	257	.3260		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			

APPENDIX TABLE D-3.--One Way ANOVA for Stress by Level of Education.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	.4901	3	.1634	.495	.6861
Within Groups	84.5103	256	.3301		
TOTAL	85.004	259			

APPENDIX TABLE D-4.--One Way ANOVA for Stress by Income.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	1.6236	4	.4059	1.242	.2935
Within Groups	83.9817	257	.3268		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			

APPENDIX TABLE D-5.--One Way ANOVA for Stress by School Size.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	5.0923	13	.3917	1.207	.2747
Within Groups	80.5130	248	.3246		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			

APPENDIX TABLE D-6.--One Way ANOVA for Stress by Years of Experience.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	3.6446	5	.7389	2.277	.0475
Within Groups	81.9607	256	.3202		
TOTAL	85.6053	261			

APPENDIX E

ONE-WAY ANOVAS FOR JOB SATISFACTION AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

APPENDIX TABLE E-1.--One Way ANOVA for Job Satisfaction and Demographic Variables.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	f	p
Between Groups	65.7407	1	65.7407	.056	.8137
Within Groups	307116.0914	260	1181.2157		
TOTAL	307181.8321	261			

APPENDIX TABLE E-2.--One Way ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by Age.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	f	p
Between Groups	813.2867	4	203.3217	.171	.9533
Within Groups	306368.5454	257	1192.0955		
TOTAL	307181.8321	261			

APPENDIX TABLE E-3.--One Way ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by Level of Education.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	f	p
Between Groups	4316.8337	3	1438.9446	1.242	.2951
Within Groups	296704.1316	256	1159.0005		
TOTAL	301020.9654	259			

APPENDIX TABLE E-4.--One Way ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by Income.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	1461.8135	4	365.4534	.307	.8730
Within Groups	305720.0186	257	1189.5721		
TOTAL	307181.8321	261			

APPENDIX TABLE E-5.--One Way ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by Size of School System.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	15220.1007	13	1170.7770	.994	.4572
Within Groups	291961.7314	248	1177.2650		
TOTAL	307181.8321	261			

APPENDIX TABLE E-6.--One Way ANOVA for Job Satisfaction by Years of Teaching Experience.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	p
Between Groups	7753.7728	5	1550.7546	1.326	.2535
Within Groups	299428.0593	256	1169.6409		
TOTAL	307181.8321	261			

APPENDIX F

LIST OF ADDITIONAL STRESSORS

APPENDIX F

LIST OF ADDITIONAL STRESSORS

1. No available materials.
2. Lack of necessary equipment.
3. Limited budget.
4. Student apathy.
5. Poor planning time.
6. Working with music coordinators.
7. Lack of time for family, friends, and personal involvements.
8. Many students for one teacher.
9. Poor texts and curriculum guides.
10. Locked in schedule.
11. Mainstreaming.
12. Insufficient time provided during school day to prepare groups for concerts.
13. Acting positive and motivated when not feeling that way.
14. Very few private music teachers.
15. Teaching junior high techniques to high school level students.
16. Poor feeder programs from junior high music programs.
17. Cut instruction time at middle school five days to three days.
18. Working with non-talented students.
19. Getting family pressures about job demands.

20. Health problems due to lack of rest especially at concert and festival times.

21. Constant calls from students and parents during dinner time and on Sunday asking information that was given in class.

22. Pep band at basketball games.

23. Cut in pay to maintain teaching position.

24. Lack of respect for music education.

25. Society in general does not place value on musical excellence and achievement.

26. Competition with athletic department for students.

27. Music classes being the dumping ground for misbehaved students.

28. Fighting racial suspicions.

29. Other directors borrowing equipment and not returning it.

30. Lack of cost of living raise in teaching contract.

31. See fellow workers in financial or emotional difficulty.

32. Lack of appreciation from students.

33. Keeping competitive student challenged.

34. Keeping less competitive students caught up.

35. Criticism on how the group sounds.

36. Trying to promote strings in a small band town.

37. First year teaching.

38. Few fringe benefits as compared to administrators.

39. Working with students only once a week.

40. Concern over deletion of elementary music.

41. Dealing with expectations of multiple teachers and administrators.

42. Living in an isolated area that prohibits musical growth.

43. Dealing in a "wholistic" educational philosophy.

44. Putting on a successful musical.
45. Having no planning period.
46. Lack of time for creative concerns.
47. Predecessor unqualified to teach music.
48. No district-wide music supervisor or department.
49. Uncertainty of school board support for the arts.
50. Seeing good programs drastically reduced.
51. Unrealistic work load.
52. Being assigned to beginning classes.
53. Supervisor who controls his staff by force and threats.
54. Conference time taken up traveling from school to school.
55. Performing groups dropped from curriculum.
56. Unable to set up own schedule.