



REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
İZMİR KÂTİP ÇELEBİ UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT

**WORK STRESS AND COPING WITH WORK
STRESS: A STUDY ON TOURIST GUIDES**

Doctoral Thesis

NERMİN AYAZ

İZMİR – 2019

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SUPERVISOR: PROF. DR. CENGİZ DEMİR

İZMİR – 2019

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this doctoral thesis titled as “Work Stress And Coping With Work Stress: A Study On Tourist Guides” has been written by myself in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned resources in the reference list. I verify all these with my honor.

03/05/2019

Nermin AYAZ



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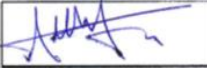
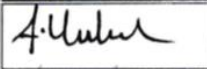
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ÖZET

Doktora Tezi

İş Stresi ve İş Stresiyle Başetme: Turist Rehberleri Üzerine Bir Çalışma

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Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Turizm İşletmeciliği A.B.D.

Bu çalışma, Türkiye’deki ülkesel ve bölgesel, eylemli turist rehberlerinin algıladıkları iş stresi faktörlerini ve uyguladıkları başetme yöntemlerini belirlemeyi amaçlamıştır. Bununla birlikte, bireysel farklılıkların ve iş yapısının, algılanan iş stresi faktörlerini ve seçilen başetme yöntemlerini etkileyip etkilemediği incelenmiştir. Toplamda 395 turist rehberi araştırmaya dahil edilip iş stresi kaynakları ve başetme yöntemlerini değerlendiren anket formunu doldurmaları istenmiştir. Verilerin değerlendirilmesi noktasında faktör analizi uygulanıp 35 iş stresi belirleyici ifade 6, 17 başetme yöntemi ifadesi 5 ana başlık altında toplanmıştır. Hem bireysel farklılıklar hemde iş yapısı ile ilgili farklılıkları belirlemek adına bağımsız örneklem t-testi, tek yön ANOVA testleri uygulanmıştır.

Çalışma sonucunda, algılanan iş stresi kaynaklarının, seçilen baş etme yöntemleri üzerinde çok zayıf etkisi olduğu görülmüştür. İş stresi kaynaklarının arasında en önemlisi yasa ve örgüt ile ilgili gerginlikler (düşük taban ücret/maaş, kaçak rehberlik faaliyeti, tur planlamasında görüşün dikkate alınmaması) olarak belirlenmiştir. Bu durumu, operasyonel, ruhsal ve sosyal, sektörel, meslekle ilgili gerginlikler takip etmektedir. İşin doğası ile ilgili gerginlikler, beklenmedik bir şekilde sıralamanın en sonunda yer almıştır. Turist rehberlerinin, iş stresi ile başetmede kullandıkları temel ve birinci yöntem problem çözme odaklı başetme yöntemidir. Algılanan iş stresi cinsiyet, medeni durum, eğitim seviyesi, yaş, meslekte çalışma süresi ve yönetilen tur türüne göre farklılık göstermiştir. Son olarak, başetme yöntemlerinin de cinsiyet, lisans türü, yönetilen tur türüne göre farklılık gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İş Stresi, Başetme, Turist Rehberi, Sorun Odaklı Başetme, Stres Yönetimi

ABSTRACT

Doctoral Thesis

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

Work Stress And Coping With Work Stress: A Study On Tourist Guides

Nermin AYAZ

İzmir Katip Çelebi University

Graduate School of Social Sciences

Department of Tourism Management

This study aimed to identify perceived work stress factors and the coping methods employed to reduce work stress among active nationally and regionally licensed tourist guides in Turkey. It additionally aimed to examine if individual differences and work characteristics affect perception of work stress sources and employment of work stress coping methods. A total of 395 tourist guides participated in the research and they were asked to fill a questionnaire evaluating work stress sources and work stress coping. Factor analysis was used to reduce 35 work stress indicator items to 6 main underlying factors and 17 work stress coping items to 5 main underlying factors. Independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA test were employed to compare mean differences in terms of both individual and work characteristics.

As the result of study perceived work stress sources have a very weak impact on choice of work stress coping methods. It was determined that the most important factor in perceived work stressors is legal and organizational strain (low base remuneration/salary, unlicensed tourist guides, lack of participation in decision). It is followed by operational, psychological and social, sectoral, and occupational strains. Strains result from the nature of the work took its place at the end of the ranking unexpectedly. Problem-focused coping was the main and primary method employed by tourist guides to reduce work stress. Perceived work stress is influenced by gender, marital status, education level, age, professional experience and managed tour type. Finally, it was determined that coping methods are influenced by gender, license type, and the type of tour managed.

Keywords- Work Stress, Coping, Tourist Guide, Problem Focused, Stress Management

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABC: Activating event, Beliefs, and Consequences
ANRO: Ankara Tourist Guide Chamber (Ankara Turist Rehberleri Odası)
APA: American Psychological Association
ARO: Antalya Tourist Guide Chamber (Antalya Turist Rehberleri Odası)
ATRO: Aydın Tourist Guide Chamber (Aydın Turist Rehberleri Odası)
GDP: Gross Domestic Product
HSE: Health and Safety Executive (UK)
ILO: International Labor Organization
ISCCR: Institute For Safety, Compensation and Recovery Research
İRO: İstanbul Tourist Guide Chamber (İstanbul Turist Rehberleri Odası)
İZRO: İzmir Tourist Guide Chamber (İzmir Turist Rehberleri Odası)
JCB: Job Characteristics Model
JDC: Job Demands Control Model
MURO: Muğla Tourist Guide Chamber (Muğla Turist Rehberleri Odası)
NERO: Nevşehir Tourist Guide Chamber (Nevşehir Turist Rehberleri Odası)
NIOSH : National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (US)
PTSD: National Center for Posttraumatic Stress Disorder
RET: Rational Emotive Therapy
SIT: Stress Inoculation Training
TGWSQ: Tourist Guide's Work Stress Questionnaire
TUREB: Turkey Tourist Guide Union (Türkiye Turist Rehberleri Birliği)
TURSAB: Turkey Travel Agencies Union (Türkiye Seyahat Acentaları Birliği)
UNSTATS: United Nations International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics
UNWTO: United Nations World Tourism Organization
VUSSC: Virtual University for the Small States of the Commonwealth
WEF: World Economic Forum
WFTGA: World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations
WHO: World Health Organization
WSCM: Work Stress Coping Methods
WSS: Work Stress Sources
YDS: Foreign Language Exam (Yabancı Dil Sınavı)

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INTRODUCTION

Stress has been receiving an increasing attention today in the business world. Individuals spend an important part of their daily lives at work. Stress that exists in the working environment is called work stress. It is the reaction of an individual to external factors that force them to cope in a work environment. It is an answer given by an organism to that disturbed environment.

Within the work environment stress is highly related to the working conditions of an organization. In addition, individual factors such as personality traits (Conard and Matthews, 2005: 32), family and the roles played in other areas of life have an impact on work stress.

Work stress disturbs the employee's adaptation to the environment and reduces capacity at work. Moreover, it creates health problems such as fatigue, blood pressure, depression, anger for employees and this can lead to low efficiency and performance, absenteeism, turnover, burnout in the organizations (HSE). However, there are ways to overcome stress-related issues which are done by effective stress management. With the right stress management approach, it is possible to obtain positive outcomes both for employee and organization. Undoubtedly, stress management should be emphasized and not be neglected to ensure that employees in organizations are more productive and healthy.

The conditions that cause stress create disturbing emotions and psychological complexity for an individual. Therefore, individuals seek something to reduce this discomfort. The process of dealing with a stressful situation is named coping. There are many strategies to cope with stress. Problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping, named by Folkman and Lazarus (1980), are the most common headings of coping methods. Employees who tend to choose problem-focused coping methods may obtain positive outcomes (Folkman and Moskowitz, 2000). On the other hand, an employee who uses emotion-focused coping methods may not reach to positive consequences. Therefore employees must be aware of their coping methods to deal with stress-related emotions.

Today, tourism is considered as service sector which provides income for the destinations, strength the image of countries all over the world. As tourism is a constantly developing and evolving industry in Turkey, this creates opportunities for a variety of work, work environments, and, thus, work-related stressors. Turkey has rich historical, natural and cultural tourism potential and increases its share in the world tourism market with each passing year. In this context, tourist guides are important component of tourism in Turkey. They are a valuable resource for those willing to experience the rich and diverse culture, history, and geography of a country. Moreover, they are valuable for tour operators, travel agencies in the management of package tours, as they are experienced in terms of expectations and preferences of tourists as well as the features of a tourist destination. Tourist guides are the one that establish an intimate relationship with customer, meet customer expectation, increase competitive power among the Mediterranean countries. As well as every occupation, tourist guides have some obstacles or barriers related to work. Apart from general work stress reason tourist guiding has its specific stressors due to the nature of tour guiding service. Because of nature of service, it requires more effort to provide quality service and to satisfy customer. Their service quality is highly dependent on stress free work environment. Sun Tzu, who was a famous commander, philosopher, and military expert in 500 B.C., once said, "Winning the battle without fighting is the greatest success" (Tzu, 2003: 5). It can be concluded that it is important for the travel agency, tour operator, and most importantly tourist guides to know the stress sources in the work environment and to take preventive measures to create a healthy work atmosphere. Therefore this study aimed to find out specific work stressors of tourist guides related to working environment. In light of this, the study was done in order to examine the work stress sources and coping methods of tourist guides.

The negative impact of stress, especially on business and social life, has led individuals and organizations to conduct more research on stress and stress management. But work stress studies related to tourist guides are very limited. Therefore this study purposes to show a perspective and fill the gaps related to tourist guides and work stress studies. In addition, this study aims to identify the work

stressors encountered by active tourist guides and to evaluate how tourist guides cope with work stress in their working environments in Turkey.

The existing scales to assess work stress have been evaluated but these scales were found to be inadequate to assess work stress among tourist guides because of work content. Thus, a questionnaire, consisting of questions relevant to the structure of tourist guiding profession was developed. The study consists of 4 chapters. Stress, work stress, and reasons and consequences for work stress are identified in the first chapter; stress management and coping concept are examined in the second; tourism, tourist guiding, and stress concepts are identified in the third. Finally, methodology, findings, and the conclusion are discussed in the last chapter.



1. STRESS

Humankind has been in a struggle for survival since its existence. While in prehistoric ages, hunting, finding shelter, and adapting to climate changes could have been the main stressors for human beings. Since then, it has changed. In the present, to obtain food and shelter humans have to pursue efforts in the area of business. Thus, business life has become the main modern stressor for humankind. Work environment, competitors, organization structure, role demands, and task demands have become the reason for the stress. In this chapter, stress, its reasons and consequences, and the work stress concept are examined in depth.

The word “stress” is commonly used in daily and business life. In order to understand this word’s meaning, it is better to review the root and the history of the word. Etymologically the origin of “stress” dates to the 14th century when the English language developed from a blending of Norman French and Anglo-Saxon. Previously, this term was utilized to define subjecting an entity (material, body, mental) to stress or strain; to workload or fatigue. In the Middle Ages, the word *destresse* (distress) was used and it was derived from the Latin word *strictus* (compressed). The word’s root was originally *stringere* which is Latin and it meant to pull and stretch (Graham, 1992: 24). According to another opinion, “stress” was not derived from the Latin word *stringere*, but from the word *estrectia*. *Estrictia* means to make power in words, to give importance, pressure (Köknal, 1987: 45). Defining stress as a term is the interest of many disciplines. Therefore, different definitions are seen in the literature. The most common stress definitions may be categorized into three. The first category is referred to as stimulus-based, which views stress as a situational or environmentally based stimulus. The second category is response-based, defining stress as an individual’s psychological or physiological response to environmental/situational forces. Finally, the third type is known as stressor-strain, which defines stress as both the stimulus and the response (De Vito, 2009: 11). Moreover, Dewe et al., (2012: 24), categorized stress definitions regarding a stressor, response or the interaction between the two.

Physicist Thomas Young, in the 18th century explained stress as the force within the elastic body which balances an externally applied force (Brantley and Thomason, 1995: 275). In the 19th century, the stress became a scientific term used in physics to describe the pressure applied to object which cause to strain or deformation (Lehrer et al., 2007: 6). Additionally, by the end of the 19th century, European physiologists such as Bernard (1879), Pfluger (1877) and Frederic (1885) had explained stress in similar ways as dynamic challenge presented to a living organism, disrupting its attempt to maintain a stable, internal environment (Brantley and Thomason, 1995: 275). The physiologist Cannon in early 1900's used it as mental strain or disruption. Cannon used the word "homeostasis" in reference to how the body maintains its temperature, among other key variables. He worked on flight or fight response and, according to Cannon, this response is part of the nature of humanity, an instinct that allows people to stay alive. This response is also referred to as acute stress response and it is a kind of automatic reaction to unsafe situations. To keep the body safe and alive, the brain prepares actions. Just like wildlife, animals, and plants, human being response to stress by either fighting or fleeing from the situation (Lehrer et al., 2007: 7; De Vito, 2009: 11). Another great scientist in the history of stress was Selye who was an endocrinologist, considered stress a biological threat. Selye described stress as the comprehensive response of the body to any demand for change. Selye expanded on Cannon's work and described the stages of the stress response: the alarm stage, the adaptive resistance stage, and the exhaustion stage. The alarm stage is similar to Canon's fight or flight response; it prepares the individual to respond to an emergency or threat. In the adaptive resistance stage, the body returns to its state before arousal when the stressors are no longer present. The exhaustion stage is sometimes called "burnout" and results from the extended excessive metabolic demands of the alarm stage (Lehrer et al., 2007: 7).

According to De Frank et al., stress is an interaction between an individual and their environment. This environment is characterized by emotional strain which affects an individual's physical and mental condition (1998: 56). Cranwell (1998: 285) explained stress as both a physiological and psychological reaction, either

conscious or subconscious, to a perceived threat or undesirable condition beyond a human's immediate capacity to cope.

As is clear at definitions, stress is an emotional and physiological reaction with different internal and external factors causing the stress. It is pressure from the environment. This environment can be external or internal. Moreover, when an individual's capability is unable to combat with unwanted situation than stress occurs. An individual's response to stress can either be to fight with it or flee from it. When the human body perceives a situation as a threat, physical and psychological changes begin. If individual can not resist or fight the situation then diseases occur as the result of being subjected to stress.

1.1. STRESS CLASSIFICATION

Stress is a state that is above the capacities of the brain and the body can cope. If mind and body can cope with the demands and are able to enjoy the arousal they are faced with, then stress can be welcomed and will be helpful. Conversely, when mind and body can not find a required solution then stress is rejected as unsatisfying and unwelcome by organs (Fontana, 1989: 3). Law et al. (1995: 278) summed up features of stress as stress can be positive, negative or both; various events may lead to stress; the events do not cause stress but individuals' responses or level of coping ability cause stress; stress is related to coping capacity, and this capacity decides how to react to the demand. For a better understanding of the concept of stress and its influence on individuals, scientists have categorized types of stress. At this point, it would be useful to explain the terms "positive stress", "negative stress".

1.1.1.Eustress

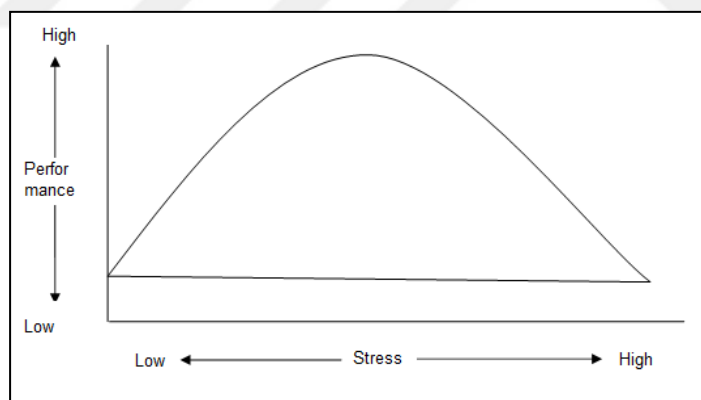
Stress can be related to both satisfying and unsatisfying events (Faulkner and Patiar, 1997: 99). Usually, it is associated with negative meaning and it is something to be avoided. On the contrary, stress can be advantageous to a point. The advantageous, useful or satisfying stress is named eustress and is described as "positive stress". Upon being subjected to stressors, if there are feelings of challenge and achievement, eustress occurs, transforming these feelings into positive energy

and motivation for individuals. This is an expected result of stress (Muse et al., 2003: 349). Eustress is a positive response to the stressor but it is dependent on factors such as timing, feelings, control, and desirability (Fevre et al., 2006: 546).

Possible signs of eustress may cover reacting to a stressor with a feeling of meaning, wishfulness, power (Nelson and Cooper, 2005: 74), life satisfaction and well being (O'Sullivan, 2010: 156).

As shown in Figure 1, according to inverted U theory, having little arousal or plenty of arousal results decrease the performance, while moderate levels of arousal result in the highest performance (Muse et al., 2003: 349-364). This is due to the energy eustress gives; it motivates, makes one feel excited, and improves performance but is short term. Getting promoted, hired, married, moving to a brand new home, and taking holiday are all examples where you can observe eustress (Mills et al., 2008). Thus, it can be concluded that an employee's productivity can increase sometimes as a result of stress and that a reasonable amount of stress may help an employee to work more ambitiously, better and harder.

Figure 1 Stress-Performance Curve



Reference: (Aamodt, 2007: 512).

1.1.2. Distress

Negative stress, called distress, occurs if there is stress beyond the individual's ability to cope. An individual can not reduce or eliminate the stress effects, transforming it into negative energy. Distress shows itself in situations or important events that an individual has little or no control over (Aamodt, 2007: 513). It can exist for short or long term, causes anxiety or concern problems, makes the

individual feeling of low mood and mental and physical problem (Mills et al., 2008). Because of the unmanageable threats, the brain gives negative psychological responses such as sadness, a sense of helplessness or being overwhelmed, anxiety and frustration (Kemeny, 2003: 124). It is difficult to categorize or count the sources of distress because an individual's response can be different depending on a particular situation or event. On the other hand, by generalizing, the situations that cause distress and are usually experienced as negative by most individuals include daily problems such as divorce, loss of loved ones, illness, conflict in a relationship, unemployment, children's problems, and legal problems. Reasons for distress in a work environment can be job insecurity, overwork, excessive job demands, conflict with an employee, and lack of training. Not only do external situations create distress but also internal events such as feelings, thoughts, fears, behaviors, previous experiences, unrealistic expectations (Mills et al., 2008).

In work life, understanding the distinction between eustress and distress is important. If employees feel low-level stress, their performance will increase but if employees feel high levels of stress, their performance will decrease and dissatisfaction will occur (Cavanaugh et al., 2000: 65-74).

1.2. WORK STRESS

Stress is a term used commonly in daily life which is not only exist in daily life but also in business life. Work stress is focus point issue of today's competitive working environment. It is a term that refers to the stress in the working environment. It is the response of an employee when the demands and the pressures in the workplace do not match with his/her knowledge and ability (Rickard et al., 2012: 211). In other words, work stress is a response to working environment demands. Work stress exists if the abilities and the professional knowledge of an individual do not meet with requirements of a job (Chiang et al., 2010: 26). Stress at work blocks the employee's ability to cope with these requirements, also inhibiting the ability of the employee to use their knowledge and capabilities when this stress exists (WHO, 2010).

A wide range of circumstances cause stress in the working environment and are referred to as work stressors. Work stressors can be external or internal or both. The

reaction of an employee to a stressor may be positive as an employee is motivated and challenged to reach a higher performance or maybe negative in that the employee worries and fails in the task. In this situation, the employee needs support from colleagues or managers. Work stress requires two factors such as an external event (stressor) and a reaction to a stressor (emotional or physical) such as anxiety, fear, fast breathing, sweating, increased blood pressure, increased heart rate and so on (Cryer et al., 2003: 102-108). The work stress felt by an employee varies from mild to severe. The employee's physiological and psychological state affects this level. As explained earlier, mild stress -eustress- is not harmful for the employee. However, over stress is harmful and creates physical and mental health problems and decreases organizational effectiveness. Moreover, the employee becomes unable to complete his tasks (Singh and Mishra, 2011: 32). It is impossible to think of a world without stress. The level of stress and an employee's psychological mood is important. Up to a level, stress is tolerable and motivating but over a level, stress drives an individual to negative situations in work and social life with more acute physical and psychological problems.

1.2.1. Work Stressors

Stress in working environments may have a variety of causes such as insufficient work conditions, poor social relations, work overload, lack of rewards, or lack of control (Karasek and Theorell, 1990: 91). In the literature, work stressor classifications are identified from a different perspective.

Cooper and Marshall (1978) identified six causes of work stress; intrinsic to the job, role in the organization, relationship with others, career planning, organization climate, and organizational comparison with outside. Intrinsic to the job can be defined as working motivation that comes from inside the employee. Individuals work not only for money but for the love of it. But factors such as long working hours, uncomfortable working conditions, long travels, shift work, improved technology, over work and sometimes under work may affect motivation and absorb work energy. Role in an organization refers to employees' defined specific roles and behaviors associated with the work in an organizational structure. Sometimes demands of work do not match the employee's performance which causes stress.

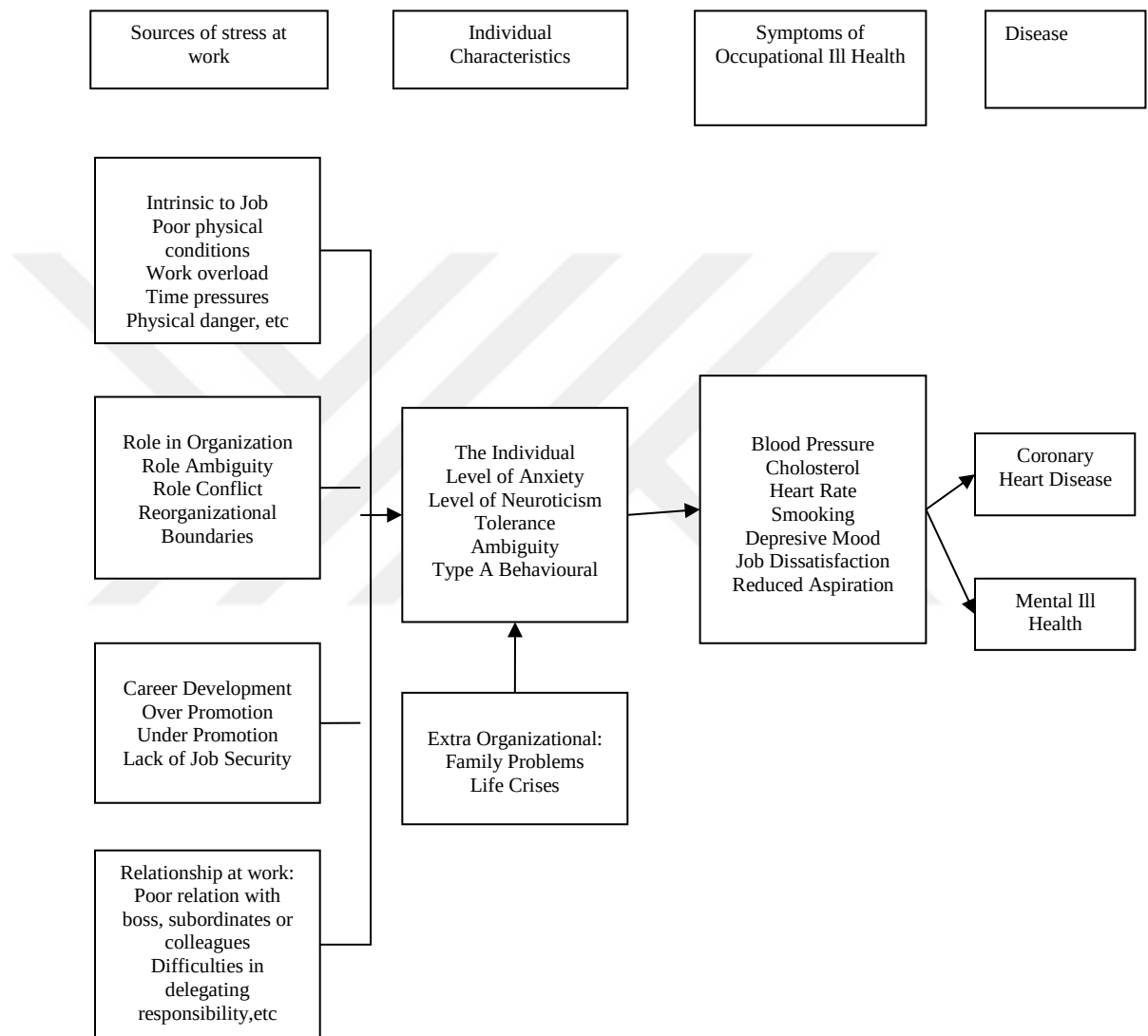
Relationship with others in the workplace regards creating trust, respect, and mindfulness in the workplace as factors. Career planning and development are identified in two groups labeled as job insecurity and status incongruity. The authors identified two clusters of potential stressors in the area of career development as lack of job security and status disagreement. Lack of advancement or being promoted beyond capability, reaching the top of career, unregulated promotions and a fear of job loss or retirement are counted in this category. The fifth category is organizational structure and climate. According to Cooper and Marshall (1978), lack of participation in the decision making process, lack of a sense of belonging, lack of effective consultation, poor communication, restriction of behavior and office politics can be potential causes of work stress. Lastly, the final source of work stress is termed as organizational interface with the outside. Family problems and technological changes are the reasons for work stress in this category (De Vito, 2009: 14).

Quick and Quick (1984) stated four demands that cause work stress; task demands, role demands, physical demands, interpersonal demands. Task demand is related to the task itself. Lack of information while having to make quick decisions can lead to serious results that make work stressful. Time pressure, career development, and feeling a lack of control are influenced by this situation. Role demand is a set of required and expected behaviors in an organization. Interpersonal demands are stressors related to the relationship in an organization. Emotional mood, sexual harassment, and poor management are examples of interpersonal demands and may lead to work stress. Finally, physical demand is associated with work settings. Noisy and crowded workplaces, working environments of extremely hot or cold temperatures, travel, and long working hours are work stressors noted as physical demands (Griffin, 2010: 274-275).

Ivancevich and Matteson (1980) divided work stressors into four categories; physical environment, individual level, group level, organization level. Schuler (1984) stated seven categories of work stressors in organizations. They are job qualities, relationships, organizational structure, physical qualities, career development, change, and role in the organization. Landy and Trumbo (1976) found job insecurity, excessive competition, hazardous working conditions and task

demands as the dimensions of stress. According to Sofer (1970), the potential causes of stress in the workplace are too much or too little work, time pressures, deadlines and having to make too many decisions (Singh and Mishra, 2011: 32). Also, extra stressors can be added, such as family problems, to work stressors (Ross, 1997: 41).

Figure 2 Stress in Working Environment



Reference: Michie, 2002: 67-72

Michie (2002: 68) clustered work stress factors as those within the content of the work. Figure 2 shows those that are intrinsic to the job – including unpredictable and long work hours, workload, timing, complex tasks, poor working conditions (space, temperature, light). Role conflict and boundaries may cause stress.

Possibilities for job development are important buffers against current stress; while under promotion, lack of training, and job insecurity are stressful. There are two other sources of stress or buffers against stress: relationships at work and the organizational culture. Managers who are critical, demanding, unsupportive or bullying create stress, whereas a positive social dimension of work and good teamwork reduce it. An organizational culture of unpaid overtime or presentism causes stress. On the other hand, a culture of involving people in decisions, keeping them informed about what is happening in the organization, and providing good amenities and recreation facilities reduce stress. Organizational change, especially when consultation has been inadequate, is a huge source of stress. Such changes include mergers, relocation, restructuring or downsizing, individual contracts, and redundancies within the organization.

Work stress is multi-dimensional with demands and pressure coming from both within and outside the workplace. Non-work requirements such as personal or social demands can also contribute to stress both inside and outside of work. Interpersonal stressors, role-related stressors, task control stressors, and organizational/physical environment stressors are presented as causes of work stress (Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 202). In the literature, the authors stated many different categories of work stress. It is useful to organize them under three headlines as interpersonal stressors, organizational and physical environment stressors, role-related stressors.

1.2.1.1. Interpersonal Stressors

The term interpersonal is related to relationships or communication between people. Difficult situations in dealing with other people may become a stressor when it is perceived as a threat. The most common type of work stressor is interpersonal. As is the nature of work, a worker must interact with coworkers and teamwork trends generate this type of stressor (Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 202). Therefore, stress can be seen through strained interpersonal relationships (Manning and Preston, 2003: 3-4).

Individual Differences: As each individual is unique, all individuals have their own distinct life experiences. Therefore, life experience affects an individual's stress reaction and methods. Individual differences are called "The Big Five" in the

literature and are as follows: Extraversion, Neuroticism, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience. Sociability, assertiveness, activity, and talkativeness are the traits involved in extraversion.

An individual who is “an extrovert” is commonly energetic and optimistic. Oppositely, an individual who is an introvert is commonly reserved and independent. (Rothmann and Coetzer, 2003: 69). Neuroticism is defined as having pessimistic, depressive, self-esteem related personality traits. Neurotics are anxious, depressed, jealous and hopeless. They usually react negatively to stressful situations and tend to perceive events negatively (Conard and Matthews, 2005: 32). The Agreeableness dimension includes the characteristics of friendliness, empathy, and cooperativeness. For instance, an agreeable individual has the ability to avoid interpersonal conflicts (Rothmann and Coetzer, 2003: 69). The Conscientiousness dimension of “The Big Five” refers to self-control. An individual who is conscientious reflects responsibility, impulse control, and a strong-will. Openness to experience is a personality trait that is creative, flexible, and adventurous. Openness to experience is also known as imagination (Jordan, et al. 2015: 502).

Personality: Each individual reacts differently to stressors based on personality. Carver and Connor-Smith (2010: 680) defined personality as a dynamic organization within the psychological and physical system which underlies an individual’s patterns of actions, thoughts, and feelings.

According to Schaubroeck, there are two types of personality and these are Type A and Type B. The characteristics of a Type A personality are impatience, time urgency, anger, hostility, and multitasking. For example, a Type A individual would type on pc while talking on the phone or eat something while driving. They talk and walk fast, interrupt others’ speech and complete their sentences. A Type A personality becomes exaggerated when faced with stress. Under stress, blood pressure and stress hormones are higher compared to other personalities (Schaubroeck, 1994: 426-439). A Type B personality is laid back. Under stress, the Type B personality tries to be more positive to cope with it. They are relaxed and agreeable individuals (Aamodt, 2007: 514).

Gender: Differences in gender influence response to stressors. Males and females do not experience stress equally and manage and cope with both physical

and mental stress differently. In gender studies, it was reported that physical and emotional outcomes of stress were different for females. A headache, crying, upset stomach and indigestion are among the symptoms for females (APA^a, 2010).

Lifestyle: Another personal stressor is the lifestyle and age of the individual. Stressful events may occur away from work and sometimes individuals may be exposed to more toxins and stressors because of lifestyle. Apart from work-related stressors, lifestyle encompasses individuals' lives with regard to family life, marriage, love, sleep, illness, nutrition, daily journey, air etc. (Brown and Harvey, 2006: 254).

1.2.1.2. Role Related Stressors

Role-related stressors have become a major concern in the workplace. They are associated with an employee's role and how others perceive this role. Role conflict, role ambiguity, and workload are types of role-related stressors (Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 205).

Employees experience role conflicts when they find themselves pulled in different directions and try to respond to the many statuses they hold. Role conflict refers to the inconsistency of an expected role within an individual's roles (Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 205). When more than two sets of conflicting situations occur simultaneously, this means that there is a role conflict. According to Spector (1997), multiple roles cause role conflict because there is an incompatibility between expected and perceived role. For example, family roles interfere with employees' work roles. Greenberger and O'Neil (1993) discussed that involving various roles led to conflict and the individual becoming mentally or physically unhealthy. For instance, role conflict occurs when a manager has to fire an employee who is a good friend; the name of dilemma that faces this manager is role conflict.

Role ambiguity produces low role perceptions. Role ambiguity is unclarified but expected behaviors from a job or position. Role ambiguity may occur when an employee is unclear about having the authority to make decisions or about job performance expectations. It is an indication of an employee's confusion about what the right actions are in work processes (Mohamed, 2015: 12). Any of the roles in the

organization must be clarified by tasks or responsibilities. Working in a new organization creates stress because tasks and social expectations are uncertain (Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 205). In other words, because of the uncertainty in role expectations, employees are unable to make proper decisions because of hesitation about what their boundaries are. This results in incorrect decisions.

Workload is the degree of long working hours and intensity as a job requirement during working hours (Mohamed, 2015: 12). The workload may cause many physical and mental illnesses, as it is needed to deal with it. Quantitative workload, in other words, overload, is having more work than the capacity of an employee. The qualitative workload is having hard jobs. Underload is having work under the capacity of employee (Katz and Kahn, 1978: 178). Along with the other work stressors, workload causes some illnesses but there are also extreme examples of the workload stress in the world. Today in Japan, known for its enthusiastic work culture, there is a term coined “karoshi” or death because of overwork (Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 205).

The amount of work is considered to directly reduce social life activities. Workload causes family problems, which are the second most stressful situation for all professionals. The strain is the direct result of the need to sacrifice family time to manage work overload (Kwok Bun, 2006: 9). At this point, it should be highlighted that this situation is basically the same for tourist guides. The work usually separates them from their families. They have to borrow family time to manage the short or circuit tours. Overnight stays, long journeys and being away from the family are the nature of the work. Unlike teachers, officers or other professionals, this work steals family time, which makes balancing work and family difficult.

1.2.1.3. Organizational / Physical Environment Stressors

The organizational and physical environment may cause stress in individuals in today's working environment. An employee may experience anything from downsizing to workplace violence as organizational (DeFrank and Ivancevich, 1998: 55) and noise, over or poor lighting and safety dangers as physical. For example, for textile employees who are working in an overly loud working environment, tolerating and responding to a stressful situation can be different from others

(Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 206). The American National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health presented organizational stress factors as (NIOSH Publication, 1996: 96-100):

Technological Changes: Managers often plan advances in technology, such as introducing a new computerized system without care for the feedback and involvement of the employee.

Competition: For career advancement, there are usually limited positions open for too many employees and that employee has to compete for this position causing stress.

Reorganization: Sometimes there can be changes in organizational structure and employee disorientation is inevitable. New workgroups and new structures may be irritating and give harm to friendships.

Downsizing: Company mergers, layoffs, and downsizing cause stress in employees. Naturally, they will have the fear of losing a job or extra responsibilities of the job or heavier workloads.

Lack of Participation in Decision Making: Seniors generally do not permit employee involvement in decision making. Therefore employee may feel a little control over the decisions related to work.

Violence in the Workplace: Violence, employee to the employee, employee to customer or customer to employee, is both a reason and result of stress.

Insufficient Time To Do Expected Duties: Some jobs require an employee to be fast but personal features of the employee may not match with this requirement.

1.3. CONSEQUENCES OF WORK STRESS

Stressors cause reactions, which would strain an employee both physically and mentally. In this section, the consequences of stress are examined under two main headings- personal stress consequences and organizational stress consequences.

1.3.1. Personal Consequences of Stress

The same stressors on different individuals might have different results because of varying levels of resistance to a stressor and varied perception of stressors. The personal stress outcomes may show themselves physiologically and psychologically.

1.3.1.1. Physiological Consequences Of Stress

The physiological stress consequences are connected with an individual's body health. Stress overcharges its results on the human body. Physiological stress is the reaction of the organism to the stressor. Stress and illness theories declare that stress results in many illnesses (Schneiderman, 2005: 607). In medical literature, stress causes between 50-75% of illnesses (Faulkner and Patiar, 1997: 101). Stress affects body systems negatively. The American Psychological Association published that stress affects the reproductive system, musculoskeletal system, nervous system, respiratory system, cardiovascular, endocrine, gastrointestinal, (menstruation, menopause, sexual desire) etc. (APA^b).

Stress affects not only one part but many parts of the body. It has a domino effect on the endocrine system. The body's system of glands release their secretions, called hormones, directly into the bloodstream. The stress hormones produced by the adrenal glands help the body prepare to cope with an impending threat or stressor. Once the stressor has passed, the body returns to a normal state. This is the ideal reaction of the body. However, when stress is enduring or recurring, the body regularly pumps out stress hormones and mobilizes other systems, which over time can tax the body's resources and impair health. The body's defense system is the immune system. The human body is constantly engaged in search and destroy missions against invading microbes. Millions of white blood cells or leukocytes are the immune system's foot soldiers in this microscopic warfare. Leukocytes systematically envelop and kill pathogens such as bacteria, viruses, and fungi, worn-out body cells and cells that have become cancerous. Stress may also affect the immune system, impairing people's ability to fight infections (Nevid et al., 2011: 144).

A headache and tension changes are inevitable results of stress and muscle tension and pain follow it. In modern society, the most disturbing result of stress is seen in cardiovascular diseases such as strokes and heart attacks. It is assumed the long-term effect of stress on heart disease goes something like this: Whenever people are stressed, their blood pressure goes up and down. That frequent pressure causes injury to the blood vessel walls, which eventually makes them constrict and function abnormally. Over time, this leads to heart disease (Mcshane and Glinov, 2015: 205). Greenberg (2006: 9) explained the physical symptoms that work stress causes are eating disorders, fatigue, muscular aches, pain, sleep disorders, and high blood pressure.

1.3.1.2. Psychological Consequences of Stress

An individual's mental health and well being is related to the psychological consequences of stress. The feeling of strain is called stress in psychology. According to Aamodt (2007: 512), physical and psychological results are called strains. Under the stress it can be tough to balance work and social life. Therefore smoking, alcohol and drug can be used as the coping methods (WHO, 2010).

Stress hormones occur in large amounts and they may contribute to a sustained feeling of low energy or depression. Depression may include sleep problems; fatigue; appetite changes; feelings of worthlessness, self-hate, and guilt; an inability to concentrate or make decisions; agitation, restlessness, and irritability; withdrawal from typically pleasurable activities; and feelings of hopelessness and helplessness. Chronic and/or severe stress can also negatively affect people with bipolar disorder. This illness, also known as manic depression or bipolar affective disorder, involves dramatic shifts in mood, energy level, and behavior from the highs of mania (one pole) to the lows of major depression (the opposite pole). Bipolar individuals who are in a depressed state often lose interest in things that used to give them pleasure; develop sleep problems; constantly feel tired and fatigued; and have distressed, negative, and unhappy moods, irritability, a short temper, and/or agitation. In addition, anger, guilt, failure, and hopeless feelings may be experienced. Some people who are stressed may show relatively mild signs of anxiety, such as fidgeting, biting their fingernails, tapping their feet, etc. In other people, chronic activation of

stress hormones can contribute to severe feelings of anxiety (e.g., racing heartbeat, nausea, sweaty palms, etc.), feelings of helplessness and a sense of impending doom. Stress hormones may decrease the functioning of neurons (brain cells) in a region of the brain known as the hippocampus (a part of the brain that is important for laying down new long-term memories) and in the frontal lobes (the part of the brain that is necessary for paying attention, filtering out irrelevant information, and using judgment to solve problems). As a result, people who are chronically stressed may experience confusion, difficulty concentrating, trouble learning new information, and/or problems with decision making (Mills et al., 2008). The psychological and behavioral results that occur because of work stress are anxiety, feeling powerless, low morale, alcohol and cigarette abuse, irritability. These reactions may occur for a longer period than the body can tolerate resulting in different illnesses (Greenberg, 2006: 9).

1.3.2. Organizational Consequences of Stress

The results of stress exist not only on a personal level but also on an organizational level. Consequences of stress affect organizations in different areas.

When stress becomes distressed in the workplace, performance decreases and work accidents happen more often, reducing employee ability to make effective decisions etc. If work stress exists longer than an employee can cope with it, organization performance decreases. In an unhealthy atmosphere, organizations do not get the expected success and best from their employees. When an employee is exposed to stress, it affects not only their performance but also the competitiveness survival of the organization in the long term (WHO, 2010).

In 2000, the ILO Report highlighted that the annual financial cost of stress to the United Kingdom was £5.3 billion. The HSE now estimates that the cost has since risen to about £9.6 billion. The Whitehall II Study found a relation between these hazards, health, and behavior. High job demands resulted in poor mental health, poor health functioning. Low social support at work increased sickness absence, poor mental health, poor and health functioning (Cooper, 2013: 159). Organizational results of stress are also tangible.

Turnover: One of the well-known results of work stress is employee turnover. The employee under stress will not tend to like the working atmosphere. Some employees may seek help to cope with it and others may quit the job to leave a stressful situation. Turnover is expensive and it is a cost for the organization. Recruiting, hiring and training a new employee is a cost. While an organization spends its energy for a new employee, it loses productivity as well. American Management Association stated that replacement cost for a new employee equals to 30% of the employee's salary or sometimes annual income and more. As the result of turnover, the rest of the employees have additional work fulfilling the absent employee's tasks thus creating stress and annoyance for the rest of the employees and possibly leading to burnout (Manning and Preston, 2003: 3-4).

According to Nadiri and Tanova (2009: 33-41), if the employee turnover rate is high, intangible costs exist such as employee morale and organizational commitment. Also poor product and service quality exist as a result of high employee turnover. As a result, employee turnover is costly to organizations because of the loss of experienced employees and corporate knowledge as well as the costs associated with lost efficiency, separation, replacement and training.

Job Burnout: Job burnout is known as one of the basic work stress results. Maslach et al., (2001: 398) explained job burnout as the result of emotional and interpersonal stressor at work. Exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy are results of job burnout. Job burnout shows itself in different ways in an organization such as absenteeism and illnesses, increase in workplace accidents, reduced productivity, health insurance, compensation claims, violence in the workplace, and reduced quality and quantity of work. It has been estimated that the cost of job burnout and its result on American organizations are \$150 billion per year (Manning and Preston, 2003: 3-4). Employees who feel job burnout tend to experience much of their stress because of work-related stressors, because they are perfectionists or self-motivating achievers, and seek unrealistic or unattainable goals. Under the stress of burnout, the individual can no longer cope with the demands of the job and becomes less and less willing to try (Brown and Harvey, 2001: 254).

Ineffectiveness, Absenteeism, Presentism: Ineffectiveness at work shows itself as poor performance and decreased productivity. Low level of confidence, lack of

openness- truth, and insufficient communication may appear because of the uncertainty in ineffective supervisory training (Manning and Preston, 2003: 5). As a result of this situation, employees feel ineffective in the working environment.

Absenteeism is the consequence of escaping a stressful situation. An employee may not cope with the situation and to stay mentally or physically safe, absenteeism emerges. This employee cannot contribute the work and decreases productivity. Presentism is the result of an employee being physically present but psychologically elsewhere. Presentism occurs if the employee is ill and has to work which causes a loss of productivity.

Hemp (2004) claimed that presentism costs more than absenteeism for an organization. It is obvious if an employee is absent because of illness, but it is complicated to report that an employee is at work but there is a loss in productivity. Therefore, employers have the task of ensuring their employees stay healthy. Both absenteeism and presentism cost the organization in employee turnover, increase in illness, early retirement, and reduced customer satisfaction. As such, preventing stress and stressors in a working environment is to the benefit of an organization.

1.4. WORK STRESS RESEARCH

All over the world academicians, institutes and states conducted researches on work stress and its consequences in terms of various professions, sectors and socio-demographic features such gender, age, education etc.

NIOSH conducted a study about work stress and found that more than 29% of American employees described their work as extremely stressful. In addition, in research by the U.S. Families and Work Institute, it found that 25% of the U.S. felt like screaming and shouting while working because of work stress (Brown and Harvey, 2006: 251). Cooper and Payne (1988) found that to be exposed to stressful situations produced serious results in performance and organization ineffectiveness. Recovering from this situation is advantageous both for employee and organization. The authors concluded that to provide happy, satisfied, effective and healthy employees and to increase profits, the organizations must manage stress professionally (Ross, 1997: 42). Vallen (1993) studied burnout and organizational

climate. As a result, it was found that mistrust of the employee, excessive control of the employee, and discouraged teamwork lead to burnout. It was concluded that for highly competitive and challenging industries, stress is one of the most common outcomes of the work (Ross, 1997: 43). Lokk and Ametz (1997: 74-77) found that the stress hormone levels decreased when stress was managed and if the employee participated in decisions and control their work. Sarabakhash, et al. (1989: 72), studied job dissatisfaction of hospitality employees in the working atmosphere and as a result, it is found that in specific fields of tourism management such as hospitality and F&B managers experienced higher stress than the other fields of management. Gronningsaeter et al. (1992: 147-163) examined stress management training. As a result, it is concluded that the exercises improved stress coping skills of the physically motionless employee. Sports activities decreased muscle pain complaints, job dissatisfaction and increased the feeling of well being in employee. Ross (1993) found that hospitality employees mainly chose problem-solving coping responses and reported that little stressed employees provided better service than those more stressed (Beehr et al., 2000: 203). Work stress resulted in decrease in job performance (Gilboa et al., 2008; Lepine et al., 2005), increase in burnout, decrease in ability to learn (Lepine et al., 2004), depressive mood and hostility (Motowidlo et al., 1986) and withdrawal (Gupta, Beeher, 1979). The stressors may differentiate by profession. Wheeler and Riding (1994: 527-534) indicated that workload, lack of professional knowledge, conflicts with a co-worker, emotional reaction to dealing with death, lack of self-confidence, and low wages were the factors that lead to stress. Lu et al. (2015: 209) found that when nurses used positive coping strategies, work stress level lowered. Conversely, when they chose strategies such as self-blame, avoidance, or denying the problem, work stress levels increased. Kam-Weng et al., (2006: 44) focused on finding work stress sources among nurses. Work overload, time pressure, incompetence in work, poor job and working conditions, difficulties in relationship with co-workers, jealousy/competition among colleagues, role conflict and ambiguity, dealing with conflict demands, organizational constraints, lack of participation in planning, lack of support of management, family requirements, and absenteeism were the work stress problems among the nurses. Swaminathan and Rajkumar (2013: 88) conducted research to find out stress sources

of employees. Role stagnation, role overload, and role self-distance were identified as work stressors in the study. In a research, related to work stress and performance (Khalid et al., 2012: 487-495), it was found that work stress affected the performance of the organization. Jammal (1984: 1-21) identified a relationship between work stress and work performance among managers and blue-collar employees.



2. STRESS MANAGEMENT

Stress is both psychological and physical response to demands of life and work. A small amount of stress can be good, motivating the employee to perform well at work. Learning to cope and manage stress at both an organizational and individual level and utilizing coping techniques such as relaxation, time management, meditation, and exercise is possible. In this way, individuals may control work stress and its results on them both physically and mentally.

Stress management refers to a reaction to a perceived threat such as stress (Stoicai and Buicu, 2010: 7). Smith (2002: 5) defined stress management as a group of abilities that enables one to anticipate, prevent, and manage perceived threats. Whether at an organization level or individual level, stress management varies from relaxation methods to interventions (Klink et al., 2001: 270).

Work stress exists in organizations, therefore stress management in working environments needs organizational level interventions. A health organization needed to decrease stress and The Health and Safety Executive in the UK (HSE) recommended to organizations to assess, manage or prevent stress in the working environment. As the result, the HSE proposed work stress management standards that cover primary stress sources but that if these standards are not applied then health problems, a decrease in productivity, and absenteeism would persist. The HSE has developed stress management standards for six key areas of work design that, if not properly managed, had the aforementioned negative results. These areas are: Demands -such as workload, work patterns, and the work environment; Control - such as how much say individuals have in the way they do their work; Support - related to the encouragement, sponsorship, and resources provided by organization, management, and colleagues; Relationships - developing a positive working atmosphere to avoid conflict and dealing with unacceptable behavior such as bullying, harassment; Role - organizations must clarify employees and managers roles and individuals should understand their roles clearly not to conflict; Change - related to management of organizational change. The Management Standards of

Health and Safety Executives in the UK proposed that in a set of conditions where certain changes are applied, healthy well-being and increase in organizational performance is inevitable. The management standards were to practice risk assessment, to use surveys for assessment, to promote communication in working environment, to identify stress sources, to underline cause and prevention of stress (HSE).

The American Psychological Association suggested the following steps for work stress management programs: Identify the stressors - knowing what causes the stress most and how employee respond to it such as thoughts, feelings, and reactions; Promote healthy responses - Employees may choose different ways to cope with work stress such as alcohol, drug use, unhealthy nutrition. Healthy life and exercises are important to reduce stress. Physical activities are useful such as yoga, fitness jogging. Spending time for hobbies and favorite activities, reading novels, going to concerts or playing games with family are beneficial as well. Sleeping well and eating well is also important for effective stress management; Set the boundaries -In today's digital world individuals are easily reachable which kills the moment individuals spend for themselves. Therefore it is useful to set rules such as not checking emails in the evening or not answering the phone after work. To reduce and avoid negative results of stress and burnout, individuals needed time for refreshment; Learn how to relax - There are some coping and relaxing techniques for both the mental and physical such as meditation, deep breathing exercises, mindfulness help to reduce stress; Communicate with the manager - It is clear that healthy employees are more productive. Providing a functional communication between employee and manager will reduce stress and promote employee well being (APA^c).

Organization culture affects the success of managing and preventing stress; therefore, open and understanding communication is essential rather than criticism and blame (Michie, 2002: 71). Stress interventions are complex and require every member's support in an organization. Therefore, for the success of interventions, there must be an organizational culture in which all those working in that organization are aware of the culture and endorse or come to endorse that culture (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 20).

2.1. WORK STRESS MODELS / THEORIES

Stress exists from complicated interactions between a large system of variables. Various models, theories, and approaches have been promoted to understand work stress and well being. In this section, the models and theories, which are important for highlighting the research and practices, are explained.

Job Demands-Control Model is also known as Job Strain Model and was improved by Karasek. Karasek theorized that when job demands are high and job control is low then strain comes out, which leads to both mental and physical health problems (De Vito, 2009: 12-13). In one of the hypotheses of the JDC model, employees working in a high demand and low control job experience the negative results and lowest well-being. In addition, control can change the negative effects of high demands on well-being (Doef and Maes, 1999: 87).

Job Characteristics Model was designed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). This model focuses on the task itself and accepted tasks as the key motivation for employees. The JCB model pays attention to important aspects of job characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. These characteristics are proposed to lead to critical psychological states of experienced meaningfulness and experienced responsibility and knowledge of outcomes. It is proposed that positive or negative work characteristics give rise to mental states which lead to corresponding cognitive and behavioral outcomes, motivation, satisfaction, absenteeism, etc. (Mark and Smith, 2008: 4).

Person-Environment Fit model runs when an employee's skills and abilities are matched with the expected role. This results in a lack of stress for the individual. Work stress exists when the role expectations are not clear, confusing or conflicting and when an employee's skills and abilities are not able to meet the demands of the social role. After a period of this stress, the individual can expect to experience strain, such as that in the form of depression (King, 2013: 222).

Vitamin Model proposes that certain job characteristics have an effect on mental health as those similar to how vitamins work in the human body. Basically, as vitamins affect the body, some job characteristics have a continuous impact on health in a dose. But after a while, even dose increases, there will not be any effect (Mark

and Smith, 2008: 5). According to this model, employees require various types of job characteristics to increase productivity at work just as the human body needs various vitamins for nourishment.

Effort-Reward Imbalance Model, the interrelationship between the efforts and rewards at work is the main issue. In this model, if an imbalance occurs due to an individual's high effort and low reward, this deficit causes stress which leads to disease and ill-health (De Vito, 2009: 12-13). Working longer and harder than is expected and taking inadequate appreciation is one of the examples of stressful imbalance.

Transactional Model; Cox and Griffiths (1995) made a distinction between two types of work stress models: interactional and structural. While interactional models focus on the structural characteristics of stress processes, transactional models focus on the relationship between employee and environment (Mark and Smith, 2008: 18).

2.2. WORK STRESS INTERVENTIONS

Employee health-related problems caused by work stress have increased rapidly. At the organizational level, costs of work stress outcomes are noticeable in terms of health care expenditures, loss of productivity, and absenteeism. Organizations may lose workdays because of physical and psychological problems such as high rates of tension, mental fatigue, anger, anxiety, depressed mood, sleep disorder etc. (Klink et al., 2001: 270).

Potential work stress interventions and preventions have expanded and there are various interventions to prevent and to cure health results of work stress. These interventions are preventive and applicable either organizationally or individually (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 20). Geurts and Grüdemann (1999: 17) stated that to reduce work-related stress the interventions must focus on the areas of work-oriented interventions and employee oriented interventions. Work-oriented interventions are interested in the balance between working environment and employee. Employee oriented interventions focus on the employees in that they learn how to deal effectively with stress and change their approach to choice to reduce perceived threats. Ivancevich et al. (1990) developed a framework for working environment

stress management interventions. The framework focuses on three points: reducing the number and intensity of stressors, assisting individuals to change their approach to the stressful situation and helping individuals to cope more effectively to a stressful situation (Burke and Richardsen, 2014: 208).

Klink et al. (2001: 270) categorized interventions which reduce work stress connected to content, focus, method, and duration. Concerning focus, interventions can be categorized as aiming to increase individual psychological resources and responses (e.g., coping) and aiming to change the occupational context. The first category of intervention is usually referred to as stress management training. The second category refers to interventions such as organizational development and job redesign.

Rickard (2010: 214) categorized interventions that aim to reduce work stress according to type and level of application, such as reducing the psychologically harmful working conditions (stress reduction); enabling employees to use their skills to cope with the potential stressors (stress management); and treating employees who had been harmed because of work-stress (tertiary).

In addition, Williams et al.,(1998: 33) and Gardel and Gustavsen (1980: 7) stated that organizational level stress management interventions can be of many types as structural: staffing levels, work schedules, physical environment; psychological: social support, control over work, participation. Moreover, Karessek (1992) categorized work psychosocial stress interventions as organizational level interventions purposed with changing the psychosocial environment (primary interventions); and individual-level interventions, concentrated on how individuals behave and cope with that environment (secondary and tertiary interventions). Each intervention serves a different purpose and interventions may classify as primary, secondary and tertiary (Quick et al., 1992). The purpose of primary prevention intervention is to eliminate, change or reduce work stressors. Secondary prevention interventions aim to disallow employees symptoms of stress from getting sick by changing the reaction to work stressor. Finally, tertiary interventions focus on treatment of employees who suffer from stress results and rehabilitation of employees after a period of sickness absenteeism. These preventive interventions are explained in detail in next part. In order to develop a form for many types of

interventions, the authors proposed several categories but they are not identical. DeFrank and Cooper (1987) suggested a categorization that separates interventions in terms of targets of stress management programs on three levels; individual, organization, and individual-organization levels. Many of the classifications suggested by different authors in the literature were suited to DeFrank and Copper's classification. In addition, while some interventions were defined as preventive, others were curative (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 2-6).

Cooper et al. (1999: 2) reviewed the practice of overall of stress prevention and intervention in the working environment. The conclusions were that stress interventions focused on decreasing impacts of stress rather than decreasing existence of work stressors. In other words, the majority of stress management activities skip the primary preventions and focus on the secondary prevention and tertiary preventions. At this point, for a comprehensive understanding of work stress interventions, preventive and organizational level interventions are explained.

2.2.1. Preventive Interventions

Organizations arrange programs which are planned to assist the physical and mental health of employees to prevent and reduce negative situations caused by work stress. Organizational approaches to prevent work stress are easy to apply. These interventions include the preparing of appropriate working environments in terms of employee relations, work characteristics, organizational structure and culture (Stoicai and Buicu, 2010: 7).

In categorizing preventive interventions, many differentiations are made. For instance, Hosman (1998) focused on 8 dimensions as characteristics of stress prevention programs - a type of actor, target group, goals, determinants, instruments, system level, time and setting. These dimensions are important to describe interventions and also to answer which intervention is needed for its effectiveness (Denissen, 2000: 20).

The literature emphasizes that work stress can be prevented and controlled efficiently by using primary, secondary and tertiary interventions. LaMontagne et al. (2007: 268) defined the preventive interventions as a system approach and claimed

that system approach is more effective than other approaches. System approach, as presented in Table 1, underlines primary prevention to cope with stressors at their source, secondary to help employees to cope with stressors, tertiary to rehabilitate employees. At the organizational level, stress-related problems identified through secondary and tertiary level programs should feedback to primary prevention efforts to reduce job stressors.

Table 1 System Approach to Work Stress

Intervention Level	Intervention Targets	Examples
1-Primary Preventive, Proactive Goal: Reducing potential risk factors or altering the nature of the stressor before employees experience stress-related symptoms or disease	Stressors at their source; Organization of work; Working conditions	Job redesign, Workload reduction, Improved communication, Conflict management skills development
2-Secondary Ameliorative Goal: To help equip employees with knowledge, skills, and resources to cope with stressful conditions	Employee responses to stressors	Cognitive behavioral therapy, Coping classes, Anger Management
3-Tertiary Reactive Goal: To treat, compensate and rehabilitate employees with enduring stress-related symptoms or disease	Short-term and enduring adverse health effects of job	Return to work programs, Occupational therapy, Medical stress interventions

Reference: LaMontagne et al. (2007: 269).

Primary level interventions are concerned with modifying or eliminating the sources of stress in the working environment. The main idea is to change the working environment to better fit the individual (Cooper et al., 1999: 2). According to Melbourne Institute for Safety, Compensation and Recovery Research Report, primary level interventions are proactive and purposing to reduce or prevent the existence of health problems among employees; for instance, altering the work speed, job design, and structure of health and safety committees (ISCRR, 2010). LaMontagne et al. (2007: 269) stated that organizations, employees, their unions, and policies affect the run of primary level interventions. Many primary level interventions are managed at either organization level or individual level or both.

In Scandinavia, these principles were used to create healthy and safe working environments to prevent work stress at the primary level. These principles were

adapted to working conditions for individuals of differing physical and mental features and included participation in work design; redesigned work content and technology in order to not expose workers to physical and psychological strains; avoidance of close work control; provision of social contact and cooperation among different departments and workgroups; and giving opportunities for career development (Williams et al., 1998: 33; Gardel and Gustavsen, 1980: 7). As can be seen, the primary level interventions, which would be helpful during the stress reduction process, are focused on three levels; organization system, job design, and system level.

Secondary level interventions avoid and prevent employees who tend to get ill because of stress (Geurts and Grüdemann, 1999: 17). Secondary interventions are curable attempts to change individual's reactions to stress. Secondary level interventions focus on the employee and try to minimize bad effects of stress on individuals by increasing awareness (Cooper et al., 1999: 2). For instance, stress management classes in an organization may teach how to control the perception of work stress with the help of relaxation or meditation (LaMontagne et al., 2007: 269).

Tertiary interventions target the individual as secondary level interventions. The role of secondary level intervention is preventive but tertiary level interventions are recuperative and healing. In other words, tertiary interventions focus on healthy body and mind and are therefore related to treatment, rehabilitation and recovery services for an employee who suffers from health problems as the consequences of work stress (Cooper et al., 1999: 2). This reactive interventions target reduction in the effects of illnesses caused by work stress. Assisting programmes for employee to provide them returning to work healthier, counseling programs and some rehabilitation attempts are a part of this intervention. Basically, secondary and tertiary interventions target reduction and elimination of stress and its sources at work. Stress management programs in the organizations generally related to secondary and tertiary interventions (LaMontagne et al., 2007: 269).

2.2.2. Organizational Level Interventions

Organizational level stress interventions are the efforts to eliminate or reduce stressful working conditions and job characteristics to improve well-being (Rickard,

2012: 214). Organizational level stress interventions focus on specific work stressors in the organization to decrease negative outcomes and results. The programs related to these interventions are designed to remove work stressors from the environment and programs endeavor for an employee to adapt to the job and working environment (Burke and Richardsen, 2014: 197). Obviously, organizational level intervention programs have a positive effect on employee physical and mental health such as increased performance, reduced illness and absenteeism, and employee turnover (Cooper, 2013: 168). Rickard (2012: 214) stated that organizational level interventions are preferable as they point out unhealthy working atmospheres.

Bossche and Houtman (2003: 19) listed these conditions to reach victorious results in organizations - identify problems, gather information, choose what approach to implement, evaluate the process, and participation of employees.

Newman and Beehr (1979) suggested a comprehensive list of organizational level interventions in three categories: *Changing organizational characteristics* - change organizational structure; change organizational processes (e.g. reward systems, selection, training and development systems, socialization processes; job transfer and job rotation policies, more employee-oriented supervision); develop health services. *Changing role characteristics*: redefine roles; reduce role overload; increase participation in decision making; reduce role conflict. *Changing task characteristics*: design jobs in light of employee abilities and preferences; use employee preferences in selection and placement; provide training programs so that employees can be more skilled; individualized treatment of employees. In addition, the following interventions were designed to reduce work stress: reducing role stress through goal setting, reducing role stress by increasing participation in decision making, increased job autonomy, work schedule autonomy, reducing psychological burnout by changing orientation practices, reducing work-family conflict (Burke and Richardsen, 2014:208). Stress elimination and reduction efforts at work can be costly and difficult to apply. Preventing the stress is important for organizations and individuals to reduce its negative effects.

2.2.3. Individual-Level Interventions

Individual-level interventions are mainly related to the individual itself and are planned to encourage and enrich an individual's lifestyle, medical, and behavioral changes.

A psychological relaxation method aims to achieve three cognitive processes: focusing, passivity, and receptivity. Focusing covers the ability to identify, differentiate, maintain attention on and return attention to simple stimuli for an extended period of time. Passivity is the ability to stop unnecessary goal-directed and analytic activity. Receptivity is the ability to tolerate and accept experiences that may be uncertain, unfamiliar, or paradoxical. In the progress of relaxation, focusing, passivity, and receptivity are incorporated into the cognitive process, and the outcome of such relaxation is a calm mind and relaxed body functioning. Meditation, yoga, mantra singing, etc. can be used to induce relaxation (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 7).

Meditation is based on spiritual calmness and aims for mental serenity based on focusing on calming words or sound while maintaining a passive attitude. This is done as to evoke a relaxation response (Denissen, 2000: 25). Murphy (1996) claimed that meditation had positive effects on mental health outcomes and indirectly on work and organizational health outcomes. It is reported that meditation has positive effects on coping with anxiety and stress (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 7).

Under physiological/physical relaxation, muscle relaxation is one of the physical avenues of relaxation. Focusing on muscle activity, identifying stretching and relaxation in the muscle groups, and practicing to release tension from muscles are the strategies of progressive muscle relaxation programs. These programs are usually realized by alternating the tensing and relaxing exercises. Moving the major muscle groups in the body enable an individual to become skilled at recognizing tension in a muscle group and relieving that tension. Muscle relaxation helps to decrease blood pressure from critical levels to a healthy level (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 9-10).

There are many ways for relaxing and biofeedback is one of them. Biofeedback is based on feeding back information from the body to the individual involved. This

information is provided by machines that are attached to individual's body and that give indications of the current psychophysiological functions, such as heart rate. As a result of such information, biofeedback training is claimed to result in being able to control bodily process, including those that play an important role in the experience of stress. Moreover, exercise is a physical relaxation method which contains aerobic and fitness activities. More highly physically conditioned individuals are expected to be more resistant to stress (Denissen, 2000: 25).

The cognitive behavioral approach is based on the idea that how an individual thinks (cognition), how an individual feels (emotion) and how an individual acts (behavior) all interact together. Cognitive-behavioral approaches target the psyche of the employee. Cognitive-behavioral ability training covers the techniques that purpose to change the way individuals think of the stressful situation (appraisal) and themselves (cognitive restructuring) and the skills that individuals utilize to combat with stressors. A commonly utilized training is Meichenbaum's Stress Inoculation Training (SIT). SIT aims to help the individual to understand and manage their fear reactions and to decrease the amount of avoidance behavior associated with fear. It involves three stages - education, learning new coping skills and putting them into practice (Denissen, 2000: 25). During the first stage of SIT, individuals identify the sources of stress and usual ways of coping with symptoms. The second stage involves learning and practicing new problem-solving strategies and coping skills that can help an individual relax the body and breathing, stop upsetting thoughts, and stay in the moment. At the end of treatment, the individual will review progress and make a plan for how to handle stressful situations that could come up in the future (PTSD, 2013).

Another example of Cognitive-behavioural approach is Albert Ellis's Rational Emotive Therapy (RET). The goal of RET therapy is to change irrational beliefs to more rational ones. The RET workshop consists of several units. Firstly, the ABC model is introduced. ABC stands for Activating event, Beliefs, and Consequences. According to this model, an event is interpreted which may lead to possibly negative consequences. Irrational and rational beliefs and their emotional and behavioral consequences are therefore identified. Subsequently, the concepts of stress and burnout are elaborated and by means of the ABC model personal experiences of

stress and burnout are analyzed. Irrational beliefs are discussed and are changed into rational ones. Cognitive behavioral interventions help to improve the perceived quality of work life and psychologic responses and resources. Murphy (1996) remarked that the effectiveness of stress interventions varied according to the outcome measure that was used. Cognitive behavioral interventions were more effective when psychological outcomes, such as anxiety, irritability, and depression, were evaluated (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 8).

Multi-modal interventions, goal-setting and time management can be caunt as other cognitive strategies for stress management. Time management is about doing the same task in less time than usual and using the time that one previously wasted. Goal-setting means planning ahead by setting clear and well defined attainable goals. In short, multi-modal interventions focus on altering the way individuals respond to stress, whereas goal setting and time management aim at stress prevention. In the meta-analysis by Klink (2001), multi-modal interventions proved to be the second most effective way of reducing occupational stress. Furthermore, only multi-modal programs were effective in decreasing depressive symptoms (Bossche and Houtman, 2003: 9).

2.3. COPING WITH STRESS

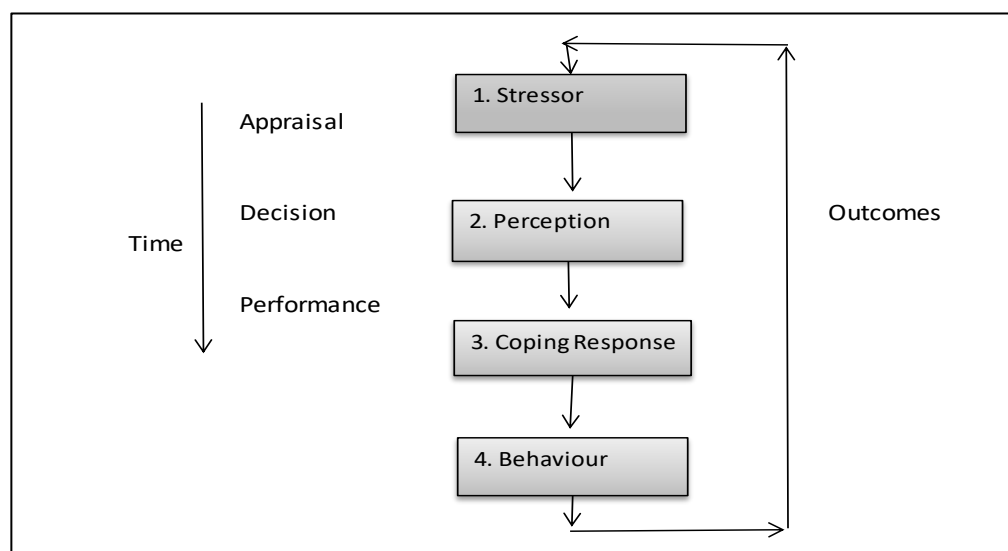
Coping has become a widely used concept in many different areas related to human and business life as well. The problems come out in the flow of life and it is important how an individual perceives it and which method he/she used to struggle with it. Coping is completely related to this process. The coping concept which is the backbone of this study will be examined in full detail. Carver and Scheier (1989: 267), stated that stress consisted of three processes. Primary appraisal is the process of perceiving a threat. A secondary appraisal is a process of bringing to mind a potential response to a threat. The third appraisal is the process of executing that response (coping). The process of executing the response, which was brought to mind in the secondary appraisal process, is also called “coping”.

For an individual, coping means what to do to keep his/her life at a high level of satisfaction. Therefore, coping may involve a variety of thoughts, emotions, and actions. For many scholars, the coping thoughts, feelings, and actions are

characterized by two important qualifiers; they involve purposeful, effortful, and conscious actions and they occur in response to big events - that is, events that shake the stability or threaten to undermine the usual activities of individuals. Additionally, coping is typically not a single response, but a series of responses, initiated and repeated as necessary to handle the remaining, continued or transformed nature of the stressor (Snyder and Pulvers, 2001: 4). There are various definitions of the term coping. Stoica and Buicu (2010: 7) defined coping as an individual's ability, successfully or unsuccessfully, to deal with stress factors termed coping, adjusting to stress, or stress management. Shaw et al., (2013: 244) defined coping as cognitive and behavioral strategies used to manage stressful situations. In other words, coping is both a cognitive and a behavioral effort for mastering, tolerating or reducing external-internal demands and conflicts (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980: 223). Coping reflects thinking, feeling, or acting so as to preserve a satisfied psychological state when it is threatened (Snyder and Pulvers, 2001: 4).

Law et al., (1995: 278) reviewed the definitions of coping and found that there are important aspects to coping. According to these aspects, coping is related to analyzing stressful and unclear conditions and mainly dependent on the how individuals perceive the environment.

Figure 3 Stress and Coping Process in Employees



Reference: Law et al., 1995:278

A model (Figure 3) was developed by McGrath (1970) that is helpful in understanding the stress and coping processes. McGrath definition of stress is a

process consisting of four stages. In the simple version of this model, at the first stage stressors were identified as both physical and social. The next stage is related to individual perception, recognition of the appraisal, and acceptance of the stressor demand. The third stage is related to individual response to a stressor. Finally, there is an arrangement of potential behaviors which occur as a consequence of the coping response (Law et al., 1995: 278).

Folkman and Lazarus (1980: 223) defined the stressful appraisals in three categories: harm-loss - the damage has already occurred; a threat - harm or loss has not yet occurred but is anticipated; challenge - an anticipated opportunity for mastery or gain. The relationship between the individual and environment decides what to feel -harmed, threatened or challenged - when experiencing psychological stress.

2.4. COPING RESPONSES / STRATEGIES / APPROACHES / METHODS

The coping mechanisms are usually termed as coping strategies or coping skills. The term coping generally refers to adaptive or constructive coping strategies (Carver and Connor Smith, 2010: 679). Coping response represents the action or activity itself. These responses are behavioral and/or cognitive efforts to control specific situational demands. Coping styles/strategies/responses/methods refer to coping behaviors that individuals employ when facing stressors across a variety of situations (Kwok-bun, 2007: 205). Coping attempts search to manage, rule over, tolerate, decrease or reduce the demands of a stressful environment. Coping efforts have two perspectives. The first one is to discover the problem which causes the stress (problem-focused coping) and arrange the feelings that arise from stress such as anxiety, anger, and sadness (emotion-focused coping). The best-fit occurs when individuals use suitable strategies (Bartram and Gardner, 2008: 228).

Hundreds of coping strategies have been identified. Previous studies have generally observed that individuals tend to choose multiple strategies in a stressful situation. The researchers have worked to identify and classify the coping techniques that individuals use in dealing with stress. One review of the literature found over 400 coping techniques. To simplify it, Carver suggested four important groupings (Weiten et al., 2008: 99). Appraisal-Focused (adaptive cognitive) aims at challenging

personal assumptions. Occupation-Focused is directed towards lasting occupation(s), which generate positive feedback. Problem-Focused (adaptive behavioral) is geared toward reducing or eliminating stressors. Emotion-Focused is based on changing personal emotional reactions.

The most common classification made by Folkman and Lazarus (1980) between problem-focused coping approaches and emotion-focused coping approaches (Kwok-bun, 2007: 205). Zaumseil and Schwarz (2014: 47-54), grouped the coping approaches as Appraisal-Oriented Approaches aiming to define the factors which help to reduce harmful effects of stress; Meaning-Oriented Approaches in which meaning-making refers to the processes individuals use to decrease contradiction between their appraised situational meaning; and Religious-Oriented Approaches including orientations, beliefs, and practices associated with spiritual or religious life that exert a significant influence upon appraisal processes and coping strategies.

2.4.1. Emotion-Focused Coping

Emotion-focused coping approaches/strategies are effective coping strategies for unchangeable stressors (Baldacchino and Draper, 2001: 883). These efforts involve releasing pent-up emotions, distracting oneself, managing hostile feelings, meditating, and using systematic relaxation procedures. Emotion-focused coping is an effort to reduce negative stress by reducing or preventing the emotional components of the stressor (Carver, 2011: 220). A variety of ways can be used to apply these efforts such as the requirement of social support, evaluating stressors in a positive way, accepting responsibility, using avoidance, and exercising self-control (Carver, 2011: 220-229).

Folkman and Lazarus (1980) categorized five emotion-focused coping strategies as disclaiming, escape-avoidance, accepting responsibility or blame, exercising self-control, and positive evaluation (Robinson, 2005: 438). Examples given by Bartram and Gardner for emotion-focused coping are utilizing humour and comedy, reframing the situation in terms of importance, confiding in someone else, seeking emotional support, accepting the situation, diverting your attention by working on another task, thinking unrelated pleasant thoughts such as happy

memories, engaging in physical exercise, practising relaxation or meditation techniques, practising forgiveness, seeing the situation in a different light, looking for positive consequences of the situation, perceiving a personal benefit, eg, personal growth, something you have learned, closer relationships or reprioritised goals, turning the problem over to a higher power, spending time with pets, challenging any tendency to withdraw or isolate, maintaining a healthy diet, attending professional counselling, comparing oneself to others who are facing far more challenging situations, writing down thoughts and feelings, and disputing or challenging one's own negative thoughts (Bartram and Gardner, 2008: 228).

2.4.2. Problem-Focused Coping

Problem-focused coping includes efforts to manage the stressor and change the individual's environment and relationships that are the cause of the stress (Jordan et al., 2015: 502). If an individual prefers to use problem-focused coping strategies, this means that positive outcomes (focusing attention, having a sense of mastery, control) would be in his/her hand (Folkman and Moskowitz, 2000: 647-654).

Individuals choose problem focused efforts to struggle with the beginning and cause of the problem. The purpose of problem-focused coping efforts is changing or eliminating the stressors. Folkman and Lazarus (1980: 250) identified three problem focus strategies which are taking control, seeking information, and assessing the pros and cons. Problem-focused coping also includes efforts such as employee information seeking and developing strategies for avoiding the main stressor. Problem-focused strategies are classified into two categories - effective problem-focused coping strategies, ineffective problem-focused coping strategies. The strategies of these two approaches are pretty different. Table 2 is used to compare the emotion-focused coping approaches/strategies with problem-focused coping approaches/strategies (Kilbourn, 2014: 75).

Since the introduction of the coping model, a multitude of coping approaches were studied which appeared to be similar in empirical studies despite being derived from very different theoretical frameworks. Folkman and Lazarus (1980) separated problem coping efforts (change of situation) and emotion coping efforts (control of negative feelings). However, in practice, the coping efforts that individuals choose

are often a combination of both and it is difficult to separate them while responding to the stressor.

Table 2 Emotion-Focused Coping versus Problem-Focused Coping

Coping Approach	Controllable Problem-Focused	Uncontrollable Emotion-Focused
Active (adaptive)	Information Seeking Goal Seeking Decision Making Conflict Resolution Requesting Help Focused Activities	Reappraisal of the situation Reframing thoughts Exercise, massage Meditation, relaxation Mindfulness exercises Expressing emotions (traveling, art, poetry music, i.e.) Accept negative emotions (softening)
Passive (maladaptive)	Behavioral Avoidance Cognitive Avoidance (denial, not thinking about it)	Smoke, eat, drink, alcohol Not caring for yourself Stuffing feelings

Reference: Kilbourn, 2014: 75

Bartram and Gardner (2008: 228) gave examples for problem-focused coping efforts as; developing action plans, using action plans, making structural changes to a situation, thinking about next steps, thinking of plan A, B, and C for the same situation, improving time management, empathy and seeing the situations from other perspectives, forgetting negative past experiences, getting advice from others, requiring help for hard tasks, using system approach to struggle with the stressors.

Folkman et al., (1986) developed eight coping efforts as a mixture of the problem and emotion focused coping strategies that purposed to address the stress sources. These eight factors are a part of the Ways of Coping Scale. Two factors (confrontive coping and planful problem-solving) are comprised of all problem-focused coping. Five factors (distancing, self-controlling, accepting responsibility, escape-avoidance, and positive reappraisal) are comprised of all emotion-focused coping strategies. One factor (seeking social support) is comprised of a mix of problem and emotion-focused coping. Confrontive coping involves head-on attempts to modify the stressor itself (express anger at the person who caused the problem). Planful problem solving involves creating a strategy to address the stressor and acting on it (I made a plan of action and followed it). Distancing involves mentally reducing the importance of the stressor (made light of the situation; refused to get too serious about it). Self-controlling involves keeping the individual's emotional

reaction to stress from interfering in their everyday lives (e.g., I tried to keep my feelings to myself). Accepting responsibility involves internalizing the stressor as something that was created by the individual under stress (realized I brought the problem on myself). Escape-avoidance involves mentally escaping the stressful situation through thoughts, behaviors, or substances (tried to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, using drugs or medication). Positive reappraisal involves determining that the stressor may actually be positive and seeking growth from it (rediscovered what is important in life). Finally, seeking social support involves seeking out help or information from others who may be able to address the stressor directly (talked to someone who could do something concrete about the problem) (Jordan et al., 2015: 503).

In a study of nursing executives, Scalzi (1988) found that the most frequently adopted strategies were spending time on non-work-related interests, utilizing social support, widening professional interests and identifying problem-solving resources. Frisch, Dembeck, and Shannon (1991) observed that more than 85% of the sample used such strategies as analyzing the problem to understand it truly, developing a plan and following it, or more efforts for better outcomes. In the study, very few used more passive efforts such as accepting the result as the fate, acting as nothing had happened, refusing to believe the problem or avoiding being with individuals. This pattern suggested that these nurses tended to adopt problem-focused coping more often than emotion-focused coping to deal with their work stress. Nakano (1991) also reported that problem-focused coping buffered the adverse effects of stressful events, and emotion-focused coping tended to enhance them (Kam-Weng et al., 2006: 45). Problem-focused and emotion-focused efforts have the potential to be adaptive. If the stressful situation fits the coping efforts then an individual shows fewer psychological symptoms. The maladaptive effort uses the problem-focused efforts if the situation is not changeable. If changeable, it uses emotion-focused efforts. For an effective solution, it is better to use combined strategies. For example, with bereavement, it may be adaptive to engage initially in emotion-focused coping to acknowledge, process and express the loss, and then, after emotional equilibrium returns, to engage in more problem-focused coping to deal with future plans. In managing work-related problems, a controllable dilemma might best be addressed by

problem-focused coping, but emotion-focused coping can help to relax and refresh body and mind in preparation for tackling the situation (Bartram and Gardner, 2008: 228).

2.4.3. Adaptive/Maladaptive Coping

A prominent therapist, Virginia Satir, said that “Problems are not the problem; coping is the problem”. This statement shows that individuals can react to stressful situations both positive and negative ways. To cope with stress, individuals often utilize adaptive and/or maladaptive coping strategies. These chosen coping methods can either positively or negatively affect a person’s work life. Positive way named as adaptive and negative is maladaptive. It is expected that coping must have the positive outcomes. Therefore adaptive coping is related with reaction to a stressful situation in a positive, mature and healthy way. Adaptive coping acts to reduce stress and promote long-term benefits. Both problem focused and emotion-focused approaches have the potential to be adaptive (Bartram and Gardner, 2008: 228).

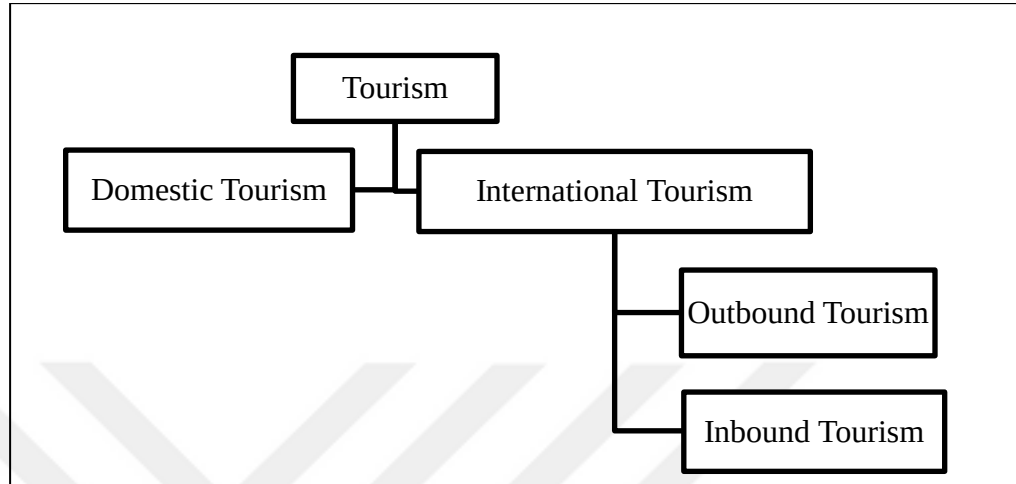
Some coping approaches are considered as maladaptive. Maladaptive coping is described as non-coping effort. The term coping commonly refers to reactive coping (Carver and Connor Smith, 2010: 679). This type of coping give harm to individual, group, organization because it is destructive. According to Bertham and Gardner (2008: 228), adaptive coping acts to reduce stress and promote long-term benefits. Maladaptive coping may reduce the level of stress in the short term, but can affect physical and psychological health in the long term. Examples of maladaptive coping approaches include use of drug or alcohol to relieve negative feelings, to smoke, to have risky sexual relations, to eat more, to play computer games, to sleep more, to be aggressive, to be late for appointments to avoid the stressful situation, to think wishfully, self-isolation, trying not to cry. Effective coping uses combination of adaptive and maladaptive strategies.

3. TOURISM, TOURIST GUIDE, AND WORK STRESS

Tourism is about traveling, visitors, and travelers. The basic factors which lead people to travel are business, curiosity, religion, culture, education, relaxation, sport, health, snobbism, friend/relatives visit and meetings (Usta, 1995:5). According to the World Tourism Organization, travel is related to the activities of travelers; a traveler is an individual who moves to geographical destinations for any purpose and duration. A visitor is a traveller taking a trip to a main destination outside his/ her usual environment, for less than a year for any main purpose other than to be employed by a resident entity in the country or place visited (e.g. for holiday, leisure and recreation, business, health, education or other purpose) (UNWTO^a Report, 2017). In 1941, Walter Hunziker defined tourism as all of the events and processes that are related to the accommodations and travels of people only if these activities are not bearing to make money (Ürger, 1992: 10). The World Tourism Organization defined tourism as the combined activities of an individual's travel and accommodations different than his or her usual environment for at least twenty-four hours and less than one year for leisure, business and other purposes (UNWTO^b). It should be highlighted that there is no certain definition for tourism that is generally accepted in the literature. But various tourism definitions with motion and return being the most common points among these definitions (Sezgin, 1995: 3).

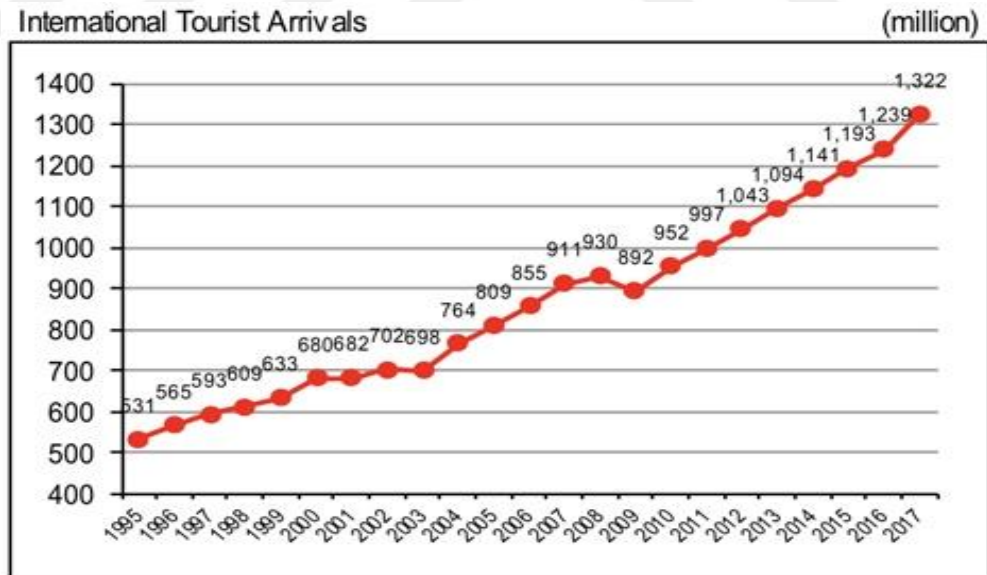
There are several forms of tourism as is seen in Figure 4. Traveling inside a country by a resident is called domestic travel; to another country by nonresidents is inbound travel; and travel outside a country by a resident is outbound travel (UNSTATS, 2010).

Figure 4 Forms of Tourism



Reference: UNSTATS, 2010

Graph 1 Inbound Tourism – International Tourist Arrival (in millions)



Reference: UNWTO^c, 2017

It is useful to understand the importance of tourism in the world and Turkey with numbers and statistics. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO^a), even in occasional shocks, tourism has shown constant growth. The tourist's arrivals from international dimensions have increased from 25 million in

1950, to 278 million in 1980, 527 million in 1995, and 1.4 million by end of 2018, globally (UNWTO^c). International tourist arrivals worldwide are expected to increase 3.3% a year between 2010 and 2030 to reach 1.8 billion by 2030, in terms of UNWTO's long-term forecast Tourism Towards 2030. Similarly, international tourism receipts in worldwide increased from \$2 billion in 1950 to \$1393 billion in 2016 (Worldbank). Increasing trend is similar in Turkey, tourism revenue climbed from \$13 million in 2003 to \$29.5 million in 2018; arrival from 16.4 million tourists in 2003 to 46.1 million tourists in 2018 (Table 3).

Table 3 Turkey's Tourism Statistics

Year	Arrival (million people)	Tourism Revenue (million \$)	Avarage Expenditure (\$ per person)	GNP (%)
2003	16.4	13.8	850	4,4
2004	20.7	17	843	4,2
2005	25	20.3	842	4,1
2006	23.9	18.5	803	3,4
2007	27.2	20.9	770	3,1
2008	31.1	25.4	820	3,3
2009	31.7	25	783	3,9
2010	32.9	24.9	755	3,2
2011	36.7	28.1	778	3,4
2012	37.7	29	795	3,3
2013	39.8	32.3	824	3,4
2014	41.6	34.3	828	3,7
2015	41.1	31.4	756	3,7
2016	30.9	22.1	705	2,6
2017	37.9	26.2	681	3,1
2018	46.1	29.5	647	3,8

Reference: Ministry of Culture and Tourism

<http://yigm.kulturturizm.gov.tr/TR-201116/turizm-gelirleri-ve-giderleri.html>

Tourism is one of the main categories of the international service industry. International tourism now represents 7% of the world's exports of goods and services, up from 6% in 2014, as tourism has grown faster than world trade over the past four years. In the worldwide export category tourism is ranked third after fuels-chemicals, food-automotive products. Additionally, tourism is ranked as first in the export category for many developing countries. Tourism industry's economic value added to the overall economy is considerably high. Every 1 in 11 jobs in the world is related to tourism (UNWTO^a). This industry not only creates jobs, it also supports

the improvement of other industries. This support is referred to as the multiplier effect and it is related with how many times money circulates in a country's economy. A tourist spent money for accommodation seems to create job directly in hotel, and but also creates job indirectly. For example, the hotel, to provide service has to buy food, the producers of which may spend money on fertilizer; or, to decorate the room, the hotel has to pay a carpenter and for furnishings. In this way, secondary and tertiary employment increases. The multiplier effect continues until the money eventually leaks from the economy through imports (Rusu, 2011: 70).

Tourism has many impacts and these impacts may be divided into branches as (Table 4): Economic impact; related to the factors of income generation or impact of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and job creation. Economic impact involves employment, foreign exchange, income and government revenues and infrastructural development. Physical or environmental impact; related to the effect of tourism on natural environments such as sea and land use. This impact focuses on the carrying capacity of tourism on the natural environment. Social or cultural impact; focuses on the effect of tourism on the socialization and culture of the country. Technological impact focuses; on the impact of tourism on technological development and new technologies' computerization systems, transportation.

Table 4 Impacts of Tourism

Trends	Positive Impact	Negative Impact
Economic	*employment opportunities *infrastructure development *increase foreign exchange	*seasonal employment *leakage of tourism receipts
Physical / Environmental	*protection of flora and fauna *water quality planning	*destruction of the environment *vandalism *littering and pollution
Socio-cultural	*revitalization of local values *conservation of local architecture *cross-cultural exchange	*increase in crime * loss of local culture and authenticity *conflict between residents and tourists

Reference: VUSSC, 2006

After these praised words for tourism, it is better to mention negative sides of tourism, for example, demand. The demand side of tourism is known as unpredictable and fragile. The reason is it is affected by external factors such as

economic crisis, terrorist attacks, fluctuation in money, political unclarity (Demir, 2004: 294). Therefore, world realities affect the planning and operation of tourism. These impacts can occur in microenvironments and macro environments, which influence an individual's choice to travel or to stay at home.

The phenomena affecting tourism are varied. Health pandemics affect tourists' choices to go to secure and hygienic destinations to prevent exposure to deadly viruses. Over the years HIV/AIDS, SARS in 2003, bird flu in 2004, and AH1N1 virus in 2009 restricted individuals' travel plans due to health concerns. This forced decisions to either go on holiday and take health risks or to stay at home and stay safe. Political stability or instability and governmental changes in a country may have a heavy effect on tourism. Stable governments can be a reason for tourists to choose peaceful destinations. The September 2001 terrorist attacks changed travel freedom. Strict visa and security applications made travelers bored; therefore, travelers rejected international tourism for recreation. The economic crisis and instabilities in economies affect people as it happened in the 2009 economic crisis. This financial meltdown impacted the livelihood of many workers and people preferred to save their incomes for the tough times. The uncontrollable nature of events and climate changes affected the fragile structure of tourism. Tsunamis, hurricanes, floods, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions are natural events that can not be controlled by man. The tsunami in Asia (2004), flood in Manila (2009), and volcano eruption in Iceland were each threat to tourism (VUSSC, 2006).

3.1. TOURISM AND WORK STRESS

Tourism industry is a combination of transportation, accommodation, food and beverage, entertainment and travel services. In this industry, one of the most important point to note is working conditions of service providers. Employees in various sectors in the tourism industry are reported unpleasant working conditions as long work hours, low wages and work overload (O'Neill and Davis, 2011: 385-390). Because of dissatisfaction, employees in tourism industry may demonstrate negative emotions towards work and customers. In addition, the literature emphasized that employees in tourism industry experienced greater work stress due to constant interaction with both associates and guests (Kim et al., 2007: 421-434). Employees in

tourism industry should not be under stress as they are the ones who serve the final product to the customer and communicate with them directly. Stressful working atmosphere does not satisfy both employee and customer, and only less stressed employees give better service than stressed employees.

The negative effects of stress are mutual for employees and organizations. To decrease its negative effects, it is important to identify and understand stress sources experienced by employees in the tourism industry. It is clear that while some employees can cope with work stress effectively, others may not. This failure shows itself as absenteeism, alcohol and drug use, low performance and productivity, illness and it cost organizations as financial harm (Law et al., 1995: 277).

The tourism organizations are able to meet all the needs of customers efficiently and in time, then the customers are satisfied. Satisfied customers are important in building customer loyalty. This industry is highly competitive and there are a lot of rivals in the industry. For maintaining market share, for profitability and especially for sustainability, organizations in tourism try to build customer loyalty. For the purpose of increasing the number of loyal customers, employees in the tourism industry are working hard in stressful and challenging environments. Therefore working conditions are needed to be good.

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Pavesic and Brymer (1990) stated that young and qualified employees in tourism industry quit the jobs in a short time because of long working hours, low wages, schedule, and workload. O'Neill and Davis, (2011: 390) added that in the tourism industry, especially in the hospitality area, stress results in loss of productivity and increase in health expenditures for employees. As it exists in every industry, in the service industry, work stress causes a decrease in job performance

and poor productivity (Gilboa et al., 2008: 227-272), an increase in fatigue, depressive mood and hostility (Lepine et al., 2004: 883-895).

Some of the recent research about work stress in tourism field is presented. Faulkner and Patiar (1997: 99-117) investigated work stress sources among front office and housekeeping employees. Sources of stress for front office employee consisted of organization rules, inadequate support from supervisors, wage shortages and under promotion. Housekeeping employees felt stress due to workload, abuse timing, being undervalued, lack of communication, and inadequate feedback. Sampson and Akyeampong (2014: 127) investigated the causes and effects of work stress in front-line employees. Hotel employees experienced work stress with reasons being lack of support, role conflict, ambiguity, and poor relationship between employees and management in the organization. Mackenzie and Kerr (2013: 3-14) attempted to address what they saw as a neglected area of research in prior studies by focusing of adventure tourist guides' stress. As a result of the research, they recommended how to reduce stress in tourist guides. According to Ross (1992: 319-330), employees working in highly competitive and challenging industries were more prone to work-stress. And according to the research, hospitality employees were using mainly problem-solving strategies when exposed to work-stress. Rok (2011: 279-280) conducted research that aimed to identify how employees in tourism educational institutions combatted stress operatively and strategically. As a result, it was found that employees were aware of the effects of stress on their lives and used different coping approaches. Kim et al., (2007: 421-434) conducted research on job burnout. Their data showed that hotel employees had a higher work stress experience because of the face to face communication and contact with customers and associates. O'Neill and Davis (2011: 385-390) studied the impact of work stress on the hospitality industry and observed that productivity decreased and, because of the unhealthy employees, health care costs increased. In a study, conducted in Turkey by Özcan et al., (2010: 33), the researchers wanted to determine stressors, health outcomes and results of work stress among travel agency employees. Researchers found that, when travel agency employees were faced with work stress (because of the stressors, high employee turnover rate and seasonality), it caused absenteeism and lack of motivation. Zohar (1994: 219-231) investigated management and

employees in a Canadian chain hotel in terms of stress sources and found that the lack of employee empowerment was at the center of the stressor. Role ambiguity and overwork were found to be relevant to this deficiency. Law et al., (1995: 277-284) investigated stress sources and coping strategies among Australia hotel employee. The identified stress sources were lack of communication, incentives, job demands, boredom, and repeat work. Mohamed (2015: 11-18), in a research project, found that role conflict, role ambiguity and workload were the most common stressors for employees and management in the hospitality industry. In addition, hotel managers experienced significantly more stress than front-line employees. Female employees indicated significantly more stress than did their male counterparts. Altay (2009: 1-17) conducted research on the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction in hotel employees. Emotional exhaustion and depersonalization showed differences in terms of gender. Sökmen (2005: 1-27) in a research, which covered middle and top-level executives in the hospitality industry, aimed to find out if gender was discriminative in determining work stressors. Stress sources of male and female managers were generally parallel. Despite this male managers, were more stressed than the female managers. Nevertheless, there are very limited work stress related studies in the literature regarding tourist guiding and insufficient focus regarding the consequences of work stress among tourist guides.

3.2. TOURIST GUIDING PROFESSION

The components of tourism and travel services are hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, and tourist guide services. Tourist guides are significant stakeholders in tourism industry. Tour operators and travel agencies plan and organize tours if there is pleasing weather, scenic attractions, and historical and cultural factors for customers. Tourist guides proceed, manage and perform these tours.

Within tourism literature terms such as “tour guide”, “tourist guide”, “tour leader”, “tour manager”, “interpreter” and “courier” are sometimes used synonymously. The literature and industry indicate that the use of these terms varies from country to country, region to region, and even between the public and private industries and within tourism industry itself (Weiler and Black, 2015: 3). Tour managers, tour escorts, or tour directors are people who gather tourists for the

purpose of sight-seeing excursions in a scheduled program and who manage tours. These people may also be called tour conductor, tour courier, or tour leader (VUSSC, 2006). Also, World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (WFTGA) described them as an individual who guides visitors in their language, interpret natural and cultural heritage (WFTGA^a, 2003).

The tasks of tourist guides are defined in Tourist Guiding Profession Law in Turkey (Law No: 6326, Item 2: I Accepted 07.June.2012): to introduce a country's culture, tourism, history, environment, nature, social presence or equivalents in line with culture and tourism policy, to provide such services to individuals or a group of local and foreign tourists using the language of their choice, to manage tours organised by travel agencies and obeying tour schedules written on a travel agency's official itinerary sold to a customer (Resmi Gazete, 22.06.2012). Öter and Saribaş (2018: 102) defined duties of tourist guides as to lead, to inform, to interpret, to represent the destination, to advise. Tourist guides are individuals who manage tour with a wide and detailed knowledge of a particular destination. Their first task is to interpret and inform. They are individuals who are licensed by the government and accredited to lead and guide tourists in foreign and domestic spheres for a fee, commission, or any other lawful remuneration (Cruz, 1999: 2). Tourist guiding is an occupation with strategic importance in multicultural countries such as Turkey because of historical, touristic, and archeological treasures. In countries where tourism is a leading industry, tourist guiding profession becomes much more important in order to interpret these treasures truly.

Tourist guiding is a densely human-related (Yarcan, 2007: 33) and plays important role in the experience of tourists and affect the success of tour operators, travel agencies (Öter, 2007: 193) and customer satisfaction. They are leaders who claim responsibility, teachers who assist in learning about places visited, ambassadors to provide revisit intention, hosts who provide a comfortable environment for tourists, contribute to the local economy by affecting service quality, tourist experience, and staying time (Köroğlu, 2009: 1336). According to Gelbman and Maoz (2012: 108), a tourist guide is a kind of cultural ambassador who has critical duties such as choosing which place should be visited and giving satisfactory information about the places visited. As a kind of cultural ambassador, it is said that

the tourist guide transfers the culture of its own country to the customer. They are the truest people who are able to give satisfactory and accurate information about a country's natural, archeological and cultural heritage (Sezgin, 2011:18). In general, these professionals give "knowledge service" to the visitors of destinations (Ahipaşaoğlu, 2001: 87).

Öter and Sarıbaş (2018: 102) defined duties of tourist guides as to create group spirit with strong leadership, to provide learning, to manage tour successfully and solve the problems which exist on tour, to create spirit of discovery, entertainment, friendship, to obey the rules of travel agency

The definitions above emphasize the guiding, leading, interpreting roles and duties of tourist guides and these roles are presented in Cohen's (1985) tourist guides' roles. According to Cohen's model, there are four important components in the role of tourists guides: original guide (pathfinder), professional guide (mentor), animator, and tour leader. Moreover, tourist guides have an entrepreneurship role to fulfill, as they have a need to make their encounters with tourists profitable for themselves (Mak et al., 2010: 205). One of their important roles is improving tourism at different scales either regionally or nationally by creating new demands for other tours. In addition, they are the ones who are expected to provide the best quality experience to tourists; the hope is that at the end of the experience tourists will be satisfied and they will have an intention to revisit a destination at another time.

Tourist guides work across a wide range of environments and settings. Weiler and Black (2015: 8) mentioned that guided tours can be categorized using a number of different criteria, including purpose, setting, and environments, subject matter, length, types of clients and activity, reflecting the heterogeneity of the guiding industry. Unfortunately, there is no agreed upon typology for guided tours. A number of types of guiding can be counted as general tourist guiding, extended tour guiding, nature-based tour guiding, adventure tour guiding, heritage tour guiding, and city tour guiding. It is obvious that tourist guides do not work in just one type of setting.

3.2.1. History of Tourist Guiding Profession

Tourist guiding is a modern version of antecedent guides such as the pathfinders Cicerone. In the 5th century B.C., Herodotus was an extensive traveler, and writer dependent not only to guides for travel but also more specifically on guides who spoke his language. Although Herodotus was critical of some guides, they were essential at a site like Olympia where there was a forest of statues and accumulation of hundreds of dedications, where a visitor was helpless without a guide. In the 17th and 18th centuries, the Grand Tour as a new form of tourism emerged, the outcome of a request for learning during the Renaissance period. British male aristocrats were encouraged to travel as a part of their education for three or more years. These study tours were led by expert guides. The 19th century Thomas Cook developed group pleasure travel. Improved transportation and other social and technological developments helped initiate mass tourism. New service personnel in all aspects of tourism were needed including tourist guides to accompany the groups and individuals and explain the natural and cultural background of the area (Weiler and Black, 2015: 11).

According to Ahipaşaoğlu (2001: 14-26), the history of tourist guiding in Turkey dates back to the Ottoman Empire. After the political reforms made in the Ottoman State in 1839 (Tanzimat Fermanı), relations with Europe increased in the areas of education, fine arts, and commerce. As in other parts of the world, the number of visitors to the Ottoman capital increased with the development of transportation technology. With this development, foreign language-speaking, especially French, interpreters were needed. Because of their talents in learning foreign languages, minorities in İstanbul, such as Armenian and Museves in particular, usually performed this job. But these interpreters shared the personal opinion or myth with the visitors that the Ottomans did not protect the rights of minorities. Therefore, the Ottoman State in 1890 made legislation in the field of the regulation of the tourist guiding profession. In 1923 Türk Seyyahin Cemiyeti (Turk Travel Club) was established to organize travel related issues including tourist guiding. In 1960, many epic books about “Anatolia and Hellen” were written by Cevat Şakir Kabaağaçlı the “Fisherman of Halicarnassus”, who has the honor of being considered one of the pre-eminent Turkish tourist guides whose books were

used as the basic source for interpretation among tourist guides. Today tourist guiding in Turkey is under the authority and responsibility of the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism and Turkey's Tourist Guide Union (TUREB). The union works to provide a more active role for the tourist guides' in country tourism, promote the country in the terms of culture and tourism policies and try to prevent unlicensed tourist guidance.

The Union of Tourist Guide Chamber was founded according to the Profession Law of Tourist Guide number 6326 in the year 2012 and it is also a professional institution with the public institution status of 13 Chambers organized in Turkey including 7 Professional Chambers and 6 Regional Professional Chambers (TUREB^a). Moreover, tourist guides in Turkey must be registered and be members of Tourist Guide Chambers to perform their service. There are several tourist guide chambers in Turkey limited by geographical borders. Figure 5 presents the structure of the tourist guide chambers in Turkey. According to the Law of Tourist Guiding Profession enacted on 22 June 2012, the provinces of the Chambers are listed as;

İstanbul Tourist Guide Chamber (IRO): İstanbul, Bolu, Düzce, Edirne, Kırklareli, Kocaeli, Sakarya, Yalova

İzmir Tourist Guide Chamber (IZRO): İzmir, Manisa, Uşak

Antalya Tourist Guide Chamber (ARO): Antalya, Burdur, Isparta

Aydın Tourist Guide Chamber (ATRO): Aydın, Denizli

Muğla Tourist Guide Chamber (MURO): Muğla

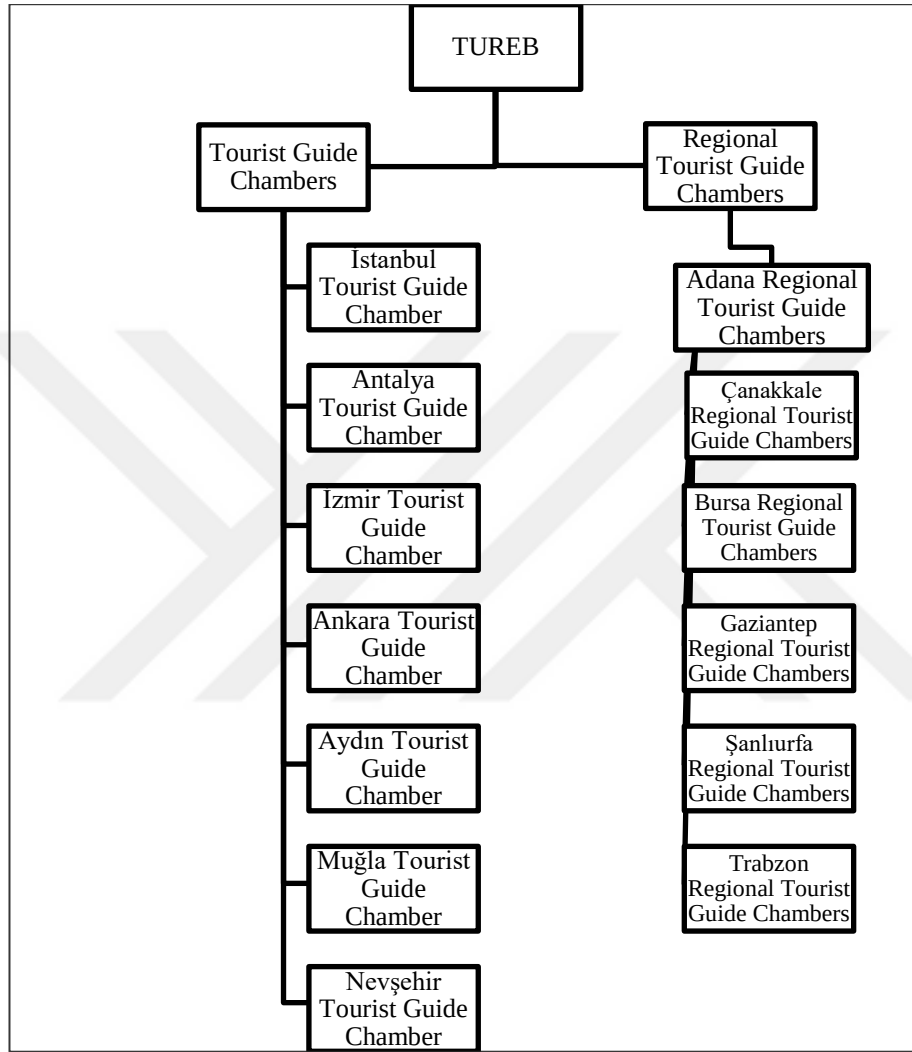
Ankara Tourist Guide Chamber (ANRO): Ankara, Afyonkarahisar, Bartın, Çankırı, Çorum, Eskişehir, Karabük, Karaman, Kastamonu, Kırıkkale, Konya, Zonguldak

Nevşehir Tourist Guide Chamber (NERO): Nevşehir, Aksaray, Kayseri, Kırşehir, Niğde, Sivas, Yozgat

According to the statistics of TUREB^b, by 2019, the number of the tourist guides in Turkey is 9777 national and 807 regional for a total of 10584 tourist guides. In Turkey, while some guides are self-employed (freelance) and create and market their own tours or perform the travel agencies' tours steadily, others are employed by travel agencies and conduct planned and well-organized tours. Still, others are employed by corporations or local, provincial or central governments (palace or museum guides). These guides are referred to as active “eylemli” tourist

guides. Conversely, those guides who are licensed but not active are considered “eylemsiz” inactive. According to 2019 statistics of TUREB^b, the number of active “eylemli” tourist guides is 7873, and inactive “eylemsiz” is 2711.

Figure 5 Organizational Scheme of Tourist Guide Chambers in Turkey



Reference: AREGEM, Ministry of Culture and Tourism

3.2.2. Tourist Guiding Education

Education and training of tourist guides have gained much significance with the developments in tourism arena. Tourist guides are important players in providing improvement and promotion of tourism in the destinations and the country as required. Well educated tourist guides may garner benefits for organizations or tour companies (Avcıkurt et al., 2009: 58) and meet the needs and expectations of

customers with his/her quality of interpretation, leaving satisfied customers. It was observed that for a long time the tourist guiding profession and service was not organized well. While some tourist guides were uneducated or untrained or underpaid part-timers, others were prestigious and specialized. Around the world, while some countries organized the profession from an education and law perspective the others did nothing.

Table 5 Tourist Guiding in Worldwide

Country	Association Name	Total Number	Qualification Required	Training Process	License Required
Austria	Vienna Chamber of Commerce	700	Tourist Guide Exam	960 hours Professional training, Theoretical Tuition and Practical Training	Yes
Brazil	Federacao Nacional dos Guias de Turismo	10000	Secondary	11 months, Theory 800 hours by authorized training institutes, Practical 160 hours by Guides	Yes
Greece	Panhellenic Tourist Guide Federation	2000	High School Plus Vocational Studies	2.5 Years. Theory: 1600 hours, by University Professors. Practical 60 hours by Experienced Tourist Guides.	Yes
Egypt	The Egyptian General Tourist Guide Syndicate	OVER 10000	Diploma + Egyptology		Yes
Japan	Japan Federation of Certified Guides	700	License is issued by Japanese Government	1. Training course for beginners (just after getting a license) – 5 days 2. Training Course for guides with several years experience, from time to time.	Yes
Netherlands	Netherlands Guides Association Gidior	125	GIVAK Exams	Ranges between High School and University levels	Yes
Spain	CEFAPIT	2000	In 14 regions No in 2 regions	By Regional Govt. Theor:1500 hrs Prac:500 Hrs	Yes
Turkey	Turkish Tourist Guide Union TUREB	13600	2 or 4 years university education	By experts and scholars, 560 hours	Yes
USA	Guild of Professional Tourist Guides of Washington D.C	350	Licensing is the responsibility of the District of Columbia Government Washington	Professional Tourist guide training program for new associate members (no college credits are given)	Yes

Reference: WFTGA^b, Jane Orde, 2011.

As is shown in Table 5, countries with more historical, archaeological and cultural treasure, gave more importance to training, than the others. Avciokurt et al., (2009: 59) conducted research on tourist guiding education in Turkey. Tourist guide education and training had been executed by the Ministry of Tourism and Culture in short period courses since 1995. But today, tourist guiding has become a program at

universities, making it an academic subject nowadays. The Ministry of Tourism and Culture do not maintain courses anymore because the authorized establishment had become TUREB for the 3-6 month period courses by 2012. There are now tourist guide candidates produced from vocational universities and associate degree levels at universities; thus TUREB's short-term courses are no longer common. Therefore, tourist guide education continues at 2 or 4 years at universities, with 2 years of education being the "compact form" of 4 years of education. In general, students take General Tourism Information and Regulation of Tourism, Subject of Professional Tourist Guiding, Tourism Geography, Tourism Marketing, General Turkish History and Culture, Anatolian Civilization, Archeology, Mythology, Art History, Religion History, First Aid and additional lessons. An example of the course contents of the tourist guiding program in İzmir Katip Çelebi University, Faculty of Tourism, Programme of Tourist Guiding is shown in Table 6.

In addition, to be accepted to profession, the candidates have to join the Tour of Practice organized by TUREB. Tourist guide candidates may join this tour either at the end of half of their total education or at the end of their education. Tour of Practice began being conducted by TUREB after 2012 with usually those tourist guides who have the academic background leading and managing this tour of practice. It is a great chance for the candidates to practice what they have learned in their tourist guiding education. Tour of practice is performed regionally. If the candidate finishes either one of the regional tours, he/she has a right to get a Regional License or upon finishing all regions he/she has the right to get a National License. Graduating from university or taking a course, and performing the tour of practice is not enough to earn a tourist guide license in Turkey. Candidates must; Be a citizen of the Turkish Republic, Be at least 18 years old, Have a certificate in fluency foreign language of their choice (YDS 75), University degree.

Table 6 Course Contents of Tourist Guiding Program at İzmir Katip Çelebi University

1 st Class		2 nd Class	
1 st Term	2 nd Term	3 rd Term	4 th Term
Turkish-I	Turkish-II	Second Foreign Language-I	Second Foreign Language-II
Principles of Atatürk and History of Turkish Revolution-I	Principles of Atatürk and History of Turkish Revolution-II	Tourism Marketing	World Geography and Travel Destinations
English-I	English-II	Social Responsibility Project	Statistics
Introduction to University Life	Principles of Marketing	Anatolian Civilizations	Folklore
Introduction to Tourism	Behavioral Sciences	Organizational Behavior	Byzantine Art
Economy	Mythology-I	Mythology-II	Seljuk and Ottoman Art
Terminology of Archeology and History of Art	History of Art	Archeology-II	History and Culture of Turkey
Guiding Services in Tourism	Fundamental Information Technologies		
Introduction to Business Management	Archeology-I		
3 rd Class		4 th Class	
5 th Term	6 th Term	7 th Term	8 th Term
Second Foreign Language-III	Second Foreign Language-IV	Second Foreign Language-V	Graduation Project
Travel Agencies and Tour Operators	Effective Speaking and Professional Communication	History of Religions	Specialization in Tourism Guidance
Flora and Fauna of Turkey	Hygiene Information and First Aid	Tour Planning and Tour Management	Cultural Heritage Interpretation
Tourism Geography of Turkey	Tourism Law and Tourist Rights	Elective Course-I	Elective Course-I
Elective Course-I	Elective Course-I	Elective Course-II	Elective Course-II
	Elective Course-II	Elective Course-III	Elective Course-III
Internship	Elective Course-III		
Elective Courses			
3 rd Class		4 th Class	
5 th Term	6 th Term	7 th Term	8 th Term
Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition Tourism	Consumer Behavior in Tourism	Daily Life in Ancient Times	Actual Issues in Tourism
Transportation Systems in Tourism	Eco-Tourism Guidance	Entrepreneurship in Tourism	International Tourism Management
Turkish and World Cuisines	History and Art of Anatolia	Recreation and Animation	Anatolian Hand Crafts
Ancient Anatolian Civilizations	Quality Management in Service Industry	History of World Civilizations	Iconography
Tourism in İzmir	Marine Tourism and Yacht Business	The European Union and Tourism	Interpersonal Communication
Countries and Cultures	Faith Tourism Guidance	Accounting	Etiquette and Protocol Rules in Tourism
Sport Tourism	Nutrition and Hygiene	Ethics in Tourism	Ticketing
Tourism Economy	Basic Concepts of Law	Turkish and Anatolian Mythology	Outgoing Tourism Guidance Services
		World Music's	Document Management in Tourism and Reporting
		Museum Guidance Services	Tourism Sociology

Reference: İKÇÜ Course Contents of Tourist Guiding Program at İzmir Katip Çelebi University (Turkey)

3.2.3. Required Skills for Tourist Guiding

A travel agency/tour operator has limited function without tourist guides, as they are the backbone of the entire tour operation. Being a tourist guide is not just about speaking a foreign language, directing the tourist group, or reading information from a sheet, though; it's a very demanding job that combines performance, memory, and customer service all into one. While every tour (and every guide) is different, the very best tour employees have a certain set of skills that make them really stand out. Therefore, it would be useful to have a look at the tourist guiding service characteristics, service marketing environments, requirements of the tourist guiding profession.

Tourism is accepted as a part of the service industry. Various definitions have been given for "service" but clearly and basically it means to "do something for someone", "a process, a deed, a performance or an effort" (VUSSC, 2006). Tourist guiding is a service and it has its own characteristics similar to the general characteristics of service. Kozak et al., (2014: 8-9) explained the characteristics of service. These general service characteristics can be adapted to tourist guiding as *Intangibility*, tourist guiding service cannot be seen before it is produced, tasted, felt, heard, smelled before it is purchased; *Inseparability*, a product when produced cannot be taken away from the producer. Tourist guiding services are produced near the customer. During the visit of an ancient site, information services provided by a tourist guide and the visit itself are inseparable, it is taken by the customer where it is produced. This service can not be separated from its producers, tourist guides; *Variability*, quality of tourist guide services depends on who provides them and where when and how; *Perishability* tourist guide services cannot be stored for later use.

Tourist guiding service has its own environment similar to the service marketing environment. Kozak et al., (2014: 19-20) explained service marketing environments in their book. This environment can be adapted to tourist guiding as it is seen in Table 7.

Table 7 Tourist Guides' Working Environment

Demographic Environment	Education Gender Marital Status
Economic Environment	Job Insecurity Social Security System Wage And Daily Wage Rate
Political Environment	Law of Tourist Guide Profession Inspections
Socio-Cultural Environment	Beliefs Religion Living Style Family Structure
Technologic Environment	Use Of Internet, Pc, Travel And Accommodation Firms Use Of Technology.
Natural Environment	Flora Fauna Landscape Temperature Weather Pollution
Operation Environment	Competitors (other guides in the same language) Customers Supplier or Third Party Partners Lodging Transport Companies Restaurants Shops (Carpet, Jewellery, Leather, etc.)

Öter (2007: 164) declared three conditions in a study about professionalism in the tourist guiding occupation as good knowledge of the product, improved communication skill, and ethical behavior. Apart from professionalism, tourist guides have to fulfill administrative and business roles and must act appropriately while managing and operating tours. These skills are summarized as:

Communication - Communication is a basic in guiding in order to maintain the interest of customers, give directions, explain schedules and itineraries, advise on safety and health, and interpret attractions on tours (TUREB, 2007: 24). All this information is needed for a customer to prepare themselves for the tour. For a communication process, sender (tourist guide), receiver (customer), message and channel are needed. On tours, the channel between tourist guides and customers can be verbal (comments, questions), nonverbal (body language) and media (newspapers, television, internet, magazines, maps, and brochures). The common physical barriers

in communication may include interfering background noises and malfunctioning equipment such as microphones, walkie-talkies. In these cases, the message does not reach from sender to receiver. Mental and emotional barriers for communication are stress, anger, depression or sadness during the communication process, too much or too little information, expressing personal, political, ethnic or religious views, insecurity or a lack of confidence, cultural differences, language barriers, and difficult personalities (VUSSC, 2006).

Knowledgeable - Tourist guides must have in-depth and accurate knowledge of flora, fauna, geography, location, climate, habitats, ecosystems, government structure, populations, traditions, customs, folklore, languages, architectural styles, historical events etc., particularly about ancient sites (Avcıkurt et al., 2009: 58; TUREB, 2007: 24). The tourists will understand the site as a whole via the enthusiastic presentation of a tourist guide. The passion for presentation can be inspiring and make an ancient site come alive.

Organized - Besides informing customers, tourist guides are the real operators of tours and excursions; informing customers on destination, time, and length of the tour, what to bring, and any rules or special considerations on tours. Also informing third-party partners such as transport companies, drivers, restaurants, hotels, and shops about their group, special requests of customers, time of visit, etc. are among the main duties of tourist guides. They also must be punctual and have strong timing and time management to move through the tour on time.

Ability of Crisis Management - Unexpected and unwanted situations can crop up from the beginning of the tour through till the end. Medical assistance can be needed so tourist guides have to know first aid. Hospital stays, death, lost customers, overbooked hotels and restaurants on the tour, broken vehicles (bus, boat, etc...), lost luggage or passports, changes in climate, ill customers etc.. are examples of crises which can emerge during tours. The tourist guides must be prepared and ready to know how to act and to cope with the crisis which can occur throughout the tours (TUREB, 2007: 24).

Customer Care / Satisfaction - Not unlike many other professions, tourist guides perform customer-oriented services. Tourist guides must be attentive and respectful to everyone in the group. They have to be confident that all customers in

the group are safe and comfortable. Sometimes tourist guides work under pressure and stressful conditions and cannot maintain service standards. They have to provide constant service without giving harm to their image and customer.

Language Skill - Tourist guides should speak foreign and native languages fluently and clearly with confidence.

Leadership Skill - Tourist guides manage a group of people and a certain level of authority is needed. They have to lead their customers without being condescending, snobby, or aggressive. A group that embraces the tourist guide's leadership is open to recommendations and easier to lead (Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı Eğitim Dairesi Başkanlığı Yayınları, 1983: 34).

Good sense of humor and recreational activities - Tourist guides are not comedians but friendly jokes are needed. They also have to know when to be quiet.

3.2.4. Possible Work Stressors in Tourist Guiding

Traveling to different destinations and countries, staying in luxury hotels, meeting with elegant customers from all over the world, tasting different foods, serving customers happy moments are nice pictures. But behind this glossy working atmosphere, there are some realities of tourist guiding which are like the invisible part of the iceberg under the ocean. It is useful to explain the difficulties of the tourist guiding profession to understand how stressful the job is.

In 2011, the World Federation of Tourist Guide Association evaluated tourist guiding facts, by interviewing with tourist guide associations and unions all over the world. According to the report, there were a number of identified problems regarding the tourist guidance profession. These were unlicensed guiding, foreign tour leaders/guides, late payments, low fees, shopping obligations on tours, no social security, too many guides, lack of mutual co-operation, and no efficient training (WFTGA^b, Jane Orde, 2011). Considering the data in the WFTGA's Report, obviously, the difficulties or barriers that tourist guides encounter within the working environment are similar to the problems of tourist guides in Turkey. Güzel et al. (2014: 177) investigated the work problems and barriers of the tourist guiding profession in Turkey. The followings are the results: travel agencies do not pay the

base rate and delay the payment, working under the base wage, agencies forcing guides into shopping, long and unpredictable working hours, excessive travel, negatively affected private life, irregular life, restrictions in social life, necessity of working even on special occasions, women taking fewer tours than men due to family responsibilities, physically depressing and exhausting profession, the emergence of health problems due to the physical performance, emotionally intense labor, seasonality, job insecurity resulting from seasonality, lack of continuity of tours, lack of guidance as a profession, gender discrimination.

The barriers encountered by tourist guides are published in current news sites as follows: İZRO İzmir Tourist Guides Chamber president explained that crisis situations in tourism industry left tourist guides unemployed with many of them starting work at call centers because of their fluent foreign language. Applications to renew active tourist guide licenses decreased from 765 (2016) to 350 (2017) because of loss of tourists in the tourism industry (Turizmdebusabah^a). Misinformed public by media and loss of prestige and image of the profession is another problem that tourist guides encounter. A news program on one of the national T.V. channels declared that people who speak any foreign language could be tourist guides and could work as part-time and manage tour around historical and ancient sites (Sözcü). The economic, political, national and global crisis hit tourism recently and, in addition to the crisis, the seasonal nature of tourism minimized tour opportunities for tourist guides. In fact, tourism authorities ignored the necessity of finding a way out of the crisis for tourist guides. They became the “Casper, the Friendly Ghosts” of the tourism industry. They were like they existed but were invisible (Turizmhaberleri). Also, as the nature of tours being mobile creates many risks for both tourist guides and customers, traffic accidents are yet another risk. For instance, a tour coach tumbled down and 17 people were injured including the tourist guide, driver, and tourists (Hürriyet). Unlicensed so-called tourist guides are another problem of the tourism industry. Some travel agencies pay less and decrease tourist guides’ profit or employ illegal, unlicensed so-called tourist guides. This causes job loss for the guides. Unlicensed so-called tourist guides are uneducated, unknowledgeable about the destination; cheating and harassing the tourists; giving harm to the image of the country (Turizmdebusabah^b). Another news source mentioned violence at work and

the insecure environment of tourist guides. A tourist guide was attacked at the entrance of the Ephesus ancient site with the claim that the tourists were not directed toward shopping. The tourist guide, who was beaten terribly in front of hundreds of tourists, was seriously injured (Turizmdebusabah^c). As has been demonstrated, behind the glamorous picture of the tourist guiding profession there are some difficulties and these difficulties were shown in media.

Ahipaşaoğlu (2001: 109-113) and TUREB (2007: 23) mentioned the difficulties of tourist guiding profession as:

Tourist guiding based on physical strength; a tourist guide must be healthy and sustain his/her health during the tour. Because of inadequate sleep, more activity and long working hours, they may feel stressed.

Tourist guiding is a seasonal activity; the destinations have peak season due to the climate or cultural and social events. The most challenging issue for any tourist guide is to survive at off-season. The off-season period is generally the time from November till April in Turkey and it is the dead season for both tourists and tourism employees. Tourist guides may be offered to lead some local tourists off-season in winter, but not often. They have to spend seasonal earnings to survive during the off-season and the next season they have to start from the beginning. Ababneh (2017: 208) reported that tourist guides are disturbed by the seasonality of their work because during off season they may be out of work for 4 to 8 months in some cases. In addition, because of the fragile and sensitive structure of tourism, there is always a fear or anxiety for a low or poor season. Natural disasters and political crisis directly affect tourism and tourist guiding. The attacks on the United States in September 2001, the war in Iraq in 2003, the international financial crisis in 2008, the “Arab Spring” in 2010, the eruption of Eyjafjallajökull in Iceland in 2010, Tsunami in Thailand in 2004 were all expected or unexpected events that increased cancellations (WEF, 2015) and reduced the annual working days of tourist guides.

Uninterrupted or sustainable renovation and improvement are needed for the knowledge and language; there are always improvements and renovations in social, economic, cultural, and archeological areas. While any employee follows their own specialization related to the job in other businesses, tourist guides must follow at least 24 different fields at a minimum level.

Lack of retirement opportunities; because of seasonality, tourist guides' social security fees are not paid to the state fully (annually). Therefore, they retire later than other businesses employees.

Tourist guiding's biggest dilemma is being an elite profession on one side, and on the other side being underpaid. Elite things stay behind the museum doors, ancient and historical sites, luxury hotels and cruises. The rest of their time is expected to be spent serving the needs of the customers whether hotels and restaurants are booked, finding specific shops they are looking for, accompanying ill customers, finding pills for customers, etc. And it is, in addition to their main role to interpret the sights. All these extra pleasures are due to payment for excellent service. Compared to other service businesses, tourist guides' working hours fluctuate greatly.

Another difficulty is that tourist guides have a weak sanction in front of the law. According to Ababneh (2017: 208), the great number of tourist guides (95%) are working as freelancers and they have contact with more than one travel agency or tour operator. Tourist guides declared that they make their agreement either on an oral contract or not. This shows that tourist guides without a written contract are not secure in front of the law. Another important point is that they are not paid extra based on their qualifications. Experience, training, knowledge, and performance are not factors affecting the payments from travel agencies. So this does not promote and improve the profession as there is little reason for motivation.

Çetin and Kızıllırmak (2012: 307), in a case analysis, reported that the major problem that tourist guides face with is the excessive number of tourist guides. Secondly, 3 different ways (TUREB course, Vocational school, Licence education) to obtain tourist guide license is an obstacle to creating standardization in education. Also, issues such as unclear working conditions, insurance, tax, low wages, etc. are negative sides of this profession. Unlicensed, so-called tourist guides are another problem because of inadequate controls. These professionals are away from family, manage circuit tours, deal with the seasonal nature of tourism (decreasing tours) and therefore may be subject to work stress. Cruz (1999: 2) called tourist guides the orphans of the travel industry because they are somewhat hidden within the trade. Unlike travel agents, tour operators, meeting planners and airline employers, tourist guides work independently as freelancers or part of agencies on a part-time basis.

Because of seasonality/job insecurity, there is limited work and income for tourist guides; so, few guides can make a reasonable living exclusively through guiding. This limits their income.



4. A STUDY ON TOURIST GUIDES

4.1. RESEARCH PROBLEM

In Turkey, tourism industry has been considered as one of the pioneer industries. The total number of visitors have seen an increase from 16.4 million by 2003 to 46.1 million by end of 2018 in Turkey (Ministry of Culture and Tourism). It is not easy to reach to these numbers and sustain the market share in a highly competitive atmosphere of Mediterranean countries such as Greece, Italy, Spain. Tourists in Turkey want to experience the destination and want to know the rich culture, history, and geography of the destination. Therefore tourist guides accompany to visitors and tourists to introduce richness of this magnificent country. In a country with a remarkable number of tourist arrival, many tourist guides are needed to perform tours. According to Tourist Guides Union in Turkey, the number of tourist guides reached to 10189 (TUREB^b) by end of 2017. Those, who, are Turkish Republic citizen, are at least 18 years old, have a certificate in fluency foreign language of their choice (YDS 75- Foreign Language Exam at least 75 point), graduate from tourist guiding programme at university, complete the tour of practice; are able to apply for tourist guiding licence. As it is obvious, the process to be accepted to profession is quite difficult. This process aims to prepare tourist guides to deal with various demands of tourism industry, to present the richness of the country in the best way.

As in every profession, tourist guiding has difficulties, barriers and obstacles in itself. These difficulties can be related with external or internal factors. Nature of work is not similar to others in tourism and service industry. For example, as physically, tourist guides perform their duties in open air (ancient, historical, natural sites), in various weather conditions (cold, rain, snow, heat), travel long distances, fulfill the need of their customer.

Even though tourist guides are protected by Tourist Guiding Profession Law, which regulates standards such as acceptance to profession and practicing the

profession, there are still existing problems. Opposite to other service industry employee, tourist guides deal with various difficulties as Güzel et al., (2014: 187) listed: tourist guiding is an emotionally corrosive occupation, health problems occur because of this occupation, the seasonal condensation is high, the unfavorable effect on private life, tourist guiding not being regarded as a profession by community. Yazıcıoğlu et al. (2008) in their research found a number of problems that tourist guides confront with as lack of social rights, seasonality, monetary problems, unskilled and inadequate employees in the hotels, restaurants and transportation companies, the neglected services promised by the hotels, irrelevant behaviors of the hospitality employees toward the tourist guides and tourist groups, the problems resulting from tourists whose cultural level is low, and disrupter sellers.

The difficulties of the tourist guiding profession were discussed in the previous chapter. Based on the information of the previous chapter, it can be concluded that tourist guiding's biggest difficulties and obstacles are unlicensed guidings, the seasonal nature of tourism, foreign tour leaders/guides, late payments, to be offered under base rates, low wage, no social security, too many guides, being dependent on external factors (economic, political, social, natural crisis), long and fluctuating working hours, long travel, negatively affected private life, irregular life, restriction of social life, unexpected guest behaviours, unendurable environmental conditions, antisocial working hours, repetitive work, necessity of updated information about history, geography, current issues, constantly interaction with guests, being away from home, violence at work, need for physical strength, inadequate sleep, lack of job security, lack of retirement opportunities, necessity of working even on special occasions, physically depressing and exhausting duties, emotionally intense labor, seasonality, gender discrimination.

Under these conditions mentioned above, tourist guides may feel work stress because of these reason in the working environment. Identifying the work stress sources, or in other words work stressors, is important to provide better service in terms of tourist guides. Understanding work stressors are also important in helping decrease health and work-related issues such as burnout, turnover, absenteeism and poor performance. Therefore, this research will identify which of these were perceived as work stressor in the working environment.

Knowing the sources of stress is not enough to manage work stress. Also, to manage stress, it is better to know stress coping responses, methods, and approaches which lead to the employee being more professional. There are many strategies to cope with stress. An individual adopts one of many coping strategies or combines multiple to cope with stress successfully. Problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping, named by Folkman and Lazarus (1980), are the most common headings of coping methods. Emotion-focused coping responses are effective coping strategies for unchangeable stressors (Baldacchino and Draper, 2001: 883) and aim to change personal emotional reactions. Individuals can use problem-focused coping to try to deal with the cause of the problem (Kilbourn, 2014: 75). As, Folkman and Moskowitz (2000) stated, employees who tend to choose problem-focused coping methods may obtain positive outcomes. On the other hand, employee who employs emotion-focused coping methods may not reach to positive consequences. It is not difficult to learn stress tolerance and once learned it improves health and the individual becomes more flexible when faced with the stressor (Min, 2014: 1174). Therefore employees must be aware of their coping methods to deal with stress-related emotions.

Individuals use various interventions to combat stress. The preventive interventions deal with problems at their source, secondary prevention helps employees to cope with stressors, and tertiary preventions rehabilitate employees (LaMontagne et al., 2007: 268); Organizational Level Interventions are efforts for wellbeing that decrease stressors in job characteristics (Rickard, 2012: 214) such as goal setting, increasing participation in decision making, job autonomy, work schedule autonomy, reducing psychological burnout by changing orientation practices, reducing work-family conflict, reducing the stress of employee reductions (Burke and Richardsen, 2014: 208); Individual-Level Interventions: Psychological relaxation/meditation, physiological/physical relaxation, cognitive behavioural approach (aiming to change the way an individual thinks about a stressful situation and oneself and their stress management ability) goal setting, and time management. In the literature, “coping” mainly placed at the secondary level of preventive interventions. Individual ability, successfully or unsuccessfully, to deal with stress

factors is termed coping, adjusting to stress, or stress management (Stoica and Buicu, 2010: 7).

Tourist guides in Turkey may use either problem-focused or emotion-focused coping responses or both. Identifying which coping response to use is important to reducing work stress, for their well being and their ability to deliver quality service. Because they always interact with customers in their working environment and customer witness all reactions given by tourist guides. Therefore, to choose the best response to work stress, first, work stressors must be identified then responses secondly.

In this research, the main hypotheses to be tested with work stress sources (WSS), work stress coping methods (WSCM) and individual differences and work characteristics are listed below:

H₁: In tourist guides, WSS have an impact on WSCM.

H₂: In tourist guides, WSS show a significant difference in terms of individual differences and work characteristics.

H₃: In tourist guides, WSCM show a significant difference in terms of individual differences and work characteristics.

4.2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The research objective is to identify the work stress sources and coping methods of active tourist guides in Turkey.

Specifically, the research aimed to obtain following objectives;

1. To identify tourist guides WSS and WSCM in working environment,
2. To discover if individual differences have impact on the perception of WSS and choice of WSCM,
3. To discover if there is a relationship between individual differences, work characteristics and perception of WSS and choice of WSCM.

4.3. RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

Identifying the work stress sources, or in other words, work stressors in tourist guides and their reactions to work stress is important for tourist guides well being. Understanding work stressors and using the right approach to cope with the stressor is important in helping reduce issues such as burnout, turnover, absenteeism, and poor service quality. Work stress studies in the literature mainly related to service industry employees such as nurses, police, and bank employees. But the literature has neglected the study of tourist guides' own work stress. Therefore this research will be a snapshot of the current situation for tourist guides, which is not done before. In addition, tourism research on tourist guides examined mainly tourist experiences and satisfaction. This research was done to fill the gaps in tourism literature by examining the active tourist guides of Turkey.

Another significant aspect of the research is the questionnaire. The existing questionnaires, which evaluate work stress, were not suitable for the purpose of research. Therefore, in this research, a comprehensive questionnaire, which considers the specific dynamics of the tourist guiding profession, was designed to assess the work stress sources of tourist guides and presented to researchers for future studies.

4.4. METHOD

Quantitative research method is used in this study.

Research Model

Descriptive survey model was used in this research. This model was used to describe tourist guides perception on WSS and WSCM in their working environment. Moreover, this model is used to determine the relationship between these variables, to determine the differences in terms of descriptive characteristics. Karasar (2009) defined surveying models as models which revealed the current situation.

Research Instruments

The data collection tool used in this research is a questionnaire. Collecting data through questionnaire creates an advantage in terms of collecting numerical data for

tourist guides suffering from work stress. There has been a diversity of methods used by researchers to investigate work stress. In work stress related literature, traditionally, the “Ways of Coping Check List” was used to collect data. The “Ways of Coping Check List” developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) was one of the most popular instruments for assessing coping with stress. It has been used for the study of various populations such as community samples (Aldwin and Revenson, 1987) and patients with medical conditions (Bombardier et al. 1990; Crumlish, 1994). It was also adapted to study the coping strategies of different occupational groups, e.g., managers (McDonald and Korabik, 1991), police officers (Evans et al. 1993), criminal justice employee (Wright, 1990), and nurses (Nakano, 1991) (Kam Weng et al., 2006:43) but very limited with tourism employees. Although tourist guides were expected to perceive high degrees of stress, work stress sources of tourist guides have not been analyzed empirically by this scale.

The work stress and coping questionnaires designed for any proficiency and service employee such as officers, nurses, police, teachers etc. were not suitable to examine the work stress sources and coping methods of tourist guides. As the result, the “Ways of Coping Scale” was not suitable either. Therefore, a questionnaire was developed that takes into account the dynamics of tourist guiding. Work stress and tourism research conducted by Akova and Işık (2008), Alptekin (2005), Aydın (2004), Özcan et al. (2010) and Saldamlı (2000), were investigated. Based on the hypothesis and scales used in these research studies, a questionnaire began to take form step by step. Most of the items in the questionnaire were patched together and compiled at the end of a deep review of the literature. Authorities (academicians, tourist guide chamber presidents) on tourist guidance were asked their opinions of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was checked by a group of academicians, tourist guides, and tourist guide chamber presidents, and the relevance of the items were confirmed. Additional work stress sources were determined in these interviews and were added to the questionnaire. In addition, 50 tourist guides were asked to complete the questionnaire in a pilot test to correct unclear statements before it was finished.

Finally, the questionnaire was named “Tourist Guiding Work Stress Questionnaire” (TGWSQ). The final version of TGWSQ consisted of three sections.

The first section was named “Work Stress Sources” (WSS). Stressful events or situations were described which tourist guides may encounter within their working environment. For 35 items in this part it was asked to participants to rate the items they perceived stressful on a 5-point Likert scale from "1=never put stress on me", “2=rarely put stress on me”, “3=occasionally put stress on me ", “4=frequently put stress on me”, “5=always put stress on me”. In the second section, the work stress coping methods used by participants under stress were examined. This section, named “Work Stress Coping Methods” (WSCM) consisted of 17 items. The participants were asked to rate their coping strategies on a 5-point Likert scale from "1=never do it", “2=rarely do it”, “3=occasionally do it", “4=frequently do it”, “5=always do it”. Finally, in the third section socio-demographic questions such as gender, marital status, age, education, and income were asked via close-ended questions. In addition, work related questions on licence type (national, regional), professional experience in years, foreign language knowledge, how they work (freelance, travel agency), managed tour type (day trip / sejour, circuit Anatolia, outgoing, other), professional field (culture, religion, trekking, other), and registered chamber (İRO, İZRO, ANRO, etc.) were asked. Socio-demographic and work-related questions were used as independent variables with the items under the work stress sources and coping responses used as dependent variables.

Population - Sample

In this research, for the participant group, national and regional active tourist guides in Turkey were focused on. Based on the information provided by TUREB^b, the number of active “eylemli” tourist guides is 6504, and inactive “eylemsiz” is 3685 and totally 10189. Therefore, the research population covers 6504 active tourist guides. A simple random sample was used for the participants as the population is homogeneous, with each individual having the same probability of being selected. At the end of October 2017, 395 questionnaires were collected. They were all usable data and filled completely as the digital form was designed to have participants fill in all questions. Otherwise, participants were not allowed to submit the answers digitally.

Participants were performing work mainly in the open air and spent much of their time to manage tour. Because of their mobility, it was difficult to distribute

questionnaires and request them to fill it up face to face. As solution an online questionnaire form was prepared and published by Google Forms (<https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSckE50XjSfqpMAhuVCQkUwiBvU1-klXDnYuD9dOZS0EfqYUrA/viewform?c=0&w=1>). This form was adapted to smart mobile phones and tablets for the participant to fill out easily while managing tour.

Contacting tourist guides was provided by e-mail and social media accounts and collecting data was done via TUREB and Tourist Guides Chambers. The researcher contacted the president of TUREB to explain the aim of the study and obtain permission for data collection by email. It was kindly requested from TUREB and chambers to send the questionnaire link to the members by e-mail and to release the link on their social media account in September 2017. In October 2017, a reminder e-mail was sent to members to fill out the form if they had not.

Population and Sample

The population of the research was active, national and regional tourist guides throughout Turkey. It is known that the number of tourist guides in Turkey was 10189 (TUREB^b) by end of 2017. The sample size was calculated by Salant and Dillman's formula (1994: 55) (Figure 6).

Figure 6 Formula for Sample Size

$$n = N t^2 pq / d^2 (N-1) + t^2 pq$$

N: population size

n: sample size

p: estimated proportion

q: 1-p

t: significance level according to table

d: desired absolute precision

Reference: (Salant and Dillman, 1994: 55).

As the result it was reached to, which is not homogeneous, the required sample size was calculated with a 95% confidence interval, $\pm 5\%$ sampling error, $n = 6504$
 $(1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5) / (0.5)^2 (6504-1) + (1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5) = 363$, for the sample size.

According to the calculation, with 395 participants, the expected participant number (363) was reached in the survey. The number of sample in this research was able to represent the population.

Statistical Analysis

The data were collected and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS/version 20) software. The frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, arithmetic means, and chi-squared tests were used for categorized parameters, whereas a numerical data *t-test* was used to compare means of data between two independent groups. The “*One way ANOVA*” test was used to compare means of data between more than two independent groups. After ANOVA test the Scheffe test was used as a complementary Post-Hoc analysis to indicate differences. Pearson correlation and regression analysis were applied to the continuous variables in the study. The findings were evaluated at the 95% reliability interval and at the 5% significance level.

The scores of the scale dimensions were evaluated between 1 and 5. In order to calculate the distribution range, *The distribution range = Maximum value - Minimum value / Number of degrees* formula was used. This range was 4 points wide. This width, which was divided into five equal widths ranging from 1.00 to 1.79 "very low", between 1.80 and 2.59 "low", between 2.60 and 3.39 "medium", between 3.40 and 4.19 “high”, and between 4.20 and 5.00 “very high”, were determined as limit values and the findings were interpreted (Sümbüloğlu, 1993: 9).

4.5. FINDINGS

4.5.1. Descriptive Data

The participants' data, related to individual differences and work characteristics, is given in Table 8.

Table 8 Distribution of Individual Differences and Work Characteristics of Tourist Guides

	Groups	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	143	36.2
	Male	252	63.8
	Total	395	100.0
Marital Status	Married	227	57.5
	Non	168	42.5
	Total	395	100.0
Age	35 And Less	135	34.2
	36-45	145	36.7
	46-55	71	18.0
	56 And Over	44	11.1
	Total	395	100.0
Education Level	High School	30	7.6
	Associate Degree	57	14.4
	Bachelor's Degree	231	58.5
	Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	19.5
	Total	395	100.0
Income (Monthly)	1500TL And Less	40	10.1
	1501-3500TL	155	39.2
	3501-5000TL	138	34.9
	5001TL And More	62	15.7
	Total	395	100.0
Licence Type	National	376	95.2
	Regional	19	4.8
	Total	395	100.0
Foreign Language	English	205	51.9
	German	28	7.1
	French	34	8.6
	Two Languages	65	16.5
	Three or More Languages	63	15.9
	Total	395	100.0
Professional Experience (Years)	1-5	41	10.4
	6-10	95	24.1
	11-15	103	26.1
	16 And Over	156	39.5
	Total	395	100.0

Working Type	Travel Agency	70	17.7
	Freelance	325	82.3
	Total	395	100.0
Managed Tour Type	Day Trip/Sejour	153	38.7
	Circuit Anatolia Tours (5 Days And More)	105	26.6
	Outgoing Tours	21	5.3
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	18.5
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	3.8
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	7.1
	Total	395	100.0
Professional Field	Cultural	257	65.1
	Religious	7	1.8
	Cultural + Religious	115	29.1
	Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	4.1
	Total	395	100.0
Registered To Chamber...	ANRO	49	12.4
	ARO	35	8.9
	ATRO	26	6.6
	ÇARO	8	2.0
	İRO	141	35.7
	İZRO	78	19.7
	MURO	42	10.6
	Others	16	4.1
	Total	395	100.0

According to gender variables, 143 (36.2%) of the participants were female and 252 (63.8%) were male. In the marital status variable, 227 (57.5%) were married and 168 (42.5%) were not married. Under the age variable, 135 participants (34.2%) were 35 years old and under, 145 participants (36.7%) were between 36-45, 71 (18 %) participants were between 46-55, 44 participants (11%) were 56 and over. According to the education level variable, 30 (7.6%) participants had high school diplomas. They are likely the senior guides as decades ago, high school graduation and courses were enough to get a license. In addition, 57 (14.4%) associate degrees, 231 (58.5%) bachelor's degrees and 77 (19.5%) master's and doctoral degrees had been obtained. According to the monthly income variable, 40 (10.1%) participants were earning 1500TL and less, 155 (39.2%) between 1501-3500 TL, 138 (34.9%) between 3501-5000 TL, and 62 (15.7%) earning 5001TL and more. In terms of the license-type variable, 376 (95.2%) were national tourist guides and 19 (4.8%) were regional tourist guides. Regarding the foreign languages spoken among the participants, 205 (51.9%) spoke English, 28 (7.1%) German, and 34 (8.6%)

French; 65 (16.5%) spoke two languages, and 63 (15.9%) spoke three or more languages. The professional experience in years variable revealed 41 (10.4%) had worked as tourist guides for 1-5 years, 95 (24.1%) for 6-10, 103 (26.1%) for 11-15, and 156 (39.5%) for 16 years or more. Related to working style, 70 (17.7%) of the tourist guides were salaried employees at travel agencies and 325 (82.3%) were freelance tourist guides. In reference to tour types, 153 (38.7%) tourist guides managed day trips / sejour, 105 (26.6%) managed Circuit Anatolia tours, 21 (5.3%) outgoing tours, 73 (18.5%) day trip/sejour and circuit Anatolia tours together, 15 (3.8%) Circuit Anatolia and outgoing, and 28 (7.1%) managed Circuit Anatolia and outgoing tours together. The range of professional fields included 257 (65.1%) tourist guides managing cultural tours, 7 (1.8%) religious, 115 cultural and religious (29.1%) and 16 managing culture, religious and trekking tours. Regarding membership in registered chambers, 49 (12.4%) tourist guides were registered to ANRO, 35 (8.9%) ARO, 26 (6.6%) ATRO, 8 (2.0%) ÇARO, 141 (% 35.7) İRO, 78 (19.7%) İZRO, 42 (10.6%) MURO, and 16 (4.1%) tourist guides were registered to other chambers.

4.5.2. Validity And Reliability Analysis Of Tourist Guide Work Stress Scale

Exploratory factor analysis was applied to reveal the validity of the WSS scale. The result of the Barlett test ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$) showed a correlation between the variables in the factor analysis. As a result of the test ($KMO = 0.779 > 0.60$), the sample size was found to be sufficient for factor analysis. In the factor analysis, the varimax method was chosen to maintain the structure of the relationship between the factors. As a result of the factor analysis, the total explanatory variance of the variables was collected under 6 factors percentage of 58.746%. Items numbered 2, 5, 10, 14, 20, 22, 31 on the scale were removed because they negatively affected internal consistency. The overall reliability of the scale was found to be very high at $\alpha = 0.894$. The scale on tourist guides' WSS was found to be both valid and reliable based on the reliability of alpha and the variance explained. The factor structure of the scale is shown in Table 9. Factor scores were obtained by dividing the values by the number of items (arithmetic mean) after adding the item values in

the factor. Scores in the scale and dimensions ranged from 1 to 5. An increase in score on the scale indicated that the intensity of work stress sources increased.

Table 9 Factor Structure Of WSS Scale

Dimension	Item	Faktor Load	Explained Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Work's Nature Strains (Eigenvalues= 7.743)	Difficult or Complex Task	0.731	11.805	0.875
	Workload	0.691		
	Poor Working Conditions	0.607		
	Customer Demands	0.607		
	Lack of Control	0.603		
Legal and Organizational Strains (Eigenvalues= 2.589)	Low Base Remuneration/Salary	0.733	11.406	0.811
	Unlicensed Tourist Guides	0.730		
	Lack of Participation in Decision Making	0.725		
	Excessive Control	0.585		
Operational Strains (Eigenvalues= 2.158)	Unfair Treatment by Travel Agency	0.742	10.434	0.802
	Late Payment	0.652		
	Time Pressure	0.613		
	Transportation Problems	0.611		
	Health Risks at Tour	0.511		
	Accident Risks at Tour	0.501		
	Customer Health Problem	0.435		
Psychological and Social Strains (Eigenvalues= 1.955)	Work-Social Life Balance	0.829	9.673	0.783
	Work-Family Balance	0.787		
	Lack Of Career Development Opportunities	0.632		
	Long Work Hours	0.558		
	Emotional Exhaustion	0.507		
Sectoral Strains (Eigenvalues= 1.677)	Third Party Partners Problem	0.680	7.989	0.802
	Customer Dissatisfaction	0.542		
	Seasonality (Job Insecurity)	0.535		
	Personality	0.483		
Occupational Strains (Eigenvalues= 1.503)	Feeling undervalued	0.781	7.439	0.790
	Lack of Professional Knowledge	0.686		
	Competitors	0.455		
Total Variance %58.746				

4.5.3. Validity and Reliability Analysis Of Work Stress Coping Method Scale

Exploratory factor analysis was applied to reveal the validity of the stress coping methods scale. The result of the Barlett test ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$) showed a correlation between the variables of the factor analysis. It was determined that the

sample size was sufficient to perform factor analysis in the result of the test ($KMO = 0.734 > 0.60$). In the factor analysis, the varimax method was chosen so that the structure of the relationship between the factors remained the same. As a result of the factor analysis, the total variance of the variables was lowered by 4 factors, which made up 59.235%. Items numbered as 13 and 15 on the scale were removed because they negatively affected internal consistency. The overall reliability of the scale was found to be high, $\alpha = 0.765$. Based on the reliability of α and the reported variance, the WSCM scale was found to be a valid and reliable tool.

Table 10 Factor Structure Of WSCM Scale

Dimension	Item	Factor Load	Explained Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Anger Control (Eigenvalues =3.648)	Quit The Job	0.745	17.123	0.780
	Blame Someone	0.662		
	Think About Stressor Often	0.658		
	Act Out Anger	0.652		
	Sleep	0.627		
Physically Relaxing (Eigenvalues =2.359)	Participate In Recreational Activities (Music, Concerts, Cinema, Theater, Etc.)	0.770	14.379	0.712
	Self-Relaxation	0.764		
	Physical Exercise	0.722		
Psychologically Relaxing (Eigenvalues =1.697)	Wishful Thinking	0.754	13.935	0.706
	Work More	0.686		
	Meditation	0.542		
	Praying	0.523		
Solution-Focused Behaviour (Eigenvalues =1.182)	Focus On The Solution	0.843	13.798	0.731
	Believe That Best Is Done	0.810		
	Facing The Stressor And Seeking Solutions	0.664		
Total Variance %59.235				

The factor structure of the scale is shown in Table 10. Factor scores were obtained by dividing the values by the total item number (arithmetic mean) after adding the item values in the factor. Scores and dimensions on the scale ranged from 1 to 5. The increase in score on the scale indicated that the intensity of stress coping behavior was higher.

Work stress coping methods, strategies, and approaches were evaluated in various dimensions. In this study, both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping

methods have been taken into account. Problem-focused coping is the effort to manage or modify the source of work stress, while emotion-focused coping refers to feelings related to unalterable stressors or situations such as anxiety, anger, and sadness. In light of this explanation, among the factors on the WSCM scale, solution-focused behavior is viewed as problem-focused and physical and psychological relaxation, and, along with anger control, can count as emotion-focused coping methods. Although there is a certain difference between coping methods, tourist guides may choose not only one coping method but multiple methods in a stressful working environment.

4.5.4. Descriptive Statistics on WSS and WSCM

The distributions and ranking of the answers given by the tourist guides to perceived work stress are shown in Table 11. Participants admitted that the most important stress factor was low base salary/pay offers. The most important work stressor in ranking is low base remuneration/salary rate. It is clear from the Tourist Guiding Profession Law (Law No:6326), that the base remuneration rate of the tourist guides is determined by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, taking into consideration the opinions of TUREB and of TURSAB. According to the Tourist Guiding Profession Law, it is illegal for travel agencies to offer payments below the base rate and it is also illegal for tourist guides to accept these offers. Such problems are frequently encountered due to the large supply of tourist guides in some regions. Therefore, travel agencies offer tourist guides rates lower than the official base rate to increase their profitability. Unwillingly, tourist guides accept these lower offers because of the competition they face in job hunting. Although tourist guides are obliged to sign a contract with the tour agency before the tour, in which the base remuneration is written, the agencies make payments under the contractual amounts to reduce the tour costs. Despite contracts where the base rate is written, tourist guides accept low base remuneration/salary and leave their colleagues and the profession in a difficult position.

Table 11 Distribution of Responses for WSS Scale

	Never Put Stress On Me		Rarely Put Stress On Me		Occasionally Put Stress On Me		Frequently Put Stress On Me		Always Put Stress On Me			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	Std
Low base remuneration/salary	18	4.6	29	7.3	54	13.7	103	26.1	191	48.4	4.060	1.150
Unlicensed Tourist Guides	39	9.9	45	11.4	50	12.7	75	19.0	186	47.1	3.820	1.384
Job Insecurity/Seasonality	25	6.3	28	7.1	98	24.8	118	9.9	126	31.9	3.740	1.164
Late Payment	26	6.6	62	15.7	115	29.1	95	24.1	97	24.6	3.440	1.204
Unfair Treatment by Travel Agency	13	3.3	82	20.8	105	26.6	111	28.1	84	21.3	3.430	1.134
Third Party Partners Problem	4	1.0	62	15.7	166	42.0	126	31.9	37	9.4	3.330	0.886
Excessive Control	32	8.1	90	22.8	94	23.8	73	18.5	106	26.8	3.330	1.306
Long Work Hours	54	13.7	65	16.5	84	21.3	81	20.5	111	28.1	3.330	1.392
Workload	49	12.4	62	15.7	123	31.1	55	13.9	106	26.8	3.270	1.341
Work-Social Life Balance	39	9.9	69	17.5	127	32.2	80	20.3	80	20.3	3.240	1.237
Emotional Exhaustion	57	14.4	80	20.3	63	15.9	118	29.9	77	19.5	3.200	1.351
Lack of Participation in Decision Making	29	7.3	109	27.6	120	30.4	61	15.4	76	19.2	3.120	1.218
Transportation Problems	11	2.8	100	25.3	177	44.8	53	13.4	54	13.7	3.100	1.019
Feeling of Undervalued	95	24.1	49	12.4	71	18.0	80	20.3	100	25.3	3.100	1.515
Accident Risks at Tour	31	7.8	120	30.4	109	27.6	53	13.4	82	20.8	3.090	1.256
Customer Dissatisfaction	35	8.9	105	26.6	122	30.9	74	18.7	59	14.9	3.040	1.186
Health Risks at Tour	23	5.8	103	26.1	155	39.2	66	16.7	48	12.2	3.030	1.072
Customer Health Problem	19	4.8	97	24.6	197	49.9	38	9.6	44	11.1	2.980	0.991
Competitive Atmosphere	73	18.5	55	13.9	144	36.5	62	15.7	61	15.4	2.960	1.287
Lack Of Career Development Opportunities	83	21.0	84	21.3	91	23.0	56	14.2	81	20.5	2.920	1.419
Time Pressure	30	7.6	126	31.9	138	34.9	49	12.4	52	13.2	2.920	1.127
Customer Demands	46	11.6	128	32.4	134	33.9	49	12.4	38	9.6	2.760	1.115
Work-Family Balance	79	20.0	97	24.6	111	28.1	67	17.0	41	10.4	2.730	1.250
Difficult or Complex Task	106	26.8	123	31.1	84	21.3	37	9.4	45	11.4	2.470	1.289
Lack of Professional Knowledge	172	43.5	84	21.3	67	17.0	32	8.1	40	10.1	2.200	1.344
Personality	145	36.7	96	24.3	113	28.6	27	6.8	14	3.5	2.160	1.106

Included in this factor, unlicensed tourist guides were perceived as a work stress factor. This is a very common problem in worldwide, as it was put forward in the WFTGA^b's (2011) report. In Turkey, there is a penalty for unlicensed tourist guiding activities. Nevertheless, tourist guides still perceived unlicensed tourist guiding as a work stressor because there are many so-called guides at popular destinations. Tourist destinations are spread over a very wide area in Turkey. In

terms of legal authority, it appears difficult to combat such guides but it is not impossible.

Before being qualified as a professional and obtaining a license, tourist guide candidates must invest serious effort and time. Unlicensed tourist guides disregard at least 2 to 4 years of official education, a 75 point YDS (foreign language exam), and approximately 40 days of standardized tour practice. Those, who qualify as tourist guides complete such difficult conditions and have to compete with unofficial tourist guides because of insufficient controls at destinations and insufficient sanctions for unlicensed guiding. Although the Tourist Guiding Profession Law has gone into effect and controls have become more widespread, many tourist guides still regarded unlicensed tourist guides as the most important work stressor. For them, these unofficial guides devalue the time tourist guides spend on education, steal their tours and hence their profits, and destroy the professions prestige.

One of the handicaps in Turkey's tourism industry is seasonality and job insecurity. The research findings demonstrate this. In the past, tourism investments were scheduled for summer activities. June, July and August are the busiest time of the year. Then, overloaded facilities in summer turn into idle facilities in winter. Dozens of tourist facilities lie idle and thousands of tourism employees go unemployed during the winter. Because of seasonal unemployment, livelihood and family responsibilities may become harder for tourist guides. This situation is often exacerbated by late payment. Tourist guides have to perform their tours under the name of a travel agency. Travel agencies, shortly before the tour starts, charge the customer. Guides collecting the fee in advance provides assurance before performing the tour. On the other hand, some travel agencies delay the payments for tour guides for various reasons.

Stress is unavoidable in a working environment where there is an unfair attitude on the part of the employer. Unfortunately, travel agencies ignore this for higher profits. Tourist guides who have better marketing and selling skills (carpet, jewelry, gem, textile, etc.) get better tours and better tours are managed by shopping focused tourist guides. This is a cycle. In this sense, in return for working more enthusiastically, it is understandable for tourist guides to expect fair treatment from the agency in tour distribution.

Tours are not only between tourist guide and customer. Tourist guides are responsible for tour management from the beginning of the tour until the end. The success of a tour is not only related to tourist guides but also related to third party partners such as vehicle drivers and agencies, refreshment facilities, hotels, restaurants, and their employee and their physical situation. In a very short period of time, while tour guides are informing, taking care of and pleasing the customers, one fault in a third party partner can ruin everything. Check in problems at the hotel, a rude or careless driver, or the clumsy waiter may ruin a tour.

Tour guiding is an occupation with a high level of long, unpredictable work hours. Traveling from one point to another may take a long time. Compact tour programs may run long and overwork tourist guides. Therefore, workload and long, unpredictable work hours perceived as work stress naturally lead to exhaustion both physically and mentally. Transportation problems which disrupt the tour flow or traffic accident risks may lead to mental tension; being ill or having an ill customer on a tour can disrupt the harmony of the tour.

The term “competitor” means other tour guides in the same workplace or language group (e.g. two Japanese speaking tourist guides). Tourist guides in the same circle because of similar qualifications are competitors for each other. If there is a tour and there is more than one tourist guide candidate to manage the tour, the battle begins to obtain the desired tour. Career development opportunities are very limited in this profession. Tourist guides can be specialists in some areas such as overseas tours, regional tours, trekking tours, religious tours, history of art, and different languages. They may improve themselves and contribute to their work life with knowledge. But this development exists horizontally as there is no top title for this profession, eliminating long-term goal setting.

Customer demands refer to the specific requirements of customers on tour, and it was listed as a work stressor for tourist guides. At the end of the tour, customers want to be satisfied with a tour guide’s service and want to feel appreciated. Therefore, while fulfilling customer needs seems simple at times, tourist guides cannot always deliver on demands. In turn, customers may simply end up not satisfied with what they’ve paid for. Another issue is work-family balance. It is not easy balancing work and family due to workload, unpredictable work hours and

circuit tours. Overwhelmed with work, missing out on family, and not being able to be there for the family may cause weak family relations. Finally, owing to professionalism, tourist guides perceived difficult or complex tasks, lack of professional knowledge, and personality expression as the lowest in the ranking.

Table 12 Distribution of Responses for WSCM Scale

	Never Do		Rarely Do		Occasionally Do		Frequently Do		Always Do			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Mean	St
Focus On The Solution	0	0.0	18	4.6	47	11.9	140	35.4	190	48.1	4.270	0.843
Believe That Best Is Done	13	3.3	22	5.6	64	16.2	110	27.8	186	47.1	4.100	1.070
Facing The Stressor And Seeking Solutions	20	5.1	26	6.6	130	32.9	123	31.1	96	24.3	3.630	1.076
Work More	36	9.1	40	10.1	92	23.3	122	30.9	105	26.6	3.560	1.238
Wishful Thinking	32	8.1	75	19.0	111	28.1	113	28.6	64	16.2	3.260	1.177
Self-Relaxation	22	5.6	84	21.3	100	25.3	153	38.7	36	9.1	3.250	1.063
Participate In Recreational Activities (Music, Concerts, Cinema, Theater, Etc.)	9	2.3	107	27.1	158	40.0	87	22.0	34	8.6	3.080	0.961
Think About Stressor Often	45	11.4	117	29.6	111	28.1	86	21.8	36	9.1	2.880	1.150
Physical Exercise	48	12.2	112	28.4	130	32.9	86	21.8	19	4.8	2.790	1.066
Praying	122	30.9	76	19.2	84	21.3	78	19.7	35	8.9	2.560	1.340
Sleep	101	25.6	97	24.6	135	34.2	31	7.8	31	7.8	2.480	1.180
Quit The Job	141	35.7	103	26.1	103	26.1	34	8.6	14	3.5	2.180	1.118
Act Out Anger	124	31.4	158	40.0	77	19.5	36	9.1	0	0.0	2.060	0.934
Meditation	191	48.4	74	18.7	78	19.7	24	6.1	28	7.1	2.050	1.250
Blame Someone	148	37.5	12	3.0	86	21.8	30	7.6	2	0.5	2.010	0.972

The answers given by the participant tourist guides to the work stress coping strategies are examined (Table 12). The first four coping methods ranked were the focus on the solution, belief that the best was done, facing the stressor and seeking solutions, and work more. Tourist guides tended to employ problem-focused coping, rather than emotion-focused coping. Tourist guides in their work environment try to eliminate the cause instead of focusing on stress itself. There is no space for emotions in professionalism. In fact, this is the expected result because while tour managing if there is a perceived stressor, it is best to find a rational solution in the short term.

Emotion-focused reactions focus on regulating negative emotional reactions to the stressor. A few tourist guides tried to control feeling, instead of taking actions. The methods they use are wishful thinking, self-relaxation, participation in recreational activities (music, concerts, cinema, theater, etc.), thinking about stressor often, physical exercise, praying, sleep.

Table 13 Mean Scores For Dimensions of WSS and WSCM Scales

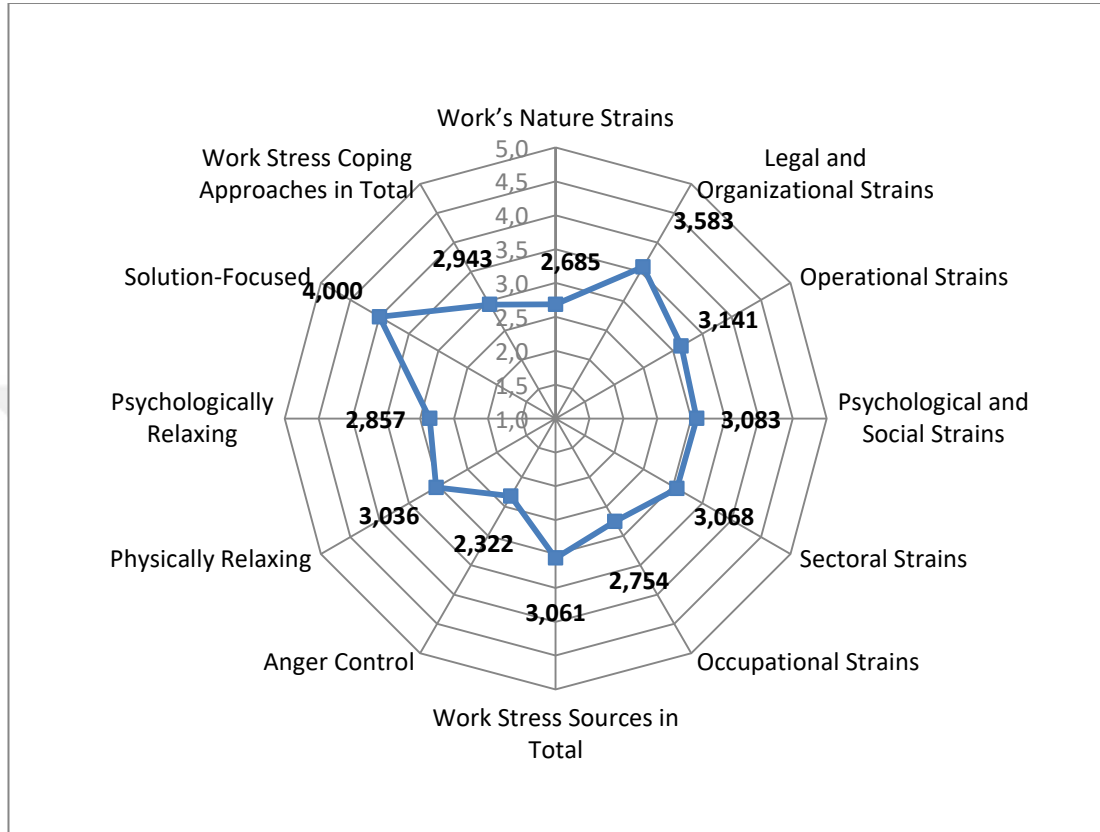
WSS	N	Mean	Std	Min.	Max.
Legal and Organizational Strains	395	3.583	0.961	1.250	5.000
Operational Strains	395	3.141	0.756	1.430	5.000
Psychological and Social Strains	395	3.083	0.974	1.000	5.000
Sectoral Strains	395	3.068	0.737	1.250	4.750
Occupational Strains	395	2.754	1.027	1.000	5.000
Work's Nature Strains	395	2.685	0.924	1.000	4.800
WSS in Total	395	3.061	0.610	1.640	4.640
WSCM	N	Mean	Std	Min.	Max.
Solution-Focused Behaviour	395	4,000	0,808	1,330	5,000
Physically Relaxing	395	3,036	0,821	1,000	5,000
Psychologically Relaxing	395	2,857	0,866	1,000	4,750
Anger Control	395	2,322	0,735	1,000	4,600
WSCM in Total	395	2,943	0,533	1,600	4,130

According to the answers given by tourist guides who participated in the survey, the ranking for factor dimension mean scores for WSS was legal and organizational strains, operational strains, psychological and social strains, sectoral strains, occupational strains, and work's nature strains at the bottom. It is obvious that the majority of tourist guides were annoyed with having to face legal and organizational stressors in their working environments. Legal regulations and their implementation are their priorities. Besides this, it is surprising that work's nature (workload, difficult tasks, poor working conditions, customer demands, lack of control) was perceived as stressor at the end of the list (Table 13, Figure 7).

In terms of WSCM, factor dimension mean scores were determined for Solution-Focused Behaviour at a high level (4.000 ± 0.808); Physically Relaxing at a medium level (3.036 ± 0.821); Psychologically Relaxing at a medium level (2.857 ± 0.866); and Anger Control at a weak level (2.322 ± 0.735). In their working environment, they take action to solve the problems. Because of the content of the work they have to be in a rush and find rational solutions when faced with stressors.

But they react or choose emotional actions that they cannot prevent biologically. It should not be forgotten that this situation comes from the nature of mankind.

Figure 7 A Diagram of Mean Scores for WSS and WSCM Dimensions



4.5.5. The Impact of WSS on WSCM

In this section, regression analysis was used to determine the cause and effect relationship between work stress source and work stress coping methods. Relations were characterized as follows according to the value of the correlation coefficient (r). When it is between 0.90 and 1 it is very strong; 0.70 and 0.89 strong; 0.50 to 0.69 medium; 0.30 and 0.49 weak; 0.00 and 0.29 very weak.

The results of the regression analysis were used to determine the cause and effect relationship between work stress sources and work stress coping methods. In other words, it was tested if work stress sources effect employed coping approaches, and it was found to be statistically significant ($F=73.538$; $p=0.000<0.05$). But as the determinant, the variable WSS (total) was found to be in a weak relationship (explanatory power) ($R^2=0.155$) with the variable WSCM (total). In fact, the impact

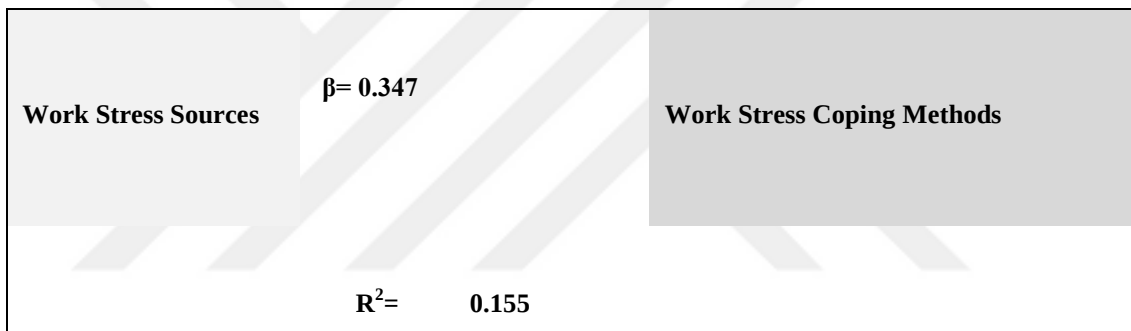
of work stress sources on coping is weak, which stressor impacted which coping must be examined. (Table 14, Figure 8).

H₁: In tourist guides, WSS have an impact on WSCM (Accepted).

Table 14 Impact of WSS on WSCM

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R ²
WSCM (Total)	Constant	1.881	14.898	0.000	73.538	0.000	0.155
	WSS (Total)	0.347	8.575	0.000			

Figure 8 Output Model for the Impact of WSS On WSCM



In Table 15, regression analysis was conducted to determine the cause and effect relationship between WSS dimensions and WSCM dimensions. As the determinant, WSS dimensions were found to be in a weak relationship (explanatory power) ($R^2=0.388$) with the variable Anger Control. Work's nature and psychological and social strains have an impact on Anger Control (Figure 9). When tourist guides face a difficult task, workload, poor work conditions, customer demands, unbalanced work-social-family life, and lack of career development, they tend to quit the job, blame someone, or act out in anger. They emotionally react to unchangeable situations.

WSS dimensions were found to be in a very weak relationship (explanatory power) ($R^2=0.063$) with the variable Physically Relaxing. Occupational strains and sectoral strains have an impact on physically relaxing (Figure 10). When they feel undervalued, face a competitive atmosphere, or realize lack of professional

knowledge, they employ physical exercise, self-relaxation, and participation in recreational activities for coping.

WSS dimensions were found to be in a weak relationship (explanatory power) ($R^2=0.271$) with the variable Psychologically Relaxing. Work's nature strains and legal and organizational strains have an impact on psychologically relaxing (Figure 11). In their working environment, because the nature of the work is difficult, workload, poor working condition, and customer demands, tourist guides employed wishful thinking, working more, meditation, and praying to cope with it. They react the same for low base salary, unofficial guides, lack of participation in decision making, and excessive control by the organization. In addition, tourist guides tend to employ solution-focused behavior for legal and organizational strains.

WSS dimensions were found to be in a very weak relationship (explanatory power) ($R^2=0.148$) with the variable Solution Focused Behaviour. Legal and organizational strains and operational strains have an impact on solution-focused behavior (Figure 12). In case of unfair treatment by the travel agency, late payment, time pressure, transportation problems, health and accident risk their respond tend to be focus on the solution, believe that best is done, facing the stressor and seeking solution. As it is seen clearly on the results tourist guides acted as many employees do. A single method of coping will be insufficient. For problems that could be resolved and changed, they tended to respond in a positive way and solve the problem.

Table 15 Impact of WSS Dimensions on WSCM

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R²
Anger Control	Constant	0.980	6.138	0.000	42.612	0.000	0.388
	Work's Nature Strains	0.384	9.631	0.000			
	Legal and Organizational Strains	0.070	1.877	0.061			
	Operational Strains	0.049	1.020	0.308			
	Psychological and Social Strains	0.168	4.525	0.000			
	Sectoral Strains	-0.092	-2.004	0.458			
	Occupational Strains	-0.119	-3.712	0.235			
Physical Relaxing	Constant	3.009	13.644	0.000	5.436	0.000	0.063
	Work's Nature Strains	-0.133	-2.407	0.165			
	Legal and Organizational Strains	0.084	1.619	0.106			
	Operational Strains	0.116	1.753	0.080			
	Psychological and Social Strains	0.075	1.473	0.142			
	Sectoral Strains	-0.256	-4.008	0.000			
	Occupational Strains	0.098	2.220	0.027			
Psychologically Relaxing	Constant	1.485	7.241	0.000	25.422	0.000	0.271
	Work's Nature Strains	0.239	4.653	0.000			
	Legal and Organizational Strains	0.379	7.904	0.000			
	Operational Strains	0.014	0.225	0.822			
	Psychological and Social Strains	-0.056	-1.167	0.244			
	Sectoral Strains	-0.120	-2.020	0.440			
	Occupational Strains	-0.048	-1.168	0.243			
Solution Focused Behaviour	Constant	3.630	17.546	0.000	12.443	0.000	0.148
	Work's Nature Strains	-0.105	-2.039	0.421			
	Legal and Organizational Strains	0.305	6.303	0.000			
	Operational Strains	0.191	3.057	0.002			
	Psychological and Social Strains	-0.034	-0.711	0.478			
	Sectoral Strains	-0.106	-1.766	0.078			
	Occupational Strains	-0.221	-5.320	0.144			

Figure 9 Output Model for the Impact of WSS On Anger Control

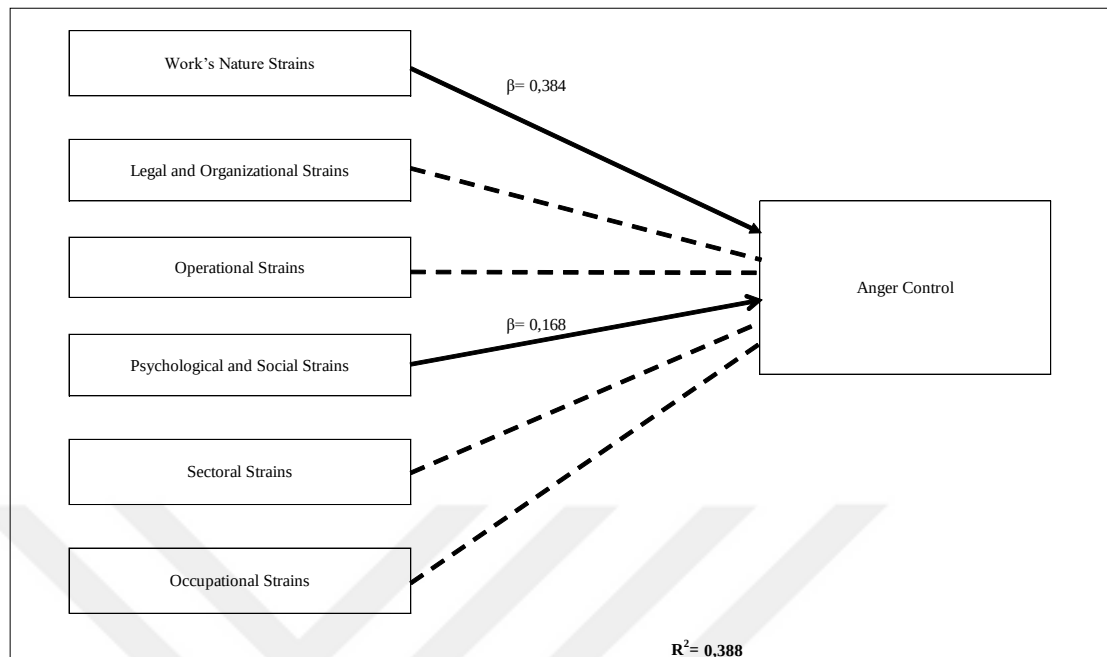


Figure 10 Output Model for the Impact of WSS On Physically Relaxing

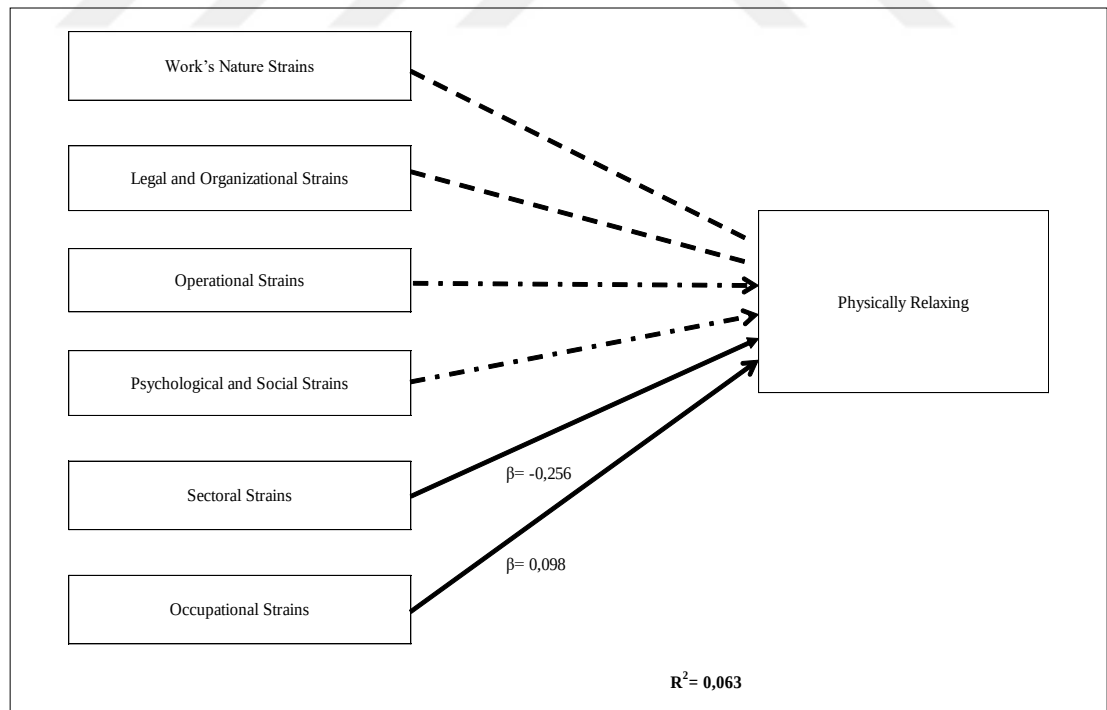


Figure 11 Output Model for the Impact of WSS On Psychologically Relaxing

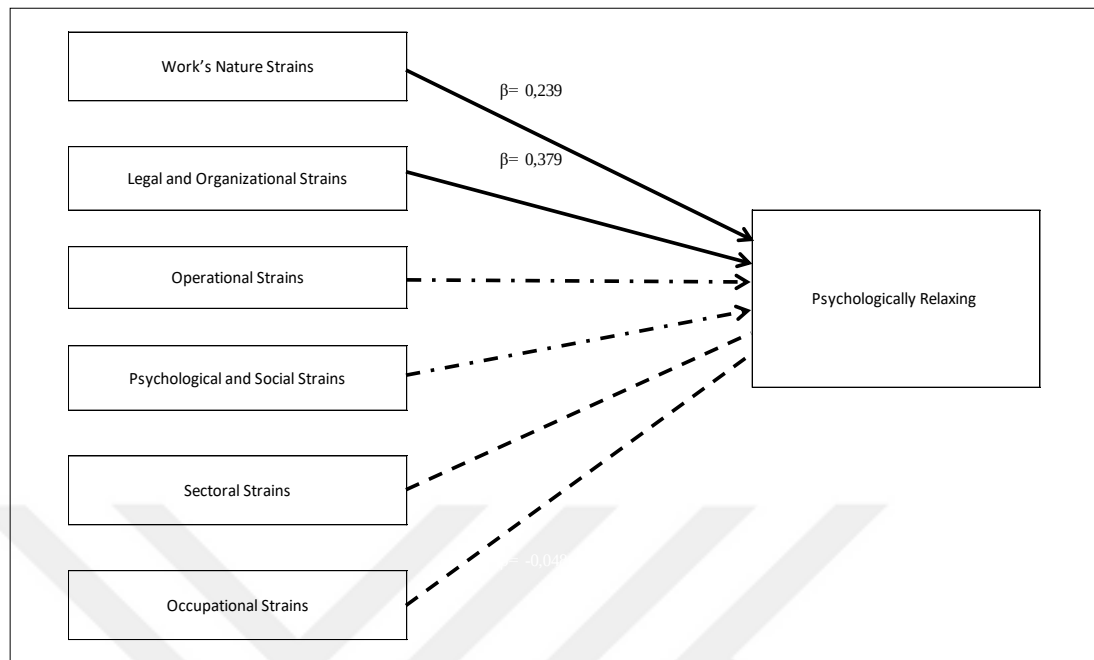
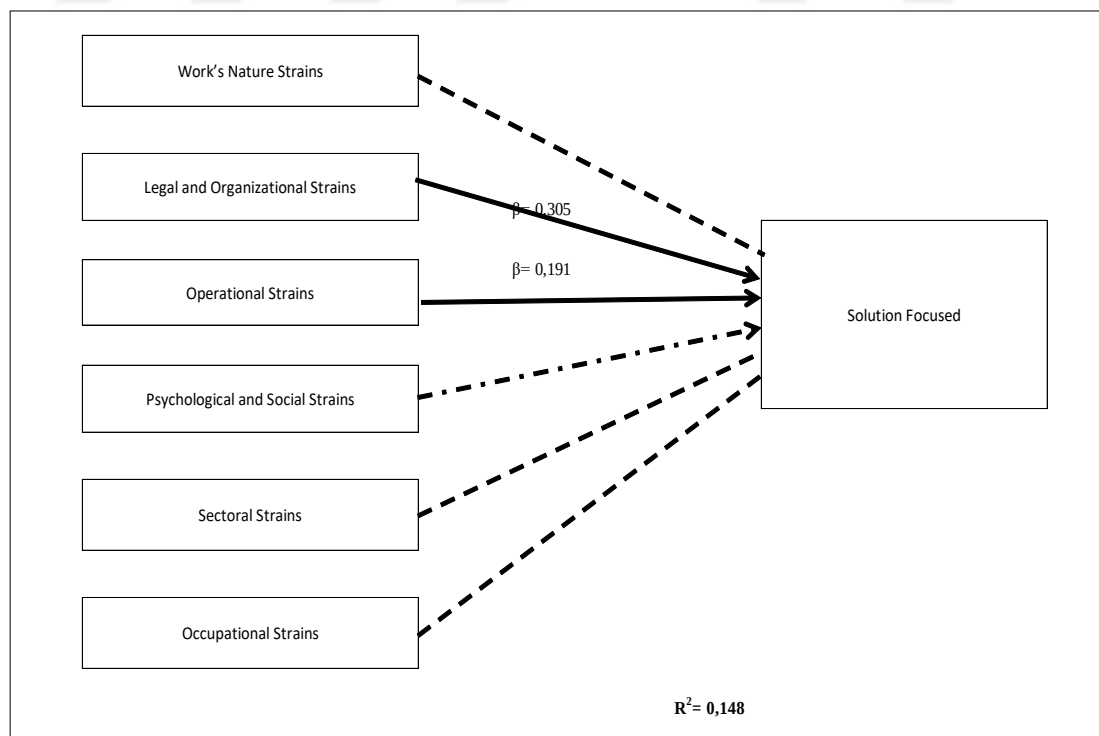


Figure 12 Output Model for the Impact of WSS On Solution Focused Behaviour



4.5.6. Comparing Work Stress Sources With Individual Differences and Work Characteristics

A *t*-test was applied to determine whether or not WSS dimensions mean scores were distinct in terms of individual differences and work characteristics (Table 16).

H₂: In tourist guides, WSS show a significant contrast in terms of individual differences and work characteristics.

In terms of gender, the mean score for legal and organizational strain was found to be higher for female ($\bar{x}$ =3.813), than for male guides ($\bar{x}$ =3.452); operational strains was found to be higher for female ($\bar{x}$ =3.378), than for male guides ($\bar{x}$ =3.007); psychological and social strains was found to be higher for female ($\bar{x}$ =3.214), than for male guides ($\bar{x}$ =3.008); sectoral strains were found to be higher for female ($\bar{x}$ =3.215), than for male ($\bar{x}$ =2.985), and WSS in Total was found to be higher for female ($\bar{x}$ =3.227), than for male guides ($\bar{x}$ =2.966). Work's Nature Strains, Occupational Strains mean scores were not statistically significant in terms of gender ($p>0.05$). Compared to males, females took into account difficult or complex tasks, workload, poor working conditions, customer demands, competitors, and lack of professional knowledge more than male tourist guides. In addition their sensitiveness on perceiving stressors was higher than males. The finding suggests that female tourist guides suffer more stress than male.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of gender (Accepted).

In terms of marital status, the mean score for work's nature strain was found to be higher for the non-married ($\bar{x}$ =2.806), than for the married ($\bar{x}$ =2.596); operational strains was found to be higher for a non-married guide ($\bar{x}$ =3.262), than for a married one ($\bar{x}$ =3.052); psychological and social strains were found to be higher for non-married ($\bar{x}$ =3.254), than for married guides ($\bar{x}$ =2.956); WSS in total was found to be higher for those non-married ($\bar{x}$ =3.161), versus married ($\bar{x}$ =2.987). Legal and organizational strains, sectoral strains, and occupational strains were not statistically significant in terms of marital status ($p>0.05$) Tourist guides are usually away from home and maintaining long distance relationships during tour management is difficult. Married tourist guides are expected to be more stressed because of family responsibilities. Surprisingly, non-married guides perceived higher stress than

married ones. Concern for the future may result in this but married ones should have heavier family responsibilities than non-married ones. Therefore their perception for stress was expected to be higher.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of marital status (Accepted)

A *t*-test was applied to determine whether or not the mean score for WSS dimensions mean scores showed differences in terms of license type. In terms of license type, only the mean score for Psychological and Social Strains was found to be higher for a regional license ($\bar{x}=3.768$), than for national license ($\bar{x}=3.048$); Occupational Strains was found to be higher for a regional license ($\bar{x}=3.386$), than for national license ($\bar{x}=2.722$). Work's Nature Strains, Legal and Organizational Strains, Operational Strains, Sectoral Strains, and WSS in total mean scores were not statistically significant ($p>0.05$). National tourist guides have a right to manage tours all over Turkey, contrary regional ones who manage tours only in what is written on their licence. Until a few years ago, the majority of tourist guides obtained their licences on a national level when they completed practice tours all over Turkey. Nowadays they are more willing to conduct regional tours to get licences in a faster manner. Therefore, their working geography is limited to their choice. In this sense some regions such as Marmara, Aegean, and Mediterranean regions are quite busy during the tourism season. Therefore, because of intensive work, regional tourist guides found work-social life, work-family balance, lack of career development, emotional exhaustion, feeling undervalued, lack of professional knowledge, and competitors more stressful than the others. Because the same job is requested by more than one tourist guide in a limited area, competitors. When it is thought of large scale, it is the same problem for national ones as well. The strains are the same both for regional and national guides.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of license type (Rejected).

In Table 16, in terms of work type, the mean score for work's nature strains was found to be higher for freelance ($\bar{x}=2.734$), than for salaried($\bar{x}=2.460$); occupational strains was found to be higher for freelance ($\bar{x}=2.828$), than for salaried($\bar{x}=2.410$). On the other hand the mean score for legal and organizational strains, operational strains, sectoral strains, WSS in total mean were not statistically significant ($p>0.05$). Freelance tourist guides work type is based on daily

remuneration. They are not tied to travel agencies. Freelancers perceived work's nature and occupational strains as stressors, but in total perception of WSS did not show differences in terms of work type.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Work Type (Rejected).



Table 16 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSS By Gender, Marital Status, Licence Type and Work Type

	Gender	N	Mean	Std	t	p	Marital S	N	Mean	Std	t	p	Licence	N	Mean	Std	t	p	Work T	N	Mean	Std	t	p
Work's Nature Strains	Female	143	2.783	0.856	1.593	0.101	Married	227	2.596	0.935	-2.248	0.025	National	376	2.687	0.942	0.157	0.766	Salaried	70	2.460	0.941	-2.258	0.024
	Male	252	2.629	0.958			Non-Married	168	2.806	0.898			Regional	19	2.653	0.446			Freelance	325	2.734	0.915		
Legal and Organizational Strains	Female	143	3.813	0.878	3.638	0.000	Married	227	3.590	0.848	0.178	0.864	National	376	3.581	0.979	-0.165	0.777	Salaried	70	3.614	1.275	0.301	0.812
	Male	252	3.452	0.983			Non-Married	168	3.573	1.098			Regional	19	3.618	0.523			Freelance	325	3.576	0.882		
Operational Strains	Female	143	3.378	0.821	4.808	0.000	Married	227	3.052	0.705	-2.748	0.007	National	376	3.143	0.765	0.213	0.831	Salaried	70	3.198	0.888	0.690	0.546
	Male	252	3.007	0.683			Non-Married	168	3.262	0.806			Regional	19	3.105	0.561			Freelance	325	3.129	0.725		
Psychological and Social Strains	Female	143	3.214	1.014	2.028	0.043	Married	227	2.956	0.904	-3.033	0.003	National	376	3.048	0.965	-3.181	0.002	Salaried	70	3.229	1.000	1.384	0.167
	Male	252	3.008	0.945			Non-Married	168	3.254	1.041			Regional	19	3.768	0.932			Freelance	325	3.051	0.967		
Sectoral Strains	Female	143	3.215	0.739	3.008	0.003	Married	227	3.015	0.717	-1.662	0.097	National	376	3.077	0.749	0.972	0.116	Salaried	70	3.021	0.734	-0.586	0.558
	Male	252	2.985	0.725			Non-Married	168	3.140	0.761			Regional	19	2.908	0.418			Freelance	325	3.079	0.739		
Occupational Strains	Female	143	2.870	0.932	1.694	0.079	Married	227	2.692	1.098	-1.396	0.164	National	376	2.722	1.018	-2.775	0.006	Salaried	70	2.410	1.154	-3.125	0.002
	Male	252	2.688	1.073			Non-Married	168	2.837	0.918			Regional	19	3.386	1.014			Freelance	325	2.828	0.984		
WSS in Total	Female	143	3.227	0.648	4.167	0.000	Married	227	2.987	0.552	-2.830	0.006	National	376	3.053	0.618	-1.155	0.249	Salaried	70	3.021	0.728	-0.590	0.610
	Male	252	2.966	0.567			Non-Married	168	3.161	0.668			Regional	19	3.218	0.385			Freelance	325	3.069	0.582		

Table 17 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSS By Monthly Income, Education Level, Age

	Income	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Diff ere nce	Education Level	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Diffe renc e	Age	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Diffe rence
Work's Nature Strains	1500TL And Less	40	2.465	0.876	1.459	0.225		High School	30	2.100	0.655	5.955	0.001	2>1 3>1 4>1 4>3	35 and Under	135	2.736	0.810	9.665	0.000	2>3 1>4 2>4 3>4
	1501-3500TL	155	2.670	0.791				Associate Degree	57	2.670	0.760				36-45	145	2.872	0.946			
	3501-5000TL	138	2.791	0.970				Bachelor's Degree	231	2.685	0.927				46-55	71	2.594	1.036			
	5001TL And More	62	2.629	1.129				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	2.925	1.022				56 and Over	44	2.059	0.707			
Legal and Organizatio nal Strains	1500TL And Less	40	3.356	1.054	1.841	0.139		High School	30	3.067	0.940	9.100	0.000	2>1 3>1 2>3 2>4	35 and Under	135	3.870	0.795	9.392	0.000	1>2 1>3 1>4 2>4 3>4
	1501-3500TL	155	3.544	1.033				Associate Degree	57	4.083	0.921				36-45	145	3.507	1.033			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.719	0.836				Bachelor's Degree	231	3.573	0.908				46-55	71	3.518	0.786			
	5001TL And More	62	3.524	0.955				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	3.445	1.011				56 and Over	44	3.057	1.160			
Operational Strains	1500TL And Less	40	3.125	0.620	1.251	0.291		High School	30	2.691	1.025	8.936	0.000	2>1 3>1 4>1 2>3 4>3	35 and Under	135	3.184	0.683	5.898	0.001	1>3 2>3 2>4
	1501-3500TL	155	3.151	0.665				Associate Degree	57	3.308	0.704				36-45	145	3.288	0.809			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.206	0.889				Bachelor's Degree	231	3.069	0.655				46-55	71	2.887	0.790			
	5001TL And More	62	2.984	0.722				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	3.410	0.840				56 and Over	44	2.938	0.589			
Psychologi cal and Social Strains	1500TL And Less	40	2.965	1.032	1.723	0.162		High School	30	2.740	0.722	5.481	0.001	2>1 4>1 2>3 4>3	35 and Under	135	3.058	0.970	17.722	0.000	2>1 2>3 1>4 2>4 3>4
	1501-3500TL	155	3.111	0.963				Associate Degree	57	3.305	1.044				36-45	145	3.429	0.925			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.181	0.926				Bachelor's Degree	231	2.978	0.937				46-55	71	2.885	0.854			
	5001TL And More	62	2.868	1.050				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	3.366	1.031				56 and Over	44	2.336	0.819			
Sectoral Strains	1500TL And Less	40	3.163	0.874	5.286	0.001	2>3 1>4 2>4	High School	30	2.800	0.837	1.812	0.144		35 and Under	135	3.148	0.701	1.671	0.173	
	1501-3500TL	155	3.205	0.682				Associate Degree	57	3.070	0.605				36-45	145	3.091	0.801			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.011	0.716				Bachelor's Degree	231	3.069	0.696				46-55	71	2.961	0.590			
	5001TL And More	62	2.794	0.749				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	3.169	0.882				56 and Over	44	2.921	0.821			
Occupation al Strains	1500TL And Less	40	2.625	1.055	0.977	0.404		High School	30	2.233	1.175	5.976	0.001	2>1 3>1 3>4	35 and Under	135	3.027	1.011	13.388	0.000	1>3 2>3 1>4 2>4
	1501-3500TL	155	2.811	1.080				Associate Degree	57	2.684	1.106				36-45	145	2.869	1.026			
	3501-5000TL	138	2.800	1.016				Bachelor's Degree	231	2.913	1.018				46-55	71	2.380	0.819			
	5001TL And More	62	2.591	0.884				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	2.528	0.812				56 and Over	44	2.136	0.979			
WSS in Total	1500TL And Less	40	2.963	0.586	2.330	0.074		High School	30	2.614	0.580	8.097	0.000	2>1 3>1 4>1	35 and Under	135	3.158	0.519	15.438	0.000	1>3 2>3 1>4 2>4 3>4
	1501-3500TL	155	3.085	0.572				Associate Degree	57	3.204	0.549				36-45	145	3.197	0.662			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.129	0.596				Bachelor's Degree	231	3.039	0.537				46-55	71	2.881	0.520			
	5001TL And More	62	2.908	0.718				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	3.192	0.769				56 and Over	44	2.602	0.545			

In Table 17 *One Way ANOVA* analysis was applied to determine whether or not the mean score for each WSS dimensions showed a significant difference in terms of the monthly income variable. In addition, a complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. Sectoral strains were perceived as the work stressors. And found to be higher for the tourist guides who had a monthly income between 1501-3500TL (3.205 ± 0.682) than the tourist guides who had a monthly income between 3501-5000TL (3.011 ± 0.716) and 5001TL or more (2.794 ± 0.749). Individuals of lower economic status may experience a greater level of work stress. Those with lower income, saw third-party partners problems, customer dissatisfaction, seasonality and questioning if personality fits to occupation as stressor. But in total work stress sources did not show differences in terms of income.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of monthly income (Rejected).

As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for WSS in Total variable showed a significant difference in terms of Level of Education variable (Table 17). It was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=8.097$; $p=0.000 < 0.05$). As a result of Post-Hoc analysis, Associate Degree graduation (3.204 ± 0.549), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had High School graduation (2.614 ± 0.580). Bachelor's Degree graduation (3.039 ± 0.537), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had High School graduation (2.614 ± 0.580). WSS in Total score for the tourist guides who had Master's and Doctoral Degree graduation (3.192 ± 0.769), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had High School graduation (2.614 ± 0.580). Main findings demonstrate a relationship between higher the education and higher the level of work stress. It is possible to state that the more educated participants perceived the higher stress in their environment. The higher the education higher the work stress perception. As a result of this finding it can be concluded that when the education level is higher they are more sensitive for work problems.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Level of Education (Accepted).

As a result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for WSS in Total variables showed a significant difference in terms of Age variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=15.438$; $p=0.000<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The WSS in Total mean score for the tourist guides whose Age 35 and under (3.158 ± 0.519), was found to be higher than the tourist guides aged between 46-55 (2.881 ± 0.520). The WSS in Total mean score for the tourist guides whose aged between 36-45 (3.197 ± 0.662), was found to be higher than the tourist guides aged between 46-55 (2.881 ± 0.520). The WSS in Total mean score for the tourist guides age 35 and under (3.158 ± 0.519), was found to be higher than the tourist guides age 56 and over (2.602 ± 0.545). The WSS in Total mean score for the tourist guides age between age 36-45 (3.197 ± 0.662), was found to be higher than the tourist guides aged 56 and over (2.602 ± 0.545). The Work Stress Sources in Total mean score for the tourist guides between age 46-55 (2.881 ± 0.520) was found to be higher than the tourist guides age 56 and over (2.602 ± 0.545).

As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Sectoral Strains variables showed a significant difference in terms of Age variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$) (Table 17). Probably, for the younger tourist guides, it is difficult to solve the problems related to work. As the age gets lower, the perception of stress around them as stressors increases and less stress is detected as the age increases.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Age (Accepted).

Table 18 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSS by Professional Experience and Professional Field

	Experience	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Difference	Field	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Difference
Work's Nature Strains	1-5	41	2.742	0.683	1.155	0.327		Cultural	257	2.790	0.975	3.561	0.014	1>3
	6-10	95	2.777	0.952				Religious	7	2.829	0.594			
	11-15	103	2.738	0.830				Cultural + Religious	115	2.477	0.822			
	16 And Over	156	2.580	1.014				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	2.438	0.585			
Legal and Organizational Strains	1-5	41	3.598	0.687	9.457	0.000	2>1 2>3 2>4	Cultural	257	3.593	1.036	0.294	0.830	
	6-10	95	4.013	0.808				Religious	7	3.357	1.029			
	11-15	103	3.471	0.952				Cultural + Religious	115	3.596	0.811			
	16 And Over	156	3.391	1.037				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	3.422	0.681			
Operational Strains	1-5	41	3.052	0.652	0.331	0.803		Cultural	257	3.168	0.781	1.366	0.253	
	6-10	95	3.153	0.805				Religious	7	2.612	0.305			
	11-15	103	3.186	0.661				Cultural + Religious	115	3.129	0.703			
	16 And Over	156	3.128	0.812				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	3.036	0.806			
Psychological and Social Strains	1-5	41	3.322	0.923	3.370	0.019	1>4 2>4 3>4	Cultural	257	3.183	0.935	4.554	0.004	1>3 4>3
	6-10	95	3.185	0.995				Religious	7	2.600	1.125			
	11-15	103	3.171	0.831				Cultural + Religious	115	2.842	1.036			
	16 And Over	156	2.899	1.038				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	3.413	0.725			
Sectoral Strains	1-5	41	2.982	0.719	4.072	0.007	2>1 2>3 2>4	Cultural	257	3.102	0.725	2.447	0.063	
	6-10	95	3.295	0.678				Religious	7	3.250	1.021			
	11-15	103	3.019	0.724				Cultural + Religious	115	2.939	0.726			
	16 And Over	156	2.986	0.764				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	3.375	0.801			
Occupational Strains	1-5	41	3.228	0.896	14.406	0.000	1>4 2>4 3>4	Cultural	257	2.732	1.039	0.231	0.875	
	6-10	95	2.909	1.160				Religious	7	2.810	0.604			
	11-15	103	3.007	0.939				Cultural + Religious	115	2.774	1.023			
	16 And Over	156	2.368	0.899				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	2.938	1.056			
WSS in Total	1-5	41	3.132	0.545	4.921	0.002	2>4 3>4	Cultural	257	3.108	0.643	1.755	0.155	
	6-10	95	3.209	0.642				Religious	7	2.867	0.598			
	11-15	103	3.101	0.428				Cultural + Religious	115	2.963	0.534			
	16 And Over	156	2.925	0.680				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	3.089	0.528			

In Table 18 as the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for WSS in Total variable showed a significant difference in terms of Professional Experience variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=4.921$; $p=0.002<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. WSS in Total score for the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 6-10 years (3.209 ± 0.642), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience 16 years and over (2.925 ± 0.680). WSS in Total score for the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 11-15 years (3.101 ± 0.428), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience 16 years and over (2.925 ± 0.680). According to the findings, the perceived stress level of senior tourist guides is lower than a less experienced one. Tourist guides with lower professional experience may not know how to deal with stressors.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Professional Experience in the year (Accepted).

As a result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Legal and Organizational Strains, Operational Strains, Sectoral Strains, Occupational Strains and WSS in Total variables showed a significant difference in terms of Professional Field variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$) (Table 18). Tourist guides professional field had no effect on which level they a perceived stressor.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Professional Field (Rejected).

Table 19 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSS by Managed Tour Type

	Managed Tour Type	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Difference
Work's Nature Strains	Day Trip/Sejour	153	2.936	0.987	4.633	0.000	1>2 1>4 1>5 1>6
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	2.509	0.916			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.810	1.083			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.529	0.715			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.213	0.635			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	2.543	0.777			
Legal and Organizational Strains	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.922	0.976	8.723	0.000	1>2 4>2 1>3 1>4 1>5 4>5 1>6 4>6
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	3.279	0.887			
	Outgoing Tours	21	3.500	0.978			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	3.606	0.856			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	3.050	1.091			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	3.161	0.667			
Operational Strains	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.284	0.788	2.117	0.063	
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	3.012	0.743			
	Outgoing Tours	21	3.088	0.878			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	3.071	0.712			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	3.257	0.772			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	3.010	0.514			
Psychological and Social Strains	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.309	0.996	6.133	0.000	1>2 1>3 1>4 1>5 2>5 4>5 6>5
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	3.034	0.872			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.686	1.171			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.962	0.948			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.093	0.337			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	3.171	0.925			
Sectoral Strains	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.057	0.771	1.519	0.183	
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	3.207	0.705			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.893	0.861			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.942	0.633			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.967	0.773			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	3.125	0.774			
Occupational Strains	Day Trip/Sejour	153	2.834	1.026	1.727	0.127	
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	2.594	1.130			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.905	1.096			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.895	0.835			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.289	1.296			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	2.679	0.762			
WSS in Total	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.237	0.636	5.058	0.000	1>2 1>4 1>5 1>6
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	2.947	0.573			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.978	0.838			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.994	0.470			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.688	0.542			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	2.958	0.540			

In Table 19 as the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for WSS in Total variable showed a significant difference in terms of Managed Tour Type variable, it was found that the

difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=5.058$; $p=0.000<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The WSS in Total score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (3.237 ± 0.636) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Circuit Anatolia Tours (2.947 ± 0.573); Day Trip / Sejour (3.237 ± 0.636), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip + Circuit Anatolia Tours (2.994 ± 0.470); Day Trip (3.237 ± 0.636) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours (2.688 ± 0.542); Day Trip / Sejour (3.237 ± 0.636) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Outgoing Tours (2.958 ± 0.540). Day Trip / Sejour refers to visiting a destination and returning back on the same day. Circuit Anatolia tour refers to 5 or more day tours all over Turkey. Outgoing tour refers to visits outside of the country. In fact, each trip hosts elements of stress in itself. The handicaps for a Day Trip / Sejour are meeting with different customers and their demands everyday, the same explanations and presentations and extra efforts to satisfy customers. Managing outgoing tours requires good language skills and problem-solving capability abroad. Circuit Anatolia tours require a good knowledge of history, geography, archaeology etc. The reason for high perceptions of those who manage daily tours can be the difficulty of customer satisfaction.

H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Managed Tour Type (Accepted).

4.5.7. Comparing Work Stress Coping Methods With Individual Differences and Work Characteristics

According to *t-test*, Physically Relaxing ($t(393)=3.067$; $p=0.003<0.05$), Psychologically Relaxing ($t(393)=4.841$; $p=0.000<0.05$), WSCM in Total ($t(393)=3.494$; $p=0.001<0.05$) variables showed a significant difference in terms of gender variable. The mean score for Physically Relaxing was found to be higher for female ($\bar{x}=3.203$), than for male ($\bar{x}=2.942$); the mean score for Psychologically Relaxing was found to be higher for females ($\bar{x}=3.129$), than for males ($\bar{x}=2.702$); the mean score for WSCM in Total was found to be higher for females ($\bar{x}=3.066$), than for males ($\bar{x}=2.874$). Anger Control, Solution-Focused Behaviour variables showed a

significant difference in terms of Gender variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$) (Table 20). In this sense, female guides tend to employ emotion-focussed coping methods rather than males. Infact, this result signals that females do not find a rational solution, they tend to behave to save the moment. Emotion focused coping usually do not provide a permanent solution. Facing the stressor and finding the solution is much preferred by males.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of gender (Accepted).

In Table 20 as a result of the *t*-test, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for WSCM dimensions showed a significant difference in terms of Marital Status, Anger Control variable ($t(393)=-2.014$; $p=0.045<0.05$) and Psychologically Relaxing ($t(393)=-2.849$; $p=0.006<0.05$) variables showed a significant difference. The mean score for the Anger Control variable was found to be higher for non-married ($\bar{x}=2.408$), than for married ($\bar{x}=2.258$); the mean score for Psychologically Relaxing was found to be higher for non-married ($\bar{x}=3.000$), than for married ($\bar{x}=2.751$). On the other hand, Physically Relaxing, Solution-Focused Behaviour, WSCM in Total variables were not found statistically significant ($p>0.05$). There are difficulties in marital relationships but, among tourist guides, marital status did not affect what was employed for coping.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Marital Status (Rejected).

The WSCM dimensions showed a significant difference in terms of Licence Type. Physically Relaxing ($t(393)=1.729$; $p=0.002<0.05$); Solution Focused Behaviour ($t(393)=3.441$; $p=0.017<0.05$) and WSCM in Total ($t(393)=1.972$; $p=0.049<0.05$) variables showed a significant difference. The mean score for Physically Relaxing was found to be higher for national ($\bar{x}=3.052$), than for regional ($\bar{x}=2.719$); the mean score for Solution Focused Behaviour was found to be higher for national ($\bar{x}=4.031$), than for regional ($\bar{x}=3.386$); the mean score for WSCM in Total was found to be higher for national ($\bar{x}=2.955$), than for regional ($\bar{x}=2.709$). Anger Control, Psychologically Relaxing variables did not show a significant difference in terms of Licence Type. Those tourist guides who have national licences tend to employ both emotion and problem focused coping compared to regional ones.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Licence Type (Accepted)

According to *t-test*, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for WSCM dimensions showed a significant difference in terms of Work Type. Anger Control ($t(393)=2.536$; $p=0.048<0.05$) and Psychologically Relaxing ($t(393)=-3.113$; $p=0.002<0.05$) variables showed a significant difference. The mean scores for Anger Control were found to be higher for Freelance ($\bar{x}=2.523$), than for salaried ($\bar{x}=2.279$) and Psychologically Relaxing was found to be higher for Freelance ($\bar{x}=2.919$), than for salaried ($\bar{x}=2.568$). Physically Relaxing, Solution Focused Behaviour, WSCM in Total did not show a significant difference in terms of Work Type ($p>0.05$) (Table 20). As the result, being salaried or freelancer did not affect the way tourist guides tended to employ coping.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Work Type (Rejected).

Table 20 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSCM by Gender, Marital Status, Licence Type and Work Type

	Gender	N	Mean	Std	t	p	Marital	N	Mean	Std	t	p	Licence	N	Mean	Std	t	p	Work T	N	Mean	Std	t	p
Anger Control	Female	143	2.380	0.709	1.189	0.235	Married	227	2.258	0.764	2.014	0.045	National	376	2.316	0.740	0.729	0.466	Salaried	70	2.523	0.970	2.536	0.048
	Male	252	2.289	0.749			Non-Married	168	2.408	0.688			Regional	19	2.442	0.655			Freelance	325	2.279	0.668		
Physically Relaxing	Female	143	3.203	0.869	3.067	0.003	Married	227	3.103	0.826	1.876	0.061	National	376	3.052	0.835	1.729	0.002	Salaried	70	2.919	0.811	1.318	0.188
	Male	252	2.942	0.779			Non-Married	168	2.946	0.809			Regional	19	2.719	0.373			Freelance	325	3.062	0.823		
Psychologically Relaxing	Female	143	3.129	0.845	4.841	0.000	Married	227	2.751	0.786	2.849	0.006	National	376	2.874	0.864	1.710	0.088	Salaried	70	2.568	0.743	3.113	0.002
	Male	252	2.702	0.841			Non-Married	168	3.000	0.948			Regional	19	2.526	0.853			Freelance	325	2.919	0.879		
Solution Focused Behaviour	Female	143	3.986	0.926	-0.259	0.796	Married	227	3.993	0.856	0.210	0.834	National	376	4.031	0.782	3.441	0.017	Salaried	70	3.919	0.843	0.924	0.356
	Male	252	4.008	0.735			Non-Married	168	4.010	0.741			Regional	19	3.386	1.061			Freelance	325	4.017	0.801		
WSCM in Total	Female	143	3.066	0.603	3.494	0.001	Married	227	2.905	0.535	1.638	0.102	National	376	2.955	0.537	1.972	0.049	Salaried	70	2.893	0.580	0.862	0.389
	Male	252	2.874	0.476			Non-Married	168	2.994	0.528			Regional	19	2.709	0.379			Freelance	325	2.954	0.522		

Table 21 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSCM By Income, Education and Age

	Income	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Diff erence	Education	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Diffe renc e	Age	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Diff erence
Anger Control	1500TL And Less	40	2.200	0.551	0.517	0.671		High School	30	2.060	0.404	6.524	0.000	2>1 4>1 2>3 4>3	35 and Under	135	2.404	0.880	8.631	0.000	1>4 2>4 3>4
	1501-3500TL	155	2.336	0.818				Associate Degree	57	2.618	1.036				36-45	145	2.403	0.654			
	3501-5000TL	138	2.316	0.660				Bachelor's Degree	231	2.237	0.617				46-55	71	2.316	0.596			
	5001TL And More	62	2.381	0.787				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	2.460	0.816				56 and Over	44	1.814	0.473			
Physically Relaxing	1500TL And Less	40	3.242	0.636	6.412	0.000	1>4 2>4 3>4	High School	30	2.967	0.999	0.432	0.730		35 and Under	135	3.047	0.767	2.217	0.086	
	1501-3500TL	155	2.998	0.827				Associate Degree	57	2.947	0.654				36-45	145	3.083	0.795			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.179	0.824				Bachelor's Degree	231	3.071	0.807				46-55	71	3.103	0.831			
	5001TL And More	62	2.683	0.802				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	3.026	0.906				56 and Over	44	2.742	1.001			
Psychologic ally Relaxing	1500TL And Less	40	2.444	1.045	7.024	0.000	2>1 3>1 4>1 3>2	High School	30	2.942	0.463	0.297	0.828		35 and Under	135	2.894	0.683	3.319	0.020	1>4 2>4 3>4
	1501-3500TL	155	2.758	0.654				Associate Degree	57	2.895	0.522				36-45	145	2.931	1.071			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.078	0.836				Bachelor's Degree	231	2.824	0.914				46-55	71	2.870	0.752			
	5001TL And More	62	2.879	1.118				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	2.896	1.034				56 and Over	44	2.477	0.701			
Solution Focused Behaviour	1500TL And Less	40	4.025	0.615	0.231	0.875		High School	30	4.011	0.450	3.409	0.018	2>3 2>4	35 and Under	135	3.916	0.954	2.760	0.042	2>1 2>4
	1501-3500TL	155	3.991	0.773				Associate Degree	57	4.287	0.438				36-45	145	4.120	0.685			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.971	0.928				Bachelor's Degree	231	3.978	0.778				46-55	71	4.052	0.696			
	5001TL And More	62	4.070	0.725				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	3.849	1.118				56 and Over	44	3.780	0.816			
WSCM in Total	1500TL And Less	40	2.838	0.426	1.802	0.146		High School	30	2.867	0.396	2.067	0.104		35 and Under	135	2.966	0.545	8.932	0.000	1>4 2>4 3>4
	1501-3500TL	155	2.912	0.491				Associate Degree	57	3.091	0.430				36-45	145	3.023	0.524			
	3501-5000TL	138	3.023	0.592				Bachelor's Degree	231	2.909	0.489				46-55	71	2.968	0.471			
	5001TL And More	62	2.912	0.546				Master's and Doctoral Degree	77	2.967	0.727				56 and Over	44	2.570	0.477			

In Table 21, as the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was applied to determine whether or not the mean score for Physically Relaxing variable showed a significant difference in terms of monthly income variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=6.412$; $p=0.000<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The Physically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who had monthly income 1501 and less (3.242 ± 0.636) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had monthly income 5001TL and more (2.683 ± 0.802). The Physically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who had a monthly income between 1501-3500TL (2.998 ± 0.827) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had monthly income 5001TL and more monthly income (2.683 ± 0.802). The Physically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who had a monthly income between 3501-5000TL (3.179 ± 0.824) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had monthly income 5001TL and more monthly income (2.683 ± 0.802).

As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was applied to determine whether or not the mean score for Psychologically Relaxing variable showed a significant difference in terms of monthly income variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=7.024$; $p=0.000<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The Psychologically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who had a monthly income between 1501-3500TL (2.758 ± 0.654), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had monthly income 1500TL and less (2.444 ± 1.045). The Psychologically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who had a monthly income between 3501-5000TL (3.078 ± 0.836) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had monthly income 1500TL and less (2.444 ± 1.045). The Psychologically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who had monthly income 5001TL and over (2.879 ± 1.118) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had a monthly income of 1500TL and less (2.444 ± 1.045). The Psychologically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who had monthly income 3501-5000TL (3.078 ± 0.836) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had monthly income 1500TL and less 1501-3500TL (2.758 ± 0.654).

As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Anger Control, Solution Focused, WSCM in Total variables showed a significant difference in terms of Monthly Income variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$) (Table 21). Monthly income has no effect on employment of coping.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Monthly Income (Rejected).

In Table 21 as the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Anger Control variable showed a significant difference in terms of Level of Education variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=6.524$; $p=0.000<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who had Associate Degree graduation (2.618 ± 1.036), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had High School graduation (2.060 ± 0.404). The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who had Master's and Doctoral Degree graduation (2.460 ± 0.816), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had High School graduation (2.060 ± 0.404). The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who had Associate Degree graduation (2.618 ± 1.036), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Bachelor's Degree graduation (2.237 ± 0.617). The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who had Master's and Doctoral Degree graduation (2.460 ± 0.816), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Bachelor's Degree graduation (2.237 ± 0.617).

As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Solution Focused Behaviour variable showed a significant difference in terms of Level of Education variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=3.409$; $p=0.018<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The Solution Focused Behaviour mean score for the tourist guides who had Associate Degree graduation (4.287 ± 0.438), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Bachelor's Degree graduation (3.978 ± 0.778). The Solution Focused Behaviour mean score for the tourist guides who had Associate Degree graduation (4.287 ± 0.438), was found to be higher than the tourist

guides who had Master's and Doctoral Degree graduation (3.849 ± 1.118). As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Physically Relaxing, Psychologically Relaxing WSCM in Total variables showed a significant difference in terms of Graduation Degree variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) (Table 21). Graduation degree has no effect on employment of coping method.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Graduation Degree (Rejected).

In Table 21, as the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for WSCM in Total variable showed a significant difference in terms of Age variable. It was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=8.932$; $p=0.000 < 0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The WSCM in Total mean score for the tourist guides Age 35 years and Under (2.966 ± 0.545), was found to be higher than the tourist guides Age 56 years and over (2.570 ± 0.477). The WSCM in Total mean score for the tourist guides Age between 36-45 years (3.023 ± 0.524) was found to be higher than the tourist guides Age 56 years and over (2.570 ± 0.477). The WSCM in Total mean score for the tourist guides Age between 46-55 years (2.968 ± 0.471) was found to be higher than the tourist guides Age 56 years and over (2.570 ± 0.477). As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was applied to determine whether or not the mean score for Physically Relaxing variable showed a significant difference in terms of Age variable, it was found that the differences between groups mean scores were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) (Table 21). Younger tourist guides are more aware of coping effort. The age 56 and over group, did not tend to employ coping efforts.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Age (Accepted).

Table 22 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSCM By Professional Experience and Professional Field

	Experience	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Difference	Field	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Difference
Anger Control	1-5	41	2.351	0.704	2.453	0.063		Cultural	257	2.412	0.776	4.659	0.003	1>3 1>4
	6-10	95	2.486	0.934				Religious	7	2.571	0.535			
	11-15	103	2.295	0.648				Cultural + Religious	115	2.146	0.594			
	16 And Over	156	2.232	0.645				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	2.038	0.801			
Physically Relaxing	1-5	41	3.033	0.657	4.192	0.006	3>2 3>4	Cultural	257	3.035	0.796	0.279	0.840	
	6-10	95	3.021	0.726				Religious	7	3.095	1.343			
	11-15	103	3.262	0.873				Cultural + Religious	115	3.012	0.881			
	16 And Over	156	2.897	0.854				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	3.208	0.500			
Psychologically Relaxing	1-5	41	2.945	0.852	0.564	0.639		Cultural	257	2.841	0.871	0.242	0.867	
	6-10	95	2.863	0.658				Religious	7	2.929	1.125			
	11-15	103	2.913	0.920				Cultural + Religious	115	2.904	0.855			
	16 And Over	156	2.793	0.944				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	2.750	0.806			
Solution Focused Behaviour	1-5	41	3.561	1.012	6.157	0.000	2>1 3>1 4>1 2>3	Cultural	257	3.953	0.854	2.116	0.098	
	6-10	95	4.179	0.589				Religious	7	3.524	0.604			
	11-15	103	3.942	0.891				Cultural + Religious	115	4.130	0.733			
	16 And Over	156	4.045	0.767				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	4.021	0.463			
WSCM in Total	1-5	41	2.888	0.505	2.030	0.109		Cultural	257	2.959	0.557	0.296	0.828	
	6-10	95	3.032	0.465				Religious	7	2.962	0.541			
	11-15	103	2.983	0.527				Cultural + Religious	115	2.918	0.485			
	16 And Over	156	2.877	0.576				Cultural + Religious + Trekking	16	2.858	0.491			

In Table 22, as the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Physically Relaxing variable showed a significant difference in terms of Professional Experience (in year) variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=4.192$; $p=0.006<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The Physically Relaxing score for the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 11-15 years (3.262 ± 0.873), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 6-10 years (3.021 ± 0.726). The Physically Relaxing score for the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 11-15 years (3.262 ± 0.873), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience 16 years and over (2.897 ± 0.854).

As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Solution Focused Behaviour variable showed a significant difference in terms of Professional Experience (in year) variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=4.192$; $p=0.006<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The Solution Focused Behaviour score for the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 6-10 years (4.179 ± 0.589) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 1-5 years (3.561 ± 1.012). The Solution Focused Behaviour score for the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 11-15 years (3.942 ± 0.891), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 1-5 years (3.561 ± 1.012). The Solution Focused Behaviour score for the tourist guides, who had Professional Experience 16 years and over (4.045 ± 0.767) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 1-5 years (3.561 ± 1.012). The Solution Focused Behaviour score for the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 6-10 years (4.179 ± 0.589), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who had Professional Experience between 11-15 years (3.942 ± 0.891). More experienced tourist guides tend to employ more physically relaxing and solution focused behavior than less

experienced ones. But in total Anger Control, Psychologically Relaxing, WSCM in Total variables did not show a significant difference in terms of Professional experience in the year ($p>0.05$) (Table 22).

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Professional Experience (in the year) (Rejected).

In Table 22 as the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was performed to determine whether or not the mean score for Anger Control variable showed a significant difference in terms of Professional Field variable, it was found that the difference between group mean scores was statistically significant ($F=4.659$; $p=0.003<0.05$). A complementary Post-Hoc analysis was conducted to determine the sources of the differences. The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides whose Professional Field, Culture (2.412 ± 0.776), was found to be higher than the tourist guides whose Professional Field Culture + Religion (2.146 ± 0.594). The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides whose Professional Field, Culture (2.412 ± 0.776), was found to be higher than the tourist guides whose Professional Field Culture + Religion + Trekking (2.038 ± 0.801).

As the result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was applied to determine whether or not the mean score for Physically Relaxing, Psychologically Relaxing, Solution Focused Behaviour, WSCM in Total variables showed a significant difference in terms of Professional Field variable, it was found that the differences between groups mean scores were not statistically significant ($p>0.05$).

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Professional Field (Rejected).

Table 23 A Comparison of Mean Scores for WSCM By Managed Tour Type

	Managed Tour Type	N	Mean	Std	F	p	Difference
Anger Control	Day Trip/Sejour	153	2.541	0.811	5.292	0.000	1>2 1>4 1>5 1>6
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	2.141	0.680			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.410	0.889			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.216	0.603			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.067	0.476			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	2.150	0.483			
Physically Relaxing	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.070	0.762	0.348	0.883	
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	2.962	0.944			
	Outgoing Tours	21	3.127	0.749			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	3.009	0.770			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	3.067	0.978			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	3.119	0.776			
Psychologically Relaxing	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.044	1.006	4.288	0.001	1>2 1>6 4>6
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	2.693	0.595			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.821	1.282			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.935	0.698			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.633	0.388			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	2.393	0.846			
Solution Focused Behaviour	Day Trip/Sejour	153	4.100	0.706	1.643	0.148	
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	3.883	0.976			
	Outgoing Tours	21	3.794	0.992			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	4.087	0.676			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	4.000	0.549			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	3.821	0.868			
WSCM in Total	Day Trip/Sejour	153	3.093	0.542	5.171	0.000	1>2 1>4 1>5 1>6
	Circuit Anatolia Tours	105	2.801	0.552			
	Outgoing Tours	21	2.940	0.669			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	73	2.941	0.421			
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	15	2.804	0.412			
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	28	2.743	0.402			

In Table 23, the Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (2.541 ± 0.811) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Circuit Anatolia Tours (2.141 ± 0.680). The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (2.541 ± 0.811) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Circuit Anatolia Tours (2.216 ± 0.603). The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (2.541 ± 0.811) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours (2.067 ± 0.476). The Anger Control mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour

(2.541 ± 0.811), was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Outgoing Tours (2.150 ± 0.483). The Psychologically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (3.044 ± 1.006) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Circuit Anatolia Tours (2.693 ± 0.595). The Psychologically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (3.044 ± 1.006) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Outgoing Tours (2.393 ± 0.846). The Psychologically Relaxing mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Circuit Anatolia (2.935 ± 0.698) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Outgoing Tours (2.393 ± 0.846). WSCM in Total mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (3.093 ± 0.542) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Circuit Anatolia Tours (2.801 ± 0.552). The WSCM in Total mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (3.093 ± 0.542) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Circuit Anatolia Tours (2.941 ± 0.421). The WSCM in Total mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (3.093 ± 0.542) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours (2.804 ± 0.412). The WSCM in Total mean score for the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour (3.093 ± 0.542) was found to be higher than the tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour + Outgoing Tours (2.743 ± 0.402).

As a result of *One Way ANOVA* analysis, which was applied to determine whether or not the mean score for Physically Relaxing, Solution Focused Behaviour variables showed a significant difference in terms of the Managed Tour Type variable, it was found that the differences between groups mean scores were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) (Table 23). Tourist guides who manage daily tours tend to employ anger control and Psychologically Relaxing coping methods. They tend to quit the job, blame someone, think about the stressor, act out anger, sleep, do meditation or praying, or use wishful thinking when they face the stressor. It is correct to state that tourist guides who manage daily tours tend to employ mainly emotion-focused coping.

H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Managed Tour Type (Accepted).

Table 24 Summary of Hypothesis

<i>H₁: In tourist guides, WSS have an impact on WSCM</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	
<i>H₂: In tourist guides, WSS show a significant difference in terms of individual differences and work characteristics</i>		
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Gender</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>higher for female</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Marital Status</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>higher for non-married</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of License Type</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Work Type</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Monthly Income</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Level of Education</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>higher the level of education, the higher participation in WSS</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Age</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>older the age, the lower the rate of participation in WSS</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Professional Experience</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>longer the experience in the profession, the lower participation in WSS</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Managed Tour Type</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>day trip/sejour tourist guides have higher rate of participation in WSS</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSS show differences in terms of Professional Field</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H₃: In tourist guides, WSCM show a significant difference in terms of individual differences and work characteristics</i>		
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Gender</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>higher for female</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Marital Status</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Licence Type</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>higher for national license</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Work Type</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Monthly Income</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Graduation Degree</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Age</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>younger the age higher the participation in WSCM</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Professional Experience</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Managed Tour Type</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>day trip/sejour tourist guides have higher rate of participation in WSCM</i>
<i>H: In tourist guides, WSCM show differences in terms of Professional Field</i>	<i>Rejected</i>	

4.6. DISCUSSION

The present study was undertaken in order to identify the work stress sources (WSS) and work stress coping methods (WSCM) of national and regional licensed Turkish tourist guides. The findings of the research show that there are 6 main factors of WSS for tourist guides. An exploratory factor analysis reduced 35 descriptions of WSS to 6 main underlying factors which account for the causes of work stress. According to the ranking for the mean scores of factors, Legal and Organizational Strains were the most important, followed by Operational Strains, Psychological and Social Strains, Sectoral Strains, and Occupational Strains; Work's Nature Strains being the least important work stressor for tourist guides.

The Legal and Organizational Strains factor included variables such as low base remuneration/salary, unlicensed tourist guides, lack of participation in decision making, and excessive control. Low base remuneration/salary was considered a tourist guide's occupational problem in the research of WFTGA^b (2011), Güzel et al. (2014), Çetin and Kızıllırmak (2014), Eker and Zengin (2016), Yenipınar et al. (2014), Zengin et al. (2017) Ayaz and Demir (2019). In addition, a number of authors have reported that low wages or low salaries were also considered work stressors for different occupational groups (Haynes and Fryer, 1999; Wheeler and Riding, 1994; HSE; Saldamlı, 2000; Aydın, 2004; Sökmen, 2005). According to the Tourist Guiding Profession Law (No:6326), it is illegal for travel agencies to offer salaries below the base remuneration and it is also illegal for tourist guides to accept payment under the base rate. Participants admitted that the most important stress factor was the low base salary/pay offers. In Turkey, such problems are frequently encountered due to the large supply of tourist guides in some regions. Therefore, travel agencies offer tourist guides a salary lower than the official base rate to maximize their profits and, unwillingly, tourist guides choose to accept these offers before their competitors do.

Included in this factor, unlicensed tourist guides were perceived as a work stress factor. Previous studies (Güzel et al., 2014; Çetin and Kızıllırmak, 2012; Eker and Zengin, 2016; Ayaz and Demir, 2019) revealed the same finding. This is a very common problem worldwide, as it was put forward in the WFTGA^b's (2011) report. Newlands (2014) stated that in Scotland there are unlicensed tourist guides but no

penalty is applied. Conversely, in Turkey, there is a penalty for unlicensed tourist guiding activities. Nevertheless, tourist guides still perceived unlicensed tourist guiding as a stressor because there are many unlicensed guides at popular destinations. As tourist destinations continue to spread all over Turkey, it is difficult for the legal authorities to combat these so-called guides. On the other hand, before being accepted into the profession, tourist guide candidates spend considerable effort and time in terms of education and training. The unofficial tourist guides disregard at least 2 or 4 years of education, a 75 point YDS (foreign language exam), and approximately 40 days of tour training. These efforts should not be ignored and institutions should struggle with unlicensed guides via more stringent and effective measures. As a suggestion, a call center could be established for complaints, and these should be assessed urgently.

Lack of participation in decision making was also considered as a work stressor. In other professions, such as nursing, a lack of participation was found to be a work stressor, as well (Kam-Weng et al., 2006). Lokk and Ametz (1997) found that stress hormone levels decrease when employees participate in the decision-making process. Travel agencies may disregard the opinions and suggestions of tourist guides while planning tours, and this may result in problems when conducting the tours. Museums, ancient sites' opening-closing hours, the distances between destinations, lunch and dinner times, and others constitute details which must be meticulously assessed. These are all well known by tourist guides and must be considered by travel agencies.

The interference of travel agencies on tours can be defined as excessive control and was found to be a work stressor for tourist guides. In Quick and Quick's (1984) research on local government officers as well as in Mcshane and Glinov's (2015) research on production, sales and service employees, lack of control was found to be a reason for work stress.

The operational strains factor comprised issues such as unfair treatment by the travel agency on work (tour) allocation, late payments, time pressures, transportation problems, and health and accident risks on the tour, as well as customer health issues. In the literature, bad or poor management was revealed to be a reason for work stress (Ramires, 1996; Gillespie et al., 2001; Winefield, 2003; Sökmen, 2005). From the

point of view of the tourist guides, the unfair attitude of the travel agency on tour allocation was perceived as poor management. Research supported the findings of this study in terms of late payment (HSE; WFTGA^b, 2011), and time pressure (Quick and Quick, 1984; Michie, 2000; Kam-Weng et al., 2006, Sökmen, 2005).

Psychological and social strains refer to issues relative to work-social life balance, work-family balance, lack of career development opportunities, long working hours, and emotional exhaustion due to the occupation. The issue of work-family balance is addressed in the research of HSE, Kam-Weng et al. (2006), De Vito (2009), Ross (1997), Kwok Bun (2006), Swaminathan and Rajkumar (2013), Burke and Richardsen (2014), Saldamlı (2000) (hotel employees); long working hours in the research of Michie (2002), Faulkner and Patiar (1997) (housekeeping employees), Saldamlı (2000) and Aydın (2004) (hotel employees); and lack of career development in the research of Cooper and Marshall (1978), Thomas et al. (2008), Ivancevich and Matteson (1980), Williams et al. (1998), Gardel and Gustavsen (1980) and was found to be a work stressor. Emotional exhaustion was revealed as a work problem for tourist guides in the studies of Köroğlu and Köroğlu (2011), Yazıcıoğlu et al. (2008), and Batman (2003).

The Sectoral strains factor considered issues such as third-party partner problems, customer dissatisfaction, and seasonality/ job insecurity. Saldamlı (2000) conducted research and found that customer dissatisfaction constitutes a reason for work-related stress in hotel employees. Seasonality/job insecurity was found to be a stressor for employees in the research of Michie (2002) and HSE. One of the major stress sources for tourist guides is “seasonality” and this finding is supported by findings of Batman (2003), Yazıcıoğlu et al. (2008), Köroğlu and Köroğlu (2011), Güzel et al. (2014) and, Ayaz and Demir (2019). Besides sea, sun and sand tourism, Turkey has a great potential for cultural tourism. Cultural tourism may take place in the winter as long as weather conditions are appropriate. In fact, cultural tours are operated in winter but are inadequate in terms of numbers. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism to increase the number of culture tours in the winter. The corresponding authorities can put in place measures such as promotions in transportation and accommodation and charging half entrance fee for museums during the winter. Additionally, diversification and specialization in

alternative tourism (gastronomy, trekking, sports such as cycling, yoga, pilates, winter sports, etc., gambling, thermal and wellness, congress, halal, religious tourism) can help tourist guides deal with seasonality.

The Occupational Strains factor studied the status of the occupation, the lack of foreign language ability and competitors. In terms of status, tourist guiding was perceived as a kind of part-time job (Güzel et al., 2014). Therefore tourist guides may feel undervalued. Faulkner and Patiar's (1997) study for housekeeping employees, and Saldamlı (2000) and Sökmen's (2005) for hotel employees found the same results, where the feeling of being undervalued was accepted as a work stressor.

The Work's Nature Strains factor considered issues such as difficult or complex tasks, workload, poor working conditions, and customer demands. Difficult or complex tasks for tourist guides refer to new destinations in the tour program, as well as new programmes, technology, systems, and colleagues. The process of adapting to something new can create tension; Michie's (2002) finding supports this result. Workload or, in other words, overload, refers to an intensive and long tour program as the nature of the work. Previous studies (Lee and Wang (2002) for the hospitality industry, Faulkner and Patiar (1997) for housekeeping employees, Zohar (1994) and Mohamed (2015), Saldamlı (2000), Aydın (2004), Sökmen, (2005) for hotel employees, Health and Safety Executive in UK, Mcshane and Glinov (2015) for general employees) on employees of different occupations supported this finding. In addition, Wheeler and Riding (1994), Lee and Wang (2002) and Kam-Weng et al. (2006) found that workload constituted the fore-most stressor for nurses. Poor working conditions are perceived as a work stressor under Work's Nature Strain factor. Similarly, it is also found by Michie (2002) and Kam-Weng et al. (2006). Common indoor work conditions problems (ventilation, lighting, noise, space, temperature) do not generally affect tourist guides who generally work outdoors and are usually exposed to changing climate conditions such as snow, rain, fog, heat, etc.. Customer demands refer to the specific requirements of customers on tour, and it was found to be a work stressor for tourist guides. Karamustafa and Çeşmecı (2006) found customer demands as the managerial problems that tourist guides mostly

encounter. As well as for tourist guides, customer demand was a stressor for nurses (Kam-Weng et al., 2006) and for hotel managers (Sökmen, 2005).

Individual and Work-Related Differences for WSS

In this study, WSS mean scores showed differences in terms of gender. The mean scores for Legal and Organizational Strains, Operational Strains, Psychological and Social Strains, Sectoral Strains, and WSS in Total were found to be higher for females than for males. This means that due to the perceived WSS, arithmetic mean scores were higher for females. In the literature, studies show that females tend to perceive more work stress pressure than males (Firth, 1998; Bodil, 1997; Wilhelmsson et al., 2002; Mesler and Capobianco, 2001; Mirowsky, 1996; Winefield, 1991; Matt and Dean, 1993; Sharpley et al., 1996). However, Sökmen (2005) found that male managers in the hospitality industry experienced more stress than their female counterparts. WSS in Total was found to be higher for non-married guides, than for married ones.

The possession of a graduation level was found to be statistically significant. The higher the level of education, the higher the rate of participation in WSS. Contrary to this result, Lunau et al. (2015), found that workers with a lower level of education experienced a higher level of work stress. This result was unexpected. As the level of education increases, participation in stress sources was expected to decrease. So, it is possible that educated participants are better able to perceive work stressors.

In tourist guides, WSS mean scores showed differences in terms of age. The higher the age, the lower the rate of participation in WSS. Researchers found that young employees experienced more stress than older ones (Dua, 1994), employees less than 30 years old reported the highest levels of stress. (Ben-Bakr et al., 1995), and young teachers reported higher levels of stress and burnout (Antonioni et al., 2006). The explanation for this result is that older tourist guides are experienced seniors and they can predict what kind of problems they will encounter and take the necessary precautions. Finally, WSS mean scores did not show differences in terms of monthly income.

In this study, WSS factor mean scores showed differences in terms of the number of years of professional experience. The longer the experience in the

profession, the lower the rate of participation in WSS. Managed tour type was found to be statistically significant. Tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour tours only have a higher rate of participation in WSS than Circuit and outgoing tours. In short-term tours, there are everyday routines such as encountering new customers, striving to give them information and confidence, and new tour documents to be filled. Obviously, these routines were the factors increasing their daily workload. Therefore, guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour tours showed higher levels of work stress.

In tourist guides, WSS mean scores did not show differences in terms of license type (regional or national), work type (freelancer or salaried), or professional field (cultural, religious, trekking tours). According to correlation analysis, there is a relationship between the WSS and the WSCM for tourist guides as expected. In addition, a weak impact of WSS on WSCM was found as a result of regression analysis. When participation in the expressions of WSS increased, the participation for WSCM increased, too.

Work Stress Coping Methods (WSCM)

Work stress coping methods, strategies, and approaches were evaluated in various dimensions. In this research, problem-focused and emotion-focused coping methods have been taken into account. Problem-focused coping is an effort to manage or modify the source of work stress. As was made clear in the literature review, individuals choose problem-focused coping for changeable situations to reduce stress related factors. On the other hand, for unalterable stressors or situations, individuals tend to choose emotion-focused coping methods (Baldacchino and Draper, 2001: 883) to evaluate, manage and regulate their feelings in a positive way. In the light of this explanation, among the factors of the WSCM scale, solution-focused behavior can be viewed as problem focused and physically and psychologically relaxing, and along with anger control can count as emotion-focused coping methods. Although there is a certain difference between coping methods, tourist guides may choose not only one coping method but multiple methods in a stressful working environment.

Statistically, exploratory factor analysis reduced 17 expressions to 4 main underlying factors which account for the WSCM. The ranking for the arithmetic

means of WSCM's factors are as follows: solution-focused behavior, physically relaxing, psychologically relaxing, anger control. Solution-focused behavior covers the issues relating the focus on the solution, to believe that best was done, and seeking a solution. This factor contributed 13.7% of the total variance with a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.73. Tourist guides appeared to adopt the problem-focused coping method at first. The sustainability of a tour is important, therefore tourist guides need to find a rational solution in a very limited time. Approaching stressful situations with a problem-focused coping method might help to resolve similar problems on tours. Akova and Işık (2008) found that hotel employees ranked the coping methods they used as to believe that the best was done, facing the stressor and seeking solutions and accepting the situation by thinking it could be worse. From this point of view, Akova and Işık's (2008) results support this study's findings. Another factor, named physically relaxing, included variables such as recreational activities, self-relaxation, and physical exercise. The physically relaxing factor contributed 14.3 % of the total variance explained with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.71. The Psychologically Relaxing factor explained 13.9 % of the total variance with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.70. This factor comprised issues such as wishful thinking, praying, meditation, and thinking it could be worse. The Anger Control factor explained 17.1 % of the total variance with a corresponding Cronbach alpha value of 0.78. This factor considered issues such as leaving the job, blaming someone, obsessively thinking about the stressor, and sleeping. Yılmaz and Ekici (2003) revealed that leaving the job was one of the coping methods used for civil servants.

Regarding the first five work stress coping methods (as items), the participants agreed on “focus on the solution, to believe that best was done, facing the stressor and seeking solutions, work more, accepting the situation by thinking it could be worse”. Tourist guides were less likely to participate in items “sleep, quit the job, act out anger, meditation, blame someone”. As was seen, tourist guides tend to adopt a solution seeking strategy as their primary coping method.

Individual and Work-Related Differences for WSCM

In terms of gender, the mean score for WSCM in total was found to be higher for females than for males. Female participation in psychological and physical relaxation (participating in recreational activities such as music, concerts, cinema,

theater, etc., self-relaxation, physical exercise, wishful thinking, working more, meditation, praying) WSCM was found to be higher than males. In tourist guides, WSCM did not show differences in terms of marital status, monthly income, or level of education.

For tourist guides, WSCM showed differences in terms of tour type. Tourist guides who managed Day Trip / Sejour tours only had a higher rate of participation in WSCM than the others. It was observed that, compared to others, tourist guides who managed day trips employed solution focused coping strategies. In terms of professional field or professional experience, no difference was found.



CONCLUSION

Tourism is a service industry where work stress is highly and constantly experienced. One of the pioneers and intellectual service providers in this industry are tourist guides. Tourist guides are faced with work-related barriers, strains, and stressors as is any other professional group in tourism industry and the service sector. This may lead to both personal issues; physical and psychological health problems, and organizational issues; burnout, turnover, absenteeism, low productivity, poor performance, and low service quality. These are expected to be the direct consequences for those who may be exposed to high levels of work stress. Indirectly, poor service quality may affect customer satisfaction, revisit intention, country image, and survival of the travel agency negatively in long term. It is impossible to eliminate all work stressors in a working environment but it is possible to manage stress, therefore, to find appropriate stress management methods it is important to identify the stressors first. Therefore, the attempts to understand the reasons that cause work stress are vital in helping to reduce work stress and in adopting the appropriate coping methods.

Considering the rankings in the findings of this study, the most important factor that tourist guides perceive as a work stressor is legal and organizational strain. This factor consists of low base remuneration/salary, unofficial tourist guides, lack of participation in decision making, and excessive control. Due to the professions law, there are still strains related to legal issues. This indicates that tourist guiding still has legal gaps as a profession or some deficiencies related to the implementation of the law. In this sense, more effective implementation of law is needed to obtain positive outcomes from tourist guides. A proposed solution to the low based remuneration/salary problem is a monthly salary and daily payment system. A well-functioning follow-up system to audit these payment transactions should be established by official institutions. In addition, travel agents that will pay for the tourist guides should be penalized for the missing payment.

Legal and organizational strain is followed by operational, psychological and social, sectoral, occupational, and work's nature strains. In terms of tourist guides, the nature of the work was expected to be perceived highest stressor, but nature of the work (difficult or complex task, workload, poor working conditions, customer demands, and lack of control) was perceived as the lowest work stressors, surprisingly. This means that the guides actually disregard the difficulties arising from the nature of the work. The WSS mean scores showed differences with female, non-married, university graduates and young tourist guides perceiving higher levels of work-related stress. In terms of profession differences, less experienced, sejour tourist guides also experienced higher levels of work-related stress. It is possible to reduce negative effects of stress at the beginning of tourist guide education. Profession chambers and unions may direct tourist guiding programmes at universities to give stress management lessons at universities.

Tourist guides face stress in their professional work environment. From the customer's perspective, tourist guides are the "face" or "showcase" of a tour operator, a travel agency, a destination and a country. Customers, who dreamed about their holiday all year, will return home dissatisfied if they encounter overstressed tourist guides. The negative consequences of stress not only affects tourist guides, but also affect the success of tours, travel agencies, tour operators, and satisfaction of the tourists as well. Poor destination and country image diminished revisit intention, negative word of mouth marketing, a decrease in customer numbers, and reduced profitability can be the results of ignored work stress and poor coping strategies. Effective coping reduces the intensity of stressors and their outcomes. Therefore, the coping methods that tourist guides choose, consciously or unconsciously, are important. In this research, it was found that tourist guides mainly employed problem-focused coping methods as they manage or modify the source of work stress. It was observed that tourist guides tend to seek real and lasting solutions as coping methods.

Preventive interventions deal with problems at their source. Tourist guides' main stressors are legal and organizational strains (implementation of law) that are not related to tourist guides themselves or to travel agency or to the task. Removing these external problems can only be possible with effective enforcement of the

profession's legislation, an effective implementation of law, increased controls, and tight monitoring of the profession's chambers and tourist guides. Secondary preventions help employees to cope with stressors. It is seen that tourist guides mainly faced the stressor and focused on solutions. They tend to employ problem-focused coping to find real and lasting solutions. This is related to what they accept as the most disturbing stressor. In this sense, their coping approach is reasonable. For those who employ an emotion focused approach, tertiary preventions are needed to rehabilitate them. Tourist guides who employ emotion focused coping may manage work stress by psychological and physiological relaxation techniques, such as deep breathing exercises, yoga, and mindfulness.

In brief, work stress is the perceived threats by employee at work environment and atmosphere. The brain does not like stress and stressful atmosphere at work and social environment. Stress either is fought or is fled. Instead of hedonic resulting and relaxing behaviours, tourist guides chose "fight" to reduce stress and they adopted problem focused approach. Because the thing they accepted as stressful is surprisingly neither the work itself, nor the tough working conditions. In fact it was not the expected result at the beginning of research. Basically, the stressful situation that tourist guides perceived is unfair working environment due to the profession law. Therefore they desire to create a fair working atmosphere by focusing on the solution as coping approach. If they were adopting emotion focused coping, suggestions could be related to choose problem focused coping. They mainly adopted an approach that requires professionalism, therefore, previously explained suggestions are limited on coping.

Finally, work stress and coping studies in the literature mainly related to service industry employees such as nurses, police, and bank employees and hospitality employees such as front officers, house keepers, etc. But the literature has neglected the study of tourist guides' own work stress. It is disregarded to examine perceived work stress sources and adopted coping approaches of tourist guides where the number of visitors reached up to 46.1 million by the end of 2018. From this perspective, it can be said that the research is originally contributed to tourist guides inner world. The desired target to reach was to contribute to tourist guides in terms of being a snapshot of the current perceived work stress. It is done by the data

collection, findings and discussion. In addition, this study contributed to tourism literature with a newly developed questionnaire.

This study is limited to active tourist guides in Turkey. It is recommended that licensed tourist guides of different countries be considered for future research studies and a comparison between nationalities be made to identify situations across countries. In addition, future research should pay attention to gender differences in the tourist guides work stress sources, but also focus on possible gender-specific work stressors and coping methods, too.



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APPENDICES

Appendix A - Turist Rehberlerinde İş Stresi Kaynaklarını ve Başetme Yöntemlerini Değerlendirme Formu

Değerli katılımcı, bu anket, turist rehberlerinin iş stresi kaynakları ve iş stresiyle baş etme yollarını belirlemeye yönelik bilimsel bir çalışmaya veri toplamak amacıyla yapılmaktadır. Ankette, iş stresi kaynakları, belirtileri ve iş stresiyle mücadele yöntemlerine yönelik ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen ifadeleri okuyup değerlendiriniz. Katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim. Nermin AYAZ

İş Stres Kaynağı Meslek hayatınızda aşağıda belirtilen hususlar sizde ne derece stres yaratmaktadır	ASLA YARATMIYOR	SEYREK OLARAK YARATMIYOR	BAZEN YARATMIYOR	SIK SIK YARATMIYOR	HER ZAMAN YARATMIYOR
Ulaştırma, konaklama , yiyecek işletmesi çalışanları ile yaşanan iş ile ilgili sorunlar					
Acentenin rehberi komisyonlu satışlara zorlaması					
Kişisel özelliklerimin meslekle uyuşmaması					
Acentenin tur dağıtımında adaletsiz tutumu					
Gelirin geçimi sağlamaya yetmemesi					
Özel hayatıma yeterince zaman ayıramamak					
Aile-iş arasında çatışma					
Kariyer geliştirme imkanının sınırlı olması					
Rehberlere yönelik ödemelerin zamanında yapılmayışı					
Mağaza satışlarının (kuyum, halı,deri, vs.) yetersiz olması					
Mesleğin bazen sezonluk olması					
Mesleğin duygusal olarak yıpratması					
Müşteri memnuniyetsizliğinden kaynaklanan şikayetler					
Müşterilere tur hakkında önceden verilen bilginin (rep ya da broşür info) eksik olması					
Müşterilerin turla ilgili özel talepleri					
Tur planlamasında acentenin, önerilerimi dikkate almaması					
Tur programında yeni destinasyonların olması					
Taban ücretin altında ödeme teklif edilmesi					
Turist rehberleri arasındaki rekabetçi ortam					
Turda ihtiyaçların (yemek, tuvalet, vb..) giderilmesine yönelik tesis yetersizliği					
Acentanın tura müdahale etmesi					
Tur araçlarının fiziki yetersizliği (bozuk mikrofon,ses sistemi,klima,vb...)					
Yetersiz yabancı dil bilgisi					
Tur yönetirken kaza riskinin bulunması					
Tur yönetirken değişen iklim şartlarına(kar,yağmur,sis,sıcak hava vs..) maruz kalmak					
Kaçak rehberlerle karşılaşmak					
Tur yönetirken turistlerin sağlık problemi yaşaması					
Tur sorumluluğunun tamamen rehberde olması					
Tur yönetirken ulaşım süreçlerindeki aksamalar					
Tur yönetirken zamanlamada (timing) sorunu yaşamak					
Anlatılacak konulara hakim olmamak					
Turist rehberliğinin bazen bir meslek olarak algılanmaması					
Yoğun tur programı					
Belirsiz çalışma saatleri					
Ziyaret edilen alanlarda turist sağlığı riskleri bulunması					

Yukarıdaki maddeler dışında iş ortamında stres yaratan kaynak varsa belirtiniz.....

Başetme Yöntemleri	ASLA YAPMAM	SEYREK YAPARIM	BAZEN YAPARIM	SIK SIK YAPARIM	HER ZAMAN YAPARIM
Meslek hayatınızda meydana gelen iş stresiyle baş edebilmek için Kullandığınız yöntemleri aşağıda verilmiş olan ifadelere göre değerlendiriniz					
Öfkeyi dışa vurarak rahatlama					
Kendi kendine gevşemeyi öğrenme					
Rekreasyonel faaliyete katılma (müzik dinleme, konser, sinema, tiyatro vs.)					
Dua etme					
Fiziksel egzersiz yapma					
Konuyla ilgili birini suçlama					
Stres yaratan durumu sıkça düşünme					
Uyuma					
Meditasyon yapma					
Stres yaratan durumla yüzleşip, çözüm arama					
Elimden gelenin en iyisini yaptığımı inanma					
İşten ayrılmayı düşünme					
İzin yada rapor alarak işten uzaklaşma					
Kendimi daha çok işe verme					
Stres yaratan durumu başkalarına anlatarak rahatlama çalışma					
Çözüme odaklanma					
P.Daha kötüsü olabilirdi diye düşünerek durumu kabullenme					
Diğer (Belirtiniz)					

Yukarıdaki maddeler dışında iş stresinin farklı sonuçları varsa açıklayınız.....

Cinsiyetiniz ?	Kadın	
	Erkek	
Medeni Durumunuz?	Evli	
	Bekar	
Yaşınız	35 ve altı	
	36-45	
	46-55	
	56 ve üstü	
Eğitiminiz?	Lise	
	Önlisans	
	Lisans	
	Lisansüstü	
Aylık Geliriniz?	1500TL ve altı	
	1501-3500TL	
	3501-5000TL	
	5001TL ve üstü	
Çalışma Kartınızın Türü?	Ülkesel	
	Bölgesel	
Yabancı Diliniz	İngilizce	
	Almanca	
	Fransızca	
	İki Dil	
	Üç Dil	
Rehberlik Deneyiminiz?	1-5 yıl	

	6-10 yıl	
	11-15 yıl	
	16 yıl ve üzeri	
Çalışma Şekliniz?	Acentada maaşlı çalışırım	
	Serbest çalışırım	
Yönettiğiniz Turlar?	Günlük	
	Uzun Süreli Anadolu (5 gün ve üzeri)	
	Yurtdışı	
	Günlük +Uzun Süreli	
	Uzun Süreli Anadolu + Yurtdışı	
	Günlük +Yurtdışı	
Uzmanlık Alanı	Kültürel	
	Dini	
	Kültürel + Dini	
	Kültürel + Dini + Trekking	
Hangi Meslek Odasına Üyesiniz?	ANRO	
	ARO	
	ATRO	
	ÇARO	
	İRO	
	İZRO	
	MURO	
	Diğerleri	

Appendix B Tourist Guides Work Stress Sources And Coping Methods Evaluation Questionnaire (TGWSQ)

TOURIST GUIDES WORK STRESS EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE (TGWSQ)

Dear participant, this questionnaire is prepared to investigate work stress sources and coping methods of tourist guides for a scientific research. There are expressions on work stressors and coping methods. Please read and evaluate the expressions. Thank you for participation. Nermin AYAZ

Work Stress Sources	Never Put Stress On Me	Rarely Put Stress On Me	Occasionally Put Stress On Me	Frequently Put Stress On Me	Always Put Stress On Me
Third Party Partners Problem					
Pressure by travel agency on sales					
Personality					
Unfair Treatment by Travel Agency					
Insufficient Income					
Work-Social Life Balance					
Work-Family Balance					
Lack Of Career Development Opportunities					
Late Payment					
Insufficient Sales					
Job Insecurity (Seasonality)					
Emotional Exhaustion					
Customer Dissatisfaction					
Lack of information given by reps					
Customer Demands					
Lack of Participation in Decision Making					
Difficult or Complex Task					
To Be Offered Under The Base Rate Payment					
Competitors					
Lack of Facilities					
Excessive Control					
Insufficient Vehicles					
Lack of Professional Knowledge					
Accident Risks at Tour					
To be Exposed to Bad Weather					
Unlicensed Tourist Guides					
Customer Health Problem					
Over Responsibility					
Transportation Problems					
Time Pressure					
Insufficient Knowledge					
Feeling Undervalued					
Workload					
Long Work Hours					
Health Risks at Tour					
Coping Methods	Never Do	Rarely Do	Occasionally Do	Frequently Do	Always Do
Act Out Anger					
Self-Relaxation					
Participate In Recreational Activities (Music, Concerts, Cinema, Theater, Etc.)					

Praying					
Physical Exercise					
Blame Someone					
Think About Stressor Often					
Sleep					
Meditation					
Facing The Stressor And Seeking Solutions					
Believe That Best Is Done					
Quit The Job					
Work More					
Focus On The Solution					
Wishful Thinking					

Gender	Female	
	Male	
Marital Status	Married	
	Nonmarried	
Age	35 And Less	
	36-45	
	46-55	
	56 And Over	
Education Level	High School	
	Associate Degree	
	Bachelor's Degree	
	Master's and Doctoral Degree	
Income (Monthly)	1500TL And Less	
	1501-3500TL	
	3501-5000TL	
	5001TL And More	
Licence Type	National	
	Regional	
Foreign Language	English	
	German	
	French	
	Two Languages	
	Three or More Languages	
Professional Experience (Years)	1-5	
	6-10	
	11-15	
	16 year and over	
Working Type	Travel Agency	
	Freelance	
Managed Tour Type	Day Trip/Sejour	
	Circuit Anatolia Tours (5 Days And More)	
	Outgoing Tours	
	Day Trip/Sejour + Circuit Anatolia	
	Circuit Anatolia + Outgoing Tours	
	Day Trip/Sejour + Outgoing Tours	
Professional Field	Cultural	
	Religious	
	Cultural + Religious	
	Cultural + Religious + Trekking	
Registered To Chamber...	ANRO	
	ARO	
	ATRO	
	ÇARO	
	İRO	
	İZRO	
	MURO	
	Others	

Appendix C Social Research Ethic Council Result on Questionnaire



SOSYAL ARAŞTIRMALAR ETİK KURULU KARAR FORMU

Toplantı No:2018/07
Karar No:06
Tarih :28/06/2018

Yürütücü Araştırmacı Nermin AYAZ tarafından hazırlanan "Work Stress and Coping With Work Stress: A study on Tourist Guides" adlı araştırma başvuru dosyası ile ilgili belgeler araştırmanın gerekçe, amaç, yaklaşım ve yöntemleri dikkate alınarak incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuş olup, çalışmanın başvuru dosyasında belirtilen merkezde gerçekleştirilmesinde etik sakınca **bulunmadığına** toplantıya katılan etik kurul üyelerinin **oybirliği** ile karar verilmiştir.

Prof. Dr. Muhsin AKBAŞ
Etik Kurul Başkanı

Sayfa 1