CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The review of related studies is an important part of the research. It provides the means of getting to the frontiers in the researchers’ particular field of knowledge. The identification of a problem of research design and determination of the size and scope of the problem all depend to a great extent and the care and intensity with which a researcher has examined the literature related to the proposed research.

A survey of the literature in the field will be a great advantage and also useful to the researchers. A study of the related literature implies locating, reading and evaluating reports of research as well as report of casual observation and opinion that are related to the individual, planned research projects.

2.2 Work Life Balance

Meenakshisundaram and Panchanathan (2012) in their study “Work Life Balance of Employees” have been found that the organization is showing keen interest in employees’ life career and work load has been kept reasonable, by sharing the duties and responsibilities among the employees. Employees are comfortable at work place and giving an equal quantum of importance to both family and work. From this study, it was found that most of the employees are able to balance their work life and personal life.
Helen and Gray (2005) have reported “a link between an organization’s commitment to work life balance policies and the employee’s commitment to the organization. This study of teachers reported higher commitment, job satisfaction, and lower turnover intention when the employees perceived their organization to be supportive of work life balance initiatives and the results of the study provide evidence that work life balance policies are related to organizational performance in the Indian institutions”.2

Robertson (2005) found that, “career advancement often requires long hours, but satisfaction and feelings of success, which are indicators of a balanced life, come from a full and complete life with all its varied experiences, including experiences outside of work”.3

Spinks (2004) observes, “Positive work experiences that allow employees to reach their full potential, be fully engaged, and be able to meet their personal and professional goals and objectives promote a balance where “work can enhance life of the job, not just detract from it and the inverse is true of individuals and employers who are able to achieve work life balance”.4

Rodbourne and Spinks (2004) argue, “the low utilization of work life balance programs has its probable root in the perception that adopting flexible working arrangements leads to less job security and hinders future career prospects.5

Helen (2002) revealed that, “institutions have service benefit considerations of work life balance policies to generate performance benefits for institution by enhancing recruitment and reducing absenteeism and turnover”.6
Bruck and Spector (2002) say, “work life balance policies are also reported to improve organizations’ competitiveness by increasing their ability to attract employees; induce employees to exercise discretionary effort in performing their work and help employees to be more productive”. 7

Sukhdev Singh (2001) conducted the study “Job satisfaction of teachers of rural and urban schools in Tehsil Malout in relation to their age, sex, marital status and socio-economic status”. It was concluded that female teachers have more job satisfaction as compared to their counterpart male teachers. This job satisfaction can be related to work stress and work balancing. 8

“The costs to your business of failing to improve work life balance include poor performance, absenteeism and sick leave; and higher staff turnover, recruitment and training costs” says, Report of Department of Trade and Industry (2001). 9

Further, Lambert (2000) reported “a positive relationship between the announcement of organizational work life balance policies and employees returns, indicating that they view family-friendly institutions more favourably”. 10

Rodbourne (1996) pleads, “the complex nature of work life balance requires participation and support from all involved, including the individual and the employer, and there appears to be some indication that employers are not (or are not perceived as) fully supportive of employees who participate. It is shown that employees are afraid to use the programs for fear of negative consequences because the culture of organizations still favours the person who gives their all to the business at hand.” 11
Grover and Crookern (1995) found that, “employees in institutions with organizational work life balance benefits had higher levels of organizational commitment to the organization and expressed lower turnover intentions, regardless of whether the employee individually benefited from the policy”. 12

A study by the Center for Work Life Policy (1995) finds that, “35 percent of women and 48 percent of men say that they would be penalized for using work or life options. It seems that though work life programs are available to employees, individuals and organizations have yet to fully embrace the idea.” 13

Galinski (1995) argues that, “although working long and hard is clearly part and parcel of advancing in today's corporate structure it is a one-sided life, where work always comes first, isn’t necessarily beneficial to career development”. 14

2.3 Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Cappelli (2000) is of the opinion that, “institutions that seek to increase teacher morale, commitment and satisfaction, and reduce source of stress and problems at work, will improve their ability to recruit and retain talented and valued personnels”. 15

Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that “teachers who used flexible practices had more control over managing work and family demands and had also higher job satisfaction”. However, they did not find a significant relationship between these flexible practices and absenteeism. 16
Dalton and Mesch (1990) compared, “the absenteeism and turnover of employees in two divisions of one institution: one with and one without flexible system and absenteeism fell significantly in the case of employees who used flexible system, but turnover was not affected”.  

2.4 Role Conflict

Sultana (1995) in her study investigated the level of organizational role stress among male and female teachers of professional and non-professional courses. She found “significant difference between professional and non-professional female teachers on the role stress dimensions of inter-role distance and role overload. There is significant difference between professional and non-professional male teachers on the role stress dimensions of inter-role distance, role overload”.  

Ushashree and Jamuna (1990) conducted a study to examine the role conflict and job stress among special and general teachers. “Teachers from schools, both men and women, were found to experience significantly greater role conflict and job stress compared to their counterparts in general schools”.  

2.5 Job Satisfaction and Stress

Sujatha and Mishra (1998) attempted to compare occupational stress between public and private sector employees. The subjects were administered a job stress questionnaire containing ten factors like lack of group cohesiveness, role conflict, feeling of inequity, role ambiguity, role overload, job difficulty, job requirement, inadequacy of role authority, role underload and inter personal
relationship. The result indicated that employees of private sector showed significantly more job stress than public sector employees on total job stress and each of the ten components of job stress. Also the public and private sector employees were found have differential effects on job experience.\textsuperscript{20}

Sakthivelu (1997) found that there was significant difference between the government and private primary school teachers with respect to their job satisfaction.\textsuperscript{21}

Mishra (1996) conducted a study\textsuperscript{''}, to compare the levels of occupational stress and job satisfaction among male and female teachers of higher educational institutions\textsuperscript{''}. The following conclusions were drawn:

\begin{itemize}
  \item Significant differences were observed between male and female teachers in the areas of private life, workload, and role conflict. Female teachers experienced more stress in these areas as compared to male teachers.
  \item No significant differences were found between the two groups in environmental and personal areas.
  \item Significant differences were also observed between male and female teachers on overall stress and overall job satisfaction.
  \item Stress was found to be correlated negatively and significantly with job satisfaction in both the groups.
  \item Male teachers obtained maximum scores on under load area whereas female teachers obtained maximum scores on overload area.\textsuperscript{22}
\end{itemize}
Raju (1994) studied the influence of organisational level on role stress. A scale of role conflict and role ambiguity by Rizzo was administered to the subjects. The result indicated that subjects at higher occupational levels experienced significantly lower role conflict and role ambiguity than subjects at lower level. The study also concluded that subjects promoted to higher occupational level developed skill to cope with role conflict and role ambiguity and perhaps did not perceive the stressful nature of some events. The study also found significant differences in mean role conflict and role ambiguity score only at top level and not in middle and lower occupational subjects.\textsuperscript{23}

Dhillon and Paramjeet (1990) made a study on job satisfaction related to personal variables. The aim of the study was to find out the relationship of personal variables such as age, educational qualification and organizational level with job satisfaction. The results suggested that education may reduce job satisfaction when it raises high career and work aspirations and expectations that may not be fully realized on the job.\textsuperscript{24}

2.6 Stress

The Health and Safety Executive (2000) in the United Kingdom reported that “teaching was the most stressful occupation, compared to other occupations, such as nursing, managing, professional and community service occupations. It was also reported that two out of five teachers in the United Kingdom experienced stress, compared to one in five workers from other occupations.\textsuperscript{25}

A different approach to assessing the relationship between coping strategies and teacher stress was employed by Admiral (2000), who was
“concerned with active vs. passive response to disruptive behaviour in the classroom. 27 student teachers gave a total of 300 responses to indicate their coping responses to everyday stressful classroom situations. A strong relationship emerged between a coping style involving active behavioral intervention and teacher satisfaction, and a weaker relationship with pupil time on task was also evident”. 26

In a study, Griffith (1999) questioned 780 school teachers, aiming to assess the associations between stress, coping responses and social support. “High levels of stress were associated with low social support and the use of disengagement and suppression of competing activities as coping strategies. Interestingly, stepwise multiple regressions revealed that coping style not only mediated the effects of environmental stressors, but also influences teachers’ perceptions of their environment as stressful. This is significant as it suggests that some of the stressors associated with teaching may not be inherently stressful but act as stressors only in transaction with coping style”. 27

Pithers and Soden (1998) have highlighted role overload as a significant stressor in teachers. “They assessed levels of strain, organizational roles and stress in 322 Australian and Scottish vocational lecturers. Strain was found to be average in both national groups, but there were high levels of stress, with role overload emerging as the major cause”. 28

Yagil D. (1998) conducted a research and found “Occupational stress among inexperienced teachers”. “The results show that inexperienced compared to experienced teachers stated that they experience an overall higher level of
stress. The major sources of stress for inexperienced teachers are interaction with pupils’ parents and workload. Inexperienced teachers are less involved emotionally in their work, especially with regard to incidents of unsatisfactory performance and they are similar to experienced teachers in both their emotional reactions to successful performance and in their actions in stressful situations”.  

Travers and Cooper (1997) surveyed 800 teachers in England and France about stress and found substantially different responses. “22 percent of sick leave in England, as opposed to 1 percent in France was attributed to stress. 55 percent of the English teachers as opposed to 20 percent of the French sample reported recently considering leaving teaching. Interestingly, there was substantial agreement between the English and French teachers as to the sources of pressure, both groups citing classroom discipline, low social status and lack of parental support”. However, English teachers reported more problems with long hours, overwork and political interference.  

Pithers (1995) found, “there are four major issues concerning the teacher stress. “The first issue is whether to use the term “teacher stress” to refer to the level of demands made on the teacher. A second issue is, whether stress should refer to all demands (both positive and negative) or only to a negative one. The third issue involves the fact that teachers’ emotional response to their situation very much depends on their perception of situation and their coping ability and the fourth issue concerns how best to take account of the balance between the level of demands made on teacher, or the teachers’ ability to meet such demands”.
Borg (1991) produced a questionnaire to investigate occupational stress among teachers. They found the major causes of stress were “problems of student attitudes, problem with time and resource management, lack of professional recognition and interpersonal relationships”.

A comprehensive survey by Borge, Riding, and Falzon (1991) suggested “pupil misbehaviour, time difficulties, and poor relationships as distant dimensions of teacher stress”.

Nattrass (1991) found “stress as the number one health problem amongst teachers”.

Winkinson (1988) suggested that “teaching is a profession where practitioners are subjected to a high incidence of potentially stressful situations”.

Winkinson (1988) reported “irribility, frustration, tension and anxiety as the main symptoms of stress at work among teachers”.

Dunham (1984) found that “teachers reported working relationships with colleagues as a source of stress”.

Laughlin (1984) reveals that, “the issue of teacher stress is one of the complex interactions of factors, whose results may well be the negative feelings that are associated with stress. A vital assumption inherent in the above definition is that an important contributory factor in the experience of stress in teachers is not only the aspects of the job, but also elements of the individual teacher emphasizing the individual subjective perception of work experience.”
Dunham (1984) identified three major approaches to understand the nature of stress in teaching. “The first model engineering model of stress, based on the stimulus oriented theories of stress, looks at the pressures exerted on teachers in schools. This model presents stress as the load or demand placed upon a person which exceeds the limits of the individuals' capacity to adapt to it. Teachers, in this model, are perceived as subjects who operate in such situations which may give rise to demands beyond their adaptive limits. The second, ‘physiological model’ of stress, based on the response oriented theories of stress, focuses on the teacher’s reactions and coping resources which teachers use in their attempts to cope with stress. Teachers are again perceived as subject to the pressure applied and as a consequence response is aroused. The third ‘international and transactional model’ conceptualizes stress as the product of a complete transaction between individual needs/ resources and environmental demands and constraints. This model is based on the international theories of stress. This model perceives stress as interactive and situational. It recognizes that on the one hand, teaching as a profession and some schools in particular may exert pressures on teachers; while on the other; individual teachers react in different ways and bring a variety of adaptive resources to help them to cope with those pressures”.

Brenner and Bartell (1984) found that “teacher stress results from the combined effects of the teacher and international characteristics, potential stressors in the school environment, actual stressors, overall perceived work related stressors, stress reactions and symptoms and health status, personality
characteristics and coping mechanisms, as well as non-work related (life events) stressors”.

Fimian’s (1984) survey indicate that “teachers report experiencing stress at work more than the majority of the other professions”.

Melendez and DeGuaman (1983) found that the “three sources of stress of highest concern were faculty apathy, student apathy and overload”.

According to Schwab and Iwanlacki (1982), occupational stress in teachers can lead to a variety of negative outcomes, including emotional exhaustion, feeling of depersonalization, and a sense of failure with one’s personal accomplishment.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) describe in a study that, “stress of teachers as a response syndrome of negative affect such as anger and depression, usually accompanied by physiological changes (such as increased heart rate) resulting from aspects of the teacher constitute a threat to his or her self-esteem or well-being”.

Beehr and Newman (1978) in a study proposed three perspectives for viewing occupational stress: “the personal characteristics which are thought to cause or contribute to stress; the interaction between the individual and the environment together with the stress generated by this interaction”.

Kyriacou and Sutcliff (1978) pointed out that “stress reactions would vary among individuals, even when the objective external conditions are the same.
They have defined teacher stress in terms of negative reactions resulting from the aspects of teachers job and mediated by the perception of teacher”.

Cox (1978) believed that “when faced with any task, the person has two evaluations to make, which are the demands of the task and his own capability of fulfilling these demands. When these two assessments disagree a state of imbalance results, which is the underlying cause of stress response. When the task demand exceeds the person’s capability exceeds the demands, he is also under stress”.

Hodge and Marker (1978) identified “workplace related sources of stress as relationships needs, inattentive students and lack of discipline in students”.

Simpson (1976) found that “most frequently reported reactions to work induced pressures were feelings of exhaustion, tension, headaches, reduction of contacts with other people, outside school hours and disturbed sleep”.

Eckert and Williams (1972) found that “routine duties, long hours, poor facilities, friction among faculty members, and administrative red tape were the prevalent sources of stress”.

2.7 Conflicts

Geetika Singla (2006) in her study “A study of the occupation stress among employees from different careers of Chandigarh” has found that doctors and teachers are highly stressed as compared to the employees from other professions. Both the teachers and doctors face a significant amount of work load and the study also reveals that female are more stressed as compared to male.”
Anna Halsall (2005) in his study found that women teachers were still encountering many difficulties. The different groups of “women experience gender and gender discrimination in different ways”.

Mokdad (2005) conducted a study on 126 teachers of college from Biskra governorate to know the sources of stress, symptoms of stress and the coping strategies for the stress. “The major sources of stress were society, parents, teaching, the teaching environment, pupils, supervision, curriculum and administration. More than 70 percent of the teachers reported headaches. As to the strategies for coping, 62 percent used to watch TV programmes and the differences were significant only for age and gender”.

Yang (2005) in their study found that “there are heavier occupational roles, stronger interpersonal and physical strain in males than female”.

Monica (2004) conducted a study and found that “teachers of Punjabi colleges are more stressed as compared to the teachers of other colleges. The study also reveals that the environment also affects the person and the teachers from Chandigarh were found to have less stress as compared to the teachers from Fatehgarh Sahib”.

Ginni Duggal (2004) conducted study on teachers burn out in relation to their personality characteristics, work environment and job satisfaction. During her study, she found that “private college teachers are more prone to stress as compared to their counterparts in government colleges”. It also revealed that teachers of rural area as well as of higher age group have more stress.
Clarke and Cooper (2003) find that “working in a stressful environment not only increase the risk of physical illness or distress, but also increases the likelihood of workplace conflicts”\(^\text{57}\).

Kirk (2003) found that, “certain professional variables stimulate teacher stress”. For example women teachers experience stress more frequently than male teachers. The fewer years of professional preparation a teacher has also increase the greater the likelihood of stress and however, age and gender are not significant when examining stress”\(^\text{58}\).

Okebukola and Jegede (1989) developed a questionnaire in order to study factors related to occupational stress among teachers in Nigeria. They found “five main factors related to stress: student factors, teacher factors, the school working environment, administrative procedures and service conditions. Female teachers were more influenced by the school environment and administrative procedures than male teachers and those who were not married found that student factors caused greater levels of stress than in those who were married”\(^\text{59}\).

**2.8 Stress Burnout**

Dorman (2003) observes that “Measuring teacher stress is important and can play an important role in understanding the processes that lead to teacher burnout and burnout is described as the inability to perform both functionally and effectively in employment settings due to extensive exposure to job-related stress”. \(^\text{60}\)
Kalimo and Hakanen (2000) conducted a study in Finland and found "educators have the highest burnout levels compared to workers in all other human services and white collar jobs and it is important to note that the majority of teachers are not anxious, stressed, unmotivated, or burned-out".\(^{61}\)

In a study by Tuck (1999) it was reported that "disruptive students, inadequate remuneration and task overload were sources of moderate stress in college teachers".\(^{62}\)

Travers and Cooper (1996) found "teaching is stressful, it has been estimated that between 5 percent and 20 percent of all U.S. teachers are burned out at any given time. In comparison with other professions, teachers show high levels of exhaustion and cynicism, the core dimensions of burnout".\(^{63}\)

Bridges (1992) has identified numerous sources of stress such as "intrinsic to the task and role overload and associated demands on time, disruptive pupils, inadequate administrative support, lack of social recognition of value of teaching as vocation and inadequate resources for teaching".\(^{64}\)

Research of Pearlin and Tumer (1987) have revealed that family based strains can result from four possible sources:

- Role pressures or overload
- Interpersonal conflicts between couples and between parents and children.
- Role captivity where they are bound by one role.
• Restructuring of family roles through time.\textsuperscript{65}

Kyriacou and Pratt (1985) described the “most frequently mentioned symptoms in teachers as being unable to relax or after work; feeling very tense; being emotionally and emotionally drained at the end of the school day; and sleeplessness”.\textsuperscript{66}

Otto (1982) indicated stressors in the area of the compensation and quality teaching performance, dealing with students of different backgrounds, culture and gender”.\textsuperscript{67}

2.9 Work Experience

Lath Sandeep (2007) conducted a study on 100 teachers to study the causes of occupational stress. “It was found that role insufficiency and role ambiguities highly influenced the less experienced teachers”.\textsuperscript{68}

2.10 Job Demands and Resources

Demerouti (2001) suggested that “Job demands might measure the challenges in work rather than the stressful aspects. Job demands may become stressors in situations which require high effort to sustain an expected performance level, consequently eliciting negative responses, including burnout”.\textsuperscript{69}

According to the Job Demands and Resources Model, (1998) regardless of the occupations two broad categories of work characteristics distinguished between job demands and job resources. “Job demands refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained
physical and psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs”.\(^ {70} \)

Brown and Ralph (1992) reported that “the most common sources of teacher stress are structural change, classroom discipline, heavy work load, lack of resources and poor management”.\(^ {71} \)

Laughlin (1984) revealed “a general lack of resources as one of the most important factors, more specifically inadequate school buildings and equipment and an unpleasant work environment”.\(^ {72} \)

McGrath (1976) has suggested that the “concept of uncertainty represents a unifying factor in stress research that underpins many other variables and this uncertainty may be about the future, in terms of career development or simply about whether the job is secure or not”.\(^ {73} \)

2.11 Intrinsic Rewards

Brouwers and Tomic (2000) used structural equation modeling to analyze the relationships between self efficacy and burnout in 243 teachers. “It emerged that self efficacy had a synchronous effect on personal accomplishment and a longitudinal effect on depersonalization. However, low self efficacy had a synchronous effect on emotional exhaustion. The direction of the casual relationship between self efficacy and stress symptom is particularly significant as it suggests that cognitive interventions designed to improve self efficacy may mediate the effects of stress”.\(^ {74} \)
Woods (1999) states that “the main attractions of teaching are the intrinsic rewards that come from interacting with pupils and enjoying pupils’ achievements. Job resources that would capture the positive aspects of daily teaching and interaction with pupils are needed in future studies to more thoroughly explore the motivational process of well-being among teachers”.75

Further, he is of the opinion that “teaching is traditionally viewed as a profession with high initial commitment to the extent that teaching can be said to be a calling for many entering the profession. Although today’s teachers have many different motives for working in the classroom, in the present study it was not possible to take into account individual differences, e.g., intrinsic motivation or strong feelings to work as a teacher”.76

Cooper Marshal (1978) points out that “the potential threat to autonomy, freedom and identity that threat may impose. Worker well being will be affected by the way in which the organization treats its members and the culture and management style of an organization may be responsible for causing some of the sources of stress”.77

2.12 Work Load

Boyle (1995) validated “dimensions in order to form one model of factors associated with occupational stress; they found work load was another factor besides the other factors”.78

Another study by Bolye (1995) concludes that there are multiple sources of teacher stress and these sources are collected and found that “work load and student misbehavior are the two major contributors to teacher stress”.79
Cooper and Kelly (1993) studied a wide range of educators from teachers to principals of higher institutions and, “two main sources emerged as prediction of occupational stress and job dissatisfaction: ‘work overload’ and association between teacher stress and personality factors”.

Fimian and Santro, (1983) are of the opinion that “work overload is also heavily linked to time pressure not only in terms of the amount of work teachers have to fit in during the day, but also the amount that they have to take home at night, into their personal life”.

Another aspect of the teaching that can be “seen directly related to work overload is the problem of having a wide range of pupil abilities in one class. This may require more less on planning and more detailed and lengthy assessment”, say Fimian and Santro (1981).

2.13 Perception

According to Boyle(1995), teacher stress may expressed as “a response of negative effect resulting from aspects of the teachers job and mediated by the perception that the demands made upon the teacher constitute a threat to her/his well being”.

Punch and Tuetteeman (1990) found “job related stress factors that were related to stress were perceived as lack of efficacy and achievement, inadequate access to facilities, lack of collegial support, excessive societal expectations, lack of influence, student misbehaviour and lack of praise and recognition”.
Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) concluded that “teachers perceived their job as very stressful or extremely stressful and the results also showed that the level of self-reported stress was related to workplace and not to the biographical characteristics of teachers”.

According to Kyricou and Sutcliffe (1978), “teacher’s perception of threat is the key element among sources of stress. When demands were made upon the teacher, he was unable to cope and failure to do so threatened his mental or physical well being”.

2.14 Morale

A study by Otto (1982) reveals that “up to one third of teachers regard teaching as highly stressful and stress has been identified as a major problem in 9 out of 10 UK workplaces leading to rushing absenteeism and low morale among staff, and this is particularly true for teaching. In US, teaching is now ranked number one stressful job. In the same way studies undertaken in Australia and New Zealand have also found high levels of stress among teachers”.

2.15 Productivity

Brown and Ralph (1992) in their study listed the most common signs of teacher stress as “performance at work, relationships with colleagues. The signs related to the first category performance at work are frequently feeling like staying off work, inability to manage time well, inability to meet deadlines, inability to concentrate, having a heavy workload, inability to meet deadlines, inability to concentrate, having a heavy workload, inability to delegate, feelings
of inadequacy related to performance at work, job dissatisfaction, taking work home more frequently and low level of productivity”.

2.16 Interpersonal Relationship

Cooper and Payne (1988) reveals that, “with regard to interpersonal relationships, the major aspects that may be deemed stressful are those concerned with status incongruence, social density, abrasive personalities, leadership style and group pressure”.

Brenner and Bartell (1984) have argued that the dominant source of stress is the “quality of interpersonal relationships and good relationships are of great value when providing support, which may alleviate stress”. The evidence, however, is mixed and the value of the support may depend on its nature. Some types of communication may serve to reinforce difficulties and problems rather than help to resolve them and interpersonal demands and social pressures can in themselves be potent sources of stress”.

According to Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) the “symptoms of stress may be physical such as peptic, ulcers, cardiovascular diseases, psychological such as depression, anxiety or behavioural such as deterioration in work performance and interpersonal relationships”.

2.17 Research Gap

The above said review of previous studies discussed the work life conflict, its causes and consequences and the coping strategies adopted by the employees to maintain the work life balance. All these studies have been
undertaken only in foreign countries. Though work life balance and work life conflict have been studied by a few in the Indian context, there is no exclusive study on work life balance in the education field. The researcher concentrates on the work family conflicts, family work conflicts, its antecedents and outcomes in the teaching field. Hence, the researcher in the present study has made an attempt to fill up the research gap.
END NOTES


40. Brenner and Bartell (1984), The Effects of Teacher Enthusiasm on Student Intrinsic Motivation and Vitality”, *Journal of Experimental Education*, 68, p.236.


64. Bridges (1992), “A Longitudinal Study of Burnout in Teachers”, British Journal of Educational Psychology, 61, p.34.

65. Pearlin and Tumer (1987), A Theory of Performance, Mittal Publication, Delhi,p.34.


