CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
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CHAPTER II
CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK

2.1.0 OVERVIEW

This chapter describes the different variables concerned with the study. There are five sections in this chapter. Section one gives an overview of the chapter and section two describes the variable, Emotional Intelligence. Section three describes the variable, Stress whereas the fourth section describes about Teaching Effectiveness and last section gives a conclusion.

2.2.0 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

As early as 1920, E. L. Thorndike at Columbia University used the term Social Intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people.

Similarly, in 1940 David Wechsler described the influence of non-intellective factors on intelligent behaviour and further argued that models of intelligence would not be complete until one can adequately describe these factors.

In 1975, Howard Gardner's ‘Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences' introduced the idea of Multiple Intelligences which included both Interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and Intrapersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations). In Gardner's view, traditional type intelligence, such as IQ, fail to
fully explain cognitive ability. Thus, even though the names given to the concept varied, there was a common belief that traditional definitions of intelligence are lacking in ability to fully explain performance outcomes.

The first explicit application of the term "Emotional Intelligence" is mostly attributed to Wayne Payne's doctoral thesis, ‘A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence’ from 1985. Payne, however, did not publish his theory, so the article published in 1990 by Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer (1990) is generally regarded as the first systematic theoretical account of the construct.

Gunderman (2011) refers to emotional intelligence, as a type of intelligence, as well. He has defined it as "the ability to understand and respond to emotions in daily life". For instance, a person, who may be going through trials and tribulations, but does not face his or her emotions and tackle them, may be constantly frustrated; this said person will face troubles moving on with his or her life. Consequently, emotionally intelligent individuals are better at expressing and identifying their emotions and those of the people around them. Those who are adept at handling their emotions tend to live an easier life than those who are not. Since people with better emotional intelligence are sensitive to emotions, they are considered better team players and are family-oriented.

Some researchers argue that emotional intelligence is biological, while others say it is innate. Gunderman states that emotional intelligence is a learned and an instinctual skill. It can be cultivated through three means: learning more about it; drawing attention to it for ourselves and others;
reading books by emotionally intelligent authors, such as Jane Austen and Leo Tolstoy. Through engaging in emotional expressions and regulation, it is contemplated more than before and brings forth considerable changes in life and attitude.

**Emotional Intelligence – Definitions**

"Emotional Intelligence is the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence" *(Mayer & Salovey, 1997)*

"Emotional Intelligence refers to the processes involved in the recognition, use, understanding and management of one's own and others' emotional states to solve emotion-laden problems and to regulate behaviour" *(Mayer & Salovey, 1997)*

**Reuven Baron (1997)** describes Emotional Intelligence as "an array of personal, emotional and social competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures"

**Daniel Goleman (1995)** defines EI as 'the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those feelings in and of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing well the emotions in ourselves and in our relationships.'

### 2.2.1 Models of Emotional Intelligence

**The ability - based model**

Mayer and Salovey's conception of EI strives to define EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to: "The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth".
The ability-based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviour.

The model proposes that EI includes 4 types of abilities:

Perceiving emotions - the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts- including the ability to identify one’s own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

Using emotions - the ability to use emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities such as thinking and problem-solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

Understanding emotions - the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

Managing emotions - the ability to regulate emotions in both oneself and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can use emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.
Mixed models of EI - The Emotional Competencies (Goleman) model

The EI model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive managerial performance, measured by multi-rater assessment and self-assessment (Bradberry and Greaves, 2009). In working with Emotional Intelligence (1998), Goleman explored the function of EI on the job, and claimed EI to be the largest single predictor of success in the workplace, with more recent confirmation of these findings on a worldwide sample seen in Bradberry and Greaves.

Goleman’s model outlines four main EI constructs:

1. Self-awareness - the ability to read one’s emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions.
2. Self-management - involves controlling one’s emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.
3. Social awareness - the ability to sense, understand, and react to other’s emotions while comprehending social networks.
4. Relationship management - the ability to inspire, influence, and develop others while managing conflict.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.
The Bar-On model of Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI)

Reuven Bar-On (2006) developed one of the first measures of EI that used the term "Emotion Quotient". He defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On posits that EI develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming and therapy. Bar-On hypothesizes that those individuals with higher than average E.Q. are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures.

He also notes that a deficiency in EI can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one’s environment is thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality-testing, problem-solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person’s general intelligence, which then, offers an indication of one’s potential to succeed in life.

The Trait EI model

Petrides and Furnham (2001) proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability-based model and a trait-based model of EI. Trait EI (or ‘trait emotional self-efficacy’) refers to "a constellation of behavioral dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one’s ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information". This definition of EI
encompasses behavioural dispositions and self- perceived abilities and is measured by self-report, as opposed to the ability-based model which refers to actual abilities as they express themselves in performance-based measures. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework.

This conceptualization of EI as a personality trait leads to a construct that lies outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability. This is an important distinction in as much as it bears directly on the operationalization of the construct and the theories and hypotheses that are formulated about it. The trait EI model is represented (often incorrectly) in dozens of peer-reviewed publications in the scientific literature.

2.2.2 Branches of Emotional Intelligence

1. Emotional identification, perception and expression
   - The ability to perceive and identify emotions in faces, tone or voice, body language
   - The capacity for self-awareness: Being aware of one’s own feelings as they are occurring
   - The capacity for emotional literacy: Being able to label specific feelings in one self and others; being able to discuss emotions and communicate clearly and directly.

2. Emotional facilitation of thought
   - The ability to incorporate feelings into analysis, reasoning, problem-solving and decision-making
   - The potential of one’s feelings to guide him to what is important to think about
3. Emotional understanding

- The ability to solve emotional problems
- The ability to identify and understand the inter-relationships between emotions, thoughts and behaviour. For example, to see cause and effect relationships such as how thoughts can affect emotions or how emotions can affect thoughts, and how emotions can lead to the behaviour in one self and others.
- The ability to understand the value of emotions to the survival of the species

4. Emotional management

- The ability to take responsibility for one’s own emotions and happiness
- The ability to turn negative emotions into positive learning and growing opportunities
- The ability to help others identify and benefit from their emotions

2.2.3 Emotional Intelligence and Personality

There are several reasons to understand emotional intelligence and personality together. Emotional intelligence is a part of human personality, and personality provides the context in which emotional intelligence operates. Emotional intelligence can be considered a mental ability that involves the ability to reason validly with emotional information, and the action of emotions to enhance thought. Personality can be defined as a person’s pattern of internal experience and social interaction that arises from the action of that individual’s major psychological subsystems. Major psychological subsystems involve emotion, cognition, and the self, among others.
There are several reasons to understand this relationship:

1. Understanding “where” and “what” EI is? (e.g., a mental ability inside, or, a part of, personality) can help identify the type of data necessary to be collected to study the idea.

2. Placing emotional intelligence in its psychological context allows one to compare and contrast it with different parts of personality: Those that are similar; those that are related; and those that are different.

3. If a person’s ultimate aim is to understand a target variable - such as aggression or problem behaviour - understanding the personality system as a whole can help link EI with other relevant parts of personality for empirical study.

4. Understanding EI as a part of the broader personality system also can alert researchers as to what parts of personality may influence EI, increase its effects, or lower them.

5. Considerable research exists as to how personality’s parts are expressed. Understanding that EI is a part of personality that indicates a great deal about how it will be expressed.

6. The field of personality psychology is undergoing a renaissance today.

Emotional intelligence can be compared and contrasted with a number of other parts of personality. These other parts are distinct from emotional intelligence both conceptually and empirically. That means that each part has a definition that is distinct from emotional intelligence. Moreover, although a person may be high in emotional intelligence, they may be high or low in many of the following characteristics:
Empathy: Including a feeling for others, sympathetic reactions to their feelings, and imaginative involvement in how the other person might be feeling.

Emotional self-efficacy: A person's belief that he or she possesses empathy and assertiveness as well as elements of social intelligence, personal intelligence and emotional intelligence.

Socio-emotional effectiveness: An individual's capacity to navigate the social world in an effective manner, accomplishing his or her goals as needed.

Socio-emotionally effective behaviour: the observable acts of the individual that lead to emotional and social effectiveness of interactions with others.

Interest: a motivational urge to pursue learning about a topic.

Curiosity: a motivational and emotional urge to explore and understand ideas.

Intrinsic Intellectuality: one term (of several, e.g., need for cognition) that describes a person's generally intellectual orientation.

A Few Indicators of Low and High EQ

There are various types of expressions of emotions, which are exhibited in a positive or negative manner. Many a time there is a specific blend of two or more types of emotions and hence cannot be described in a few words. However we present a few of them here. These behaviours can also be categorized as low and high E.Q.
It is to be noted that the word list should not be interpreted as the exact antonyms of each other. Rather these behaviours indicate the two different behaviours: one may be called as positive (high E.Q.) and the other as negative behaviour (low E.Q.)

**Indicators of EQ**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High EQ</th>
<th>Low EQ</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amiable</td>
<td>Gruff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calm</td>
<td>Enraged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placid, Serene</td>
<td>Furious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic, Benevolent</td>
<td>Insidious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contentment</td>
<td>Frowning Disgruntled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zealous, Endurance</td>
<td>Despondent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solicitous</td>
<td>Malicious</td>
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**EI and Teaching**

Because EI is about understanding and assessing behavioural modalities and patterns, it is also relevant to the development of both the individual and the organization. Within education, it should be applied to the institution as a whole, for teachers and the students through promoting academic success while addressing personal and social issues, reducing anxiety and dealing with negative feelings during the learning process.

At the same time, patterns for future lives can be established while social skills are being developed and that are in demand by employers.
At an institutional level, the emphasis should be on creating an environment to raising students’ Emotional Intelligence and awareness and starting the processes of developing EI wisdoms. So much of this involves the creating of a sense of individuality, of uniqueness and specialness, of identity, safety and value. In this way, institutions and teachers should be responsible for fostering:

- Attachment ~ having a sense of belonging, to the school or university.
- Reassurance ~ by demonstrating that others too experience difficulties.
- Bonding ~ through facilitating the formation of firm and loyal friendships.
- Introduction ~ of informing students what is possible and available.
- Training ~ education in study skills, time management and stress reduction.
- Holistic ~ by balancing academic learning with physical and social activities.

In the classroom, all the above are apposite and are the responsibility of the teacher, but the attention and focus to EI asks the additional considerations of emotional literacy (the ability to express emotions) and the necessity for good organic group actions and student interaction. In the days of learning by rote and the teacher-centre classroom, inter-relationships among group members were not seen as vital, but in communicative teaching, where pairs and group-work are the norm, support and co-operation between the learners is essential. Teenage learners in particular are often reluctant to co-operate fully.
2.3.0 STRESS:

Stress is an adaptive response to a situation that is perceived as challenging or threatening to the person’s well-being (Matteson, 1987). Stress is the person's reaction to a situation, not the situation itself. Moreover, one experiences stress when something is perceived to interfere with one’s well-being, that is, with one’s fulfillment. Stress has both psychological and physiological dimensions.

Psychologically, people perceive a situation and interpret it as challenging or threatening. This cognitive appraisal leads to a set of physiological responses, such as higher blood pressure, sweaty hands and faster heartbeat. We often hear about stress as a negative consequence of modern living. People are stressed from overwork, job insecurity, information overload and the increasing pace of life. These events produce distress in the degree of physiological, psychological and behavioral deviation from healthy functioning." There is also a positive side of stress, called eustress that refers to the healthy, positive, constructive outcome of stressful events and the stress response. Eustress is the stress experience in moderation, enough to activate and motivate people so that they can achieve goals, change their environments, and succeed in life's challenges. In other words, we need some stress to survive. However, most research focuses on distress, because it is a significant concern that hurt their job performance and increases their risk of mental and physical health problems. Consequently, our discussion will focus more on distress than on eustress.
2.3.1 General Adaptation Syndrome

The stress experience was first documented 50 years ago by Dr. Hans Selye, a pioneer in stress research. (Jex.S.M, 1999) Selye determined that people have a fairly consistent physiological response to stressful situations. This response, called the general adaptation syndrome, provides an automatic defense system to help us cope with environmental demands. The three stages of the general adaptation syndrome are alarm reaction, resistance and exhaustion.

Alarm Reaction: In the alarm reaction stage, the perception of a threatening or challenging situation causes the brain to send a biochemical message to various parts of the body, resulting in increased respiration rate, blood pressure, heartbeat, and muscle tension, as well as other physiological responses. At first, the individual’s energy level and coping effectiveness decrease in response to the initial shock. Extreme shock, however, may result in incapacity or death because the body is unable to generate enough energy quickly. In most situations, the alarm reaction alerts the person to the environmental condition and prepares the body for the resistance stage.

Resistance: The person’s ability to cope with the environmental demand rises above the normal state during the resistance stage because the body has activated various biochemicals, psychological and behavioral mechanisms. For example, one has a higher than normal level of adrenaline during this stage, which gives us more energy to overcome or remove the source of stress. However, one’s resistance is directed to only one or two environmental demands, so one becomes more vulnerable to other sources of stress.
stress. This situation explains why people are more likely to catch a cold or other illness when they have been working under pressure.

Exhaustion: People have a limited resistance capacity and if the source of stress persists, they will eventually move into the exhaustion stage as this capacity diminishes. In most work situations, the general adaptation syndrome process ends long before total exhaustion. Employees resolve tense situations before the destructive consequences of stress become manifest or they withdraw from the stressful situation, rebuild their survival capabilities, and return later to the stressful environment with renewed energy. However, people who frequently experience the general adaptation syndrome have increased risk of long-term physiological and psychological damage. *(Taylor.S.E, Repetti.R.L and seeman.T, 1997)*

The general adaptation syndrome describes the stress experience, but this is only part of the picture. To effectively manage work-related success, one must understand its causes and consequences as well as individual differences in the stress experience.

**2.3.2 The Causes of Stress**

Stressors, the causes of stress, include any environmental conditions that place a physical or emotional demand on the person *(Shellan Barger, 1999)*. There are numerous stressors in organizational settings and other life activities.

The four main types of work-related stressors are physical environment, role-related, interpersonal and organizational stressors.
Physical Environment Stressors

Some stressors, such as excessive noise, poor lighting and safety hazards are found in the physical work environment. For example, a study of textile workers in a noisy plant found that their levels of stress measurably decreased when they were supplied with ear protectors. Another study reported that clerical employees experience significantly higher stress levels in noisy open than in quiet areas. Physical stressors also include poorly designed office space, lack of privacy etc.

Role-Related Stressors

Role-related stressors include conditions where employees have difficulty in understanding, reconciling or performing the various roles in their lives. The four main role-related stressors are role conflict, role ambiguity, work load and task control.

Role conflict: Role conflict occurs when people face competing demands (Cooper.C.L, 1995). Inter-role conflict exists when employees have two roles that conflict with each other. For example, sales staff in the U.S. banking industry experience inter-role conflict trying to balance the needs of their bank and the needs of customers (Melamed.S, 1995). Role conflict also occurs when an employee receives contradictory messages from different people about how to perform a task (called intra-role conflict) or work with organizational values and work obligations that are incompatible with his or her personal values (called person-role conflict).

Role ambiguity: Role ambiguity exists when employees are uncertain about their job duties, performance expectations, level of authority and other
job conditions. This ambiguity tends to occur when people enter new situations such as joining the organization, taking a foreign assignment because they are uncertain about the task and social expectations. (Sleigh J.H, 1988)

Workload: Workload can be either under-load or overload. Work underload is receiving too little work. Work overload refers to employees having either too much to do in too little time, or they work too many hours on the job. Long work hours lead to unhealthy lifestyles, which, in turn, cause heart disease and strokes. Work overload is such a problem in Japan that death from overwork has its own name ‘karoshi’.

Task control: Employees are more stressed when they lack control over how and when they perform their tasks as well as the pace of work activity. Work is potentially more stressful when it is paced by a machine or involves monitoring equipment or when the work schedule is controlled by someone else. Information technology has this effect on office workers because they are always on call through e-mail, pagers and cell phones.

Interpersonal Stressors

Interpersonal stressors include ineffective supervision, office politics, and other conflicts we experience with people. Call center employees are stressed from uncooperative customers and high productivity quotas calls a day from rude and angry people. ‘It’s hard to deal with at times,” concludes one call center employee. The trend toward teamwork also seems to generate more personal stressors because employees must interact more with co-workers. (Hollway, 1996)
Organisational Stressors

Work is usually the most stressful part of our lives, but it is not the only part. We also experience numerous stressors outside organizational settings. Employees do not park these stressors at the door when they enter the workplace. The stressors earn over and ultimately affect work behavior. Moreover, the stress model has a two-way arrow, indicating that stressors from work spill over into nonwork and conflict with each other. The three main work-nonwork stressors are time-based, strain-based and role behavior conflict. (Contrada.R, 1991)

Time-Based Conflict: Jennifer Kelly knows all about the stress of trying to balance time at work with family. The graphic designer in New Jersey works and tired with clients all over the world; Kelly has a 24/7 schedule, leaving little time for family. "When I'm with them [the children], I'm so tired sometimes that I can't take them anywhere or do anything fun," admits Kelly. Jennifer Kelly has to contend with time-based conflict - the challenge of balancing the time demanded by work with family and other nonwork activities. Time-based conflict largely explains why stress increases with the number of hours of paid employment and the amount of business travel or commuting time. Inflexible work schedules and rotating shift schedules also take a heavy toll because they prevent employees from effectively juggling work and non-work. Time-based conflict is more acute for women than for men because housework and childcare represent a "second shift" for many. Until men make their contribution to homemaking and business and learn to accommodate the new social order, many of these "supermoms" will continue to experience "super stress."(Carpi J.A, 1996)
Strain-Based Conflict: Strain-based conflict occurs when stress from one domain spills over to the other. Relationship problems, financial difficulties and loss of a loved one usually top the list of these nonwork stressors. New responsibilities, such as marriage, birth of a child, and a mortgage are also stressful to most of us. Stress at work also spills over to an employee's personal life and often becomes the foundation of stressful relations with family and friends. One study found that fathers who experience stress at work engage in dysfunctional parenting behaviors, which then, lead to their children's behavior problems in school. (Nelson.D.L, 1995)

Role Behavior Conflict: This conflict occurs when people are expected to enact different work and non-work roles. People who act logically and impersonally at work have difficulty switching to a more compassionate behavioral style in their personal lives. For example, one study found that police officers were unable to shake off their professional role when they left the job. This role conflict was confirmed by their spouses, who reported that the officers would handle their children in the same manner as they would people in their job. (Trost.C, 1992)

2.3.3 Consequence of Stress

The results of stress may be positive or negative. The negative consequences may be behavioral, psychological or medical. Behaviorally stress may lead to detrimental or harmful actions such as smoking, alcoholism, overeating and drug abuse. Other stress-induced behaviors are accident proneness, violence toward self or others, and appetite disorders. Psychological consequences of stress interfere with an individual's mental
health and well-being. These outcomes include sleep disturbances, depression, family problems and sexual dysfunction. Managers are especially prone to sleep disturbances when they experience stress at work. Medical consequences of stress affect an individual's physiological well-being, for example, taking longer lunch breaks. Employees may also withdraw by developing feelings of indifference. The irritation displayed by people under great stress can make getting along with them difficult. Job satisfaction, morale and commitment can all suffer as a result of excessive levels of stress.

Another consequence of stress is burnout. It is a feeling of exhaustion that can develop when someone experiences too much stress for an extended period of time. Burnout results in constant fatigue, frustration, and helplessness. Increased rigidity follows, as does a loss of self-confidence and psychological withdrawal. The individual dreads going to work, often puts off in longer hours but gets less accomplished than before and exhibits mental and physical exhaustion. Because of the damaging effects of burnout, some firms are taking steps to help avoid it. For example, British Airways provides all of its employees with training designed to help them recognize the symptoms of burnout and develop strategies for avoiding it.

### 2.3.4 Managing Stress

Given the potential consequences of stress, it follows that both people and organizations should be concerned about how to limit its more damaging effects. Numerous ideas and approaches have been developed to help manage stress. Some are strategies for individuals, and others are strategies for organizations:
One way that people manage stress is through exercise. People who exercise regularly feel less tension and stress, are more self-confident and more optimistic. Their better physical condition also makes them less susceptible to many common illnesses. People who do not exercise regularly, on the other hand, tend to feel more stress and are more likely to be depressed. They are also more likely to have heart attacks. And because of their physical condition they are more likely to contract illnesses.

Another method people use to manage stress is relaxation. Relaxation allows individuals to adapt to, and therefore, better deal with their stress. Relaxation comes in many forms, such as taking regular vacations. A recent study found that people's attitudes toward a variety of workplace characteristics improved significantly after a vacation. People can also learn to relax while on their jobs. For example, some experts recommend that people take regular rest breaks during their normal workday.

People can also use time management to control stress. The idea behind time management is that many daily pressures can be reduced or eliminated if individuals do a better job of managing time. One approach to time management is to make a list every morning of the things to be done that day. The items on the list are then grouped into three categories: critical activities that must be performed, important activities that should be performed, and optional things that can be delegated or postponed. The individual performs the items on the list in their order of importance.

Finally, people can manage stress through support groups. A support group can be as simple as a group of family members or friends to enjoy
leisure time with. Going out after work with a couple of coworkers to a basketball game or a movie, for example, can help relieve stress that builds up during the day.

Family and friends can help people cope with stress on an ongoing basis and during times of crisis.

The term ‘coping’ is used to denote the way of dealing with stress. "It is the process of managing demands (external and internal) that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person." People use a combination of three approaches to cope stress.

The first is control strategy to directly anticipate or solve problems; it is to take charge and tackle the problem. Second is the escape strategy which amounts to running away when they fail to confront. Thirdly, symptom management strategy consists of using methods such as relaxation, meditation, or medication to manage the symptoms of occupational stress.

**Personal Strategy**

Basically meeting stress is individual responsibility. He should have accurate information about stress so that he can handle stress effectively. Some steps to meet stress are:

(i) Learn to recognize its symptoms; Take symptoms seriously and slow down pace.

(ii) Change perceptions create stress. Do not carry demons in your mind. So minimise stress by changing your attitude. Avoid guilt feeling and
share your anxieties. Improve communication and develop relationship of trust and caring of others.

(iii) Learn to realign goals which are realistic and attainable. Restructure your job to make it less stressful. Try activities that capture interest and give satisfaction. Pursue some higher values of life.

(iv) Maintain positive attitude toward self-development and self-improvement; Overcome stress as it is lifelong battle and avoid obsolescence.

(v) Practice relaxation techniques such as yoga, meditation, biofeedback and intense exercise. Body is a great self-healer such as ability withstands grief. Play games and avoid competition. Avoid bottling up anger within you.

(vi) Cutback on excessive hours of work to overcome burnout. Keep balance between work and home life. Enjoy holidaying.

Organisational Programmes

The management may pursue the following strategies to reduce Job Stress:

- Setting clear objectives for the organisation departments and individuals so as to minimize scope for job conflicts and ambiguity among the employees.
- Enriching jobs for the employees.
- Developing career plans taking into consideration individual capabilities and aspirations on the one hand and the organisational requirements on the other.
- Employee assistance programmes such as engaging of counselors to guide on matters of career planning and opportunities, tackle alcoholism, drug addiction, etc.
- Training and development programmes.
- Organization development or transformation programme so as to improve communication, innovation, participation, trust, openness, quality of work life, in fact a concept of learning organisation.
- Strengthen process of placement, i.e. matching jobs and individual’s role clarity.
- Compensation to ensure equitable reward system.

2.3.5 Stress and Occupations

A major stressor to one person is insignificant to another. In this respect, one must be careful not to conclude that people in high-stress occupations actually experience higher stress than people in other occupations. Some jobs expose people to more serious stressors, but careful selection and training can result in stress levels no different from those experienced by people in other jobs.

2.3.6 Individual Differences in Stress

Individual characteristics moderate the extent to which people experience stress or exhibit a specific stress outcome in a given situation. Two people may be exposed to the same stressor, such as having too many deadlines, yet they experience different stress levels or different stress symptoms. People exposed to the same stressors might have different stress symptoms for three reasons. One reason is that each of us perceives the
same situation differently. People with high self-efficacy, for instance, are less likely to experience stress consequences in that situation because the stressor is less threatening. (Gebhart, 1996) Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief that he or she has the ability, motivation, and situational contingencies to complete a task successfully. Similarly, some people have personalities that make them more optimistic whereas others are more pessimistic. Those with pessimistic dispositions tend to develop more stress symptoms, probably because they interpret the situation in a negative light.

A second reason some people have more stress symptoms than others in the same situation are that people have different thresholds of resistance to a stressor. Younger employees generally experience fewer and less severe stress symptoms than older employees because they have a larger store of energy to cope with high stress levels. This explains why exercise and healthy lifestyles are one way to manage stress. People who exercise regularly and have other healthy lifestyle behaviors are also less likely to experience negative stress outcomes.

A third reason people may experience the same level of stress and yet exhibit different stress outcomes is that they use different coping strategies. (Sheldon, 1989) Some employees tend to ignore the stressor, hoping that it will go away. This is usually an ineffective approach, which would explain why they experience higher stress levels. There is some evidence (although still inconclusive) that women cope with stress better than their male counterparts. Specifically, women are more likely to seek emotional support from others in stressful situations whereas men try to change the stressor or use less
effective coping mechanisms. It must be remembered that these coping strategies are not true for all women or men.

2.3.7 Stress and Health

Stress and coronary heart disease are strongly linked. Other serious health problems commonly associated with stress include back pain, headaches, stomach and intestinal problems, upper respiratory infections, and various mental problems. Medical researchers recently have discovered possible links between stress and cancer. Although determining the precise role that stress plays in individual cases is difficult, many illnesses appear to be stress-related. (Adler, 1999)

Stress-related illnesses place a considerable burden on people and organisations. The costs to individuals seem more obvious than the costs to organisations. However, we are able to identify at least some of the organisational costs associated with stress-related disease. First, costs to employers include increased premiums for health insurance as well as lost workdays from serious illnesses (e.g., heart disease) and less-serious illnesses (e.g., headaches). Estimates are that each employee who suffers from a stress-related illness loses an average of 16 days of work a year. Second, over three-fourths of all industrial accidents are caused by a worker’s inability to cope with emotional problems worsened by stress. Third, legal problems for employers are growing. The number of stress-related worker compensation claims is increasing. The link between the levels of stress in the workplace and worker compensation claims is clear. When employees experience higher amounts of stress, more worker compensation claims will be filed.
Studies have shown similar patterns of results across many different industries. Courts are beginning to recognize post-traumatic stress disorder as a condition that may justify a damage claim against an employer. We normally think of post-traumatic stress disorder as a psychological disorder brought on, for example, by horrible experiences in combat during wartime. However, employees have successfully claimed suffering from this stress disorder as a result of sexual harassment, violence, and other unpleasant circumstances in the workplace. Awards of damages in the millions of dollars have resulted from court cases involving workplace post-traumatic.

Managers often want to know the optimum stress points for both themselves and their subordinates. This information, however, is difficult to pin down accurately. For example, an employee may be absent from work frequently because of boredom (too little stress) or because of overwork (excessive stress). Similarly, the optimum amount of stress for a specific individual for one task may be too much or too little for that person's effective performance of other (MC Morn, F.A, 2008).

Motivating individuals to perform better is always important, but attempting to do so by increasing the level of stress is shortsighted. Studies of the stress-performance relationship in organizations often show a strong negative correlation between the amount of stress in a team or department and its overall performance. This is, the greater the stress that employees are experiencing, the lower will be their productivity. Managers and employees in these situations need to find ways to reduce the number and magnitude of stressors.
2.3.8 Stress and Job Burnout

Job burnout refers to the adverse effects of working conditions where stressors seem unavoidable and sources of job satisfaction and relief from stress seem unavailable. The burnout phenomenon typically contains three components:

- a state of emotional exhaustion
- depersonalization of individuals and
- feelings of low personal accomplishment.

Depersonalization refers to the treatment of people as objects. For example, a nurse might refer to the "broken knee" in room 107, rather than use the patient's name. Most job burnout research has focused on the human services sector of the economy sometimes called the "helping professions." Burnout is thought to be most prevalent in occupations characterized by continuous direct contact with people in need of aid. The highest probability of burnout occurs among those individuals who have both a high frequency and a high intensity of interpersonal contact. This level of interpersonal contact may lead to emotional exhaustion, a key component of job burnout.

The individuals who may be most vulnerable to job burnout include social workers, nurses, physicians, police officers, air traffic controllers, teachers and lawyers. Burnout also may affect managers, shop owners or professionals who constantly face stressors with little or no relief. Evidence suggests that women, on average, are somewhat more likely to face burnout than men. Surveys have indicated that 11 percent more women than men report that high stress has affected their health. A Northwestern Life Insurance study found that the job burnout rate was 36 percent for women
versus 28 percent for men. The "high burnout" cell contains occupations that have traditionally attracted more women than men.

Individuals who experience job burnout seem to have some common characteristics. Three characteristics in particular are associated with a high probability of burnout.

- Burnout candidates experience a great deal of stress as a result of job-related stressors.
- Burnout candidates tend to be idealistic and self-motivating achievers.
- Burnout candidates often seek unattainable goals.

Job burnout thus, represents a combination of certain individual characteristics and job situations. Individuals who suffer from burnout often have unrealistic expectations concerning their work and their ability to accomplish desired goals because of the nature of the situation in which they find themselves. Unrelieved stressful working conditions, coupled with an individual's unrealistic expectations or ambitions, may lead to physical, mental, and emotional exhaustion. In burnout, the individual can no longer cope with job demands and the willingness even to try drops dramatically.

2.3.9 Personality and Stress

The problems caused by stress depend substantially on the type of person involved. Personality influences (1) how individuals are likely to perceive situations and stressors and (2) how they will react to these stressors.
Many personality dimensions or traits are related to stress, including self-esteem and locus of control. A personality trait may affect the likelihood that someone will perceive a situation or an event as a stressor. For example, an individual with low self-esteem is more likely to experience stress in demanding work situations than is a person with high self-esteem. The reason may be that individuals high in self-esteem typically have more confidence in their ability to meet job demands. Employees with high internal locus of control may take more effective action, more quickly, in coping with a sudden emergency (a stressor) than might employees with low internal locus of control. Individuals high in internal locus of control are likely to believe that they can moderate the stressful situation.

The Type A Personality

People with a Type A personality are involved in a never-ending struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time. Characteristics of this personality type include

- a chronic sense of urgency about time; an extremely competitive, almost hostile orientation;
- an aversion to idleness; and
- an impatience with barriers to task accomplishment.

Two medical researchers first identified the Type A personality when they noticed a recurrent personality pattern in their patients who suffered from premature heart disease (Friedman, 1974). In addition to the characteristics just listed, extreme Type A individuals often speak rapidly, are preoccupied with themselves, and are dissatisfied with life.
Four sets of behaviors and tendencies associated with the Type A personality are (1) time urgency, (2) competitiveness and hostility, (3) polyphasic behavior (trying to do several things at once), and (4) a lack of planning. Medical researchers have discovered that these behaviors and tendencies often relate to life and work stress. They tend to cause stress or make stressful situations worse than they otherwise might be.

Evidence links Type A behavior with a vulnerability to heart attacks. The Type A personality description is too broad to predict coronary heart disease accurately. Rather, research indicates that only certain aspects of the Type A personality - particularly anger, hostility, and aggression - are strongly related to stress reactions and heart disease (Kewley, 1987). For years, the conventional wisdom among medical researchers was that Type A individuals were two to three times more likely to develop heart disease than were Type B individuals. Type B individuals tend to be more easygoing and relaxed, less concerned about time pressures and less likely to overreact to situations in hostile or aggressive ways. In sum, the Type B personality is considered to be the opposite of the Type A personality.

The Hardy Personality

A great deal of interest has emerged in identifying aspects of the personality that might buffer or protect individuals from the negative health consequences of stress. Personality traits that seem to counter the effects of stress are known collectively as the hardy personality. As a personality type, hardiness is defined as "a cluster of characteristics that includes feeling a sense of commitment, responding to each difficulty as representing a
challenge and an opportunity and perceiving that one has control over one's own life.” (Baron, 1997) The hardy personality is characterized by a sense of positive involvement with others in social situations; a tendency to attribute one's own behavior to internal causes and a tendency to perceive or welcome significant changes in life with interest, curiosity, and optimism (Contrada.R, 1991).

A high degree of hardiness reduces the negative effects of stressful events. Hardiness seems to reduce stress by altering the way that people perceive stressors. The concept of the hardy personality provides a useful insight into the role of individual differences in reactions to environmental stressors. An individual having a low level hardiness perceives fewer events as stressful. A person with a high level of hardiness is not overwhelmed by challenging or difficult situations. Rather, faced with a stressor, the hardy personality copes or responds constructively by trying to find a solution to control or influence events. This behavioral response typically reduces stress reactions, lowers blood pressure and reduces the probability of illness.

Educational Implications

Teachers who are under higher level of occupational stress are liable to become burnout. Something serious has to be done to reduce the level of occupational stress among teachers. Workload of the teachers should be maintained by establishing the proper pupil – teacher ratio. Healthy academic atmosphere should be encouraged among schools. Special orientation programmes should be organized with the objective of overcoming the occupational stress among teachers. Yoga and meditation camps may be beneficial for this purpose.
The female teachers are under a higher level of occupational stress than the male teachers despite the fact that both male and female teachers are equally placed in terms of salary and placement. It needs deeper investigations. Somewhat relaxed work schedule should be provided to the female teachers.

2.4.0 TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

The term ‘effectiveness’ of teaching basically involves an evaluation of the intended effects or results of teaching. Teaching effectiveness may be considered in terms of ‘pupil growth’ – acquisition of immediate and long range goals exhibited through their knowledge, skills, attitudes and appreciations. Teaching effectiveness is related to the handling of ‘process variables’ involved in teaching. Such variables consist of the manipulation of skills like presenting, asking, responding, reacting, structuring, providing feedback and evaluation.

Learning is defined as an observed response to particular stimuli. The aim in behaviourist teaching is to identify and manage appropriate stimuli so as to bring about desired behaviour. Wheldall and Merrett (1994) list, what they call 'the Five Principles of Positive Teaching':

- Teaching is concerned with the observable.
- Almost all classroom behaviour is learned.
- Learning involves change in behaviour.
- Behaviour changes as a result of its consequences.
- Behaviours are also influenced by classroom contexts.
This pack is designed to enable participants to explore the following questions:

1. How do children learn?
2. How does one know what the children have learnt?
3. How should one teach?
4. What are the prerequisites for successful teaching?

It is interesting to note that 'teaching' and 'learning' are the same words in *Welsh (1997)*. Some opinions on teaching and learning strategies are provided as a stimulus to promote discussion during the activities.

**2.4.1 Promoting independence in learning**

(i) Independence in learning does not guarantee progression but it does make progression more likely

(ii) Promoting independence is about helping pupils to learn

(iii) Independence is only one aspect of effective learning, no-one expects pupils to be working independently all the time

(iv) Pupils' independence should not mean pupils doing just what they like

(v) Very young children can and do make many decisions as independent learners

(vi) Greater independence in pupils demands greater responsibility

(vii) Promoting independence can also promote high standards of behaviour

(viii) Independence in learning is a whole school issue

(ix) Discontinuity in the level of independence can hinder learning

(x) Independence will not happen overnight
At first sight the link between pupils' independence as learners and progression may not seem obvious. Independence appears to be a classroom management issue rather than one to do with learning. In fact, the principles which underpin planning for progression relate closely to pupils' independence as learners. If progression in understanding relies heavily on taking pupils' ideas into account; if progression in scientific procedures relies heavily on raising pupils' awareness; and if effective matching and differentiation rely heavily on pupil involvement in getting the level of challenge right, then, none of these are likely to happen without a reasonable degree of pupil independence.

Active involvement in the learning process has to mean that pupils have the opportunity to make significant decisions about their learning. The greater the range of decisions that pupils can be involved in, the greater the degree of personal responsibility which they are encouraged to develop, the more likely it is that progression in learning will occur.

Teacher-pupil interactions involve a variety of forms of telling and asking. A pedagogy based solely on exposition ('This is what it's about'), example ('This is how one does it') and exercises ('How one practices it') is no more and no less deadening than a pedagogy based solely on exploration ('Here's an activity to get started on') and writing up. As with telling people things, asking questions is only problematic when questioner or questioned misconstrues what the intentions of the questioner are; when it is assumed that questions asked become genuine questions, which evoke a considered response rather than simply a reaction. When pupils interpret all questions as
testing, as seeking a correct answer, they are likely to focus on getting or giving the correct answer and this will inhibit the establishment of a conjecturing atmosphere. It is natural for reactions to what pupils say to become habitual and automatic but this reduces the opportunities to respond freshly and to see what pupils are really thinking. Labeling pupils by their reactions can produce habitual responses in them.

Children are expected to take an active role in the planning and carrying out of investigations. The roles that the teacher adopts to allow this to happen are many and varied. A range of teacher roles, aimed at developing a learning environment in which pupils are encouraged to be independent and take responsibility for their own learning can be found in the National Curriculum Council (NCC)'s Non Statutory Guidance for Science. For example, consider the aspect, Role and Learning Environment, which could be described as follows:

- Enabler - Facilitates the learning opportunities which are the objectives of the lesson.
- Manager - Coordinates all class activities and organisation.
- Presenter - Sets the scene, clarifies the processes involved and gives information.
- Adviser - Listens, suggests alternatives, offers references and encourages.
- Observer - Studies the processes and gives feedback.
- Challenger - Comments critically on procedures and outcomes
- Respondent - Answers questions.
- Evaluator - Assesses progress against learning objectives.
2.4.2 Learning Activities

Having identified a teaching style which allows for differentiated learning, suitable learning activities are now required. Before any planning of learning activities takes place it is suggested that the following points are considered:

1. Children will master a concept which they easily relate to and which bears the most relevance to the concept they have just studied.

2. Studying a suitable 'content vehicle' allows pupils to travel along the concept line at their own pace and reach a deeper understanding of the world around them.

3. First hand experiences brought to the attention of all pupils the concept journey to be started by giving all pupils an equal opportunity to step on to the relevant concept line.

4. Different pupils travel along the concept line at different paces, often the more 'able' travelling the furthest and the quickest.

2.4.3 A Behaviourist Approach

A behaviourist approach in teaching focuses on training. Behaviourist theories emphasise the significance of observable actions rather than private consciousness. Behaviour is modified through a process known as conditioning and change can be accelerated or inhibited by reinforcement.

It is argued that good teaching involves the maintenance of an appropriate environment for desired learning to take place, a sentiment strongly supported by Marland and Rogers (2004): "We have been concerned with methods of encouraging pupils to behave in ways which will
maximise their opportunities for learning appropriate academic skills and knowledge'.

Wheldall and Merrett (1972) describe how teachers can set about systematically categorising their pupils' behaviour as either desirable or undesirable. Potential stimuli and reinforcers for these behaviours can be identified, and ultimately teachers' own behaviour can be modified so as to bring about desired changes in their pupils.

A brief illustration, frequently found during initial teaching experience, is that of pupils repeatedly interrupting the teacher while he or she is carrying out a demonstration to the class. This is readily identified as undesirable behaviour. On closer observation it becomes apparent that whenever the teacher is interrupted in this way, he or she responds there and then to the pupil concerned. The teacher's response is acting as a reward to the pupil to continue behaving in the same way; the teacher is inadvertently 'reinforcing' the pupil's behaviour. As a result of this analysis, the teacher's action can be modified to prevent the reinforcement from taking place.

John Holt (1981) warns strongly that if undue emphasis is placed on desired behaviour, students will find it worthwhile to learn responses simply to please, so as to get the teacher off their backs.

On the other hand, a behaviourist approach in teaching could be seen as complementary to either of the two approaches described earlier. It may be attractive in circumstances in which the applicability of the 'cognitive' approaches seems limited. Safety procedures in laboratories, maintenance of
social rules for class discussion and training in the use of equipment are examples which might benefit from this approach.

Formative assessment reveals information that can be used to improve the learning situation. The teacher’s first response was to look when assessments were carried out during a topic of teaching. If the teacher is to modify her teaching or the pupil her learning approach, then it is too late if assessment is held at the end of the topic. For a formative approach to work then opportunity to assess must occur within the teaching time of the topic and so a prerequisite for formative assessment lay in the planning of the scheme of work.

2.4.4 Principles of Good Assessment

Assessment should:

- influence and inform future teaching and learning
- show what pupils know, understand and can do
- measure pupil progress
- provide feedback to pupils, teachers and parents give pupils a positive sense of achievement and therefore empower them.

- In assessment we need to:

  - use a range of strategies
  - give pupils adequate time and opportunities to show what they can do
  - plan it as part of normal classroom activity
  - share the criteria with pupils
  - present activities in a way which makes them accessible to all pupils
  - set activities in a context in which a pupil performs best
• use contexts which draw upon pupils’ ideas and experiences
• involve a range of contexts and pupils groupings
• involve pupils in the planning of the activity
• relate the criteria to the learned objective of the activity

2.5.0 CONCLUSION

Emotional intelligence plays a vital role in enhancing one’s success in life. Teacher stress is an area which needs the attention of the educators and higher authorities concerned with education. A teacher who is subjected to higher stress is likely to become a burn out. Eventually a burnout cannot discharge his duties effectively. The investigator has highlighted the concepts related to Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Stress. Moreover, factors associated with teaching effectiveness have been narrated in this chapter. Having described the variables connected with the study in this chapter, the investigator has made an effort in reviewing literatures related with the study in the next chapter.