CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

“I am indebted to my father for living, but to my teacher for living well.”
-Alexander the Great.

Education is a process of human enlightenment and empowerment for the achievement of a better and higher quality of life. A sound and effective system of education results in the unfoldment of learners’ potentialities, enlargement of their competencies and transformation of their interests, attitudes and values.

Recognizing such an enormous potential of education, all progressive societies have committed themselves to the universalisation of elementary education with an explicit aim of providing ‘Quality Education for all’. They have also recognized the significance of expansion of secondary education, gradually reaching to a near universalization level and simultaneously improving its quality for effective empowerment of as many more learners as possible in order to achieve advancements in socio-economic and other domains of life. While higher education has also great potential in this respect, it can generally be made accessible to only a small section of the society. However, school education, in the present times can be provided practically to all the members of the society and, therefore, its quality and efficiency assume special significance within the larger framework of personal, social and national development.

India has a large system of education. There are nearly 5.98 lakhs Primary Schools, 1.76 lakhs Elementary Schools and 98 thousand High / Higher Secondary Schools in the country, about 1300 teacher education institutions for elementary teachers and nearly 700 colleges of education / university departments preparing teachers for secondary and higher secondary schools. Out of about 4.52 million teachers in the country, nearly 3 million are teaching at the primary/ elementary level. A sizeable number of them are untrained or under-trained. In certain regions, like the Northeast, there are even under- qualified teachers. As far as in-service education is concerned, the situation is not very encouraging. It is estimated that on an average 40% of the teachers are provided in-service teacher education once over a period of five years. Regarding non-formal education, though a number of models are in vogue in various states in the country, much more needs to be done to prepare teachers and other functionaries for the system.
In this context, effective teacher education has a crucial role. In fact, it becomes a core condition to ensure high proficiency and quality of school education. In other words, effective school education anticipates effective teacher education. There was a time, especially during the pre-independence period in India, when teacher education was just a single-shot event. Nevertheless, this once in-a-lifetime model is quite inadequate in the post-independence period, particularly in the modern times. In the last decades of the twentieth century, both school education and society have witnessed unprecedented technological advancements, communication revolutions, periodical reforms in school curriculum, introduction of competency-based and value-oriented education, adoption of Minimum Levels of Learning (MML) strategy as envisaged by National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986 (modified 1992), major reforms in textbooks-cum-workbooks and other teaching-learning aids, promoting activity-based and joyful learning. Introduction of self-learning and group learning activities besides teacher-directed learning, offering non-formal and alternative education systems, initiatives like Operation Blackboard (OB), Special Orientation Programme for Teachers (SOPT), Promoting Primary and Elementary Education (PROPEL) and a host of other developments. Clearly, all these and many other changes occurring in quick succession in school and society, coupled with new challenges to be faced in the initial decades of the twenty first century, which also marks the dawn of a third millennium, have profound implications for the renewal of curricula, content and processes of teacher education.

However, the escalating demand for trained teachers has led to large scale mushrooming of substandard teacher education institutions. From 3489 courses in 3199 institutions and an intake of 2,74,072 in 2004, the number’s in December, 2008 swelled to a whopping 14,523 courses in 12,266 institutions with an intake of 10,73,661 at different levels, that is, pre-primary, elementary, secondary (face-to-face and distance modes), M.Ed (face-to-face and distance modes), M.Ed (part-time), C.P.Ed, B.P.Ed and M.P.Ed. This expansion has naturally, taken a heavy toll on quality parameters like infrastructure, faculty learning resources and student profile. Till January 2007, 31 Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (IASEs) and 104 Colleges of Teacher Education (CTEs) were sanctioned and all of these were functional. So far as the District Institute of Education and Training (DIETs) are concerned, for 599 districts in the country, 556 DIETs were sanctioned and of
these 466 were functional. Thus, as many as 90 DIETs were yet to become functional (Source: Working Group Report on Elementary Education and Literacy, XI Five-Year Plan, 2007).

Additionally, if the teacher education has to remain effective and functional, teacher education for both elementary and secondary stages of education has now to be conceived with a more comprehensive paradigm encompassing a number of inter-related components such as the following:

- To provide pre-service and initial teacher-education as a systematic professional induction to all new teachers entering the teaching profession.
- To offer recurrent in-service teacher orientation in an organized manner to those teachers who are already on the job through seminars, workshops and orientation programmes held from time to time, as new professional needs arise.
- Continuing professional self-learning to be pursued by teachers on their own through books, journals, audio-video aids and other local, national and international sources as part of self-directed and life-long learning for their professional progress according to their individual needs, interests and specific professional responsibilities.
- Professional orientation of School Principals and Other Educators on promotion or new appointment as principal, supervisors, co-coordinators etc.; as recurrent orientation for enrichment purposes in an organized manner; in the form of self-directed professional updating and enrichment on their own; and for exposure to international experiences and contacts.
- Plans and provision for deserving teachers, headmasters and other educators to upgrade their basic professional qualifications to higher levels, such as the Master’s or Doctoral degrees; plans and provisions to prepare creative teacher educators and resource persons for effective pre-service teacher education at the elementary and secondary levels; as also plans and provision to encourage international contacts.
- Enrichment opportunities for teacher educators like facilities for their periodical enrichment programmes such as through seminars, workshops, presentation and discussion of papers, etc.; facilities for research and creative thinking on different aspects of education and teacher education; facilities for publication of different kinds of material and ideas on school education and teacher education; and encouraging international contacts.
A sound programme of teacher education should take care of all these components in a comprehensive and multi-dimensional manner. While the first three components are directly focused on teacher education per se, the other three are also equally important and essential to strengthen the quality of teacher education in various ways. Nonetheless, pre-service teacher education serves as a sound basis for each of these components. Pre-service teacher education is a process of transformation of the untrained entrants possessing requisite background education into competent and committed professional educators.

Teacher educators, being professionals, responsible for pre-service as well recurrent teacher education, must be quite adept in the performance of their duties and in their commitment to the profession. They need to create a ‘model’ environment in teacher education institution with full dynamism and activities to ensure regular and intensive interaction with the community without which the teacher education would remain incomplete. Sufficient understanding of the local, cultural and socio-economic milieu, including utilization of community resources within the institution and functioning as a resource center for schools in the neighbourhood could be some of the ingredients that distinguish a dynamic teacher educator institution from others. To create congenial institutional climate, the system should not only prepare professionally committed and competent teacher educators, but also formulate and implement specifically designed competency based curricular programmes for teacher educators that would go a long way in effectively achieving the objectives of teacher education on the one hand and of school education on the other.

Hence, teacher education, an integral component of the educational system, is intimately connected with society and is conditioned by the ethos, culture and character of a nation. The constitutional goals, the directive principles of the state policy, the socio-economic problems and the growth of knowledge, the emerging expectations and the changes operating in education, etc. call for an appropriate response from a futuristic education system and provide the perspective within which teacher education programmes need to be viewed.

When India attained freedom, the then existing educational system was accepted as such because it was thought that an abrupt departure from the same would be disturbing and destabilizing. Thus, a predisposition to retain the system acquired preponderance and all that was envisaged by way of changes was its rearrangement. Consequently, teacher education largely remained isolated from the needs and aspirations of
the people. During the lst five decades, certain efforts have been made to indigenize the system. The gaps, however, are still wide and visible. The imperatives for building the bridges may be as follows:

- To build a national system of teacher education based on India's cultural ethos, its unity and diversity synchronizing with change and continuity,
- To facilitate the realization of the constitutional goals and emergence of a new social order,
- To prepare professionally competent teachers to perform their roles effectively as per needs of the society,
- To upgrade the standard of teacher education, enhance the professional and social status of teachers and develop amongst them a sense of commitment.

The need for improved levels of educational participation for overall progress is well recognized. The key role of educational institutions in realizing it is reflected in a variety of initiatives taken to transform the nature and function of education -- both formal as well as non-formal. Universal accessibility to quality education is considered essential for development. This has necessitated improvement in the system of teacher education to prepare quality teachers.

Various Commissions and Committees, Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan Commission (1948), Secondary Education Commission (1953), Kothari Commission (1964-66) etc., appointed by the Central and the State Governments in recent decades have invariably emphasized the need for quality teacher education suited to the needs of the educational system. The Secondary Education Commission (1953) observed that a major factor responsible for the educational reconstruction at the secondary stage is teachers' professional training. The Education Commission (1964-66) stressed that, ‘in a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of the people’ and that ‘a sound programme of professional education of teachers is essential for the qualitative improvement of education.’ The National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) as a non-statutory body (1973-1993) took several steps as regards quality improvement in teacher education. Its major contribution was to prepare Teacher Education Curriculum Framework in 1978. Consequently, teacher education curricula witnessed changes in teacher preparation programmes in various universities and boards in the country. A similar effort was made in 1988.
During the last decade, new thrusts have been posed due to rapid changes in the educational, political, social and economic contexts at the national and international levels. Curriculum reconstruction has also become imperative in the light of some perceptible gaps in teacher education. Teacher education mostly, is conventional in its nature and purpose. The integration of theory and practice and consequent curricular response to the requirements of the school system remains inadequate. Teachers are prepared in competencies and skills, which do not necessarily equip them for becoming professionally effective. Their familiarity with latest educational developments remains insufficient. Organized and stipulatory learning experiences whenever available, rarely contribute to enhancing teachers' capacities for self-directed life long learning. The system still prepares teachers who do not necessarily become professionally competent and committed at the completion of initial teacher preparation programmes.

As such, the workable strategy would be to orient the existing teacher educators through specially designed programmes on the Minimum Levels of Learning strategy and corresponding competencies and qualities, which the teacher educators need to acquire and practice in order to perform their role expectations. No system can be allowed to ignore the criticality of preparing competent teacher educators. The basic objective of ensuring the equity of high degree of success for practically all children and enhancing their learning attainments to the mastery level would require the best professionals as teacher educators in the country. This shall be a critical factor in transforming the existing teacher education at the elementary stage into a dynamic system of teacher preparation and upgradation aimed at quality, proficiency and equity. The teacher educator is thus professional vested with the responsibility of transforming persons into professional educators through pre-service teacher education and enabling them to further enrich and update their competencies and commitment through in–service and continuing education.

It is the commitment on the part of teachers and teacher educators, which alone is capable of transforming the educational scenario in the country. A close relationship among the schools, the training institutions and the community shall have to be conceptualized and concretized for operational and meaningful educational and developmental purposes. A responsive teacher education programme can emerge only when teachers strive to understand the community and the community responds by accepting the school and the training institution as their own. It would not be difficult to identify the types of competencies that the teachers need to operationalise their approach
effectively. The teacher educators, in addition to the requisite competencies shall also ensure nurturing of certain qualities amongst the trainees at both the stages. Needless to say, that they too, shall have to have these competencies and qualities in a much greater measure of proficiency and tangibility.

However, today’s technically super advanced life with lots of stress and strain hardly provides any congenial atmosphere for any thinker to think, any policy maker to do constructive framing of the policy and above all any teacher to teach with sincerity and dedication. The daily interaction with pupils, co-workers and the incessant and fragmented demands of the teaching in general, often lead to overwhelming pressures and challenges, which further lead to stress and strain. Particularly, the teacher educators (who are preparing teachers for the schools) come across many pressures from different directions vis-à-vis:

- Frequently changing norms and standards set by NCTE.
- Specified rules and regulations set by the University.
- Various conditions set and time to time relaxed by DPI/State Level Agency.
- Expectations of NCERT from the institutions to go hand in hand with the changing times.
- Competitive attitude of the institutions for the attainment of higher grade from NAAC.
- Management’s expectations for optimum utilization of minimum resources.
- One’s own pressure to develop professionally.
- Voluntary organizations like CTE, AIAER and others who seek voluntary membership from teacher educators as also their active participation in their programmes.
- Frequent changes in the timetable across the academic session to meet the needs of the curriculum detailed in the calendar of activities suggested by NCTE.
- Unending co-curricular activities to meet the needs of the quality school functioning required in future.
- Lesser smaller span as also lesser number of full-time faculties available for the pupil teachers to be educated for tomorrow
- Wide range of expectations of the special investors in the form of fees i.e., either pupil teachers or their parents
- Maintenance of cordial relations with staff and heads of the practicing schools
Thus, society entrusts responsibility of producing quality teachers on teacher educators. Nevertheless, in adverse circumstances of unlimited circumference as discussed earlier, it is hard task for a teacher educator to accomplish all the specified task objectives with a required level of commitment and competence. All the time, teacher educator is on the toes, which unconsciously take him/her to stress and then to distress.

1.1 THE CONCEPT OF STRESS

In common parlance, the term, ‘Stress’ and ‘Strain’ are used synonymously in a non-scientific manner. But what really stress refers to and what does it mean in the real sense?

Derived from the Latin word ‘stringere’, stress was popularly used in the seventeenth century to mean hardship, strain, adversity or affliction. In eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, it was used to denote force, pressure, strain or strong effort with reference to an object or person.

In engineering and physics, the term implies an external force or pressure exerted on something with the intention to distort and being resisted by the object on which it is exerted. In psychophysiology, stress refers to some stimulus resulting in a detectable strain that cannot be accommodated by the organism and ultimately results in impaired health or behavior.

But the research literature finds difficulty in pinpointing a single definition of the term stress. The term “stress” is used loosely, and it has different meanings for different people.

A frequently cited definition of stress has been provided by Hans Selye (1956) “the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it.”

Richard Lazarus (1966) proposed that it seems wise to use “stress” as a generic term for the whole area of problems that includes the stimuli producing stress reactions, the reactions themselves, and the various intervening processes. Thus, we can speak of the field of stress….a collective term for an area of study…. The general word can be further qualified by adding the adjectives sociological, psychological, or physiological.

Stress is one of those peculiar terms, which is understood by everyone when used in a very general context but understood by few when an operational definition is desired which is sufficiently specific to enable the precise testing of certain relationships …. The ambiguity of the term is in part a function of the fact that it is applied by some to
situations, conditions, or stimuli evoking the responses of subjects, and by others to the response dimensions, whether subjective, psychological, endocrine, or Central Nervous System (Cohen, 1967).

Mason (1975) reviewed literature on stress and concluded that there was confusion and a lack of consensus regarding its definition. The term stress has been approached in at least four different ways. First, as the stimulus or external force acting on the organism; second, as the response or changes in the physiological functions; third, as the interaction between an external force and the resistance opposed to it, as in biology; and finally, as a comprehensive phenomenon encompassing all the three.

According to the definition by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978), stress is conceptualized as a response syndrome of negative effect that is developed when there are prolonged and increased pressures that cannot be controlled by the coping strategies that the individuals have.

Agarwala et al. (1979) believed that the confusion in definition is primarily because scholars of different disciplines are using the same term differently. In physics, stress is a force, which acts on a body to produce strain. In physiology, the various changes in the physiological functions in response to evocative agents denote stress (rather than strain) and in psychology, stress refers to a particular kind of state of the organism resulting from some interaction between him/her and the environment. One way of unraveling this confusion is to identify the following parameters of stress:

**The context in which the term is used:** When the term stress is used in the psychological context, it is not necessarily equivalent to systemic stress. Psychological stress is, in general, a broader term encompassing both systemic stress as also the conditions preceding systemic stress (Cofer and Appley, 1964).

**The discipline of the researcher and the nature of the stimuli considered as stressors:** Physical and humoral stimuli are primarily studied in physiology and psycho-biology (systemic stress) and psycho-social stimuli in psychology (psychological stress).

**The response relevant to the scientist:** Physiologists are primarily concerned with physiological changes; psycho-physiologists with health and behavior; and psychologists with deviations at the psychological (e.g., anxiety, depression) and behavioral (e.g.,
withdrawal) levels. Organizational researchers focus on work related psychological and behavioral symptoms.

Stokols (1979) has defined stress as a “state of imbalance within an organism that (a) is elicited by an actual or perceived disparity between environmental demands and the organism’s capacity to cope with these demands and (b) is manifested through a variety of physiological, emotional, and behavioral responses”. Several conceptualizations of stress can be subsumed under these broad definitions:

- **Medical**—“Stress is typically construed as a defensive bodily response to environmental demands … involving specific physiological components”.
- **Psychological analyses**… place a greater emphasis on …cognitive appraisal of threatening environmental conditions and personal coping resources than do medical models of stress”.
- **Sociological analyses** focus on societal conditions … that adversely affect the well-being of specific groups within the community”.

Holmes (1980), in discussing “stress, the new etiology” of disease, stated that “the word ‘stress’ (as its meaning has evolved since the 1940s) has now come to encompass the new etiology and to identify a universe of discourse that is a subset of pathology-- the scientific discipline concerned with the parameters of cause and host response”.

Hogan and Hogan (1982) introduced an “arbitrary term… which entails all the processes and phenomena connoted by the term stress”-- the Stress Activation Syndrome (SAS). It has three components: (a) stressors, (b) perception of stressors, and (c) stress responses.

Asthana (1983) opined that though the concept of stress has been tackled quite thoroughly by all these disciplines; there is a sad neglect of a phenomenological analysis of the concept, which appears crucial to an understanding of the phenomenon. In phenomenological psychology, man is perceived as existing. All experiences are related to existing human beings and the world. Consciousness is always being aware of something else. Our consciousness of the existing situation means that we are physically responding to it and sometimes this response takes the form of a feeling of stress-- an intentional act and not a causal reaction in a physiological sense. Feelings are affirmations of our attitudes
towards situations and the experience of stress is one such affirmation. Stress is experienced as a restriction of our existence. Asthana also felt that there has been an over-dependence on the language of physics for describing psychological phenomena. He preferred the use of psychological terms to describe the experience. The term stress is used to connote a variety of meanings both by the common man and the psychologists. Psychologists of different persuasions have given (a) stimulus-oriented, (b) response-oriented (both physiological and behavioral) definitions of the term, and (c) depth psychologists have treated the concept from the etiological and psychodynamic viewpoints. It appears that under these circumstances the essential features of the stress experience have not received the attention they deserve (Asthana, 1983).

a) Stimulus-Oriented Approach

Stress is regarded as an external force which is perceived as threatening. Some view threat itself as stress. According to Selye (1956), any external event or any internal drive which threatens to upset the organismic equilibrium is stress.

b) Response-Oriented Approach

The nature of stress, it is claimed, can be understood best in terms of the way people perceive and ascribe meaning to stress-producing situations, the values they attribute to action and the way they interact with events. Stress cognition is conceived as pre-conceptual: it is more adjectival than motivational. Psychiatrists have identified four phases in the reaction to stress- the initial phase of anticipatory threat, the impact of stress, the recoil phase and the post-traumatic phase.

The response-oriented approaches describe how stress is reacted to, and how people function under stress. The way it is presumably experienced is inferred from the response made to it. The biologically oriented approach to stress is also response-oriented, i.e., it views the reactions of the organism as attempts to come to terms with the environment. The trouble with the physiological approach is that it labours under the impact of cartesian dualism. Having first separated the mind from the body of a living unity, devices are then invented to relate the two through parallelism, interactionism or epiphenomenonism. Psychologists feel secure if they are able to successfully relate the psychological to the physiological processes by establishing concomitant variation in the vicissitude of the psyche relative to change in the soma. Such a reductionist explanation seems to satisfy the physiologically oriented psychologists.
c) The Psychodynamic Approach

This approach considers events (both external and internal) which pose a threat to the integrity of the organism leading to the disorganization of personality as stress. Stress presages loss of ego strength and loss of ego support. Stress may be induced by interpersonal (external) or intrapsychic (between own impulses and ego) factors resulting in anxiety.

The socially oriented psychologists believe that the intrapsychic needs call into play mechanisms of perceptual selection, defense and vigilance. There are wide variations in reactions to stress and the capacity to tolerate it between persons, and in the same individual on different occasions. The most basic fact about stress is that, like feelings, stress is experienced. The feeling of stress is an act in which there is a referenced, not a causal relation, to an object that is intended or intentionally present.

According to Agrawal (2001), for want of more definitive terminology, however, the term stress has survived. Surveying definitions of stress, Cox (1978) has described three classes of definitions. Stress can be variously thought of as a response, i.e., the stress response to an extreme stimulus; as a stimulus, i.e., as the stressor itself; and as an intervening variable. A prime example of response definition is the one given by Selye (a nonspecific response of the body to any demand). Characteristically, such response definitions lack the emotional component usually associated with stress. This emotional component is also lacking in stimulus definitions such as given by Levi (1971), wherein stress is referred to as the condition causing the body to readapt. In other words, the term stress and stressor are used synonymously. In contrast to the response and stimulus definitions, definitions in which stress is referred to as an intervening variable come closest to the everyday meaning of the term. Such definitions lay emphasis on the individual’s perceptions of the demands made by the environment, and his ability to meet those demands. It is the mismatch between these personal resources and environmental demands that leads to the condition called stress. Examples of such conceptualizations are found in the P-E Fit theory and Lazarus’ (1984) theory of stress. These definitions lay great importance on the emotional component of stress commonly referred to by clinical practitioners and behavioral scientists alike. A diagrammatic representation of the term stress (Agrawal, 2001) is presented in the Figure 1.1 below:
FIG. 1.1: A DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF STRESS

However, the question is, who decides whether personal resources (capabilities, time, money, material) exceed environmental demands or not? It is an entirely subjective matter, since it is the individual who takes this decision. What is the basis for this decision? It can be another subjective process - perceptions of the individual. A person may feel or perceive that he does not have enough time to perform his duties both at home and at office and may experience stress. At the same time, others (including the boss and the spouse) may feel that the person has all the time in the world but what is lacking is efficient time management. Regardless of the ways in which others perceive the situation, so long as the person’s perceptions regarding time on hand remain unchanged, the person will continue to be under stress.

Agrawal (2001) concluded that the seminal work and conceptualization of Selye (1983) has undergone a change. There are three different viewpoints or approaches: medical, psychological and sociological. While the first construes stress typically as a defensive bodily response to environmental demands and involves physiological component; the second places greater emphasis on the cognitive appraisal (mental picture) of threatening environmental conditions (‘the I cannot cope type of situation’) and the ensuing coping process. The third analyses stress as the resultant of stressful societal conditions. These three foci have produced a large body of research and practice, extremely active and variegated in terms of methodology, samples and conceptual analyses.

Agrawal (2001) further concluded that a fairly comprehensive definition arrived at on the basis of the findings in both research and practice can be- “Stress consists of any event in which environmental demands, internal demands, or both, tax or exceed the adaptive resources of the individual, social system or tissue system (Farmer, Monahan and Hekeler, 1984).
1.1.1 Ancient Indian Concept of Stress

The concept of stress in the modern sense is not easily found in the traditional texts of Indian culture and tradition such as Charak Samhita, Patanjali’s Yogasutra and Bhagwad Gita. However, a number of concepts developed by ancient Indian scholars relate to or appear similar to the phenomenon of stress. Some of these, for example, are dukha (pain, misery or suffering), klesa (afflictions), kama or trisna (desires), atman and ahamkara (self and ego), adhi (mental aberrations) and prajnaparadha (failure or lapse of consciousness). It is interesting to note that the body-mind relationship, characteristic of modern stress studies, is emphasized in the Ayurvedic (Indian) system of medicine.

Rao (1983) has very succinctly traced the origin of stress in Indian thought. Going back to the Samkhya and Yoga systems, he has pointed out that there are two Sanskrit words Klesa and dukha which approximate stress. The word klesa has its origin in the root khis, which means to ‘torment’, ‘cause pain’ or to ‘afflict’. Klesas are not mental processes but are a set of ‘hindering load’ on our mental process; they produce agitations which act as restrictions or hindrances. The Samkhya-Yoga system explains that the fundamental non-cognition, which leads to phenomenological stress, is avidya. This avidya leads to asmita (self-appraisal), raga (object appraisal), dvesha (threat appraisal) and abhinivesa (coping orientation). These three appraisals, namely, those concerning the self, the object and the threat are used for reality testing. Faulty evaluation in either or all of these can produce stress and torment. The samkhya system postulates that the feeling of dukha or stress is experienced by the individual in the course of his/her interaction with the world around him/her. This system mentions three types of stresses: personal (adhyat-mik), situational (adhibhotik) and environmental (adhidevik). Personal stresses can again be of two types, namely, physiological and psychological (or mental).

Physiological stresses are born out of imbalances between the three fundamental physiologic constituents, namely, vata, pitta and kaph. Psychological stresses are caused by emotional states of lust, hatred, greed, fear, jealousy and depression. Situational stresses are usually caused by ‘unwholesome interpersonal transactions’ which may include conflicts, competitiveness, aggression, etc. The third type of stresses namely, environmental stresses are occasioned by natural calamities like extremes of temperatures, storms, etc. The abhinivesa indicates the commencement of coping behaviors by arranging the behavior in a proper response sequence.
Looking back at the concepts of *asmita, raga* and *dvesha*, we find that they clearly indicate the ‘increasing relevance of transactional cognitive processes to life situations’ and also the increasing role of ‘energy dynamics’. A study of self-appraisal reveals that the situation is purely cognitive; in object appraisal we find that intentionality is mainly cognitive with less energy mobilization. However, in threat appraisal the condition of alarm is characterized by cognitive processes combining energy mobilization. It also involves emotions and other organic changes. The *abhinivesa* is supposedly non-specific just as the fundamental *klesa* and *avidya* are non-specific. The term *avidya*, which literally means non-cognition, is an antonym of correct self-appraisal and the encounters between the self and the object. *Klesa*, as stress has been defined, operates through four different modes. The first is *prosupta* or dormant. Given the right type of conditions, any mental process can become a stressor. The analogy is given of a seed which can flower into a tree provided the facilitation conditions are present. The second is *tonu* or tenuous denoting comparatively weak stressors, which are held in check by stressors that are more powerful. They are present but without sufficient intensity and urgency. The third type of stressor is *vichinna* or intercepted; these lack continuity due to conflict with competing responses. Their demand character is high but they alternate between levels of ‘high operation’ to ‘dormant’. Naturally, they surrender their stressor value when in a dormant stage. The fourth mode is *udara* or operative stressors. These are potent stress responses, which have found full expression in clearly observable behavioral modes. They have overcome the weaknesses of the first three modes.

This model proposed in the *Yogasutra* is a comprehensive one incorporating cognitive structuring, affective or emotional stages and adaptive reactions. It also presents the concept of ‘*Kriya Yoga*’ which is aimed at reducing the ‘number and intensity of the stressors’ and facilitates related conservation of mental energy devoid of tension which is defined as *samadhi bhavana*.

Pestonjee (1992) concluded that like Western researchers, Indian scholars also differently approached the problem of stress. They viewed this phenomenon from various perspectives ranging from stimulus-oriented to response and psychodynamic points of view. Ancient Indian scholars, however, seem to have paid due attention to this issue. The system of Yoga is analytical and not only helps the individual in understanding his own stresses but also leads him to the roots of these stresses. There are subtle variations in the intensity with which different stressors operate and it is not unlikely that the powerful stressors become less or even dormant after a period whereas the less powerful ones may disappear or return with greater vigour.
Palsane et al. (1993) have discussed this issue in detail. They noted that the Indian tradition is characterized by a holistic approach to human phenomena. Behavior is interpreted in terms of the totality of an individual’s lifestyle and total body-mind relationship. This synthetic/eclectic approach can be contrasted with the predominantly analytic approach of the western social sciences that describe behavioral phenomena according to their constituent parts. The mind-body level of analysis in Indian tradition is treated as less significant than analysis at a still higher transpersonal level of self, *atman* or soul, which in turn is equalled with *Brahman* - the ultimate reality. The authors have further observed that modern Western psychological literature focusing on ideas related to the strength of motives and frustration and their behavioral consequences, the frustration-aggression hypothesis, ego involvement, mind-body interactions (Psychosomatics) and locus of control have their parallels in ancient Indian thought.

Agrawal (2001) reiterated while there is no exact parallel for the term ‘stress’ in Indian society and culture, the ancient philosophical and religious texts provide considerable information. They contain references to the very many causes of stress-like states. According to her, even more important is the information on how these conditions can be managed. There are at least two approaches to the teaching of stress management. In the first approach, one begins with the nature of human existence and moves systematically to its dysfunctioning, i.e., sees how stress is generated under certain circumstances (the *Ramayana* is a classic example of this approach). The Bhagwad Gita exemplifies the second approach: a problem is identified and the principles of dealing with it are woven around the problem and its resolution (e.g., the dilemma faced by Arjun and Krishna’s discourse on how to resolve it). However, no matter how one looks at it, the basic propositions are identical. At the base of all worries are desire and the associated ego involvements, called *kleshas*. Five types of *kleshas* have been enunciated: *avidya* (ignorance), *asmita* (egoism), *raga* (attraction), *divesa* (repulsion) and *abhinivesa* (lust for life), with the first lying at the base of the other four. It is when one gets caught between *kleshas* that *dukha* (sorrow or suffering) arises. In other words, *kleshas* lead to *dukha*.

Various indigenous systems (e.g., Samkhya, Yoga and Ayurveda) highlight these two concepts. *Klesha* and *dukha*, though not exact parallels, are concepts, which come closest to the word stress in the technical sense of the term. As seen in the Yoga framework, *klesha* refers largely to the stressor aspect, while *dukha* refers to the
phenomenon of the stress response itself. From the physiological point of view, Indian literature is replete with minutely detailed texts. All of them attempt to integrate the individual’s personal and social life with stress and disease through personal mental mechanisms. Physiological imbalance between the three constituents (i.e., the tridoshas) of the physical body, vata, pita and kapha, may produce any of the three associated mental states or trigunas. These are satva, tamas and rajas, which may be translated as lightness, dullness and activity, respectively. Normality consists of a balance between the doshas and the gunas. The Yoga Vashista describes how mental disturbances produce physical disturbances. The proposed sequence of events follows closely the present ideas regarding psychosomatic ailments. Mental disturbance is said to produce a variety of symptoms, which eventually create an imbalance of the tridoshas causing disease as shown in the Figure 1.2. Thus, every disturbance has somatic repercussions. The interesting part of the analysis is that it had been derived more than 2,000 years ago when modern imaging and monitoring systems were unheard of.

FIG. 1.2: A SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM OF HOW MENTAL DISTURBANCE CAUSES DISEASE ACCORDING TO AYURVEDA
The integration of mind and body is even more intricately described, when one focuses on the concept of health in the Indian tradition. While ‘to heal’ in English means to mark whole, the Sanskrit equivalent of health is not merely arogya (absence of disease), it is swastha, i.e., being relaxed, maintaining one’s equanimity. The idea, therefore, is that health cannot be attained without mental peace. As one proponent has rightly said, the correct meaning of disease should be dis-ease, or lack of ease. In addition, the body (sharir), which is made up of five elements, should be kept pure and unpolluted: one must follow sharirik dharma, i.e., those principles by following which one can ensure that one’s physical body is free from disease. It is on these principles that the entire theory of nature cure or the art and science of naturopathy are based.

As mentioned earlier, there is no special concept of stress in the Indian tradition, yet much has been written on its causes and the ways of managing stress. Many of the methods, in common parlance today, find detailed discussion in the ancient Indian texts: meditation, relaxation, the role of diet in the management of stress and related diseases, exercises, yoga, etc. Similar ideas may be gleaned from Jain and Buddhist philosophical texts as well. One such example will be discussed here namely, Vipassana.

Vipassana: Mentioned in the Rig Veda, the art of Vipassana was rediscovered by Lord Buddha. The term Vipassana means ‘to see things as they really are’ and ‘insight into our self’. The Rig Veda talks highly of this art: One, who practices Vipassana in a perfect way, comes out of all aversion and anger; the mind becomes pure. It leads to inner peace, and those who practice it learn to share it with others. According to Lord Buddha, stress lies within us. It arises because of our reactions to worldly events. Once we stop reacting, we will no longer get stressed. Vipassana believes in the triumph of mind over matter. We can educate our mind to stop reacting to material objects through various ways. Thus, we may divert our attention by attending spiritual talks, by engaging in leisure time activities, by taking drugs and other intoxicants. However, the effect of all these will be, at best, temporary. Vipassana, on the other hand, teaches us how to attain Nirvana: how to achieve the pristine beauty of the mind and thus reduce stress.

1.1.2 Types of Stress

Cranwell-Ward and Abbey (2005) viewed stress as a reaction by the individual to pressure; both external pressure and any internal pressure that is self-imposed, and gives rise to physiological, psychological and behavioral changes. His definition of stress i.e., ‘stress occurs when there is a perceived imbalance between pressure and coping resources
for a particular situation’ recognizes the interaction between people weighing up the situation, assessing the demands, and their perception of their ability to meet these demands on this particular occasion. This appraisal happens without people being consciously aware of what is happening and results in various changes.

Depending on the level of pressure, stress can be described in different ways:

1. **Hypo-stress** - too little pressure or boredom can be a source of stress, often taking the form of pent-up emotions, frustration, or apathy and depression.

2. **Eu-stress** - at optimum pressure, the individual thrives and maximizes performance. This is the stimulating side of stress, sometimes referred to as “stress arousal,” it enables people to access hidden mental and physical abilities.

3. **Hyper-stress** - once pressure becomes excessive, the individual experiences hyper-stress. The moment when stimulation becomes hyper-stress will vary from person to person and, even for the same person, from situation to situation. At this stage, the person is likely to feel out of control or in a panic and unable to cope as well.

4. **Distress** - after prolonged stress, the individual experiences distress. This results in costs to both the individual and the organization. The individual is likely to suffer from health problems and a desire to escape from the situation and may well be signed off long term with a stress–related illness.

Thus, managing stress is a delicate balancing act to keep pressure at the optimum level. Stress management requires the level of arousal to be maintained at the right level to enable personal, professional, and organizational goals to be achieved. When pressure is at the optimum, people tend to view stress as positive; when pressure is too low or too high, stress is seen negatively.

### 1.1.3 Elements of Stress

Cranwell-Ward and Abbey (2005) demonstrated the elements of the stress process and the interaction between them as shown in the figure 1.3 below:

- **A. The person** - the way the situation is perceived, influenced by his/her personality, thought processes, and state of well-being/resilience
- **B. The situation** that provides the context that is perceived by the individual as more or less stressful
- **C. The stressors/pressure** - the pressure generated both externally and internally
- **D. The reaction** of the person to the perceived pressures he/she is experiencing
- **E. The strategies** used by the person to deal with the situation.
As a result of the interaction between these five elements, the level of stress and performance will vary considerably. Each of these elements will now been discussed:

A. The person

The factors that will influence the way the person reacts to a situation are summarized in the figure 1.4. The personality of the person is an important determinant of the way he or she will react to pressure. Friedman and Ulmer (1985) in the US differentiated between two different types:

Type A - Those people, who are ambitious, live life in the fast lane, are always in a hurry and are pushing themselves to achieve deadlines.

Type B - In contrast, these people are much more relaxed, pace them carefully and set realistic expectations.

The research found that whilst both were likely to be successful in organizations, Type A people were far more likely to suffer a heart attack.
Conscientiousness is an important factor, making this type of person far more likely to worry about achieving what is expected, not being late for deadlines, and doing work to the best of his or her ability. The more relaxed type of person puts himself or herself under less pressure than the person who is conscientious.

The anxious person is likely to spend a great deal of time worrying about what has happened or what could go wrong. The past and the future are difficult to control so this approach puts the person under a great deal of pressure. Many people are anxious to meet the needs of others and satisfy others at great personal cost. Often people will agree to do things, putting themselves under tremendous pressure to achieve within the timescales set by others.

Self-confidence and self-esteem are critical ingredients of successful stress management. Often when pressure becomes unacceptably high or low, people will become far less confident and lose their self-esteem, and the level of stress the person experiences rises.

Personality has an important relationship with the amount of internal pressure that people experience. Personality characteristics related to internal pressure include:

- **Perfectionism** - a particular issue in today’s world of increasing workloads
- **Desire to please others** - making it difficult for the person to say no
- **Anxiousness** - causing the person to think about what has happened or might happen
- **Insecurity** - a particular problem with the level of change in organizations and in life generally
- **Lack of flexibility** - again changing situations require people to adapt and change
- **Defeatist attitude** - an overall negative outlook tends to reduce the person’s ability to think of solutions or utilize various coping strategies
- **Desire for control** - this type of personality becomes exceedingly frustrated by an inability to control events, and does not distinguish well between things inside and outside of his/her control
- **Fear of failure** - an extreme worry about the consequences of failure raises stress levels greatly
- **Inability to ask for help** - some individuals value independence so much, or worry about troubling others, such that they take everything on their own shoulders, resulting in excessive pressure

A person’s physical, mental, and emotional resilience are also important:

- **Physical resilience** - an important determinant of the person’s capability to deal with pressure. In particular, people need a healthy diet, to take exercise, and have adequate rest and relaxation to be physically fit.
- **Mental resilience** - provides people with the mental energy to think clearly, solve problems, and perform at their best. Being well organized helps to keep the mind uncluttered and give the feeling of being in control. Thought processes have an important bearing on the pressure that is generated by people. It is the way people think about a situation that can give rise to stress. This is often based on past experience. When a person experiences stress in one situation, when faced with a similar situation, they are far more likely to perceive it as stressful. Changing their thought processes is a way of reducing the stress they will experience.
- **Emotional resilience** - people need to have the capacity to perform consistently even when under excessive pressure. This means keeping control of the emotions. In the fight or flight response, the person not only responds physically but also emotionally.
B. The Situation

The factors within the situation represent the potential sources of stress or stressors. Clearly, the way the situation is perceived relates closely to the personality of the person and the factors within the situation that will affect stress:

- New-----------------------Familiar
- Changing----------------Stable
- Low support----------High support
- High pressure--------Low pressure
- Ambiguous------------Unambiguous

C. The Stressors/Pressure

The relationship between pressure stress and performance is shown in the figure 1.5 below:

![Relationship between performance and pressure](image)

**FIG. 1.5:** RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERFORMANCE AND PRESSURE
(SOURCE: ADAPTED FROM MELHUISH, 1978)
At low levels of pressure, stress levels can often run high, particularly when people experience frustration from the lack of challenge and being required to do mundane or repetitive work.

As pressure increases and performance levels increase, people often experience the stimulation of positive stress. This needs to be carefully monitored to ensure that positive stress does not turn to negative stress. The best way to manage pressure is to address it in two ways:

1. Increase the person’s resistance to pressure by building their resilience.
2. Reduce the amount of pressure.

**D. The Reaction to Pressure**

People do respond differently to pressure. Key factors that impact on the response include:

- Level of pressure which is acceptable to the individual
- The internal state of mind of the person
- The personality of the person
- Extent to which the person needs to feel in control
- Whether change is viewed as stimulating or a threat
- Perceived need for security
- Need to consistently achieve a high standard, verging on perfectionism
- Level of experience and expertise
- Motivation of the individual
- Perceived support available.

This places emphasis on the need to treat people differently and the types of strategy and the culture and climate needed if an organization is to manage stress successfully. The following process describes what happens when the stress reaction is triggered in people.

**E. Fight or Flight Response**

The basic reaction is the fight or flight response, an involuntary, primitive mechanism, which helps to explain short-term exposure to stress. This response is equivalent to the first stage the of the general adaptation syndrome, identified by Hans Selye, known as the alarm stage. Selye sought to explain longer-term exposure to causes of stress and identified three stages.
**Alarm phase**

This happens whenever we enter a situation where there is a perception of threat. The basic purpose of this stage is to prepare the body for immediate action; energy is mobilized to cope with the emergency; real or imagined; and physical capabilities are heightened for speed or power. Specifically, within the body:

- The hypothalamus and pituitary gland initiate the stress reaction
- The adrenal glands produce epinephrine (adrenaline) and nor epinephrine (noradrenalin) associated with fight or flight

These are released into the bloodstream, leading to:

- Raised heartbeat by as much as 100 percent
- Widening airways in the lungs
- Constricting blood vessels supplying skin and intestines
- Eyes stare, pupils dilate
- Salivary glands close down and mouth becomes dry
- Breathing becomes faster to increase oxygen intake
- Sugar is released from the liver for instant energy
- Fat in the form of cholesterol is released from the liver for energy
- Digestion stops so that blood is available to carry energy to the muscles
- Muscles tense, ready for action and release lactic acid into the bloodstream
- The body begins to sweat to cool down
- The immune system is inhibited.

The stress reaction is summarized in the figure1.6. This string of reactions happens very quickly and effectively to prepare people to deal with life threatening situations. Normally, if no physical activity takes place, the level of arousal will gradually fall back to its previous level. However, in today’s world, people are likely to encounter another situation before they have returned to the lower level of arousal and the fight or flight reaction is again triggered. Problems occur not only because the reaction is being triggered inappropriately but also because the reaction is prolonged.
Goleman (1996) described how in some situations, particularly when people feel threatened, signals from the eyes and ears to the thalamus in the brain are routed to the amygdale – two almond-shaped structures on either side of the brain that respond quickly in an emergency. It sets in train the fight or flight response and is the emotional storehouse, a part of the brain’s limbic system, overriding the thinking part of the brain, the neo-cortex. Thus, people can have the feeling of being swamped by emotion and unable to think straight unless the neo-cortex can come in to function.

**Resistance phase**

This is the second stage of the stress response. It is known as the “plateau of resistance.” During this phase, people can perform at a high level of activity for a long period of time. At this stage, the body seems to move into top gear, drawing on energy reserves quite heavily. People can move from challenge to challenge with no rest; epinephrine masks the feelings of tiredness and the problems of underlying illness. This reaction is again a lifesaver. However, towards the end of this phase, the person becomes mentally and physically weaker.
The danger signs of the resistance phase include:

- Bouts of irritation
- Overreaction to minor problems
- Altered sleep pattern
- Outbursts of anger
- A feeling of being unable to escape

**Exhaustion phase**

This is sometimes aptly described as “burnout.” At the very least, stress can lead to tiredness, but at this stage people feel exhausted. Energy reserves are drained and the only cure is complete rest, sleep, and a period of doing nothing. A range of problems may occur, including:

- Cardiovascular problems:
  - Effect on arteries causing lesions and spasms
  - Direct injury to the heart
  - Angina due to increased demand for oxygen
  - Increased workload for the heart due to constriction of the blood vessels
  - High blood pressure
  - Increased levels of cholesterol
- Respiratory problems
- Digestive problems
- Skin problems
- Muscular problems
- Immune system impairment:
  - Prone to illness
  - Cancer
  - Prone to allergies

**The stress response and the nervous system**

The nervous system is divided into the central nervous system and the peripheral nervous system. The peripheral nervous system is further divided into the somatic nervous system and autonomic nervous system. The somatic system deals with voluntary action and the autonomic nervous system deals with involuntary action, including the stress response, switching it on and off. When a threat is perceived, and the body needs to react,
one part of the autonomic nervous system (the sympathetic nervous system) is activated. This triggers a chain of reactions needed to fight or flee.

The other side of the autonomic nervous system is the parasympathetic nervous system, which calms the body by reversing the effects of the sympathetic nervous system. It conserves and restores energy, and reduces the stress response by bringing about a reduction in heart rate and blood pressure. It also looks after maintenance aspects of the body such as cell repair, digestion; the immune system and sexual function as shown in the Figure 1.7:

FIG. 1.7: THE STRESS RESPONSE AND THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

The two sides of the nervous system act like a seesaw. When one side is in operation, the other side is dormant. When the sympathetic system is activated for too long, people lose the ability and opportunity to activate the parasympathetic nervous system, resulting in a wide range of conditions and illnesses as described above.

People often experience a difficulty in relaxing through this failure of the parasympathetic nervous system to be activated.
F. The Strategies to Deal with the Situation

The final element refers to the attempts people make to deal with the situation, either consciously or unconsciously. The strategies may be effective or ineffective in reducing stress levels. The ineffective strategies are often adopted unconsciously and are ineffective because they fail to deal with the cause of stress, tending to de props. The effective strategies are all likely to increase the individual’s resilience in one way or another.

1.1.4 Models of Stress

A wide variety of models have been presented over the years, ranging from models analyzing just one aspect (say, organizational role stress) to those attempting to provide a general framework for the understanding of the stress phenomenon. The general models may be categorized as follows:

1. Physiological models such as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), (Selye, 1950)
2. Load of information models, for example, Stimulus Overload / Underload Model (Suedfeld, 1979), and Optimal Information Flow and Mood (Hamilton, 1981).
3. Interactional models like Cognitive Model of Stress (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), P-E Fit Model (French, Rodgers and Cobb, 1974) and Systems Model (Lumsden, 1975).

1. Physiological models:

General Adaptation Syndrome or Selye's Model: Selye’s model deals with how the stress is a physiological reaction to all stressors. He observed by studying rats that all reactions to stressors were basically similar, the body's adrenalin level rises and there is heightened awareness. He claimed the body was nonspecific, that it reacted to all stressors the same. Selye's model is called the General Adaptation Syndrome or GAS. It is splitted into three stages as shown in the figure 1.8. The first stage is the alarm stage, where a stressor sets off the body's alarm so the body prepares for action. The second stage is the resistance stage where the body focuses its resources to battle the stressor. During this stage, the body gets weakened as it loses its resources. The final stage is the exhaustion stage, where the body can no longer resist the stressor.
2. Load of Information Models:

Stimulus Overload / Underload Model: Proposed by Suedfeld (1979), it links stress not to the quality of environmental experiences (as in the Holmes and Rahe life events stress approach), but also to the structure of experiences. Thus, some events may be extremely aversive but may not involve stimulation level outside the optimal zone. Conversely, events may be positive in nature, but their very bulk makes them stressful. In other words, too much of a good thing may be stressful. A U-shaped relationship is hypothesized between stimulus load and stress, with stress being caused by both stimulus under load and overload.

The model reminds one of the age-old customs of punishing people by sending them into exile, solitary confinement, or in its briefest form, time out for children. Ask any child and he will say that standing in the corner facing the wall is a far worse punishment than standing on the bench or being sent out of class. In the former, the child stares at a blank wall, which is definitely a case of stimulus under load. Such effects of stimulus under load explain why a person gets most bored when he has the maximum time; why monotonous work becomes stressful; why being underemployed is seen as a form of punishment. Indeed, modern behavior modification techniques use enforced isolation of problem children and psychotic adults through what is called ‘time out form positive reinforcement’. Isolation in natural settings, as in the case of solitary explorers, hermits, those on long sea voyages, army personnel posted for long periods in remote areas, is frequently accompanied by extreme emotional, intellectual and physical disruptions.

Too much of a good thing can also produce stress. As for instance, the stimulus overloads. Stimulus overload may take many forms. It can either be quantitative, i.e., too much to do, or qualitative, i.e., too difficult to do. A pervasive form of stimulus overload is...
the information explosion due to the easy availability of the electronic and print media. Mental or physical work overload results whenever there is a time crunch and one tries to beat deadlines. Overload could also occur in other ways; when a child has too much to learn in too short a time; each time the boss issues long instructions to the subordinates; without waiting to find out if it has registered; and when one tries to digest large volumes of data for the next meeting.

Suedfeld has identified several factors considered important for the determination of the optimal level of stimulus load. While physiological arousal is crucial, personality variables such as locus of control, cognitive complexity and extraversion-introversion play an important role in the evaluation of level of stimulation considered optimal by the person. Other determinants are age and education level.

In recent years, Antonovsky (1987) has pointed out that the overload- under load balance is determined more by perceived rather than real resources. Perceived overload seems to be a major determinant of perceived manageability of the job. Most of the findings on’ moonlighting’ by people on shift work and other types of behavior manifested by people who do two jobs but are paid only for one (such as housewives) can be explained in the context of overload.

**Optimal Information Flow and Mood:** Posed by Hamilton (1981), it is along the same lines as stimulus overload/under load model. It posits the same type of U-shaped relationship between stress and stimulation. An additional aspect in Hamilton’s model is the proposed relationship between optimal information flow and mood. Positive moods are an outcome of optimal information; negative moods (anxiety at the high end and boredom at the low end) reflect a mismatch between what is considered the optimal level and the actually available stimulation. Negative moods will influence behavior negatively.

However, human beings are not totally in the hands of environmental stimulation. The susceptibility to such negative load is monitored by what are called Attention Regulators. These Attention Regulators act to either augment or reduce the information available. The important point is that they are cognitive mechanisms and are under the voluntary control of the individual. It is therefore clear that if one is bored, in fact boarded to death, one should use one’s Attention Regulators to self-regulate one’s experiences. For instance, one can find challenge in one’s job; look around and one will find many jobs which demand one’s attention. If a party is getting bored and one cannot leave because it is a celebration called by the boss, do not keep grumbling. One should circulate among the
guests and may be able to have a conversation with someone who is extremely interesting. Boredom is therefore as much due to one’s own frame of mind as it is to environmental conditions. One always has the ‘take it’ or ‘leave it’ option. However, it should be remembered that while boredom or its other extreme, information overload can be aversive and stressful; there is a middle level which is just right for a person. Each one has his/her own optimal level.

3. Interactional Models: These models focus on the relationship between the individual and the environment. The basis of the relationship is a cognitive one. In other words, one is mentally evaluating or appraising one’s relationship with the environment. Thus, whether an event will be stressful or not, will depend, not on the objective characteristics of the event, but on the subjective perception of those characteristics. The common core of all such theories is that an imbalance or mismatch between two aspects causes stress: resources/ capabilities/needs of the person, and demands/ supplies made by the environment. If one feels that one does not have the capabilities required for a certain job, one is stressful at the interview. You are also stressful when your child wants to go abroad for further studies, and you do not have the requisite funds. Just as lack of material resources may lead to stress, so also may physical or psychological resources. This explains why an individual, who was leading a very calm and comfortable life in small town, becomes irritable and worrisome on getting transferred to a large city. The demands of the latter are obviously much greater.

Cognitive Model of Stress: The Cognitive Model of Stress is proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) who defined stress as ‘a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her wellbeing’.

Lazarus's Model: Lazarus's Model differed slightly from Seyle's. By working more with humans, he concluded that neither the stressor, nor the response could define stress; rather it was the individual's perception and appraisal of the stressor that would determine if it would create stress. He realized that different individuals would look at an event, such as skydiving, and have different kinds of stress, positive or negative. The first stage in his model is primary appraisal where the subject analyzes the stressor and determines if it will be positive or negative, exciting or harmful, etc. The second stage is secondary appraisal, where the subject determines if he or she can cope with the given stressor. Even if the
stressor is determined as harmful in the first stage, if the subject decides he or she can cope with it in the second stage, stress will be kept at a minimum.

![Lazarus Model](image)

**FIG. 1.9: LAZARUS MODEL (1984)**

On the basis of both laboratory and field studies, Lazarus and Folkman have evolved a model of stress incorporating three major issues:

1. **The condition that determined the perception of any event, i.e., the process of Primary Appraisal.** Considering that stress may have either effects, the authors have classified event perception as being either irrelevant or having no implications for the person’s wellbeing; benign positive, if it preserves the person’s wellbeing; and stressful. The last may lead to harm or loss, threat or challenge. These conditions may stem from the person (for example, because of personal commitments and beliefs), or from the situation (for instance, because of ambiguity, novelty, predictability, event uncertainty or the timing of the event in relation to the person’s life cycle). Thus, an event which goes against the person’s commitments is more likely to be perceived as being stressful than one which has no relevance. Role conflict would lead to role stress only if the person is equally committed to both roles. Similarly, events that are novel unpredictable, ambiguous and which occur at crucial moments (such as relocation just prior to an important exam) would be perceived as more stressful than an event characterized by the opposite.

2. **The second issue is related to how the person deals with the situation once it has been perceived as being stressful, or the process of Secondary Appraisal, which determines the nature of coping to be adopted.** Two types of coping are possible: emotion focused coping or the problem focused coping. The choice depends on the resources available to the person-health and energy resources, beliefs about control over the environment
(about God or life in general), and problem solving skills, social skills and material resources. Certain personal constraints and environmental constraints may, however, mitigate the use of these coping resources. Personal constraints may be internalized values, while environmental constraints include demands that compete for the same resources.

3. The third issue focuses on the outcomes of stress. These refer to the pattern of reaction that defines the presence of stress. These may range from emotional experiences, motor manifestations, alterations in adaptive functioning to physiological reactions. A combination of these is also possible. The exact nature of the reaction will depend on the nature of the secondary appraisal, or the particular coping strategy decided upon.

**Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Model**

Person-Environment (P-E) Fit model advocated by French, Rodgers and Cobb (1974) deals with how the characteristics of the person and those of the environment affect the wellbeing of the person. The salient features are as follows:

1. **Needs- Supplies Fit and Abilities Demands Fit:**

   The first refers to the degree of commensuration between the needs of the person and the supplies provided by the environment to fulfill those needs. For instance, the number of achievement-oriented opportunities provided by the environment is to fulfill one’s need for achievement. The second type of fit refers to that between demands of the environment and the ability of the person to meet those demands. P-E fit refers to both the amount of fit between what the person expects from the environment and the extent to which the environment can meet those needs; and the degree to which the person is able to cope with those demands. Both kinds of misfits may act as stressors.

2. **Objective Fit v/s. Subjective Fit**

   The theory proposes a distinction between objective fit and subjective fit. The former includes measures of the P and the E free of bias introduced by the person, while the latter includes this bias. This leads to an objective P and an objective E as well as to a subjective P and a subjective E. Correspondence between the objective and subjective is called the accuracy of self-assessment. Correspondence between the objective and subjective E denotes contact with reality. Cognitive distortions produce discrepancies between the objective and subjective components of fit. It is this subjective fit which causes strain leading to illness. A similar analysis is provided by Stokol (1979) using the three concepts of magnitude, duration and rate of change of environmental demand.
Various types of P-E fit relationships are hypothesized, including the V-shaped relationship (where minimum strain is seen when P-E), the asymptotic relationship (in which an excess of P, but not a deficit, or an excess of E can lead to strain), and the linear relationship (wherein the absolute amount of in relation to E has a linear effect on strain).

A strong point of the theory is that measurement methodology for the P-E fit is provided. By using commensurate items for both P and E, a fairly reliable measure can be obtained; however, problems of framing the items, their placement and scale contamination still plague the researcher.

**Systems Model of Stress**

The Systems Model of stress proposed by Lumsden (1975) attempts to take into consideration all the salient features of the different models, and calls for a systems analysis of stress. As the name suggests, the emphasis is on the word ‘system’, which signifies an interrelated constellation of parts. The stress system is conceived of as an open system, which is continually interacting with the environment. The stress process is conceptualized as being dynamic and homeostatic in nature rather than a simple equilibrium model.

The coping process over time due to either exogenous (such as natural disasters) or endogenous (such as sensory deprivation or blocking of goals) stressor is divided into three parts which are interconnected and interrelated at each level. When the stressor impinges upon the person(said to be in steady state), the process of appraisal begins. This includes detection, mediation and the actual appraisal of the stimulus as a stressor. Appraisal sets into motion the second process called coping, based on the response repertoire of the person. The processes of appraised and coping are circular, with the nature of the coping repertoire determining the nature of appraisal. The individual copes with the stressor by bringing about certain changes in his responses. Changes may be physiological, psychological, behavioral, or interpersonal/societal and may be either adaptive or non-adaptive. It is maladaptive responses (such as anxiety) which act as endogenous stressors in the future. While an adaptive response produces adequate coping, an over adaptive response may seemingly appear successful but prove to be maladaptive in the long run. Maladaptive responses produced repeatedly may result in the disintegration of the system as in the case of coronary problems, psychosomatic disorders, etc).

These processes function in a chain-like circular fashion, with the receipt of a signal triggering off a trail of events which may continue till the body is restored to
equilibrium or disintegrates due to maladaptive responses. Various mediating factors enter into the stressor coping relationship. Some of these are age, sex, birth order, marital status of the person and child rearing practices (Dodge and Martin, 1970). Psychological factors impinging on the relationship include degree of motivation, degree of hypersensitivity to the demands of everyday life and appraisal, degree of introversion/extraversion, strength of the superego, the nature of self-esteem and self-image (Levine and Scotch, 1970).

Appley and Trumbull (1967) have posited a similar set of factors. According to them, the intensity of the reaction varies form person-to-person even under exposure to the same environmental event. Stress proneness of the person may be determined on the basis of his motivational structure and prior history. Where motivational structures are not accessible, prediction of stress proneness may be made on the basis of what the person holds important, the types of goals that may lead to anxiety or aversive defensive behavior.

Analyzing the circular nature of stressor- stress relationship, Levy-Leboyer (1982) emphasized the nonlinear relationship generally obtained between stressful physical parameters and the intensity of the reaction. Irrespective of the stressor under investigation, certain difficulties arise, attempting to consolidate approaches by various researchers, Levy-leboyer made several observations. All researchers agree on the relational character of stress, which is not related simply to either the person or the environment, but is due to the inadequacy of the relation between individual resources on the one hand and environmental demands on the other. Moreover, the subjective meaning of the situation to the individual conditions is his appraisal of the situation. Inadequacy in areas unimportant to the person fails to produce appraisals of stress. Effects upon the person are cumulative and can cause serious harm if experienced over a long time.

These analyses provide clear evidence of the complexity of stress, which can be better understood through a systems approach. An adequate theory of stress and stress research in general must take into consideration such interacting systems of variables. The personality of the person and his previous experiences; his activities and present aims; and the socio-cultural conditions and systems and values they create.

The models presented here clearly indicate that the stress response far surpasses the simple syndrome of just being sick as proposed by Hans Selye in 1936. The exact chain of events, which will be reacted to, what the reaction will be, and what the long-term effects of such reactions will be, appear to be moderated by complex interaction between situation specific characteristics and person variables.
1.1.5 Sources of Stress

Stress can emanate from a variety of sources. Brown (1984) has listed five categories.

a) Customary anticipated life events (any major change in life), such as marriage, divorce, beginning/ending of school, children leaving home and retirement.

b) Unexpected life events (any major life event which occurs suddenly), for example, unexpected bereavement, sudden loss of job, major accident, becoming aware of a terminal illness.

c) Progressive, accumulating situational events (any continuously recurring problems in life’s activities) like daily hassles, job and family stress, school stress and competition.

d) Personality glitches (any personal traits that create social problems), such as poor communication, low self-esteem, insecurity, lack of confidence, poor decision-making and fear of failure.

e) Value dependent traits (circumstances generating thought-feeling conflict), for instance, revolutions, broken homes, moral dilemmas such as cheat or fail, and peer pressure vs. personal conscience.

This system of categorization is also amenable to the measurement of stress. Thus, one of the early scales for the measurement of stress called the Schedule of Recent Experiences (Holmes and Rahe, 1967) is related to life stress. The underlying assumption is that certain major life events demand readjustment on the part of the person. This scale deals with the first two categories of stress, i.e., anticipated and unexpected life event.

Proposing a somewhat different categorization, Pestonjee (1992) has identified three important sectors of life from which stress may originate:

a) Jobs and Organization

These refer to the totality of the work environment, such as job description, work culture, interpersonal relationships and compensation offered.

b) Social Sector

It denotes the socio-cultural milieu of a person. It may include religion, caste, language, attitudes and beliefs of others, the political and legal environment, etc.

c) Intrapsychic Sector

This encompasses those aspects, which are intimate and personal such as an individual’s values, abilities, temperament, personality, needs, expectations and health.

The model further contends that each of these three sectors operate in a complex, interactive manner, rather than merely being summated together.
**Stress at work**

When we consider work stress in particular, research indicates six major sources of pressures (Cartwright and Cooper, 1997). These are as follows:

a) *Factors intrinsic to the job*: These are related to poor working conditions, shift work, long hours, travel, risk and danger, poor technology, work under load and overload.

b) *Role in the organization*: When a person’s role in the organization is clearly defined, stress can be kept to a minimum. Whereas Cartwright and Cooper mention only three aspects, Pareek (1993) has provided a fairly comprehensive list of stresses commonly encountered with reference to one’s role in the organization.

c) *Relationships at work*: As early as in 1946, Selye had pointed out that ‘good relationships between members of a group are a key factor in individual and organizational health’. There are three critical interpersonal relationships at work: relationships with one’s boss, those with one’s subordinates, and those with one’s colleagues.

d) *Career development factor*: Includes the degree of job security, fear of job loss, obsolescence of one’s skills and capabilities and retirement. For many workers, career progression is of overriding importance. Performance appraisals (actual or even the fear of potential appraisal) can be an extremely stressful experience.

e) *Organizational structure and climate*: Non-participation at work and a general lack of control in the organization are related to a variety of stress related symptoms.

f) *Non-work pressures*: Include pressures on the home front due to job stress. Another commonly seen effect is that due to dual careers, especially for women. The dual career family model may be a source of stress for men as well. The amount of time they are able to devote to their jobs, the degree of mobility they have, the acceptance of transfers/change if the wife is also working.

Based on this description, the causes of stress may be summarized as follows:

a) *Sources at Home*

- Daily hassles of life
- Major life stresses
- Stress and the life cycle (adolescence, adulthood, old age)
- Relocation (due to man-made projects, natural calamities, bereavement of spouse, retirement, old age)
b) Sources at work

- Daily hassles at work
- Organizational role stress
- Interpersonal relationships stress
- Career development associated stresses
- Stress due to the organizational culture and climate

Since no individual is totally relegated to the home or the work sphere, the various sources interact with each other. This produces a third source of stress.

c) Sources from the home-job interface

- Intra-psychic pressures due to the peculiar personality of the person, for example, excessive anger, depression proneness, Type A authoritarian attitudes, irrational thinking
- Dual career stress in the husband, the wife and children
- Transfers and relocation due to jobs
- Stress associated with non-traditional families, e.g., single parent, divorce, separation

Any attempt to analyse stressors reveals that some stressors are pure examples of psychologically threatening events. Such stressors have the following characteristics:

- They have stress value not because of their objective ability to do harm, but because the person perceives them as threatening.
- Individuals differ in their ability to cope with such perceived stressors.
- Since they depend on personal appraisal, they are not equally threatening for all persons.
- The physiological system used and affected by psychological stressors is the same as the ones used and affected by physical stressors.

1.1.6 The Most Stressful Jobs

Stress is self-generated and the extent to which people experience stress varies from person to person, depending on their perception and reaction to the situation. However, certain jobs expose people to higher levels of pressure on a consistent basis. People are put at a greater risk of experiencing stress when the jobs they are performing consistently expose them to high levels of pressure (Cranwell-Ward and Abbey, 2005).

Cranwell-Ward and Abbey (2005) reviewed the work of Cooper et al. (1988) and most recently Robertson and Cooper (2004) in identifying jobs that are classified as most
stressful and, in contrast, those that are rated least stressful. It includes the discussions held at Henley by the Stress Special Interest Group identifying the jobs that in their experience have proved to be stressful.

**The Most Stressful Jobs Survey (1985)**

*The SUNDAY TIMES* commissioned this survey and Cary Cooper worked with six stress researchers. The approach adopted is described in Cooper et al. (1988). They evaluated 100 jobs on a 10-point scale, with ‘1’ being the least stressful and ‘10’ the most stressful. They used their professional judgment based on research findings and available health trend data. Figure 1.10 lists the average rankings of a range of jobs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job</th>
<th>Average Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miner</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police officer</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airline pilot</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prison officer</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dentist</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politician</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse/midwife</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIG. 1.10: RANKINGS OF A RANGE OF JOBS (JOBS SURVEY-1985)**

**The Most Stressful Jobs Survey (1997)**

Cary Cooper repeated the survey in 1997 assessing 104 jobs. Factors used to make the assessment included hours worked, workload, deadline pressures, and levels of responsibility. Pettit (2003) reported Cooper’s findings that 60 percent of jobs assessed by his team showed increased stress levels. Those particularly affected included the armed forces, social workers, teachers, farmers, local government, nurses and the ambulance service. The UK’s most and least stressful jobs as identified in the 1997 survey are listed in figure 1.11.

Cooper was convinced that it was not the jobs themselves that were stressful, but the amount of change the particular profession had undergone.
enormous increase in paperwork, stressful inspections, assessments and the introduction of
league tables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UK’s 10 most stressful jobs</th>
<th>UK’s 10 least stressful jobs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prison officer</td>
<td>Librarian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police officer</td>
<td>Museum personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social worker</td>
<td>Biologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Nursery nurse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambulance service worker</td>
<td>Astronomer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse/midwife</td>
<td>Beauty therapist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>Linguist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fireman</td>
<td>Remedial gymnast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dentist</td>
<td>Speech therapist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miner</td>
<td>Pharmacist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FIG. 1.11: UK’S 10 MOST AND LEAST STRESSFUL JOBS (JOBS SURVEY 1997)**

Stress impacts greatly on teacher retention. A study conducted for the Times Educational Supplement in 1997 found that 37% of secondary vacancies and 19% of primary vacancies were due to ill-health, as compared to 9% of nursing vacancies and 5% in banking and the pharmaceutical industry. Recruitment also appears to be affected by representations of stress. A MORI poll of 2017 British adults conducted in April 2001 revealed that teaching is seen as hard, poorly paid and held in low public esteem. Graduates had significantly more negative beliefs about teaching than non-graduates.

The ante of teacher stress was recently upped in 2000 when Jan Howell won a landmark victory against Newport County Borough Council for failing to respond to her suffering stress in the classroom and was awarded £250,000 compensation. Teacher stress is now firmly on the political agenda, and representations of the nature of stress have become unhelpfully polarised between unions and employers, the former seeing stress as organisational and the latter as an individual issue.

In a survey of head teachers by the National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT) in May 2000, 40% of respondents reported having visited their doctor with a stress-related problem in the previous year. 20% considered that they drank too much and 15% believed
they were alcoholics. 25% suffered from serious stress related health problems including hypertension, insomnia, depression and gastrointestinal disorders.

Robertson Cooper Survey (2004)

The most recent research identifies the top six most stressful jobs:

- Teachers
- Police officers
- Social care workers
- Emergency paramedics
- Call center staff
- Prison officers

The least stressful jobs were:

- Private sector executives
- Analysts
- School lunchtime supervisors

In this latest survey, 26 jobs were evaluated on three stress-related areas: physical health, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction. The most stressful jobs all involved contact with the general public in emotionally intense situations and/or where the working environment was governed by strict rules. The research used a stress evaluation tool – ASSET, which measured a range of stressors and stress outcomes. The research found that teachers had a higher level of stress and lower job satisfaction than head teachers and teaching assistants.

Another problem experienced by professionals, including teachers, prison officers, doctors, and nurses is workplace bullying, according to Cooper who was interviewed by Pollard (2002). A survey conducted by Cooper and reported by Pollard (2002) found that one in four had been bullied at work in the last five years; this grew to one in three in teaching. It is estimated that 30-50 percent of stress is related to bullying. In Cooper’s view, there are two types of bully:

1. The psychopathic bully who has low self-esteem and may not be particularly good at his or her job: they bully others to enhance their own status. This type of person has a personality dysfunction and is less common than the second form of bully.

2. The overloaded bully who takes on too much work and then dumps on others. This type of bullying is increasing in organizations as workloads increase generally.
Those who are repeatedly bullied reported the poorest health, the lowest work motivation, satisfaction, and productivity and the highest absenteeism and intention to leave. Cooper felt that there was a particular problem in the public sector, where a third had experienced or witnessed bullying. The more hierarchical the organization, the more bullying was likely to cascade down.

The *Mail on Sunday* (2004) stated that teachers are claiming more than $50 million a year in compensation for the stress on their jobs. According to insurer Zurich Municipal, claims have risen 40 percent and a total of 240 percent in five years. Zurich Municipal, which insures local authorities against the cost of legal action by employees, said teachers usually attributed their problems to heavy workloads, badly behaved pupils or conflicts in the classroom.

There must be extra vigilance given to those people performing jobs that expose them to high levels of pressure. Care must be given in recruiting the right people, training them well, monitoring for any evidence of excessive stress, and providing appropriate levels of support for those exposed to highly pressurized jobs (Cranwell-Ward and Abbey, 2005).

### 1.2 TEACHER STRESS

In general, job stress can be defined as a lack of harmony between the individual and the work environment. People have become enormously interested in the topics of stress and stress management. Stress has been studied for many years by researchers in psychology, sociology and medicine. The stress experienced in the teaching profession is no different. “When a potentially threatening event is encountered, a reflective cognitive balancing act ensues; weighing the perceived demands of the event against one’s perceived ability to deal with them (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984)”. Events, perceived as potential threats, trigger to the stress response is the perception that one’s coping resources are inadequate for handling life demands. According to the current models of stress, we are constantly taking the measure of the daily demands, we experience in life and comparing this to the resources, we possess. Dealing with them, if our resources appear equal to the demands, we view them as mere challenges. If however, demands are viewed as exceeding our resources, they become stressors and trigger the stress response. These unproductive levels of stress might be harmful to teachers and can affect their teaching, personal lives and most importantly their students. The teaching profession is unique in many ways, and
as such, it is concerned with certain stress-related conditions (Humphrey and Humphrey, 1986).

A vast number of studies exist in the relevant literature identifying the main job stressors facing teachers. There is also a number of studies (though fewer in number) focusing on specialist samples of teachers such as teachers in special schools, teachers of primary or secondary schools, newly qualified teachers, university teachers, teachers working in an open climate, teachers of professional and non-professional courses, college teachers etc. But, from where the concept of stress was introduced in this field i.e. the field of education? As far as, field of education, is concerned; stress is everywhere, even in vacuum. So is the case with education i.e. with the inception of the phenomenon and the time immemorial but as far as the formal concept of stress is viewed in the context of formal teaching, a particular time cannot be pin-pointed rather an idea for the same can be assessed. Teacher stress has come under considerable scrutiny since the 1930s.

‘Teacher stress has continued to be studied since 1930’s, when articles on the health and happiness of teachers began to appear in various educational journals’ (Smith and Milstein, 1984).

Coates and Thorenson (1976) in their review of 22 articles concluded that the classroom and discipline related problems are the primary source of stress for the novice and a major source for the experienced teachers.

When schools in economically disadvantaged areas are compared to the non-disadvantaged schools (urban vs. slums, tribal vs. non-tribal), there has been evidence of higher levels of stress in schools in disadvantaged areas, and in higher elementary school grades than in the lower grades (Pratt, 1978).

"Teacher stress may be defined as a response syndrome of negative affect (such as anger or depression) by a teacher usually accompanied by potentially pathogenic physiological and biochemical changes (such as increased heart rate or release of adrenocorticotrophic hormones into the blood stream) resulting from aspects of the teacher's job and mediated by the perception that the demands made upon the teacher constitute a threat to his self-esteem or well-being and by coping mechanisms activated to reduce the perceived threat" (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978).

Role theory provides the conceptual framework for the systematic and comprehensive examination by Gupta (1981) of the organizational antecedents and consequences of work-role stress experienced by a group of public junior high school
teachers in their roles as organizational members, with the school system as the employment setting. The study examined two specific concepts relevant to role theory---work role stress and work role strain. Employee withdrawal is also addressed:

- “Role stress is defined as a function of both the focal person and the work environment. Role stress is the presence of received role demands from the environment which the focal person is unable to satisfy and which, therefore, pose a threat to the focal person.”
- “The fit between the individual and the job demand constitutes the essence of role stress.”
- “Role strain, on the other hand, is an individual characteristic represented as a response by the focal person that deviates from normal.”

In Gupta’s study, the conceptual framework is elucidated with respect to the intra-role experiences of teachers. Gupta discusses the implications of the study for school administrators, for teachers, and for teacher training programs.

Pettegrew and Wolf (1982) report the results of research which tested the reliability and validity of existing measures of job-related stress that had been developed previously for use in a large South eastern medical center and adapted to the teaching context.

Surti (1982) studied the psychological correlates of role stress in working women belonging to different professional groups such as researchers, doctors, nurses, social-workers, schoolteachers, university and college teachers, gazetted officers, bank employees and women entrepreneurs. The sample comprised 360 working women and an attempt was made to determine the extent to which demographic, personality and organizational factors contributed to various role stresses. No significant differences were observed in any type of role stress with age, birth order, educational level, family-related variables, promotion, length of service, experience in organization, distance of workplace, and mode of conveyance.

Wanberg and Levitov (1983) have reported that the elementary teachers differ from secondary teachers in their perceived stress, contingent on the type of potentially stressful situation they have been in.

Teacher stress has many sources, some of which are common to teachers in all contexts, and some are specific to individuals and contexts (Heibert and Farber, 1984). Some sources of stress operate simultaneously and some in a successive manner.
Shejwal (1984) conducted a two-fold study to establish (a) the stressfulness of life events, and (b) to test some of its personality correlates. Study-II dealt with the perception and experience of life events. Personality variables like locus of control, repression-sensitization, and anxiety were studied to assess their role in the perception and experience of stressfulness of life events. This study examined 150 middle-class Hindu adults of Poona city who were selected on the basis of their socio-economic status (SES) and experienced life events. The analysis revealed that the high stress group was found to have internal control whereas the low stress group was found to have external control.

Gorell, McAllister, Bergman, and Lipscomb (1985) have found higher level of stress among American elementary school teachers than the secondary school teachers.

Blasé (1986) found lack of discipline, unsatisfactory achievement and absenteeism as the problems underlying stress, since the breach of classroom and school rules and the classroom behavior of students interfered with the teaching process.

Rao (1986) studied personality and coping behavior in relation to stressful life events. He concluded that the personality dimension of locus of control was found to influence the experience of stressful life events, while both extraversion and locus of control determined the use of certain coping strategies. The results highlighted the need for further research in the areas of stress and assessment of coping behaviors in relation to specific events.

Kyriacou (1987) has noted the importance of variations in age, sex, teaching experience and post help in studies of teacher stress. Kyriacou (1989) has defined teacher stress as a negative feeling or an unpleasant emotional state, such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression, resulting from aspects of their work.

There have been individual differences noted in the ways teachers perceive, interpret and react to a situation. The response to potentially stressful situations is known to vary across individuals (Fontana, 1989), and this is found much more true in teaching profession, where practitioners are differentially exposed to very many threatening situations in their daily functioning.

Gupta (1989) conducted a study on role stress, locus of control, coping styles and role efficacy of first generation entrepreneurs. The study was conceptualized in terms of nine specific objectives. A group of 60 first generation entrepreneurs was selected and several tools were used. Statistical conclusions obtained were:
• Internals experienced maximum stress on resource inadequacy. Possible entrepreneurs experienced maximum stress on role overload.

• A significant difference was seen between internals and possible entrepreneurs on the dimensions of inter-role distance, role isolation, challenge and total role stress.

• A significant interaction was noted between training and locus of control on the dimensions of self-role distance, challenge, role overload, role irrelevance and total role stress.

Okebukola and Jegede (1989) in their study of 1024 teachers in Nigeria, representing urban and rural areas, new and old schools and single sex and co-educational schools report higher stress scores of female teachers as compared to their male colleagues. The major stressors for teachers are related to pupil misbehavior, time demands, work conditions, and staff relations.

Malik et al (1991) did not found in their study significant effect of length of experience on teacher stress.

Mishra(1991) worked to understand the interrelationship between organizational conflict in school teacher’s stress and burnout, in relation to teacher’s personality at primary level and analyse coping strategies adopted by teachers in a stressful situation. The sample of the study consisted of 200 primary school teachers of Bhubaneswar, the capital city of Orissa. The study concluded that;

• Integrating organizational conflict with senior teachers is significantly related to stress feeling.

• Teachers with external locus of control had poor personal accomplishment in comparison to teachers having internal locus of control irrespective of schools’ management.

• In case of teachers with internal locus on control, none of the organizational variables was significantly related to stress.

• Education and obliging organizational conflict predicted 8 per cent of total variation.

• The teachers having different personality characteristics did not differ in stress feeling.

It is the type of management that contributes to the organizational climate, which are less stress- producing among teachers and teachers who are more realistic and self-attributing adjust better in stress situation.

Smith and Bourke (1992) have tested a causal model of relationships among aspects of teaching context, perceived workload, satisfaction with teaching stress from
staff tensions and conflict, time pressure, students and classroom conditions, and lack of rewards and recognition. They observed that the teaching context has indirect effects on stress outcomes, as it highlights the importance of workload and job satisfaction.

Achalamba and Kumar (1993) examined the relationship between locus of control and organizational role stress among college teachers—professional/non-professional, male/female and young/old, using Udai Pareek’s Organizational Role Stress Scale and Rotter’s I.E Locus of Control Scale.

Borg and Riding (1993), in their research on the role of cognitive style in the occupational stress of 212 Maltese secondary school teachers, reported significant variations among teachers related to their cognitive styles. They also reported that their sample of primary school teachers rated problems with pupil misbehavior, time demands, and work conditions, lack of professional recognition and staff relations as major occupational stressors.

Fontana and Abouserie (1993) have noted in an investigation of stress levels, gender and personality dimensions with a sample of 95 school teachers, that 23.2 percent of them suffer from serious stress, while 72.6 percent show moderate stress. They found extroversion and neuroticism as the best predictors of stress levels, while age and gender are not really meaningful.

Ushashree (1993) from a sample comprised of 1,200 male and female teachers from the primary and secondary schools located in some urban and rural areas of Rayalaseema region of Andhra Pradesh, made an attempt at investigating sources, reactions and coping resources of school teachers to stress and found that:

- As regards the sources of stress, there were significant differences between men and women teachers, rural and urban teachers, primary and secondary school teachers and teachers of three job tenures.
- Various sources of stress included health, career satisfaction, job related stress, management related stress, students and family areas, pay and job related stresses.

Paratkar (1994) examined the stress among teachers at different levels from a psycho-social perspective with a sample comprised of 30 teachers each at primary level, secondary level, junior college, senior college and university (post-graduate) level adding up to 150; and concluded that:

- The amount of role stress varied at different levels. The nature and types of role stresses also differed at different professional levels. As the level of teaching
profession increased, the role stress decreased. It was highest among primary and middle level teachers

- There was no relationship among the gender, marital status and role stress.
- Attitude towards teaching profession was significantly and negatively correlated with role stress.
- Self-esteem was not found to be significantly related to role stress.
- Job involvement did not have any effect on role stress.
- The organizational climate was significantly and negatively correlated with role of stress.

Sudhira (1994) examined the teacher job satisfaction and job stress of secondary physical education teachers working in different management schools in Madhya Pradesh. It was found that the physical education teachers working in different management schools differed significantly on their job stress. It was also found that the physical education teachers working in private and semi government schools had significantly higher job stress as compared to those who were working in government schools. Among them, the private school teachers had the higher job stress.


“Teaching can be a stressful occupation. The daily interaction with students and coworkers and the incessant and fragmented demands of teaching often lead to overwhelming pressures and challenges, which may lead to stress. Where work stress is unrelenting, some negative physiological, psychological and behavioral consequences may result (DeRobbio and Iwanicki, 1996).

Bhatt (1997) in a correlation study aimed to find out the relationships among the teachers’ job stress, job involvement and their job satisfaction on 16 job factors with a random sample of 120 male and 120 female teachers between the age 18-59 from public and private schools of Jamnagar City. Major findings were:

- The teachers’ job stress was highly significantly negatively associated with their job involvement and job satisfaction whereas job involvement was highly significantly positively correlated with the teachers’ job satisfaction.
- Job involvement was significantly positively correlated with 14 job factors.
- Factors of job stress were significantly negatively correlated with their overall job satisfaction.
There existed a significant negative partial correlation with their overall teachers’ job stress and their job involvement but there was a negative insignificant partial correlation between the job stress and job satisfaction.

“Many teachers would agree. Teaching is not only hard work, it can be full of stress. Pressure due to school reform efforts, inadequate administrative support, poor working conditions, lack of participation in school decision-making, the burden of paperwork, and lack of resources has all been identified as factors that can cause stress among school staff” (Hammond and Onikama, 1997).

Indira (1997) in a study investigated teacher effectiveness in relation to work orientation and stress of college teachers. The sample comprised 220 lecturers working in Degree and Junior Colleges situated in Vizianagaram District. It was observed that the general level of teacher effectiveness prevailing among college teachers was far greater than the mid point of the scale whereas in the case of stress, majority of teachers were not bothering much as the mean score obtained by the sample was less than the mid point of the scale. All the four areas were not uniformly and exactly equal in influencing the stress among lecturers of Vizianagaram District.

Joshi and Singhvi (1997) examined the effect of teacher’s personality factors on their experience of role stress using a sample of 167 teachers drawn from different universities of Rajasthan. The major finding of the study was that externality by others and externality by chance was correlated positively with all the dimensions of role stress.

Sindhe (1997) attempted to study the demographic and family variables related to teacher’s anxiety and perceived stress and to compare the relationship between anxiety and perceived stress. Sample comprised 1,560 elementary school teachers from various elementary schools of Mysore. The study concluded that:

- Highly stressed teachers were highly anxious too, whereas less stressed teachers were less anxious.
- Female teachers had greater GPS (General Perceived Stress) than their male counterparts.
- Teaching in both the medium resulted in greater stress than teaching through one medium only.
- People with poor personal and poor family health were found to have greater GPS than those with good health.
• Unsatisfactory relationship with spouse, parents, parents-in-law and children was associated with greater GPS among the teachers.

Barkat and Parveen (1999) attempted to find out the organizational role stress among bank managers and university teachers with a sample of 100 working women of mid-socioeconomic status, 50 bank managers from different nationalized banks and 50 university teachers from M.J.P. Rohilkhand University, Bareilly, in the age range from 30 to 55 years. Organizational Role stress scale developed by Pareek was used as a tool to collect the data. Female bank managers scored significantly higher than female university teachers on all the ten dimensions of organizational role stress namely; inter-role distance, role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role erosion, role overload, role isolation, personal inadequacy, self-role distance, role ambiguity, and resource inadequacy.

Reid (1999) examined the relationship between personality type and burnout of 189 female elementary teachers. Teachers are reported to have an average amount of burnout and an above average amount of coping.

Ciarochi, Chan and Caputi, (2000) for example, posit that emotional intelligence may protect people from stress and lead to better adaptation. They opined that an objective measure of emotion management skill is associated with a tendency to maintain an experimentally induced positive mood, which has obvious implication for preventing stress.

Kumar (2000) made a study of secondary school married women teachers investigating the relationship between personal and school-based variables; and found them negatively related to their role conflict but positively related to job stress.

Emotional intelligence has been found to impact on psychological health—particularly occupational stress (Ciarrochi, Chan and Bajgar, 2001).

Bharathi and Reddy (2002) with a sample of 100 primary school women teachers, belonging to 10 selected Missionary and Government primary schools of Hyderabad and Secundrabad, found that:

- Majority of the Missionary school teachers experienced job stress in the areas of time demand, job security whereas the teachers of the Government schools experienced job stress in the areas of workload, time demand and working environment (medium stress).
- Government teachers experienced low stress in the areas of staff relationships and job security, as their jobs are permanent.
• Government school teachers experienced high job stress related to students, curriculum load, working environment, workload, time demand, administrative problems.

• In case of Missionary school teachers, high job stress was observed in the areas of poor remuneration and job security.

• Age, income, educational qualification and teaching experience had insignificant effect on job stress of teachers.

• Majority (74%) of the respondents was actively involved in their work and was working together for a common goal as a measure to cope up with stress.

‘Teacher stress is a much talked of phenomenon, however there is little consensus between different professional groups regarding its aetiology, or how to tackle it. Based on a review of international research, it is concluded that teacher stress is a real phenomenon and that high levels are reliably associated with a range of casual factors, including those intrinsic to teaching, individual vulnerability and systemic influences. Limitations with the current research base of teacher stress are identified; we have a reasonable understanding of the aetiology of teacher stress, but little is known about the effects of reducing or mediating the impact of stressors. There are very few studies of effective interventions and none involving large samples or long term follow up. There are serious problems in generalizing findings from stress management in other occupational sectors. As well as addressing these gaps in our understanding, future research based on a social representations approach is needed to allow teachers and stress management practitioners a shared understanding of stress’ (Jarvis, 2002).

Kumar (2004) studied the perceived stress of teachers in relation to job satisfaction and certain personality characteristics with a sample consisted of 300 teachers, 100 each from the primary, secondary and higher secondary schools of Kerala State, revealed that:

• Teachers with less job satisfaction are more prone to perceived stress than those with average or high job satisfaction.

• A teacher with favorable personality characteristics experiences less stress than those with less favorable personality characteristics.
Reese (2004) noted that (a) work-related stress results from the combination of high job demands and low control over how the job is done and (b) when teachers perceive that their work is highly demanding but that they have little decision-making ability.

Jamal (2006) in a study of organizational commitment in relation to occupational stress, job satisfaction, employees’ morale and socio-emotional school climate, found that occupational stress and employees’ morale as a whole and its components like workload, student misbehavior, classroom resources, poor colleague relations, etc. are predictors of organizational commitment and affective commitment.

There are many factors that contribute to stress among teachers. These factors include the amount of time spent in class, preparing for class, counseling students, and traveling to teacher conferences; working with a large number of students with various needs, abilities, disabilities, and cognitive levels; learning new technology; changes in administrative leadership; lack of financial and personnel support; and time pressures and deadlines.

Hence, one of the most challenging professions today is teaching and this is mainly because the teachers are in a position of too much responsibility where they are responsible for the actions of every young and unpredictable group of people of almost the same age group. Many people have not been attracted to this profession but, more and more young people continue to express their desire to join teaching. The truth is, we often do not understand how a person can decide to serve in one of the noblest careers while others do not. It all depends on the passion and drive in a person to go ahead with certain jobs. Teaching has been known to be a profession with many rewards and with this rewards comes challenges which are topped by stress. You therefore must have a vocation or zeal to undertake teaching very effectively.

Teacher stress is categorized as a serious working hazard which has the power to bring a crisis on the teacher. Many teachers and former teachers have expressed their concerns about stress associated with the job. Many have stated that at first, new teachers are naive and are filled with optimism and go through the first months with confidence just to realize that they are being put down by students’ everyday. There are several factors that cause teacher stress and they include time pressures. A teacher is constantly changing
classes and keeping time just to realize that they are being pressured. They give so much to students who might not be keen to show appreciation.

Another cause of teacher stress is their low status. One thing we can be sure of is that teachers do not teach for the money. They have therefore associated this with low status. This makes teachers look down upon themselves and some regret why they ever got into the trade. Another cause for teacher stress includes pupil indiscipline. You can be sure that pupils will always find some way of making you unhappy and leave you wondering how you are going to deal with the situation. If you are the kind of teacher who is quick to anger, you have very frustrating future ahead. Feelings of dislike might be harbored inside a teacher but, the ideal thing is to come up with a solution that will enable the child to realize their problem and hopefully make them improve.

The working conditions for teachers have not been known to be great. This is another source of frustration and this problem becomes worse in the poorer countries. Another factor that will bring teachers stress is the lack of motivation in the students. It is very hard to develop motivation in pupils because they must be willing to learn. Conflicts with colleagues will cause teacher stress and the best thing is to avoid confrontation and show a better example to the pupils. Having said all these, many people in the world have taught for a very long time and continue to do so for the love of teaching.

In the light of teacher stress so described, if the penultimate and the ultimate states of stress which are detrimental in longevity be described as loss of idealism and enthusiasm to work, the associate causes for the same, stressors which come across the way of smooth process of teaching the fellow teachers to the quality educators cannot be ignored in any sense. These need further investigation and elaboration in the right context and perspective. Let us further try to study the phenomenon of teacher’s stress in details that affect the performance of teacher educators.

1.2.1 Categorization of Teacher Stressors

A stressor is any stimulus, which evokes a stress response. Stressors may be real or imagined, internal or external. The overall impact of a stressor will depend on its characteristics and the characteristics of those who have been affected. Stressors are not all unpleasant–most life situations that require change or adaptation can be viewed as stressors. Even pleasant events such as promotions, vacations and marriage are stressors
since they require many adjustments and place demands on the person. Nonetheless, there is increasing evidence that it is not the change per se, but the quality of the change that is potentially damaging to people. Events, which are sudden, abnormal, undesired, severe and sustained, and those over which the individual has little or no control are the most detrimental stressors so far discovered, have been categorized differently by different researches depending upon their individual or collective lines of thoughts and different aspects of views:

According to Goodall and Brown (1980), there are two distinct types of stressors, those without and within.

- Without stressors originate outside individuals and include such things as environmental or work-related demands.
- Within stressors are those from within individuals. These stressors tend to include individuals' personal values, attitudes, and self-concepts.

According to Gupta (1981), there are three major types of stressors:

- Environmental,
- Organizational and
- Individual.

Smith and Milstein (1984) found stressors to emerge from the environment and individuals. Internal characteristics would be stressors from within individual teachers.

As far as teacher stressors are concerned, previous studies have left a gap which encloses a facilitating categorization encompassing numerable stressors found in teacher educators starting from incept of an institution to the presently running educational institution. Here is a composite approach for the types of stressors among teacher educators in colleges of education:

1. Personal Stressors
2. Professional Stressors
3. Organizational Stressors
4. Socio-cultural Stressors
5. Casual/Incidental Stressors
FIG 1.13 CATEGORIZATION OF TEACHER’S STRESSORS

1. Personal Stressors: The stressors, which can be explained under this category of stressors, are variously listed –

- Individual’s qualities like physical, cognitive, behavioral, emotional, rational etc. so as to resist to stress.
- Individual’s disqualities e.g., job anxiety, ego strength, job involvement, problem solving style, state trait anxiety or any other general characteristic of personal correlates such as age, education, family size, children, parental backgrounds etc. so as to be a cause to stress.

There have been individual differences noted in the ways teachers perceive, interpret and react to a situation. The response to potentially stressful situations is known to vary across individuals (Fontana, 1989), and this is found much more true in teaching profession, where practitioners are differentially exposed to very many threatening situations in their daily functioning. Okebukola and Jegede (1989) reported higher stress scores of female teachers as compared to their male colleagues. Borg and Riding (1993), in their research on the role of cognitive style in the occupational stress of reported significant variations among teachers related to their cognitive styles. Fontana and Abouserie (1993) have noted extroversion and neuroticism as the best predictors of stress levels. Ushashree (1993) made an attempt at investigating sources, reactions and coping resources of school teachers to stress and found that as regards the sources of stress, there were significant differences between men and women teachers, rural and urban teachers, primary and
secondary school teachers and teachers of three job tenures. It was also found that various sources of stress included health, career satisfaction, job related stress, management related stress, students and family areas pay and job related stresses. Joshi and Singhvi (1997) examined the effect of teacher’s personality factors on their experience of role stress and revealed that externality by others and externality by chance were correlated positively with all the dimensions of role stress. Sindhe (1997) attempted to study the demographic and family variables related to teacher’s anxiety and perceived stress and concluded that; highly stressed teachers were highly anxious too, whereas less stressed teachers were less anxious; female teachers had greater GPS (General Perceived Stress) than their male counterparts; people with poor personal and poor family health were found to have greater GPS than those with good health; and unsatisfactory relationship with spouse, parents, parents-in-law and children was associated with greater GPS among the teachers. Bharathi and Reddy (2002) found that majority (74%) of the respondents was actively involved in their work and was working together for a common goal as a measure to cope up with stress. Kumar (2004) studied the perceived stress of teachers in relation to certain personality characteristics revealed that a teacher with favorable personality characteristics experiences less stress than those with less favorable personality characteristics.

2. Professional Stressors: Mastery over the subject, fluency in speech and action and other qualities relating to the profession, particularly, the moderators for a teacher educator on the one hand, whereas lack of some element in any aspect may add to the stress and become a strong stressor which results in deterioration. It can be the carelessness at the hands of a teacher educator, that can spoil the entire nation and it is here that the seeds of discontent, frustration, idling away are sown in the minds of pupil-teachers and further the school children. Teachers caring little for his work and conduct can hardly claim to be respectable. Lack of originality, creativity, no contribution of one’s own experiences etc. cannot claim respect. And many other stressors intrinsic to teaching like workload, long working hours etc. has emerged as particular issues of discussion associated with emotional exhaustion.

Wanberg and Levitov (1983) have reported that the elementary teachers differ from secondary teachers in their perceived stress, contingent on the type of potentially stressful situation they have been in. Gorell, McAllister, Bergman, and Lipscomb (1985) have found higher level of stress among American elementary school than the secondary teachers. Ushashree (1993) made an attempt at investigating sources, reactions and coping
resources of school teachers to stress and found that various sources of stress included career satisfaction, job related stress, management related stress, students and job related stresses. Paratkar (1994) examined the stress among teachers at different levels from a psycho-social perspective and concluded that the amount of role stress varied at different levels. The nature and types of role stresses also differed at different professional levels. As the level of teaching profession increased, the role stress decreased. It was highest among primary and middle level teachers. Attitude towards teaching profession was found to be significantly and negatively correlated with role stress. Sindhe (1997) attempted to study the demographic and family variables related to teacher’s anxiety and perceived stress and concluded that teaching in both the medium resulted in greater stress than teaching through one medium only. Bharathi and Reddy (2002) found that government schoolteachers experienced high job stress related to students, curriculum load, working environment, workload, time demand, administrative problems. In case of Missionary school teachers, high job stress was observed in the areas of poor remuneration and job security. Kumar (2004) studied the perceived stress of teachers and revealed that teachers with less job satisfaction are more prone to perceived stress than those with average or high job satisfaction.

3. Organizational Stressors: Cluster of systemic factors that are not intrinsic to teaching, are used to denote the organizational stressors. These can be-

Authority Stressors-- These arise from norms, standards, rules and regulations set by NCTE, NAAC NCERT, UGC, DPI, University concerned etc. which have become the immutable laws to be met mechanically.

Intra-organizational Stressors-- Stressors such as principal’s style of working support/hindrance among colleagues, interaction with administrative staff, support staff, technical staff etc. has emerged as significant intra-organizational stressors.

Inter-organizational Stressors-- Competitiveness among co-institutions to get better honored and better grade in inter-college competitions, university level competitions etc.

Mishra(1991), worked to understand the interrelationship between organizational conflict in school teacher’s stress and burnout, in relation to teacher’s personality at primary level and analyse coping strategies adopted by teachers in a stressful situation. The study concluded that integrating organizational conflict with senior teachers is significantly related to stress feeling. Education and obliging organizational conflict predicted 8 per cent of total variation. It is the type of management that contributes to the
organizational climate, which are less stress-producing among teachers and teachers who are more realistic and self-attributing adjust better in stress situation. Ushashree (1993) found that various sources of stress included health, career satisfaction, job related stress, management related stress, students and family areas, pay and job related stresses. Paratkar (1994) concluded that the organizational climate was significantly and negatively correlated with role of stress. Sudhira (1994) examined the teacher job satisfaction and job stress of secondary physical education teachers working in different management schools in Madhya Pradesh. It was found that the physical education teachers working in different management schools differed significantly on their job stress. It was also found that the physical education teachers working in private and semi government schools had significantly higher job stress as compared to those who were working in government schools. Among them, the private school teachers had the higher job stress.

4. Socio-cultural Stressors: To meet the scarcity of qualified teachers in educational institutions, there are teacher educators from far off places i.e. who move into unfamiliar socio-cultures. The acculturative stress can cause lowered mental health. (e.g., confusion, anxiety, depression, feeling of alienation) Since novice teachers are often reluctant to ask for help, they may be afraid to let anyone know that they are having problems, which lead to additional stress.

The existence of factors other than those intrinsic to teaching can be demonstrated by cross-national comparisons of teacher stress. Travers and Cooper (1997) surveyed 800 teachers in England and France about stress and found substantially different responses. 22% of sick leave in England, as opposed to 1% in France was attributed to stress. 55% of the English teachers as opposed to 20% 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. The commonality of reported sources of pressure between English and French teachers could lead us to a social representations interpretation of teacher stress in Britain, in which teachers experience stress because they take on a consensual belief about teaching in which its stressful nature forms part of the figurative nucleus of its social representation. However, there are also notable differences in the reported experiences of the English and French groups, which could lead us to the more 'common sense' interpretation that teachers in Britain operate in
particularly stressful conditions, in particular with regard to workload and political intervention.

5. Casual/Incidental Stressors: Belief that the work environment is a casual factor that contributes to teacher’s stress was supported by the action research of Milstein and Golszwaski (1985) Special interventions have been sought to develop and implement immediate tactics and strategies to alleviate or modify that come across incidentally during the formal courses of teaching. There are unquestionably a number of causal factors in teacher stress. Although stress always involves a transaction between the individual and their environment (Cox, 1978), for heuristic purposes we can divide causal factors in teacher stress into three broad areas; factors intrinsic to teaching, cognitive factors affecting the individual vulnerability of teachers and systemic factors, operating at the institutional and political level. (Jarvis, 2002)

Thus, researches in the area of teacher stress in the context of Indian educational system seem to be neglected domain of investigation in the right perspective. Considering the yet unexplored area of teacher stress in the Indian context, two things seem quite prominent; the nature of teacher stress and the effect of pattern of individual related personal variables on teacher stress. The amount of research conducted on stress in general, in other areas of employment and in other teaching areas, makes it evident that research related to stress is also of great importance and the stress on teacher educators has far-reaching consequences on the entire system of education. It becomes imperative therefore to study the teacher stress among teacher educators. Hence, the area of concern is to examine the components of teacher stress in detail as well as its relationship with identified teacher’s personal characteristics among teacher educators.

Hence, here our matter of concern is to study teacher stress in relation to teacher’s internal characteristics i.e., Locus of control, family environment and emotional Intelligence; and observe whether these internal characteristic tend to influence teacher stress or not.

1.3 LOCUS OF CONTROL

Locus of control refers to an individual's generalized expectations concerning where control over subsequent events resides. In other words, who or what is responsible for what happens. It is analogous to, but distinct from, attributions. According to Weiner the ‘attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do,
i.e., attribute causes to behavior.’ There is a three-stage process, which underlies an attribution. Step one: the person must perceive or possibly observe the behavior. Step two is to try to figure out if the behavior was intentional, and step three is to determine if the person was forced to perform that behavior. The latter occur after the fact, that is, they are explanations for events that have already happened. Expectancy, which concerns future events, is a critical aspect of locus of control. Locus of control is grounded in expectancy-value theory, which describes human behavior as determined by the perceived likelihood of an event or outcome occurring contingent upon the behavior in question, and the value placed on that event or outcome. More specifically, expectancy-value theory states that if (a) someone values a particular outcome and (b) that person believes that taking a particular action will produce that outcome, then (c) they are more likely to take that particular action. Within psychology, Locus of Control is considered an important aspect of personality.

Julian Rotter first developed the concept in 1960 (Rotter, 1966). He originally named this concept as Locus of Control of Reinforcement. Rotter actually bridged the gap between behavioral and cognitive psychology. He believed that behavior was largely guided by “reinforcements”. The punishments and rewards in turn shaped the way people interpreted the results of their own actions. In organizational settings, rewards or outcomes include promotions, favorable circumstances, salary increases and general carrier advancement. This understanding of Locus of Control is consistent. A Locus of control orientation is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation).

Locus of control, according to Rotter’s approach, can be divided into two separate sources of control: internal and external. People with an internal locus of control believe that they control their own destiny. They also believe that their own experiences are controlled by their own skills or efforts. On the other hand, people who tend to have an external locus of control tend to attribute their experiences to fate, chance or luck. Since they attribute both their successes and failures to luck or chance, they tend to lack persistence and not have very high levels of expectation. Thus, locus of control is conceptualized as referring to a one-dimensional continuum, ranging from external to internal:
External Locus of Control: Individual believes that his/her behavior is guided by fate, luck, or other external circumstances.

Internal Locus of Control: Individual believes that his/her behavior is guided by his/her personal decisions and efforts.

Where Rotter’s conceptualization viewed locus of control as one-dimensional (internal to external), Levenson (1973) offered an alternative model. Levenson’s model asserts that there are three independent dimensions:

- Internality
- Chance
- Powerful others

According to Levenson’s model, one can endorse each of these dimensions of locus of control independently and at the same time. For example, A person might simultaneously believe that both oneself and powerful others’ influence outcomes, but that chance does not.

**Individual Locus of Control (I):** Belief about individual control. (High scores indicate that one believes that one's outcomes are controlled by him/her. One’s current situations and rewards are direct outcomes of things one control).

**Chance Locus of Control (C):** Belief about chance control (High scores indicate that unordered, chance or random events control the outcomes).

**Powerful others’ Locus of Control (P):** Belief about control by powerful others (High scores indicate that other people control the outcomes).

Generally, the development of locus of control stems from family, culture and past experiences leading to rewards. Most internals have been shown to come from families that focused on effort, education, and responsibility. On the other hand, most externals come from families of a low socioeconomic status where there is a lack of life control.

Shejwal (1984) conducted a two-fold study to establish (a) the stressfulness of life events, and (b) to test some of its personality correlates. Personality variables like locus of control, repression-sensitization, and anxiety were studied to assess their role in the perception and experience of stressfulness of life events. The analysis revealed that the
high stress group was found to have internal control whereas the low stress group was found to have external control.

Rao (1986) studied personality and coping behavior in relation to stressful life events. He concluded that the personality dimension of locus of control was found to influence the experience of stressful life events, while both extraversion and locus of control determined the use of certain coping strategies. The results highlighted the need for further research in the areas of stress and assessment of coping behaviors in relation to specific events.

Gupta (1989) conducted a study on role stress, locus of control, coping styles and role efficacy of first generation entrepreneurs. The study was conceptualized in terms of nine specific objectives. A group of 60 first generation entrepreneurs was selected and several tools were used. Statistical conclusions obtained were:

- Internals experienced maximum stress on resource inadequacy. Possible entrepreneurs experienced maximum stress on role overload.
- A significant difference was seen between internals and possible entrepreneurs on the dimensions of inter-role distance, role isolation, challenge and total role stress.
- A significant interaction was noted between training and locus of control on the dimensions of self-role distance, challenge, and role overload role irrelevance and total role stress.
- There was a non-significant interaction between training and locus of control on role efficacy.
- Internals and possible entrepreneurs used intropersistive style of coping most frequently.
- There was a significant difference between internals and possible entrepreneurs on interpersistive style of coping.

Mishra (1991), worked to understand the interrelationship between organizational conflict in school teacher’s stress and burnout, in relation to teacher’s personality at primary level and analyse coping strategies adopted by teachers in a stressful situation. The study concluded that teachers with external locus of control had poor personal accomplishment in comparison to teachers having internal locus of control irrespective of schools’ management and in case of teachers with internal locus on control, none of the organizational variables was significantly related to stress.
Achalamba and Kumar (1993) examined the relationship between locus of control and organizational role stress among college teachers—professional/non-professional, male/female and young/old, using Udaip Pareek’s Organizational Role Stress Scale and Rotter’s I.E Locus of Control Scale.

Paratkar (1994) examined the stress among teachers at different levels from a psycho-social perspective with a sample comprised of 30 teachers each at primary level, secondary level, junior college, senior college and university (post-graduate) level adding up to 150; and concluded that Locus of control did not have any relationship with the role stress.

Joshi and Singhvi (1997) examined the effect of teacher’s personality factors on their experience of role stress using a sample of 167 teachers drawn from different universities of Rajasthan. The major findings of the study were:

- Locus of control was associated negatively and significantly with role ambiguity.
- Internality was associated positively and significantly with role stagnation, and was associated negatively and significantly with role ambiguity.
- Externality by others and externality by chance were correlated positively with all the dimensions of role stress.

Sometimes Locus of Control is seen as a stable, underlying personality construct, but this may be misleading, since the theory and research indicates that locus of control is largely learned. There is evidence that, at least to some extent, LOC is a response to circumstances. Some psychological and educational interventions have been found to produce shifts towards internal locus of control (e.g., outdoor education programs; Hans, 2000; Hattie, Marsh, Neill and Richards, 1997).

According to Khetarpal and Kochar (2006), Locus of control is regarded as a relatively stable personality characteristic and is related to stress. Those, who believe that they will be able to master most demands by doing what is necessary or discovering what to do and how to do it, are less likely to be threatened or helpless or hopeless in stressful situations. This is in contrast with chronically anxious individuals who believe that they are incapable of mastering the situation. In one of their studies of stress, job satisfaction and locus of control in college teachers concluded that

- The permanent and temporary college teachers differ significantly with respect to internal-external control as they have different job conditions.
• The permanent teachers have a higher internal locus and do not depend on chance and powerful others.
• Teachers who are satisfied with their jobs have an internal locus of control.

Neil (2006) opined that, in general, it seems to be psychologically healthy to perceive that one has control over those things that one is capable of influencing. In simplistic terms, a more internal locus of control is generally seen as desirable. Having an Internal locus of control can also be referred to as "self-agency", "personal control", "self-determination", etc. Research has found the following trends:
• Males tend to be more internal than females
• As people get older they tend to become more internal
• People higher up in organizational structures tend to be more internal (Mamlin, Harris, and Case, 2001)

However, its important to warn people against lapsing in the overly simplistic view, the notion that internal is good and external is bad (two legs good, four legs bad?). There are important subtleties and complexities to be considered. For example:
• Internals can be psychologically unhealthy and unstable. An internal orientation usually needs to be matched by competence, self-efficacy and opportunity so that the person is able to successfully experience the sense of personal control and responsibility. Overly internal people who lack competence, efficacy and opportunity can become neurotic, anxious and depressed. In other words, internals need to have a realistic sense of their circle of influence in order to experience 'success'.
• Externals can lead easy-going, relaxed, happy lives.

Despite these cautions, psychological research has found that people with a more internal locus of control seem to be better off, e.g., they tend to be more achievement oriented and to get better-paid jobs. However, thought regarding causality is needed here too. Whether environmental circumstances (such as privilege and disadvantage) cause locus of control beliefs or do the beliefs cause the situation; is also a matter of discussion.

Locus of control has been a concept, which has certainly generated more research in psychology in a variety of areas. However, there has been very little research on the determinants of locus of control. Research on the social determinants of personality measures believed to be associated with illness outcomes, needs to be a major priority in future research. Careful differences should also be made in between locus of control (a
concept linked with expectations of the future) and attribution style (a concept linked with explanations of the past outcomes) or between locus of control and concepts like self-efficacy. Locus of control may be important in studies of job strain, implicated as a risk factor. There will probably continue to be a debate about specific or more global measures of locus of control will prove to be more useful. Such work may lead to a better understanding of how the perception of control relates to job stress. The importance of locus of control as a topic of psychology is likely to remain quite certain for many years.

1.4 FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

Family is a biological unit whose members have common dwelling place, and the parents are bound together by institutionalized social relationships, which regulate the sex relations between them and determine the system of nomenclature and reckoning descent and the degrees within which marriage is allowed or forbidden. It is the most intimate group, to which man belongs, and most effective agent in the transmission of the social heritage.

The family is not a mere association but also an institutional complex on a system of institutions. The family, especially the nuclear or individual family, is the most basic social group. It consists ordinarily of a man and woman permanently united with one or more children. Sometimes the parents of husband or wife live together also; in some societies, even some servants were admitted as members of the household. This is the simplest form of the family, but it also exists in more complex forms, such as; the polygamous family or the joint family so common in India (Sharan, 1996).

Family has been defined in the Oxford Dictionary as: (1) the body of persons who live in one house or under one head, including parents, children, servants, etc., (2) the ground consisting of parents and their children, whether living together or not; (3) a person’s children reared collectively; and (4) those descended, or claiming decline from a common ancestry.

The family is the oldest and the most important of all the institutions that man has devised to regulate and integrate his behavior as he strives to satisfy his basic needs. The family is basically a unit in which parents and children live together. Its key position rests on its multiple functions in relation to overall development of its members, their protection, and over all well-being. Therefore, it would emerge that not only the social and physical well-being of the individual is taken care of by the family, but the psychological
well-being as well. Ideally, the family provides its members with protection, companionship, security, and socialization. The structure of the family and the needs that the family fulfils vary from society to society. The nuclear family—two adults and their children—is the main unit in some societies. In others, the nuclear family is a subordinate part of an extended family, which also consists of grandparents and other relatives. A third family unit is the single-parent family, in which children live with an unmarried, divorced, or widowed mother or father.

*Distinctive features of the family organization:*

The varieties of the family are endless, and the range of its functions, no less than the mode in which it performs them, varies enormously. Of all the organizations, large or small, which society unfolds, none transcends the family in the intensity of its sociological significance. It influences the whole life of society in innumerable ways, and its changes, as we shall see, reverberate through the whole social structure. It is in many respects unlike any other association, having besides those already suggested several distinctive features.

- **Universality**: It is the most nearly universal of all social forms. It is found in all societies, at all stages of social development, and exists far below the human level, among a myriad species of animal. Almost every human being is or has been a member of some family.

- **Emotional basis**: It is based on a complex of the most profound impulses of our organic nature, those of mating, procreation, maternal devotion, and parental care. These are fortified in man by a highly significant and close-knit group of secondary emotions, from romantic love to the pride of race, from the affection of mates to the desire for the economic security of a home, from the jealousy of personal possession to the baffled yearning for perpetuity.

- **Formative influence**: It is the earliest social environment of all the higher forms of life, including man, and the profoundest formative influence in the awakening lives of which it is the source. In particular, it molds the character of the individual by the impression both of organic and of mental habits.

- **Limited Sizes**: It is a group very limited in size, for it is defined by biological conditions, which it cannot transcend without losing its identity.

- **Nuclear position in the social structure**: It is the nucleus of other social organizations. Frequently in the simpler societies, as well as in the more advanced types of patriarchal society, the whole social structure is built of family units. One of the first definitions
ever given of a community made it “a union of families,” and for the local community the definition, with some qualification, still holds today.

- **Responsibility of the members:** It makes more continuous and greater demands of the members than any other association. In times of crisis men may work, fight, and die for their country, but they toil for their families all their lives. The family leads men-and women still more-to perform for others than themselves the most exacting tasks and to undertake the heaviest responsibilities. The life of the family is too deeply rooted in basic impulses to be interpreted in this way. These impulses lead men into the increasing responsibilities of the family and sustain them in the fulfillment of tasks, which they did not foresee.

- **Social regulation:** In modern society, the family is one of the few associations, in which the consenting parties may freely enter but may not, even by mutual consent, freely leave or dissolve.

- **Permanent and Temporary nature:** While the institution of the family is so permanent and universal, the family as an association is temporary and the most transitional of all the important organizations within society. The contrast between these two aspects of the family is so significant, and throws so much light on many of the perplexing social problems that cluster about the family, that it demands our special attention.

  Historical studies have indicated that family structure has been less changed by urbanization and industrialization than was once supposed. As far as is known, the nuclear family was the most prevalent pre-industrial unit and is still the basic unit of social organization in most modern industrial societies. The modern family differs from earlier traditional forms, however, in its functions, composition, and life cycle, and in the roles of mothers and fathers.

  All industrial nations are experiencing family trends similar to those found in the West. Improved methods of birth control and legalized abortion have had an impact in decreasing the numbers of one-parent families that are unable to be self-supporting. Divorce is increasing even where religious and legal impediments to it are strongest. In addition, smaller families and a lengthened post parental stage are found in all industrial societies. (Microsoft Encarta, Encyclopedia, 1993-2001).

  The modern family in the West has been profoundly modified its functions and has become highly individualistic. Many of the tasks that once were performed in the home concerning the education of children, help in sickness, cloth washing and mending, and the
manufacturing and processing of things for immediate use, have been taken away by specialized agencies. The husband has to leave the home to work, and the women follow suit though not in the same proportion. The wife’s right to property, to sue and be sued in court is fully recognized. Owing mainly to the practice of artificial birth prevention the number of children in the family has decreased, while divorce and broken homes have increased. But these are not the only forces at work in the family, not even the most decisive. Those which favor the existence of the family as a permanent group for the procreation and education of the children and for mutual love and protection, are still active, and will in the long run prevail over the others. In general the modern Western family still performs its essential functions. In India owing mainly to the impact of industrialism the traditional joint family is disintegrating; birth control is increasing, and unless these and similar currents are fully controlled they will create the same problems as in the West.

The only function of the family that continues to survive all changes is the provision of affection and emotional support by and to all its members, particularly infants and young children. Specialized institutions now perform many of the other functions that were once performed by the agrarian (rural) family: economic production, education, religious, schooling, and recreation. Employment is usually separate from the family group; family members often work in different occupations and in locations away from the home. Education is provided by the state or by private groups. Religious training and recreational activities are available outside the home, although both still have a place in family life. The family is still responsible for the socialization of children, but even in this capacity, the influence of peers and of the mass media has assumed a larger role.

The psychological adjustment of the members of the family to one another in the course of its inexorable changes creates perhaps the most important series of the numerous problems, personal and social, engendered by an association which affects so intimately and in such incalculable ways, which more than any other engrosses, expresses, and circumscribes the personality of man.

In certain ways, the influence of the family can be negative. All too often, members of the family take out all their frustrations on each other. Moreover, “instead of being a readymade source of friends, the family is often a readymade source of victims and enemies, the place where the cruelest words are spoken…” (Chopra, 1991).
Ushashree (1993) made an attempt at investigating sources, reactions and coping resources of school teachers to stress and found that various sources of stress included health, career satisfaction and family areas.

A recent report by Political and Economic Risk Consultancy (PERC), Hong Kong, revealed that stress levels in Asia are on the rise. ‘This year (i.e., 1997) Asia is widely considered to be a much more stressful place to live in than was the case as recently as in 1996’. Even India is not an exception, ranking only after Vietnam, South Korea, Thailand, Hong Kong, the Philippines, China, Indonesia, Singapore and Japan (in that order), and rating 6.1 on a 10-point rating scale. The report further adds that ‘the single factor most often cited as being the biggest cause of stress was difficulties balancing professional life with social and family life’ (The Times of India, 1997).

A new report from the National Center for Health Statistics (1997), Center for Disease Control and Prevention examines the relationship between health status and family characteristics and finds that such family traits as education, income, marital status, and family size have an important impact on the health of family members. In general, the report found that people living with a spouse, children in two-parent households, and those in families with higher education and income were the healthiest. "Health and Selected Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Family: United States, 1988-90" is a comprehensive analysis of 11 separate health variables, from the extent of disability to the incidence of acute conditions. While other NCHS reports--some using later data--have examined one or more family traits by selected health outcomes, this is the first report to cover many health traits and an array of health status indicators. Highlights of the report show:

- Married men and women in all age groups are less likely to be limited in activity due to illness than single, separated, divorced, or widowed individuals. Middle-aged adults who live alone have higher rates of doctor visits, acute conditions, and short- and long-term disability.
- Never-married persons under 25 years of age living with both parents had lower than average levels of activity limitation, fair or poor health, and hospitalization in direct contrast to never-married persons living with their mother.
- Adults show a similar impact of income with those in the poorest families more likely to have activity limitations, poor or fair health status, bed disability, acute conditions, and hospitalization.
Thus, marital status, income, and education may affect health characteristics in several ways. Higher income and education may provide family members with more knowledge of good health habits and better access to health and preventive services. Persons living with a spouse are likely to have better health profiles because of lifestyle differences (such as better eating habits, someone to share a problem) and higher incomes.

According to Lai (1995), work and family are two major role domains for many adults. Studies have generally shown that stressors embedded in work or family roles are detrimental to psychological wellbeing. The permeable boundaries between work and family roles induce stress spillover from one role domain to the other. Further, role satisfaction promotes generalized wellbeing, an overall state of contentment and mental health. The dynamics of such work-home interface stress would be different for men and women. Higher stress at home is more likely to have spillover effects at work for women; the opposite is probably true for men. Women face an additional stressor as they have responsibility on both fronts and hence are likely to not only experience role conflict, but also role overload.

Daga (1997) conducted a study to examine the influence of social family role stress and social support on quality of life among working women belonging to three occupational groups of clerks, doctors and teachers. The sample consisted of 300 working women. Of these, 100 women belonged to each occupational group. The main findings of the study may be summarized as follows:

- Quality of life was correlated negatively and significantly with social family role stress among clerks, doctors and teachers.
- Quality of life was found to be associated positively and significantly with social support among clerks and teachers.
- Social family role stress was reported to be correlated positively and significantly with social support among clerks, doctors and teachers.
- Significant differences were observed among all the three groups on the relationship scores of quality of life and social family role stress.
- Results based on partial correlations indicated that when the effect of social support was partialled out, social family role stress was found to be a significant and negative predictor of quality of life. When the effect of social family role stress was partialled out, social support emerged as a significant predictor of quality of life.
for clerks and teachers. Quality of life was found to be a significant predictor of social family role stress and social support.

Multiple coefficients of correlation indicated that quality of life was correlated significantly with social family role stress and social support among clerks, doctors, and teachers.

Shindhe (1997) attempted to study the demographic and family variables related to teacher’s anxiety and perceived stress and to compare the relationship between anxiety and perceived stress. Sample comprised 1,560 elementary school teachers from various elementary schools of Mysore. The study concluded that:

- People with poor personal and poor family health were found to have greater GPS than those with good health.
- Unsatisfactory relationship with spouse, parents, parents-in-law and children was associated with greater GPS among the teachers.

On the basis of these findings, the author suggested that since working women are engaged in dual roles, i.e., as workers and homemakers, emphasis should be given to management of social and family stressor and job stress so that they can maintain their quality of life and adjust with family members and workmates. Second, greater attention is required to design work settings and organizations for providing effective support system to reduce the stresses emanating from the family and society.

Achieving the right balance between the workplace and the home is crucial for the efficient functioning of any organization. Getting the right balance between work and home life makes people more effective because it enhances their self confidence- the base camp to enable people to climb any mountain to identify the things that matter and make them happen’. In the words of Andrew Oswald, Professor of Economics at Warwick University, who has spearheaded several studies on the job satisfaction and stress,’ getting the right balance between work and life is becoming the number one employment issue. There was a time when you would leave work and leave most of your work issues there. But the advent of e-mail and mobile phones means that this distinction is becoming blurred’. He adds, ‘we are all willing workaholics and that people are finding it increasingly difficult to maintain a balance between their work and home life’ (Howard, 1999).

In the modern world, material goods and standards of living determine societal status to a greater extent than family, education, etc. Gone are the days when aristocracy
was based on birth in a certain family, and such aristocracy was self-fulfilling. In such a culture, dual carrier couples definitely have an edge over those in whom the male is the only earning member. Higher income means a better quality of physical life and psychological fulfillment of carrier aspirations of both spouses. However, this advantage does not come without any cost. Dual carrier families face considerable stress and strain (Aggarwal, 2001).

The family environment is influenced by a number of factors like the nature of family constellation; number of children in the family; marital relationships between husband and wife; maternal (paternal) employment; and socio-economic and religious background of the family.

The family environment possesses a certain consistency so that the impact of the basic values, individuals, material objects etc., is felt over and over. Parental influence may not be felt in a specific situation, but the attitudes and ideas expressed day after day inevitably leave their mark.

Family environment scale employed in this study have been prepared by Bhatia and Chadha, which in is based on the family environment scale by Moos (1974). This scale consists of three dimensions which are taken from Moos’scale. Although the concept of dimensions was taken from Moos’scale, all the subscales in each dimension were operationally defined with certain modifications of original definitions. After making the changes and modifications, following dimensions were retained:

**Relationship Dimensions:**

1. **Cohesion:** Degree of commitment, help, and support family members provide for one another.
2. **Expressiveness:** Extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and express their feelings and thoughts directly.
3. **Conflict:** Amount of openly expressed aggression and conflict among family members.
4. **Acceptance and Caring:** Extent to which the members are unconditionally accepted and the degree to which caring is expressed in the family.

**Personal Growth dimensions:**

5. **Independence:** Extent to which family members are assertive and independently make their own decisions.
6. **Active-Recreational Orientation:** Extent of participation in social and recreational activities.
7. **Organization:** Degree of importance of clear organization structure in planning family activities and responsibilities.

8. **Control:** Degree of limit setting within a family.

### 1.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In the last decade or so, science has discovered a tremendous amount about the role emotions play in our lives. Researchers have found that our emotional awareness and ability to handle feelings rather than our IQ will determine our success and happiness in all walks of life. Many intellectual problems contain emotional information that must be processed (Mayor and Salvoey-1990) and utilized to solve such problems.

Although the construct of emotional intelligence is relatively new, it has enjoyed unprecedented attention from scholars and corporate gurus. It started its journey to prominence in 1920 when Thorndike (1920) formulated the concept of “social intelligence”. Since then scholars in the field of psychology have identified other forms of intelligence. Three clusters of intelligences have been identified. These are: abstract intelligence, which pertains to the ability to understand and manipulate verbal and mathematical symbols; concrete intelligence, which describes the ability to understand and manipulate objects; and social intelligence, which describes the ability to understand and relate with people.

Thorndike (1920) conceptualized social intelligence as the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, to act wisely in human relations. Building on the work of Thorndike, Gardener (1983) developed the theory of multiple intelligences, wherein he classified intelligence into two categories namely, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. He described inter-personal intelligence as the ability to understand other people, what motivates them, how they work, and how to work cooperatively with them. He identified teachers, politicians, salespersons, clinicians and religious leaders as individuals who are likely to have a high degree of inter-personal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is a correlative ability turned inward. It is a capacity to form a veridical model of one self and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life.

In what looks like a synchronization of Thorndike’s and Gardener’s model, Salovey and Mayer (1990) coined the term emotional intelligence which they conceptualized ‘as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others feelings and emotions, discriminate among them and to use
information to guide one’s thinking and action. To clarify the construct further, Mayer and Salovey (1997), postulated that emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion, the ability to access and/or generate emotional knowledge, and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Accordingly, there are four branches of Emotional intelligence:

a. Perception, Appraisal and Expression of Emotion

b. Emotional Facilitation of Thinking

c. Understanding and Analyzing Emotions; Employing Emotional Knowledge

d. Reflective Regulation of Emotions to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth

a. Perception, Appraisal and Expression of Emotion

- Ability to identify emotion in one’s physical states, feelings, and thoughts
- Ability to identify emotions in other people, designs, artwork, etc. through language, sound, appearance and behavior
- Ability to express emotions accurately and to express needs related to those feelings
- Ability to discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest vs. dishonest expressions of feelings

b. Emotional Facilitation of Thinking

- Emotions prioritize thinking by directing attention to important information.
- Emotions are sufficiently vivid and available that they can be generated as aids to judgment and memory concerning feelings
- Emotional mood swings change the individual’s perspective from optimistic to pessimistic, encouraging consideration of multiple points of view
- Emotional states differentially encourage specific problem-solving approaches such as when happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity

c. Understanding and Analyzing Emotions; Employing Emotional Knowledge

- Ability to label emotions and recognize relations among the words and, the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving
- Ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss
- Ability to understand complex feelings: simultaneous feeling of love and hate or blends such as a combination of fear and surprise
- Ability to recognize likely transitions among emotions, such as the transition from anger to satisfaction or from anger to shame
d. Reflective Regulation of Emotion to Promote Emotional and intellectual growth

- Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant
- Ability to reflectively engage or detach from an emotion depending upon its judged informativeness or utility
- Ability to reflectively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognizing how clear, typical, influential or reasonable they are
- Ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without repressing or exaggerating information they may convey

Goleman (1995) formulated the best-known theory of emotional intelligence. Goleman’s explanation of the construct was based on Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) original theory. Among other claims, Goleman theorized that emotional intelligence is equal to, if not more important than, IQ as an important indicator of success in one’s professional and personal life. Elaborating further on the construct, Goleman (1998) explained that an individual’s emotional intelligence can affect one’s work situation. He also applied his conceptual understanding to organization as a whole. He identified the following major areas of emotional intelligence:

- Knowing one’s emotions
- Management of emotions
- Motivating oneself
- Recognizing emotions in others
- Handling relationships

Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002) asserted that the effective use of emotion is basic to the function of successful leadership. They postulated further that leaders are emotional guides influencing not only follower emotions but also follower action through that emotional influence. Leaders exercise this influence through relationship management, motivational appeal, and goal setting, and the leader’s emotional intelligence is necessary to effectively perform these efforts.

Bar-On (2005) proposed a new model of emotional intelligence. In this model, emotional-social intelligence is a cross section of inter-related emotional and social competencies, skills, and factors that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them and cope with daily demands. According
to Bar-On (2005), this model of emotional and social intelligence has very much in common with the earlier models that have one or more of the following components:
(a) The ability to recognize, understand and express emotions and feelings;
(b) The ability to understand how others feel and relate with them,
(c) The ability to manage and control emotion;
(d) The ability to manage change, adapt and solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature and the ability to generate positive effects and be self-motivated.

Based on Baron’s model, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express oneself, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. At the intrapersonal level, it involves the ability to be aware of one self, to understand one’s strengths and weaknesses and to express one’s feelings and thoughts non-destructively. On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses the ability to be aware of other’s emotions, feelings and needs and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Thus, to be emotionally and socially intelligent implies the ability to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems, and making decisions.

Steve Hein (2005) found the academic definition by Mayer-Salovey too abstract. Here is his adaptation of the definition:

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

b. Emotional facilitation of thought
   - The ability to incorporate feelings into analysis reasoning, problem solving and decision making
   - The potential of your feelings to guide you to what is important to think about

c. Emotional Understanding
   - The ability to solve emotional problems
The ability to identify and understand the inter-relationships between emotions, thoughts and behavior. For example, to see cause and effect relationships such as how thoughts can affect emotions or how emotions can affect thoughts, and how your emotions can lead to the behavior in yourself and others.

The ability to understand the value of emotions to the survival of the species

d. 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

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Substantial disagreement exists regarding the definition of emotional intelligence, with respect to both terminology and operationalizations. There has been much confusion regarding the exact meaning of this construct. The definitions are so varied, and the field is growing so rapidly, that researchers are constantly amending even their own definitions of the construct. At the present time, there are three main models of emotional intelligence:

- Ability emotional intelligence models
- Mixed models of emotional intelligence
- Trait emotional intelligence model

The ability-based model

Salovey and Mayer's conception of emotional intelligence strives to define emotional intelligence within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of emotional intelligence 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 behaviors. The model claims that emotional intelligence includes four types of abilities:

1. 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.

2. Using emotions – the ability to harness 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.

3. 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.

4. Managing emotions – the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

The ability-based model has been criticized in the research for lacking face and predictive validity in the workplace.

**Mixed models of emotional intelligence**

The model introduced by Daniel Goleman (1998) focuses on emotional intelligence as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines four main emotional intelligence 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 others' 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 emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be 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)

Bar-On (2006) 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 emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy. Bar-On hypothesizes that those individuals with higher than average EQs are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one's environment are 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. However, doubts have been expressed about this model in the research literature (in particular about the validity of self-report as an index of emotional intelligence) and in scientific settings, it is being replaced by the trait emotional intelligence model discussed below.

The trait EI model

Petrides and colleagues (2007) proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of emotional intelligence. Trait emotional intelligence is "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality". In lay terms, trait emotional intelligence refers to an individual's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of emotional intelligence encompasses behavioral dispositions and self perceived abilities and is measured by self report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait emotional intelligence should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy.

The trait emotional intelligence model is general and subsumes the Goleman and Bar-On models discussed above. The conceptualization of emotional intelligence 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.

Numerous studies have been conducted in the field of emotional intelligence highlighting application and use in daily life:

- Relation of emotional intelligence with selected areas of personal functioning (Martinez, 1997).
- Cherniss and Goleman (1998) estimated that by not following training guidelines established to increase emotional intelligence in the workplace, industry in the United States is losing between $5.6 and $16.8 billion a year. They found that the impact of training employees in emotional and social competencies with programs which followed their guidelines was higher than for other programs, and by not implementing these programs, companies were receiving less of an impact and consequently losing money.
- Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) found that higher emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style, while others found that those scoring high in E.I. also reported increased positive interpersonal relationships among children, adolescents, and adults (Rice, 1999; Rubin, 1999).
- Negative relationships have likewise been identified between emotional intelligence and problem behavior. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) found that lower emotional intelligence was associated with lower self-reports of violent and trouble-prone behavior among college students, a correlation which remained significant even when the effects of intelligence and empathy were partialled out.
- The rate of job control as a moderator of emotional dissonance and emotional intelligence outcome relationships (Abraham, 2000).
- As previously discussed, advanced emotional intelligence can be beneficial in many areas of life. However, the application of its usefulness has been most frequently documented in the professional workplace. Cherniss (2000) outlined four main reasons why the workplace would be a logical setting for evaluating and improving emotional intelligence competencies:
  a) Emotional intelligence competencies are critical for success in most jobs.
b) Many adults enter the workforce without the competencies necessary to succeed or excel at their job.

c) Employers already have the established means and motivation for providing emotional intelligence training.

d) Most adults spend the majority of their waking hours at work.

• A strong interest in the professional applications of emotional intelligence is apparent in the way organizations have embraced E.I. ideas. The American Society for Training and Development, for example, has published a volume describing guidelines for helping people in organizations cultivate emotional intelligence competencies, which distinguish outstanding performers from average ones (Cherniss and Adler, 2000).

• Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi, (2000) for example, posit that emotional intelligence may protect people from stress and lead to better adaptation. They opine that an objective measure of emotion management skill is associated with a tendency to maintain an experimentally induced positive mood, which has obvious implication for preventing stress.

• Emotional intelligence and giftedness (Mayer, Perkins, Caruso and Salovey, 2001).

• Emotional intelligence has been found to impact on psychological health—particularly occupational stress (Ciarrochi, Chan and Bajgar, 2001).

Bar-On (2003) found that there was a moderate yet significant relationship between emotional and social intelligence and psychological health. The aspects of emotional and social intelligence competencies that were found to impact on psychological health are: (a) the ability to manage emotion and cope with stress, (b) the drive to accomplish personal goals in order to actualize one’s inner potential and lead a more meaningful life and (c) the ability to verify feelings and thinking.

Kumar (2004) studied the perceived stress of teachers in relation to job satisfaction and certain personality characteristics with a sample consisted of 300 teachers, 100 each from the primary, secondary and higher secondary schools of Kerala State, revealed that a teacher with favorable personality characteristics experiences less stress than those with less favorable personality characteristics.

In the review of literature, it has been revealed that various investigators have suggested different techniques to raise emotional intelligence at workplaces with various
strata of learners, such as for leaders, employers, organizers and superintendents. However, no study has been conducted for analyzing the efforts for studying emotional intelligence among teachers and students. Therefore, an effort is made to investigate emotional Intelligence among teachers.

1.6 EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM

For any research understanding, it is quite necessary to review previous studies in the area of investigation and know the trends of the research practice and the directions of the findings therefrom. History reveals that man learns from the experiences of others as also always seeks help and guidance from his ancestors. The review of the previous literature available is an exacting task, calling for deep insight and clear perspective of the overall field. A review of the literature promotes a greater understanding of the problem and its crucial aspects and ensures the avoidance of unnecessary duplication. It also provides comparative data and basis to evaluate and interpret the significance of one’s findings.

Teacher’s role in teaching is crucial and teaching job is extremely demanding. Teachers work under different managements, where the working conditions are not alike. Teacher’s personal variables, working conditions and its effect on students’ achievement have been significant areas of investigation so far. Even now researchers are very much concerned about investigating teacher’s personality, job satisfaction, educational qualifications, teaching experience etc. and their effect on students’ achievement. However, the effects of the existing system on teacher’s psychological state is a neglected area, where it is accepted that teachers are not working in stable working conditions of social demands and homogeneous classrooms, which are in addition to other extrinsic factors, responsible for teachers’ stress as well as students’ academic decline. These working conditions account for stress and burnout feelings in the life of teachers.

Members of the teaching profession are vulnerable to stress because of the often times demanding nature of the work and the stressors involved. Relatively speaking, teachers need help and hurt. They are not as satisfied as they want to be with the role of teaching. Unless they are able to reduce or eliminate their problems or attain their goals, they will feel considerable stress and burnout (Cruickshank, 1981). Recognizing that stress is a hurdle to effectiveness, it may be a priority area to identify how teachers can avoid and
cope with stress, which is their lot. The effect of growing stress and tensions on teachers’ life and work requires carefully designed research.

Previously conducted studies indicated that stress tends to affect individuals. Knowing one's self and one's emotions is extremely beneficial in stressful situations. Research studies relevant to teacher’s stress and its allies i.e., stress in education, role stress among teachers, job stress (particularly in teachers), occupational stress (specifically among teachers), teacher burnout etc., are abstracted to bring the study up to date knowledge horizon. To include every similar conceptual study available, variegated efforts have been made to review the related literature. Standardized resources consulted in continuity, may be enlisted as:

- An overview of research studies included in the Fifth Survey of Educational Research published by NCERT depicts not even a single study as far as teacher stress is concerned.
- Sixth Survey of Educational Research (1993-2000) includes 10 studies on stress among teachers (Four in the name of stress in general and Two each of role stress, job stress and teacher burnout). Four studies have attempted to locate sources of stress and six of its correlates.
- For studies from 2000 onwards, ‘University News (2000-2009)’, ‘Indian Educational Abstract (2002-2009)’ and up-to-date materials available on internet/ books/journals were thoroughly consulted.

Researches in the area of teacher’s stress in the context of the Indian educational system seem to be neglected domain of investigation. There has yet been no study on teacher’s stress, which evaluates its impact of teacher’s personality and personal variables among teacher educators in Indian conditions in particular. Considering the yet unexplored area of teacher’s stress in the Indian context, two things seem quite prominent with regard to possible stress among teacher educators:

- The nature of teacher stress, and
- The pattern of individual related personal variables to teacher stress

The amount of research conducted on stress in general, in other teaching areas and in other areas of employment, makes it evident that research related to stress is of great importance and the stress of teacher educators has far-reaching consequences on the entire system of education. Most teachers seem to work under stress. In the review of literature it has been revealed that the teacher stress need further investigation and elaboration in the
right context and perspective. Researchers have continued to express the importance of analyzing teachers' individual characteristics when evaluating stress. Internal characteristics tend to dictate how individuals will react to stressful events. It becomes imperative therefore to study the teacher stress among teacher educators. Hence, the purpose of this study is to examine the component areas of teacher stress in detail as well as its relationship with some identified teacher’ individual characteristics i.e., locus of control, family environment, and emotional Intelligence among teacher educators.

Hence, in the present study, investigator’s concern is to find the relationship of teacher stress with teacher’s personal characteristics i.e., locus of control, family environment and emotional Intelligence in relation to their educational qualifications, gender, type of the teacher education institution, age and teaching experience of teacher educators.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

During post-independence period, there has been a phenomenal expansion of higher education in general and teacher education in particular. The number of teacher education institutions as well as their capacity has been increasing tremendously. On the one hand, the existing institutions are coming under the scanner of NAAC for quality uplift; on the other new institutions are springing up in the country without regard to quality. During last decade, government found it difficult to finance the setting up of new colleges. Therefore, universities and colleges are being encouraged to start new courses generating their own resources, thus entering in an era of self-financing schemes for starting useful and professional courses in teacher education, which have gained special momentum today. Despite this tremendous expansion, the teacher education system has not shown improvement in quality.

One of the most important changes in the nature of the educational research that has been produced over the decade was the emergence of a large body of literature on the characteristics of effective teacher education system. Realizing the crucial role of teacher education institutions; and the success of any educational programme depends upon the performance of its teachers, the effectiveness with which the teachers play their role is very decisive factor. In the National Policy of Education, it is stressed that government and the community should endeavor to create conditions, which help to motivate and inspire teachers on constructive and creative lines. Teaching has been neglected or at least
teaching is not rewarded and recognized. Promotions, public honors and rewards are on basis of research performance. Thus, when teachers are not recognized for their teaching excellence, they suffer from stress.

In the present context, there is a need to lay stress on the quality of teachers and basically teacher educators who are to act as luminaries in the field of pre-service and in-service training to the teachers who will in turn be in the same process of luminaries for the nation builders of tomorrow. So it is upon them that the entire burden lays; the responsibility of producing quality teachers; is one of the greatest liabilities. Any minor ignorance or slacken in them will prove detrimental to the cause of advancement in the country as well as an important loss to the entire humanity.

Researchers have found that internal characteristics could contribute to teachers’ susceptibility to stress and that these factors may even dictate how teachers handled the stress that they encountered. Examining internal characteristics can provide teachers with an insight into the levels of stress that they endure.

Thus, the present study is an effort to find the relationship of teacher’s stress with locus of control, family environment and emotional intelligence among teacher educators in relation to their educational qualifications, gender, type of the teacher education institution, age and teaching experience of teacher educators. This study will try to observe the multifaceted effects of different levels of locus of control, family environment and emotional intelligence on teacher stress and suggest ways to minimize problems towards the enhancement of quality teacher education as also school education in present scenario. Teacher educators should attempt to learn more about their own stress levels; abilities to manage and reduce their stress; and their individual psychological, physical, and emotional reactions to the stress they experience. By reducing or limiting the stress they experience, teachers may be able to avoid teacher stress, a situation, as one of the most significant challenges facing the future of education.
1.8 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
The present study has been stated as follows:
“STUDY OF TEACHER’S STRESS IN RELATION TO LOCUS OF CONTROL, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AMONG TEACHER EDUCATORS”

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY
The study has been delimited in respect of sample, length of service, area and nature of service:
- The teacher educators from teacher education institutions affiliated with the three universities of Punjab State i.e., Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar; Panjab University, Chandigarh and Punjabi University, Patiala have been included in the sample.
- The teacher educators from teacher education institutions with at least three years of affiliation i.e., their year of establishment is either 2005 or before 2005, has been undertaken.

1.10 OBJECTIVES
The study has been designed to achieve the following objectives:
1. To study the teacher stress of teacher educators in relation to their:
   a. Educational qualifications (categorized as Category-I, Category-II and Category-III teacher educators)
   b. Gender (male and female teacher educators)
   c. Type of the teacher education institution (teacher educators from government, government-aided and self-financed teacher education institutions)
   d. Age (up to 30 years, 31 to 40 years and 41 years and above)
   e. Teaching experience (Below 2.5 years, 2.5 to 5 years and more than 5 years)
2. To study the effect of each independent variable vis-à-vis Locus of control, family environment and emotional intelligence on teacher stress of the teacher educators in relation to their:
   a. Educational qualifications (categorized as Category-I, Category-II and Category-III teacher educators)
   b. Gender (Male and Female teacher educators)
c. Type of the teacher education institution (teacher educators from government, government-aided and self-financed teacher education institutions)

d. Age (up to 30 years, 31-40 years and 41 years and above)

e. Teaching experience (Below 2.5 years, 2.5 to 5 years and more than 5 years)

3. To study the interaction effect of all the three independent variables vis-à-vis locus of control, family environment and emotional intelligence on teacher stress of the teacher educators.

1.11 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses have been proposed to test the above stated objectives:

1. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control.

2. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with different educational qualifications.

3. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control belonging to different educational qualifications.

4. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of male and female teacher educators.

5. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of male and female teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control.

6. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of teacher educators belonging to government, government-aided and self-financed teacher education institutions.

7. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control belonging to different types of teacher education institutions.

8. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with different age levels (i.e., teacher educators up to 30 years of age, between 31-40 years and more than 40 years of age).
9. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control belonging to different age levels.

10. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with different levels of teaching experience (i.e., teacher educators below 2.5 years of teaching experience, teacher educators between 2.5 - 5 years of teaching experience and teacher educators with more than 5 years of teaching experience).

11. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control belonging to different levels of teaching experience.

12. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with rich and poor family environment.

13. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of rich and poor family environment belonging to different educational qualifications.

14. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of male and female teacher educators with rich and poor family environment.

15. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of rich and poor family environment belonging to different types of teacher education institutions.

16. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of rich and poor family environment belonging to different age levels.

17. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of rich and poor family environment belonging to different levels of teaching experience.

18. There exists no difference in the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with high, average and low emotional intelligence.

19. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with high, average and low emotional intelligence belonging to different educational qualifications.

20. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of male and female teacher educators with high, average and low emotional intelligence.

21. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of high, average and low emotional intelligence belonging to different types of teacher education institutions.

22. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of high, average and low emotional intelligence belonging to different age levels.
23. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of high, average and low emotional intelligence belonging to different levels of teaching experience.

24. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control belonging to rich and poor family environment.

25. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators of rich and poor family environment with high and low emotional intelligence.

26. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control belonging to high and low emotional intelligence.

27. There exists no interaction on the teacher stress scores of teacher educators with individual-locus of control, chance-locus of control and powerful others-locus of control belonging to the two levels each of family environment (rich and poor) and emotional intelligence (high and low).