CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The behaviour under stress is one of the major concerns of the present times. It has become an inevitable part of our daily life. The twentieth century has often been called "the Age of Anxiety and Stress" (Coleman, 1976). Stress at work, arising from increasing complexity of work and its divergent demands, has become prominent as well as pervading feature of modern organisations. The erosive effect of stress on focal employees is well documented in the literature which has indicated that numerous factors contribute to occupational stress.

The presence or absence of stress is not so much important to make a person effective or ineffective but it is the way of management of stress that has a greater importance. It has been realised that stressful circumstances might be less important for well-being of a focal individual in comparison to the fact how he/she copes within such a kind of stressful circumstances. The personality of an individual is very important factor that affects stress and the coping styles with it. Type A/B personality pattern plays a very significant role in the process of experiencing stress and applying different coping modes in order to remove the stress.

In the present investigation an attempt has been made to compare the sources and level of stress of Type-A and Type-B teachers and also to compare their coping styles they adopt to overcome their stress. In the present chapter an attempt is made to present a conceptual framework and review of related literature.
A: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

STRESS

In recent years, the term stress has been used with widely varying meanings. It is commonly used in ordinary connotation to refer to all sorts of difficulties. The well known notion of stress seems to be rather vague and intuitive. It is something that everyone feels from time to time as a problem that can be recognised only by experience. Various terms have been used synonymously with stress, i.e. anxiety, frustration, conflict, pressure, strain and tension. The concept 'stress' has been basically derived from Latin language where it indicates hardship, strain, adversity or affliction. Dunbar (1947) describes stress as 'the quality of stimulus' while Alexander (1950) defines it both as 'the quality of a stimulus and the individual's response to it'. Wolff (1950) has explained stress as 'a state of human organism'. Basowitz, Persky, Korchin and Grinker (1958) defined stress as that class of stimuli which are more likely to produce anxiety, a conscious and reportable experience of tense dread. Hans Seyle (1956), an endocrinologist, gave the first systematic treatment to the term stress. He defined stress as "the nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it."

There has been wide variation in the biological, medical and psychological literature in the definition and use of the term stress. It has been used at times as a stimulus, as external negative force impinging upon an individual, as a response, as individual's emotional and / or physiological response to internal or external environmental events, and as an interaction between an individual and his surroundings, a person-environment problem resulting from perception and appraisal of one's internal
or external environments. The later view fits best stress research at management and professional levels of organisations where individual perceptions are seen as having a significant role in the experience of stress. The events or situations are not stressful in themselves. They must be perceived and evaluated by the focal person as to exceed his capacity to meet or/and a threat to his well being. The psychological model of stress proposed by Lazarus (1966) very well explains this view. His model may be presented as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appraisal Stage</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Determinant Factors</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Determining whether a situation poses a threat, challenge, or potential harm or loss.</td>
<td>Perceived features of the stimulus situation. Psychological structure of the individual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Evaluating resources in order to determine whether one can cope with the situation.</td>
<td>Perceived availability of coping resources from either within the individual or from the environment.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reappraisal</td>
<td>Repetition of the primary and the secondary appraisal as perception of stressor or available resources change over time.</td>
<td>Change in the situation or person.</td>
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The definition of stress extended by Appley and Trumbull (1967) support the "interactional" viewpoint about the concept of stress. According to them "the stressfullness of stimulus exposure or events is dependent on the pattern of stimulus organism interaction at a particular time and in a particular place."
The researchers in the area of organizational psychology and management have used the term job stress to denote employees' mental state aroused by a or a combination of job situations perceived as presenting excessive and divergent demands. Some have emphasized the role of job situations in their definition of job/occupational stress. Caplan, Cobb, and French (1975) have accordingly defined stress as "any characteristic of job environment which poses a threat to the individual." Cooper and Marshall (1976) have also expressed that "by occupational stress is meant negative environmental factors or stressors associated with a particular job." McGrath (1976) also describes stress as "an environmental situation perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person's capacities and resources for meeting it, under conditions where he expects a substantial differential in the rewards and the costs from meeting the demands versus not meeting it."

Recently, job stress has come into a prominent work related research topic (Cooper and Payne, 1978). Job stress is generally defined in terms of a relationship between the persons and the environment. It has been considered as person-environment misfit. French, Rodgers and Cobb (1974) presented the theory of person-environment fit. They reported two kinds of fit between the individual and the job environment. The first kind of fit is the extent to which the person's skills and abilities match the demands and requirements of the job. The second kind of fit is the extent to which the needs of the person are supplied in the job environment. The central theme of the theory is that when misfit of either kind threatens an individual's well being, strains occur. Harrison (1976) attempted to test the theory of person - environment fit. The findings of the study support the
assumption that the primary link between job-stress and health-strain is 'person-environment misfit'. He presented two hypotheses which suggest that increasing environmental demands beyond the person's abilities will produce increasing strain. The other hypothesis assumes that a deficiency will also produce strain.

Margolis, Kores and Quinn (1974) define stress as "a condition at work interacting with worker characteristics to disrupt psychological or physiological homeostasis." McGrath (1976) has noted that a stress involves an interaction between person and environment when environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person's capabilities and resources for meeting it, under conditions where he expects a substantial differential in the rewards and costs from meeting the demand versus not meeting it." Reviewing extensively the major research on job stress, Beehr and Newman (1978) define it as "a condition wherein job related factors interact with the worker to change (disrupt or enhance) his psychological condition such that the person (mind and or body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning." As suggested by Love and Beehr (1981) job stress research can be described as consisting of at least the following elements:

(i) Stressors - job characteristics that are thought to be causal,

(ii) Strain - poor individual health characteristics that are thought to be consequences,

(iii) Coping - efforts to treat the stressor-strain problems.
Besides, two other elements—both potential consequences—are included some times: outcomes for the organisation either positive or negative and outcomes for the individual.

McGrath (1976) suggests the following six sources of stress:

1. Task-based stress (difficulty, ambiguity, load, etc.).
2. Role-based stress (conflict, ambiguity, load, etc.).
3. Stress intrinsic to behaviour setting (e.g., effect of crowding or under-manning, etc.).
4. Stress arising from the physical environment itself (e.g., extreme cold and hostile forces, etc.).
5. Stress arising from social environment in sense of interpersonal relations (e.g., interpersonal disagreement, privacy, isolation, etc.).
6. Stress within the person system, which the focal person "brings with him" to the situation (e.g., anxiety, perceptual style, motivation, and experience, etc.).

Borg and Riding (1991) propose the following four sources of teacher's stress:

1. Pupil - Misbehaviour (e.g., Noisy pupils, pupils' impolite behaviour or cheek, difficult classes, maintaining class discipline, pupils' non-acceptance of teacher's authority, Punishing pupils, pupils who are poorly motivated or not interested, trying to achieve or uphold minimal standards and values, etc.)
2. Poor Working Conditions (e.g., inadequate salary, poor career structure, low status of the teaching profession, lack of recognition for good teaching, too many periods of actual teaching, covering lessons for absent teachers, lack of or inadequate equipments and resources for teaching, ill-defined syllabuses, etc.).

3. Poor - Staff Relations (e.g., lack of support from colleagues, lack of support from the head teacher, lack of friendly atmosphere amongst staff, attitudes and behaviours of other teachers, poor school organisation, pressure from head teacher and education officers, lack of participation in school decision-making, etc.).

4. Time Pressures (e.g., covering the syllabus in the time available, not enough time for marking and lesson preparation during school hours, demands on after school time, lack of time to spend with individual pupils, unrealistic syllabus requirements for the children you teach, too much paper work, etc.).

Clark (1980) identified five factors of teacher's stress:

1. Professional Inadequacy,

2. Teacher Professional Relationships,

3. Colleagial Relationships,

4. Group Instructions, and

5. Job Over-Load.
Moraeco, Danford and D'Arienzo (1982) have identified the following factors of teacher's stress:

1. Financial Security,
2. Relationship with Teachers,
3. Work and Compensation,
4. Working with Students and
5. Perceptions of Respect from Others.

**COPING STRATEGIES OR STYLES**

Individuals cannot remain in a continuous state of stress. When an individual experiences stress, he adopts some ways of dealing with stress. Even if a deliberate and conscious strategy is not taken to deal with the stress, some strategy is adopted; for example, the strategy may be to leave the conflicts and stress to take care of themselves. This is called 'coping.' The word 'coping' has been used in several meanings. However, two main meanings predominate the literature. The term 'coping' has been used to denote the way of dealing with stress, or the effort to 'master' conditions of harm, threat, or challenge when a routine or automatic response is not readily available. (Lazarus, 1974).

'Coping' and 'adaptation' are often treated as synonymous terms, but important distinctions exist. First, to many theorists adaptation is a broader concept that includes routine or automatize actions while coping always involves some type of stress (e.g. Lazarus & Launier, 1974; Murphy, 1974; White, 1974). It is the special mobilization of effort and the drawing upon unused resources or potentials, then, that distinguishes coping. Second, we use the word 'adaptation' in the psychological not biological sense. In biology, adaptation refers to species'
ability to survive through mechanisms that result from the evolutionary process (Lazarus, 1966). However, in psychology, 'adaptation' refers to individual survival as well as to the capacity to sustain a high quality of life and to function effectively on a social level. In this use of the word, the focus is on the outcome from an evaluative perspective. Adaptive behaviour is not a straightforward process, and different evaluations may result when long term versus short term measures or psychological rather than physiological outcomes are considered. The adaptiveness of behaviours always involves a focus on outcomes.

Coping at psychological level of analysis may be defined as the process of managing demands (internal or external) that are appraised as taxing are exceeding the resource of the person. Lazarus (1967) defined coping as problem solving efforts made by an individual faced with demands that are highly relevant to his welfare (situational or considerable jeopardy or promise) by taxing his adaptive resources. To Burke and Weiner (1980) the coping process refers any attempt to deal with stressful situation which a person feels he must do something about, but which tax or exceed his existing adaptation response patterns.

Two different approaches to the study of coping have been pursued by various investigators. On the one hand, some (e.g., Byren, 1964; Goldstein, 1973) have emphasized general coping traits, styles or disposition, while others (e.g., Cohen & Lazarus, 1973; Katz, Weiner, Gallagher, & Hellmaan, 1970; Wolfe & Goddell, 1968) have preferred to study active ongoing strategies in a particular stress situation.
They are two ways to assess coping as a trait or style, or a process (Averill and Opton, 1968). Coping traits refer to a disposition to respond in a specific way in situations that are stressful. Coping traits are thus stable characteristics of the persons that transcend classes of situations. Although the term coping trait and coping style are often used synonymously, style tends to imply a broader, more encompassing disposition. Trait and style are fundamentally similar ideas. Trait and style refer to a characteristic way of handling situations, they are stable tendencies on the basis of which inferences are drawn about how an individual will cope in some or all types of stressful situations. A person's coping style or disposition is typically assessed by personality tests, not by actual observation of what the person says or does in a particular stress situation.

The emphasis on process distinguishes the approach from most others, which are trait oriented. If the assessment of coping trait really allowed us to predict what a person would actually do to cope in any stressful encounter, research would be a simple matter. For all intents and purpose, trait could then stand for process; for example, if a person coped with threat by avoidance to occur whenever he or she felt threatened. However, the assessment of coping trait actually has had very modest predictive value with respect to coping process. Psychologists have identified two major ways in which people cope with stress. One way is that the person may decide to suffer or deny the experienced stress, this is the passive approach, or person may decide to face the realities of experienced stress and clarify the problems through negotiations with other members. This is the active approach.
Pareek (1983 b) has proposed two types of coping strategies that people generally use in order to handle stress, i.e. dysfunctional and functional coping styles. Lazarus (1975) has suggested a classification of coping processes that emphasises the two major categories, namely, direct actions and palliative modes. Direct action includes behaviours or actions which when performed by the organism in the face of a stressful situation is expected to bring about a change in stress causing environment. The palliative mode of coping refers to those thoughts or actions whose purpose is to relieve the organism of any emotional impact of stress. There is no clear consensus as to which coping strategies or modes of coping are most effective. Coping may either take the form of avoiding the situation (reactive strategy), i.e. dysfunctional style or confronting and approaching the problem (proactive strategy), i.e. functional style. Combining the two aspects of each of the three dimensions yields eight possible strategies to cope with stress. The dysfunctional styles are Impunitive (M), Intropunitive (I), Extrapunitive (E) and Defensive (D). The four functional styles are Impersistive (M) Intropersistive (I), Extrapersistive (E) and Interpersistve (N). This is broadly speaking avoidance and approach strategy.

Hall (1972) suggests sixteen strategies placed in the three methods of coping with conflicts. Structural role definition is the first method which involves redefining the expectations held by other people so that fewer conflicting demands are placed upon the persons and a new set of behaviour is expected from that person by members of the role set. The second category is personal role redefinition, which means changing the person's perceptions of his or her role demands rather than attempting
change the environment. And the last method is reactive role behaviour that involves attempts whose aim is to meet all of the role demands-experienced. This would probably represent considerable strain on a person's energies, since they involve attempting to do everything demanded, rather than attempting to reduce conflicts or demands.

Cohen and Lazarus (1979) have suggested five modes of coping: information seeking, direct action, inhibition of action, intrapsychic (or cognitive) process and turning to others for support.

Coping has been studied with regard to stress arising from various environmental and psychological variables operating in context of job-life. The researchers have suggested a number of coping strategies which people used to manage their organizational or role stress. The last ten years have witnessed a vast increase in article devoted to the concept of stress and coping with stress in journals oriented to managers. A number of these articles offer 'five easy steps' for handling or reducing job tensions (Eaton, 1963; Singer, 1960). They advise: (i) applying sound administrative principle (ii) recognizing the role requirements of your position (iii) maintaining perspective, (iv) keeping a balance between work and recreation, and (v) identifying and accepting your emotional needs.

In the more recent literature on coping with stress, approach-avoidance distinction is a core idea. One is struck by the extent to which the concepts approach & avoidance underlie the personality or individual difference variables studied in the anticipatory threat literature, and also the dimension of coping studied in traumatic stress reaction research.
There are three important factors in evaluating coping effectiveness. The point in time at which effectiveness is evaluated; the controllability of aspects of the stressful situation; and the fit between coping style and certain demands of the stressful situation. The most compelling indication of the importance of time testing from the work of Mullen and Suls (1982). They found a consistent pattern across a large number of studies, namely the rejection (avoidance) strategies were found to be effective when outcome measures were immediate or short term whereas attention (approach) strategies were found to be more effective when the outcome measures were long term. Lazarus (1983) is consistent with the notion that denial may be helpful only in a limited time frame and might extract a price later on. Avoidance is often a valuable form of coping during the initial period when emotional resources are limited. Secondly, avoidance is better than approach if the situation is uncontrollable whereas approach is better if there is potential control. Lazarus (1983) concluded from these and related studies that coping effectiveness depends on the controllability of the situation. The final important factor in coping effectiveness is the fit between coping style or coping preference and certain demands of the situation.

Coping can have effect on three kinds of outcome: psychological, social and physiological. From a psychological perspective coping could affect psychological morale (that is, the way one feels about oneself and one's life), emotional reactions e.g. level of depression or anxiety, or the balance between positive toned and negative toned feelings (Bradburn, 1969), performance, or the incidence of psychiatric disorders.
From a social perspective, one can measure its impact on functioning effectiveness, such as employability, community involvement and socialability (Renne, 1974), the effectiveness of the interpersonal relationship or the degree to which useful social roles filled (and acting out, antisocial behaviour, etc. are avoided). From a physiological perspective, outcomes include short-term physiological reactions and long-term health consequences such as the development and progression of particular disease.

PERSONALITY : TYPE A/B PATTERN

The coronary prone behaviour pattern, Type_A, was first definitively described by Friedman and Rosenman in 1959. Type -A behaviour is an overt style of reactions characterized by some or all of the following: intense striving for achievement, competitiveness, easily provoked impatience, time urgency, abruptness of gesture and speech, hyper-alert posture, tense facial musculature, overcommitment to vocation or profession and excesses of drive and hostility.

Type-A behaviour patterns are characterized by a variety of psychological, emotional and behavioural attributes which includes excessive hard driving behaviour, job -involvement, impatience, time urgency, competitiveness, aggressiveness and hostility (Rosenman and Friedman, 1974). In their conceptualization of Type-A behavioural pattern, Rosenman and Friedman recognise that the defining attributes are not invariably manifested in an individual but are most readily observed in the presence of situational provocation/challenge from the environment. These behaviours seem to be ingrained in an individual and persist as enduring traits (Jenkins, 1976).
Due to ambitious nature of the individual he selects a job that has maximum potential to be exposed to a high degree of stressors and defines success in terms of extrinsic rewards, such as money, status and recognitions instead of intrinsic rewards in terms of self-satisfaction on the personal interest in the job (Sales & House, 1971). The individual exhibiting Type-A behaviour patterns is a perfectionist, impatient and looks down on his co-workers who do not meet his expectation of performance. He unnecessarily creates personal tension from moderating work loads by implementing rigid timeliness and perfectionistic work standards. These characteristics can lead to cardiovascular disease (Rosenman, et al, 1975).

Type-B individual is a study in contrast with that of the Type-A. These individuals are characterized by easy-going behaviour pattern such as lack of time urgency, selection of work to him, ability to provide personal satisfaction, realistic goal setting, future oriented planning and the ability to enjoy leisure and relax.

**B: REVIEW OF THE RELATED RESEARCHES**

The problems relating to occupational stress and its consequences in various forms have attracted the interest of industrial and organizational psychologists and also of educational psychologists. A substantial amount of research has been made and is being conducted on various dimensions and consequences of occupational stress. Pestonjee (1992) reviewed the literature on stress and coping in Indian context. In the following pages an effort has been made to review both the Indian and the foreign researches related to the problems of the present study.
TEACHER AND OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

Horrocks and Mussman (1970) tested hypothesis of age related stress periods in normal adulthood by the mailing of a 7-concept, 21-item semantic differential scale to 3000 public school employees. The 419 returns from teachers permitted computer analysis of attitude intensity decreases between successive pairs of 5 years' interval age group from 20-70 yrs. Support for age related stress periods was found for female teachers in their late 20s female married teachers in their early 40s and female married non-teachers and male married teachers in their early 50s.

Leffingwell (1979) discussed the sources and consequences of stress among teachers. School counsellors can and should introduce remedial measures using both individual and group techniques. The counsellors genuineness, warmth and empathetic understanding are more important than the specific counselling method.

Weiskopf (1980) compares the burnout process among helping professionals and teachers of the exceptional children. The literature is reviewed and causes and symptoms of burnout are applied to the field of special education. It is shown how special education teachers are subjected to varying degrees of occupational stress (i.e. work overload, lack of perceived stress, heavy amount of direct contact with children, non-directive programme structures and responsibility for others) that can result in burnout. It is concluded that burnout among teachers of exceptional children exists, although more research is needed to document, its incidence, and that it is a deterrent to effective education.
Belcastro (1982) investigated the relationship between teacher's somatic complaints and illness and their self-reported job-related stresses, and observed that burnout represented a potential health risk to teachers.

Reiner & Hartshorne (1982) identified major job-related stressors and responded to a list of suggested supervisory, individual & organizational strategies for prevention slightly less than half of the subjects appeared on the questionnaire to have burnout problems. Age, years of experience & sex were not significantly related to the burnout score. Major identified stressors included excessive work loads, lack of time and lack of support or appreciation. Reactions to the strategies were positively hopeful.

Formen (1982) conducted a study on stress management for teacher. A cognitive behavioural programme results show that the training programme significantly decreased self-reported stress and anxiety. Follow up data indicated further decreases 6 weeks after termination of the programme. Results also indicate that decrease is motoric manifestation of anxiety in the classroom as a result of the training.

Hazelwood (1984) discusses factors inherent in the job of teacher that make stress an integral part of the profession, such as lack of resources, poor parental and political support, low taxpayer support, and low student respect among others. In the final analysis, it is the individual teacher who must accept responsibility for preventing and treating stress and who is his own best crisis inter-vener. Treatment involves the following 3 important steps: (1) recognising the symptoms (2) facing the symptoms without relying on negative reactions and (3) realizing
self responsibility for individual responses to the crisis. Some specific suggestions for fighting burnout include creating a support system at school, trying a new curriculum, changing grade level, learning to decompress and developing a hobby. Prevention suggestions includes life style, job and personal changes. It is concluded that teachers need to learn how to handle distress and prevent excess stress. Failing to meet these challenges can have a detrimental effect on health and will reduce the effectiveness of the education they provide.

Laughlin (1984) describes occupational stress in teaching and examines teachers' stress in Australia. In this context, 229 male and 264 female primary and secondary school teachers responded to the biographical data, the sources of stress and satisfaction associated with their jobs. Data showed that stress, in general, is pervasive in teaching due to 4 factors (pupil recalcitrance, time and resource difficulties, professional recognition, need and curriculum demands) and that Ss' biographical characteristics were significant mediators in stress factor perceptions. It was found that sex, age, nature of school (Primary and/or secondary) position held, and qualifications were significant in predicting stress from one or more factors. Implications regarding the working environment of teachers and educators at many levels, particularly teacher training and administration are discussed.

Bartell, Riva and Brenner, Stren-Olof (1984) have conducted a cross-cultural study of teacher stress by administering structured questionnaires to 431 Canadian and 2,411 Swedish elementary and junior high school teachers. Questionnaires covered biographical and demographic information sources of stress in the school environment, perceived stress related to
being a teacher and self reported stress reactions and symptoms. Comparisons between the working condition for each 5 groups showed qualitative similarities transcending cultural boundaries both with regard to stress sources and stress reactions. Qualitative differences were found in that more Swedish elementary school teachers experienced stress than their Canadian counterparts, and there were slightly elevated stress levels for the Swedish teachers in general. The common discriminant variables for the Canadian and Swedish Ss were time overload, career commitment, controlling students behaviour, and exhaustion. Time overload and career commitment were the best single discriminating variables for the Canadian and Swedish Ss, respectively.

Cassel (1984) studied on critical factors related to teacher burnout and argues that teacher burnout derives mainly from ineffective school management practices (i.e., main straining, lack of selective grouping of students, the absence of learning laboratories) and from inadequate teacher preparation, as evidenced by lack of computer literacy and inappropriate use of contingency management. Additional problems are reported with respect to the negative image of the present school system, the absence of effective co-operation from parents, and a focus away from the learning and development of students. These problems must be addressed in efforts to improve the present school system in terms of teacher burnout.

The relationship between locus of control and teacher burnout has been investigated by McIntyre, T.C. (1984) and a significant correlation between increasingly external locus of control orientation and increased perceptions of burnout on 4 of the 6 subscales of the MBI has been reported.
Sutton and Huberty (1984) have examined teacher stress and job satisfaction. Results indicate that there were no differences between groups in sources of stress or in how Ss coped with stress. However, special education teachers reported slightly more satisfaction with their jobs than the regular education teachers did. An inverse relationship was found between the job satisfaction and the level of stress, suggesting a tendency for teachers to report higher levels of job satisfaction when stress levels are low. It is concluded that the source of teacher stress in public schools are related to individual differences, the transitory nature of stressor in the environment and the coping methods that teachers use.

Abbey, David & Esposito, James (1985) examined whether a relationship existed between elementary teacher's perceived reasons for compliance with principals' requests and the amount of perceived social support obtained from principals and fellow teachers, using survey responses from 191 elementary school teachers. Results reveal significant differences between teachers who perceived that their major reasons for compliance were referent, expert, and reward power, and teachers whose most important reasons for compliance were coercive and legitimate power. Implications are discussed with regard to principal behaviour, teacher stress, and teacher job satisfaction.

Halpin, Gilennelles Harris, Haren & Halpin, Gerald (1985) tested the hypothesis that a feeling of being in control will make potentially stressful environmental events less. So 97 female and 33 male full time teachers completed a teacher locus of control scale and a teacher occupational stress factor questionnaire. Multivariate and bivariate analysis of their
responses showed that locus of control was related to teacher stress. As hypothesized, Ss who felt that they were in control reported less stress in their world of work than did those who did not feel influential in their educational environment. Ss who had a high internal locus of control, realized that they were influential in the classroom, accepted the responsibility for their actions, and worked hard to achieve educational goals. Ss who had a high external locus of control felt that they had little control over what happened; did not seem to value planning, ability, or effort, but instead attributed educational outcomes to luck, fate and chance. Neither sex nor age moderated this relationship.

Harris, Halpin & Halpin (1985) have studied teacher characteristics and stress, and investigated the bivariate and multivariate relationships between Pupil Control Orientation, 5 dimensions of teacher stress (including professional inadequacy (PI), Principal teacher relationship (PTR), Colleagial relationship (CR), group instruction (GI) and job overload (JO)) in sex and age. Bivariate analysis related to higher scores on the GI, PI, JO and PTR factors. All of the correlations between the PCI and the stress factors were negative, high stress was associated with an authoritarian pupil control orientation, age was significantly related to PI and JO. A significant correlation was found between PCI scores and sex. Males tended to have lower scores on the PCI, indicating a more authoritarian orientation. In the multivariate analyses, after group instruction was entered, none of the other stress factors effected a significant increase in the multiple correlation, although sex did.
Pierson Habeny, Dordhy and Archambautt, Francis (1985) have studied role stress and perceived intensity of burnout among reading specialists and investigated the relationship between role stress and perceived intensity of burnout (BO) for public school reading specialists and examined differences in role stress and BO for reading specialists and 4 other teacher groups: classroom teachers, guidance counsellors, school psychologists, and school social workers. Results show that measures of role stress, role conflict and role ambiguity were found to be statistically significant predictors of BO for reading specialists reported the lowest comparable level of BO for the emotional exhaustion subscale, a middle range level on the Depersonalization subscale and the highest level of BO on the personal Accomplishment subscale. Reading specialists also reported the lowest comparative level of role conflict and a middle range of role ambiguity.

Sadowska and Block Well (1985) have investigated the relationship between locus of control and perceived stress encountered during student teaching. Results indicate that Ss who felt they could influence the teaching environment rated the events as less stressful than those who felt they had less control.

Klas ; Kendall, Woodward and Kennedy (1985) have studied on "levels and specific causes of stress perceived by regular classroom teachers" and found that Ss reported moderate levels of stress. The 9 SPT Categories of stressors under study were ranked almost exactly the same by teachers of different grade levels, with time management and parent/teacher relations categories ranked highest. Ss with 20 yrs or more of experience and those in schools with populations of 201-400 students
reported significantly higher levels of stress than did Ss with 4 yrs or less experience and those from smaller or larger schools.

Kremer-Hayon, Lya and Kurtz (1985) have examined the relation of personal and environmental variables to teacher burnout. Results indicate that the interaction between rigidity and closed school climate explained some of the variance in burnout, the other interactions did not. Rigidity, considered as an independent variable, did not explain burnout. Several environmental variables significantly predicted burnout.

Kottkamp and Travlos (1986) have studied the selected job stressors, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and thrust behaviour of the high school principals and investigated the relationships between 4 perceived role-related stressors (role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload and powerlessness), 2 effective reactions to work (emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction) and thrust leadership behaviour among high school principals. Results indicate that all 4 stressors were significantly correlated with the 2 effective responses to work. However, the stressors explained more variances in emotional exhaustion than in job satisfaction. Neither the stressors nor the effective responses were related to principal thrust, except for those in the age range of 40-46 yrs.

Brown; Bond, Steve, Gerndt, James; Krager, Luahn, etal (1986) have investigated faculty stress using an interactional model of stress that included roles, personal characteristics, coping strategies and environmental characteristics. Significant differences were found among faculties from different academic disciplines, between genders and a cross semester time periods. Major stressors included time pressures, work overload and
interpersonal relationships. Body signals and poor interpersonal relationship were the primary indicators of stress and taking specific action and exercising were the frequent coping behaviours.

Dewe (1986) has studied the sources of occupational stress in mail survey data for 800 New Zealand elementary school teachers. Analysis identified 6 factors contributing to teacher stress. These include (1) Lack of individual control over various school agents (2) expectations of parents, (3) classroom relationship with children, (4) Unsupportive parents and difficult children, (5) work overload and (6) Physical demands of teaching. These factors accounted for 44.3% of variance in the data. Work overload ranked ahead of other factors in frequency and also was most highly associated with teacher anxiety and tiredness. In keeping with previous studies teachers perceived a variety of situations related to factors in the classroom, administration and outside the classroom as consistently stressful.

Fimian (1986) examines the role of on the job peer and administrative supervisory systems in maintenance of social support for special education teachers. Research on the role of social and peer support in dealing with stressful occupations is reviewed and research topics and norms of providing support to special education teachers are suggested.

Makinen, and Kinnunen (1986) have conducted a study on teacher stress over a school year. The accumulation of and recovery from stress among teachers were studied longitudinally over 14 variables related to psychological state, health, hours of work, free time and night time rest, and the quality of interpersonal relations was measured repeatedly in 187 teachers.
Results indicate accumulation of stress during the autumn term with the result that weekend recovery disappeared in November – December. The Christmas, mid-winter Easter holidays seemed to prevent stress accumulation during the spring term. Stress indicators were moderately correlated with time budget variable and social relations. True predictive correlations from the autumn term to the spring term, however, were shown only by the quality of teacher/pupil relations.

Monica A., Payne and Adrian Furnnam (1987) have investigated the dimensions of occupational stress in West Indian secondary school teachers. Findings indicate that difficulties associated with classroom instructional and management demands were perceived by the majority of teachers to be the most stressful aspects of their work. On the other hand factor analysis and ANOVA computations revealed that problems associated with time management most clearly differentiated between teachers when compared on the basis of sex, qualifications and years of experience.

In order to study "Fear, victimization and stress among urban public school teachers Dworkin; Haney & Telschow (1988) surveyed 291 urban public school teachers on their experience of stress and victimization associated with teaching. Ss indicated the level of stress surrounding several issues including salary, teaching load, and student discipline, and rated frequency of violent acts such as theft or assault at school. The level of reported stress and nature and degree of victimization differed by the grade level taught and the race of the subject. Minority teachers may be less likely to report being stressed or victimized than are white teachers while elementary school
teachers report their work to be most stressful. Results reveal no evidence of a specific causal ordering between fear of victimization and teacher stress. Each may feed on and facilitate the other.

Huberty, and Huebner (1988) investigated the correlates of burnout in a national sample of school psychologists. Results indicate that burnout was related to demographic (i.e. age), environmental (i.e. role definitions) and professional activity (e.g. role diversity) variables.

Okebukola and Jegede (1988) identified the determinants of occupational stress among teachers in Nigeria and investigated that poor attitudes of students to work was the greatest stress factor, and delays in promotion produced stress in same Ss. Student characteristics and conditions of service were highly stressful, particularly to those Ss with educational degrees but no teaching qualifications. In general in-experienced, single and female Ss, and Ss without a degree in education and with heavy teaching load perceived the most stress.

Herbster, Abel & Prince (1988) surveyed 62 secondary student teachers in Montana to investigate the relationship between the individual's preferred learning style and teacher stress, as well as with specific dimension of stress. One-way ANOVA on the composite stress score indicated no statistically significant differences for the four learning styles. Result involving the dimension interapersonal conflicts (p < .05) with a significant difference between the two sequential learning style groups (i.e. CS and AS). Moreover t-test on the concrete abstract and the sequentral-random continua almost reached statistical significance at the 5 percent level suggesting that there might
be some relationship between self reported stress and the abstract vs concrete learner.

In a replication of the above study, Abel, Herbster & Prince (1989) surveyed 78 teachers in grades K-8 from across Northwest Georgia. Results confirmed the earlier finding of a lack of relationship between the composite measure of stress and the four learning styles, and attest to significant difference of the dimension stress management techniques (P<.05) and for the concrete abstract continuum (P<.05) abstracts reported a higher level of stress than the concretes). The authors conclude that there is a very little relationship between learning style and stress levels. This is possibly due, they add, to the fact that most teachers are capable of operating in more than one learning styles. They also recommend studies employing learning style instruments other than the one used in the studies (Herbster et al., 1988) with larger and more homogeneous samples of teachers (Abel, et al. 1989). Kagan (1989) carried out a study of the relationship between the teachers cognitive styles, the kind of preferred leadership style, and the types of occupational stress experienced. Results showed that teachers who fitted the pramatist profile (i.e. those having a tendency to evaluate situations in terms of subjective costs and benefits) reported relatively high scores on lack of administrative support, working with teachers, and task over load. Also, teachers who were more analytic (i.e., who consider method and plan) seek predictability through ordering of data and attend to concrete details and realities (i.e., those who would point to available resources and consider variability and immediately comprehensible facts) reported greater stress due to task overload. A negative relationship involving the latter factor and teachers who tended
to fit the idealist profile (i.e., those who focus on process values and aspirations) was reported.

Burke and Greenglass (1989) compared levels of burnout and its antecedents and consequences among school-based educators (teachers, department heads, and principals). Ss' reports indicate that stress and burnout increased as position in the school hierarchy decreased.

Juan F. Manso-Pinto (1989) has studied occupational stress factors as perceived by Chilean school teachers. The results show that lack of administrative support was perceived as the most stressful dimension of teaching by these Chilean school teachers.

Bertoch & Nielson (1989) selected the middle & high school teachers for high stress levels and assigned to treatment and control groups and found that the treatment group Ss demonstrated lower stress levels than the control group after the treatment with substantial decrease from their pretreatment stress levels.

The relation between Type-A behaviour and self-reported stress among male and female Zimbabwean teachers was examined by David, Wilson, Chocherai, Mutero, Ajit Doolabh, and Margeret, Herzstein (1990). The results show that Type-A scores were related to scores on the personal-professional stressor \( r = .51, P < .05 \), professional distress \( r = .47, P < .01 \) and physiological fatigue \( r = .31, P < .05 \) sub-scales and to total stress scores \( r = .55, P < .01 \) on the Teacher Stress Inventory, among men, and Type-A scores were very modestly related to scores on the personal-professional stressor sub-scale \( r = .19, P < .05 \) and were unrelated to the other sub-scales of the Teacher Stress Inventory, among women. The data do suggest that Type-A behaviour may be related to occupational stress among male Zimbabwean
teachers and that culture, operating in this instance through
sex-roles, may mediate the relation between Type-A behaviour
and stress.

Fontana and Abouerie (1993) have studied stress, levels,
gender and personality factors in teachers. Results revealed that
the majority of teachers sample, 72.6 percent, were experiencing
moderate levels of stress and 23.2 percent serious levels. The
t-test results showed no significant difference between male and
female teachers in stress levels. Correlation analysis between
stress level and personality dimensions revealed significant
positive correlation between stress and psychoticism. A
significant negative correlation emerged between stress and
extroversion, and a significant positive correlation between
stress and neuroticism. A multiple regression analysis revealed
that extroversion and neuroticism were the best predictors of
stress level. Overall, the results, therefore indicated that
personality dimensions appear to contribute more to stress levels
than the variable of either age or gender.

Borg, and Riding (1993) investigated the relationship
between the teachers cognitive style and occupational stress and
found that self reported teachers stress was not related to style
in a simple manner. However, style interacted significantly with
teacher age with regard to the four major areas of occupational
stress, significant variations in the level of stress were
observed with style: whereas Analytics reported greater stress
than wholists for pupil misbehaviour and poor working condition,
the converse was true for poor staff relations and time
pressures.
Some studies have been conducted in the Indian 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, school teachers, university and college teachers, gazetted officers, bank employees and women entrepreneurs. The sample comprised 360 working women. An attempt was made to determine the extent to which demographic, personality and organisational factors contributed to various role stress. Attempts were also made to gain insights into their role stresses and role efficacy, differences in using coping style and the relationship between role efficacy and various types of role stresses experienced by women in work situations.

Mistry (1985) has attempted to study on need achievement, job-satisfaction, job involvement as a function of role stress, locus of control and participation in academic climate; and reported that inter role distance, role-stagnation, role ambiguity, role overload, role inadequacy and over-all indices of role stress had been found to be negatively associated with all but social relation dimensions of job satisfaction.

Misra (1986) has investigated the meaning in life, stress and burnout in teachers of secondary schools in Calcutta, and reported the following:

1. The relationship between stress studied through test and stress reported by teachers was highly significant.

2. Age difference was significant with regard to stress of teachers.
3. The sample teachers had a lower degree of burnout.
4. Sex difference was significant on the burnout variable.
5. Stress was positively related to burnout with regard to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.
6. There was a negative relationship between meaning in life and stress and stress variables measured by tests as well as self-reporting items.

Rani, Asha (1986) has tried to study on stress factors among women teachers of higher secondary school in relation to their socio-economic status and biographical factors.

Sultan Akhtar and Vadra (1989) have conducted a study on university teachers to determine the stressors emanating from home and family situations. The results showed that men teachers experienced more social and family role stress as compared to women teachers and the married experienced more stress than the unmarried teachers. These studies show that extra-organizational stressors are as potent as factors pertaining to within the work situation.

Fernandes and Murthy (1989) carried out a study on job-related stress and burnout in middle and secondary school teachers and found that 76% of the total sample faced stress on the job, though the degree to which they experienced stress differed. Pupil misbehaviour was found to be most stressful, followed by time pressures, poor working conditions and poor school ethos. Chi-square analysis revealed non-significant results between teachers’ characteristics and stress and burnout. Coefficients of correlation between stress and burnout revealed that stress was correlated significantly with the emotional exhaustion sub-scale of the M.B.I. while non-significant
relationship were observed in the case of depersonalisation and personal accomplishment.

Ushasree and Jamuna (1990) conducted a study to examine role conflict and job stress among special and general school teachers and found no sex differences among teachers from special school on role conflict and job stress. However, women teachers in general schools were found to experience greater role conflict and had poor attitudes toward their students and were less satisfied with their careers as compared to their male counterparts in general schools. Teachers from special schools both men and women, were found to experience significantly greater role conflict and job stress compared to their counterparts in general schools. Jamuna and Ushasree (1990) conducted another study to examine burnout among teachers working in private and public schools and found that women in the lower age groups exhibited a higher degree of burnout. Also, a significant difference was reported between private and public school teachers in the three sub-scales of T.B.S.- career satisfaction, perceived administrative support and coping with job related stress.

A comparative study of extra organizational stress among women teachers and nursing staffs was carried out by Sultan Akhtar and Vadra, 1990 (in Pestonjee, 1992).

Basi, Satpal Kaur (1991) investigated teaching competency of language teachers in relation to their job satisfaction, locus of control and professional burnout.

Mishra, K.N. (1991) studied inter relationship between organisational conflict in school teacher stress and burnout in
relation to teacher personality at primary level. The findings of the study suggest that it is the type of management that contributes to the organisation and climate which are less stress producing among teachers and teachers who are more realistic and self attributing adjust better in stress situation.

Further, Mishra, K.N. (1992) studied biographical interpretation of burnout in relation to stress in teaching profession. The findings of the study indicate that teachers with low stress feeling experienced more burnout emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment in comparison to high stress teachers. Teachers’ experience in teaching profession is responsible for burnout-emotional exhaustion feeling. Teachers with less experience felt more emotional exhaustion, which is reverse in teachers.

Kamau (1992) investigated burnout locus of control and mental health of teachers in the eastern province of Kenya.

Pares Chandra Biswas and Tinku De (1993) have studied the effect of organisational climate of school on secondary teacher professional stress and found that the male teachers belonging to open climate experienced less stress and alienation, powerlessness and isolation than those belonging to paternal climate.

Rebeiro, P.J. (1994) has conducted a study to examine the burnout in the teaching profession. One hundred seventy five university and college teachers attending orientation (OR) and refresher courses in political science (PS) and History (HS) under UGC scheme were administered Maslach burnout inventory. The scores on the 3 sub scales of MBI, Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP) and Personal Accomplishment (PA) were related to age, sex length of service and research activity.
Results differ significantly in many respects from the norms provided by Maslach and seem to go against the theoretically based antecedents and consequences of burnout. Significant differences were found between the 3 groups (DR, PS, HS) and the 3 sub-scales. Younger and less experienced teachers scored significantly higher on DP and PA than older and more experienced ones. The study calls for further research to identify the causal relationship between burnout and specific characteristics of Indian Higher Education.

Mira Rani, Ray & Mishra (1994) have conducted a study to examine some factors influencing teacher-taught conflict. The results indicated that stiff invigilation during examination, teacher's biased behaviour, student's unreasonable demands and instigation by other members of the faculty were the main causes of teacher-taught conflicts. As regards the role of adjustment, it was found that majority of the students and teachers involved in conflicts were low adjusted.

TYPE A/B PATTERN AND OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

Vizek - Vidovic and Vlasta (1984) studied some personality dimensions and job stress in blue collar workers. Results of the study show that the personality traits of risk taking, achievement and independence were significantly related to stress indicators of job dissatisfaction, life dissatisfaction, life distress, psycho-somatic symptoms, depression, anxiety, and low self esteem. Personality dimensions of activity and responsibility were significantly associated only with the stress indicator of low self esteem. It is suggested that Ss who have higher degrees of independence, need of security and need for
achievement will adopt better and have less stress to unfavourable working conditions in the long run.

Matteson; Ivancevich and Smith Samuel (1984) investigated the relationship between Ss sales performance, job satisfaction and Type-A behaviour. It is noted that several personal characteristics frequently associated with successful sales performance are similar to the Type-A coronary prone behaviour patterns. Results indicate that no significant differences were found between the Type-A and the Type-B Ss and measures of sales performance and general job satisfaction. Type-A behaviour among Ss was associated with measures of stress and number of health complaints, possible explanations for the lack of Type-A performance and Type-A satisfaction relationships are discussed in addition to the importance of the association of Type-A characteristics with stress and health complaints.

Ivancevich, John M. and Matteson Michael T. (1984) examined the notion of interaction between the employees and the work environment and define stress in terms of a relationship between a person and the work environment. Instead of using a global model of person-environment interaction, a more specific approach incorporating the notion of the Type-A and the Type-B behaviour patterns and Type A-B work environment is developed. The theory, research and implications of a person-environment model is examined as an explanation of occupational stress, psychological and organizational consequences. The model is suggested as the formulation of a dynamic interactional view that emphasizes the reciprocal person-environment processes found in the work place.

The relationship between stress, organizational effectiveness and potential for developing coronary heart disease
was examined in the experiments with 612, 18-74 yrs olds by Hendrix (1985). Data indicate that perceived stress was predicted by a combination of individual and job related characteristics. Stress, in turn, affected individual and organizational health and effectiveness by causing increases in cold/Flu episodes and somatic symptoms and decreased job satisfaction. Stress had an indirect effect on job performance and absenteeism.

A research was conducted to study the Type-A behaviour in employed women in relation to work, marital, and leisure variables, social support, stress, tension, and health by Kelly and Houston (1985). Findings show that Type-A women had higher occupational levels and reported more demanding jobs and higher stress and tension than Type-B women. Type-A and Type-B women did not differ in their reports of marital adjustment or in total hours spent in leisure activities. Type-A behaviour was related to both self-reported stress and tension and for married women only, poorer self-reported physical health, social support from various sources was not found to be related to Type-A or Type-B. Type-A was related to more reported stress and tension for women who felt they had many sources of support but not for women who did not perceive their having many sources of support.

Dearborn and Hastings (1987) conducted a survey of 136 employed women (aged 23-69 yrs) to assess Type-A personality, demographic variables, job characteristics and attitudes, health habits, and physical and psychological symptoms of strain, compared with Type-B. The Type-A had been in their current jobs for a shorter time, worked longer hours, and were less satisfied with their jobs. A substantial number of the entire sample complained of a variety of physical and psychological symptoms, Type-A reported more nervousness in all situations and more
dysphoria at work. Correlations between job dissatisfaction and rated job stress with symptoms were calculated separately for Type-A and Type-B. Dissatisfaction and stress were related to more frequent symptom complaints in the Type-A.

Froggatt and Cotton (1987) investigated the effects of the Type-A behaviour pattern on role overload, induced stress and performance attributions. Results do not support those of the previous correlational studies that concluded that Type-A individuals are more likely to feel stressed than the individuals with the Type-B behaviour pattern. It is hypothesized that differences in reported stress between the Type-A's and the Type-B's may occur because the Type-A persons seek out situations effectively more stressful. In contrast to the stress finding, performance attributions varied between the Type A's and the Type B's overall. Type-B's were more likely to make external attributions, and Type-B females were more likely to make internal attributions than Type-A females.

Burke (1988) examined the relation of Type-A behaviour to measures of occupational and life stress, satisfaction, and well being. Both main and moderating effects of Type-A were investigated. Type-A behaviour was significantly related to measures of personal well-being but only weakly related to work and life demands. No support was found for the hypothesized moderating effects of the Type-A on the stressor-strain relationship.

Steffy; Brian, D. and Jones, John W. (1988) evaluated the effects of perceived job stressors, job dissatisfaction, and recent stressful life events on 5 biochemical indicators of stress and a composite index of distress related coronary disease
risk derived from a series of longitudinal studies, conducted by S.G. Hlaynes and M. Feinleib (1980). Findings suggest a tenuous relationship between survey reports of work-place stress and nonwork-domain and physiological indicators of manifest stress. The study did not uncover the expected relationship between perceived stress and blood chemistry measures.

Indian psychologists have also studied the occupational stress and Type-A behaviour pattern. Some of them are noted below:

Palsane and Evans (1984) studied 120 state transport drivers in the Pune region of Maharashtra State to examine the differences in their driving behaviour and health as related to Type-A/Type-B personality patterns. Driving behaviour was defined in terms of blowing horn, overtaking other vehicles, using brakes within the city limits and outside on the highways. The analysis revealed that Type-A drivers are significantly higher on such behaviours (as blowing horn, overtaking other vehicles and applying brakes) than Type-B drivers. Second measures of blood pressure before and after driving behaviour showed a significant increase in systolic BP in the case of Type-A drivers whereas a significant increase in both the systolic and the diastolic BP, was observed in the case of Type-B drivers. No significant difference was observed as regards cardiac problem in the case of Type-A and Type-B drivers.

Jamuna and Rama Murthi (1984) have attempted to find out whether Type-A behaviour is a function of age. The findings showed that the age group of 40-49 yrs had significantly higher scores on four factors of the J.A.S. namely, Type-A behaviour, job involvement, speed and impatience and hard driving and
competitive behaviour, compared to the other two age groups i.e. 30-39 and 50-59. The authors had expected this in the light of observation made by Krantz et al. (1981). The high CHD prone behaviour, they argued, may be due to functional limitation in work occupational stress and high achievement orientation and perfectionism in the middle years of the life span. Further Ramamurthi, Jamuna and Ram Murthi (1984) conducted a similar study on a sample comprising 30 executives and 30 non-executives (clerks), working in and around Tirupati. They administered the JAS to measure four factors of coronary stress prone behaviour, namely Type-A behaviour, speed and impatience, job involvement, hard driving and competency. The analysis revealed that the executives scored significantly higher on all the four factors as compared to non-executives.

Ram and Abhyankar (1986) studied the prevalence of Type-A behaviour pattern among urban female professionals, non-professionals and home makers. They also compared their observations with those of American women. The sample comprised 150 women. The findings revealed that two JAS factors, namely Type-A behaviour and job involvement were higher and statistically significant in profession as compared to the other group. Unlike the American finding education emerged as significant variable for elevated Type-A behavioural pattern.

Evans, Falsane and Carrer (1987) extended the study and attempted to compare Type-A and Type B bus drivers in the United States and India. Techniques such as psycho-physiological archival, unobstrusive observation and self report were used to collect data. The analysis revealed that Type-A bus drivers showed a higher incidence of accidents absenteeism, official
reprimands and self-report of occupational stress as compared to Type-B drivers. Secondly, in India, but not in the United States, Type-A drivers overtake and blow their horn more often than Type-B drivers. Third, though drivers exhibited expected elevations in blood pressure and catecholamine on the job, the magnitude of these increases did not differ as a function of Type-A/Type-B classification. It is evident in the studies that stress caused by Type-A pattern of behavioural disposition is responsible for heightened driving behaviour though it was not found to have any bearing on cardiac problems.

Pestonjee (1987,b) examined role stresses in relation to Type-A pattern of behavioural disposition and state-trait anger. A comparison of coefficients of correlation among role stress variables in age-wise dichotomised data of the management groups showed that a large number of coefficients of correlation were statistically significant for the higher age groups as compared to the lower age groups. Similarly, a large number of coefficients of correlation between role stresses and Type-A behaviour and role stresses and state-trait anger were found to be statistically significant for lower age groups as compared to the higher age groups.

Pestonjee and Singh (1988) investigated the moderating effect of Type-A pattern of behavioural disposition on the relationship between role stress and state-trait anger. Their analysis reveals some interesting information. First, the role erosion and the inter-role distance are major whereas resource inadequacy and personal inadequacy are the least contributor of managerial stress. Second, both the independent variables, namely, Type-A pattern of behavioural disposition and state-trait anger significantly and positively associate with role stresses
indicating that these are genuine person related correlates of role stress. Thirdly Type-A pattern of behavioural disposition moderates the degrees of relationship between role stresses and trait anger. Fourthly, it also moderates the form of relationship of role stresses with state anger and trait anger. However, rigorous statistical analysis have not supported the former conclusion whereas partly supported the latter one.

**OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND COPING STYLES**

Menaghan and Merves (1984) have examined the effectiveness of the specific coping efforts for various problems in the 4 occupational coping efforts of direct action, optimistic comparison, selective ignoring and restricted expectations. Two criteria for the effectiveness were considered in the study-reduction in occupational distress and reduction in later occupational problems. The Results of the study indicated that none of the coping efforts directly affected the later occupational problems, rather the initial level of difficulty and characteristics of one's work life (full time vs. part time) were the key influences on later problem levels. Findings of the study suggest that optimistic comparisons and avoidance of resigned, important instances are generally beneficial instances and that neither the lower social status nor the female gender is consistently associated with the less adoptive coping efforts.

A study on coping by Police Officers: A Study of role stress and Type-A and Type-B behaviour pattern was carried out by Kirmeyer, Sandra, and Diamond, Alice (1985). Results of the study indicated that Type-A Ss selected strategies that were more active and narrowly focused on the problem more than Type-B Ss.
did For Type-A's coping was relatively independent of appraisal, whereas for Type-B Ss, coping and appraisal were inter-dependent processes.

O'Neill, Collen and Zeichner, Amos (1985) have examined the relationships among job environment, job stress, coping and health outcomes (i.e. depression, anxiety, and physical symptoms) in full time working women and found that the level of job distress and the tendency to use avoidance coping and problem focused coping were significant predictors of health outcomes.

Newton and Keenan (1985) have examined the coping behaviour of young professional engineers in response to stress incidents experienced at work. Findings of the study indicate that all 3 predictor groups (stress appraisal, individual and environmental characteristics) were important in relation to the coping behaviour reported. Evidence also emerged suggesting that certain types of coping responses were behaviour correlates of particular individual characteristics, whereas others were more likely to be related to the differences in the environmental context and to the way in which the stress incident was appraised. The results question the relevance of attempts to derive effective coping techniques that can be applied universally, regardless of differences between individuals or environments.

Etzion and Pines (1986) investigated burnout and coping among human services professionals in the U.S. and Israel. Their Findings show that culture and sex have a significant effect. American women experienced more burnout than men. Women reported using indirect and inactive coping strategies more than men and Americans reported using them more than Israelis. They have found that active-direct strategies were effective means for coping.
Sadowski and Blackwell (1987) have studied the relationship of locus of control to anxiety and coping among student teachers and found that Ss with an internal locus of control orientation found teaching less anxiety provoking than with an external locus of control orientation. Internals indicated a greater performance for active, problem focused and reality-oriented coping strategies.

Cooper and Stoau (1987) assessed impact of resting at home vs. resting away from home among British Commercial Airline Pilots and concluded that Pilots away from home managed to rest, but not really to relax (from a psychological perspective).

Ashford (1988) has carried a study on Individual strategies for coping with stress during organizational transitions. Findings of the study suggest that perceived uncertainty and fears about the impact of the transition were related to employee-stress. This relationship was only moderately affected by the coping mechanism. Feeling of personal control and the ability to tolerate ambiguity were linked with improved stress levels, whereas active attempts to structure the situation by obtaining information and feedback, either failed to affect or actually increased stress levels.

Monk, Timothy's (1988) study on coping with the stress of shift work offers 13 suggestions as to how workers can cope with the stress generated by night and shift work. Coping strategies include suggestions such as sleep immediately after a night-shift, rather than before it, eat 3 regular meals a day, avoid caffeine within 5 hrs before sleep, for links with other shift working families.
Type-A behaviour and coping strategies in female and male supervisors were studied by Greenglass and Esther. (1988). Findings of the study show that Type-As (both male & female) used significantly more instrumental coping than Type-Bs and that Type-Bs were more likely to use social support to cope with job stress.

Innes and Kitto (1989) carried a study on Neuroticism, self-consciousness and coping strategies and occupational stress in high school teachers and found results which indicate that neuroticism and subjective ratings of stress were predictors of reported symptomatology and that private self-consciousness may act as a moderator variable. Coping strategies appear as variable, that are likely to be associated with lower predictor-stress relationships. Use of active-cognitive and active-behavioural and non-use of avoidance strategies are predictors of less symptomatology.

On the basis of the study on occupational stress and coping with stress; A critique, Newton (1989) states that the lack of conceptual and operational clarity in the areas of stress, strain, coping behaviour, and coping styles has led to confusion in both the conduct and the interpretation of occupational stress and coping research.

Richard, George and Krieshok, Thomas (1989) have studied the occupational stress, strain and coping in University faculty and concluded that occupational rank is an important variable when discussing the differential effect of stress, strain and coping between men and women in the University setting.
In a research article Dewe, Philip and Guest, David (1990) outline an approach in measuring coping with stress in work settings and present a taxonomy of the method of coping with stress. They reported 5 froms of coping (i.e. rational task-oriented behaviour, emotional release, distracting, passive rationalization and social support).

Some studies on stress and coping strategies carried out in the Indian context and which are relevant to the present study are given below:

Beehr and Gupta (1979) found role stresses, especially conflict and ambiguity, related to with drawal strategies.

Coping styles have been found to be significantly related with several personality dimensions. Highly significant positive relationship has been reported between the approach styles and the internality and between the avoidance styles and the externality. Approach styles have high correlation with optimism and negative correlation with alienation. The significant findings in relation to the organisational roles are that approach styles have significant positive relationship with role efficacy and effective role behaviour, involving various needs like those of achievement, power, extension, control and dependency. There is a significant positive co-relation between the approach styles and the job satisfaction (Sen, 1982). Thus, it appears that coping style play an important role in the effectiveness and satisfaction of people in organisation.

A significant positive correlation has been reported between approach-styles and participatory organisation climate (Surti, 1982).
Gupta and Murthy (1984) have studied role conflict and coping strategy that was the most popular amongst the respondent personal role redefinition. This strategy was significantly associated with low role conflict and high satisfaction with coping. Reactive role behaviour methods on the other hand were associated with high role conflict and low satisfaction with coping. It was also reported that 'Adjustment' and 'compromise' were the most commonly used and successful methods of coping.

A study on the coping strategies of the managerial personnel at different organisational levels in a public sector was conducted by Kaur and Murthy (1986) and the results of which indicated a significance on different organisational levels. Avoidance strategies were predominant at the junior levels, and, approach strategies were predominant at the senior level. The defensive style was used to the maximum by the junior management personnel, impulsive by the middle management personnel and intropersistive by the senior top management. There was a positive and significant relationship between role stress and avoidance strategies, between role stress and externality and between externality and avoidance strategies. Organisational role stress is negatively and significantly associated with approach strategies.

Singh (1986) in exploratory study, attempted to examine a number of research issues related to the structure and dynamics of stress among executives. A chain of events in four stages provided the conceptual framework for his study. Beginning with certain personal and organisational characteristics subsumed under the category of stressors that would lead to the perception of stress (at the first stage), an individual may attempt to cope with it (at the second stage). If coping
attempts are successful, the individual would experience little or no strain, otherwise he would experience strain (at the third stage) which may further lead to the experience of happy or unhappy work outcomes (at the fourth stage). The major objectives of this study were (a) to identify the underlying dimensions of stress and other constructs under study (b) to establish relationships of personal and organisational variables, coping strategies and strains with dimension of stress; (c) to find out the ways in which the low and high stress and strain groups can be discriminated (d) to find out the ways in which various dimensions of stress, coping strategies, strain and outcomes variables differ across ownership and hierarchical position, and, (e) to establish the pattern of relationship between the dimensions of stress and performance as well as that of strain dimensions and outcome variable. The results of the study revealed the following facts:

1. The construct of stress emerged multidimensional in nature.
2. Personal and organisational factors were related to the dimensions of stress in specific ways; for example relatively younger executives, who lacked preference for certainty and autonomy experienced high stress. Similarly, lack of structure was related to high role ambiguity.
3. The high stress and strain groups could be discriminated from the low stress and the strain groups in terms of personal and organisational factor and coping strategies.
4. The higher level executives experienced less stress and strain, utilised better coping strategies and enjoyed more positive outcomes. Executives of public sector organisations experienced less effective coping strategies and rated themselves as less effective than their counterparts from the private sector.
5. A combination of stress dimensions and coping strategies forming a condition of high role overload along with an absence of effective coping strategy was related to a combination of strain dimensions including lack of leisure time, perception of inequitable distribution of work and reward and feeling of latent hostility.

Gupta and Pratap (1987) conducted a study to determine the role of service length on organisational role stress, trait anxiety and coping strategies and to determine the relation between organisation role stress and trait anxiety amongst the executives of BHEL, a public sector undertaking. The findings of the study indicate that most of the executives (69 percent) adopted the avoidance style to cope with stress.

Srivastava and Singh (1987) tested the moderating effect of two coping strategies—Approach and Avoidance on the relationship between organisational role stress and mental health in the case of supervisors. The findings revealed a positive correlation between role stress and mental ill health variables. A comparison of mental ill health scores for avoidance and approach coping groups revealed that the avoidance coping group scored higher than the approach group. Differences in scores were statistically significant. Further, both the coping strategies—avoidance and approach, were found to modify the relationship between role stresses and mental ill-health, though in opposite directions. The approach coping strategies had a buffering effect whereas the avoidance coping strategies extended the intensive effect on the positive relationship between the variables.

Another study, which used coping strategies as a moderator was conducted by Singh (1988). In his doctoral dissertation,
Singh tested the moderating effect of coping strategies on the relationship between the role stress and the mental health in the case of 300 employees of supervisory cadre of the Life Insurance Corporation of India. Statistical treatment of the data yielded the following results:

1. Role stresses correlated positively and significantly with mental health dimensions.
2. Supervisors who scored higher on role-stresses scored significantly high on mental-health-dimensions as compared to the lower role stress group.
3. The avoidance mode of coping was associated positively and significantly with role stresses. On the contrary, the approach mode of coping was correlated negatively and significantly with the role-stress-variables.
4. Supervisors who adopted the avoidance coping strategy scored significantly higher on mental health dimensions as compared to those who used the approach-coping strategy.
5. Various dimensions of approach and avoidance coping strategies were associated negatively with mental health dimensions.
6. The avoidance mode of coping was found to markedly enhance the magnitude of positive correlation between the perceived role stress and the mental health.
7. The approach mode of coping markedly moderated the degree of positive relationship between the role stress and the mental ill health.

A study of role stress and coping styles of public sector managers was conducted by Madhu Raja-gopalan and Preetam Khandelwal (1988) and various role stress dimensions were found related to particular coping styles, high role stress was also found related to avoidance coping styles.
Ghadially and Kumar (1989) conducted a study to explore the stresses, strains and coping styles of female professional from different organizations, and found inadequate pay, under utilization of skills, variability in work load as the salient stressors in India. Researchers have also investigated tension and fatique as a frequent reported strain and reading to increase knowledge, planning and goal setting as a major adoptive response on social Readjustment Rating Scale. No significant problem was reported in majority of cases while some reported mild or moderate problems.

Gupta (1989) conducted a study on role-stress, locus of control, coping styles and role efficacy of first generation entrepreneurs. The study was conceptualised in terms of nine specific objectives. Findings revealed that intropersistive style was the most frequently used coping style. Approach strategies of coping were used more frequently than avoidance strategies.

Ahmad, Bhatt and Ahmad (1990) have studied stress and coping strategies among executive technocrats and collected data to examine whether there is any difference in the coping styles of male and female technocrats on role PICS. The finding of the study indicates that the total sample scores were higher for the approach style than for the avoidance style, the executive technocrats used intropersistive style as the dominant style for coping followed by defensive and extrapersistive styles, a difference was observed in the coping styles of male and female technocrats. Man used a defensive style more often than women. Females largely used the approach style for coping. It was also found that none of the demographic variables—age, number of
dependents, income, drinking/smoking, habits, health of the individual had a significant bearing on the strategies used for coping with stress.

Prakash, G.P. (1990) tested the interactive model of stress, strain and coping, proposed by S.H. Osipow and Spokane (1987) in Indian situation. The results indicated that the correlation between stress and strain are positive and correlation between occupational strain and coping tend to be negative. In contrast with the propositions of the model. The multiple regression analysis indicated that the amount of strain produced by stress is greater than the amount reduced by the coping strategies.


Agrawal (1993) has studied "stress coping mechanism and personality dimensions of the entrepreneurs and observed that Eysenck's theory of personality comprising of four dimensions, namely; extroversion, neuroticism, psychoticism and intelligence seems capable of explaining individual differences among the entrepreneurs/business owners pertaining to their magnitudes of preference to Task-Oriented, Defence-Oriented and Ailment-Oriented coping devices provided proper cognizence, is taken of certain demographic variables like cast, sex, business history, no-business and size of the industry, these being the strong factors in influencing the perception of the stress in the Indian Industrial set-up.