Chapter - II

Review of Related Literature
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CHAPTER - II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

Any worthwhile research study in any field of knowledge requires an adequate familiarity with the work which has already been done in the same area. A summary of writings of recognized authorities and of previous research provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known and what is still unknown and untested. Since affective research is based upon past knowledge, this step helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provides useful hypotheses and helpful suggestions for significant investigation.

Related literature includes theoretical discussions, review of the status of knowledge by authorities, philosophical papers, description and evaluation of current practices and empirical researches. Any objective, formal, systematic and scientific research begins with a review of related literature. The original ideas and concepts to some extent come out of researcher’s mind, but to a large extent from the collective body of prior work. There is much value in summarizing the past work in a field and bringing it up to date. It helps to contribute new knowledge in the field of research.

Citing studies that show substantial agreement and those that seem to present conflicting conclusions helps to sharpen and define understanding of existing knowledge in the problem area provides a background for the research investigation and makes the researcher aware of the status of the issue. Parading a long list of annotated studies relating to the problem is ineffective and inappropriate. Only those studies that are plainly relevant, competently executed and reported should be included (Bhaskara Rao, 1997).

Good, Barr and Scates (1935) stated that the review of related literature serves the following purposes: a) to show whether the evidence already available solves the problem adequately without further investigation, b) to provide ideas, theories and explanations valuable to formulation of the problem, c) to suggest methods of research appropriate to the problem and d) to locate comparative data useful in the interpretation of result. Borg (1965) quoted that the literature in any
field, forms the foundation upon which all future work will be built. Scanning of relevant research report guides the researcher in the right direction, highlighting the pitfalls of the earlier studies showing him the landmarks achieved. Also, a synthesized collection of previous studies help the researcher to identify the significant overlaps and gaps among the prior ones.

The investigator can probe into the neglected areas, which need more concentration. Further, the review of related research enables the investigator to get to the frontier in the field of his problem. Until the investigator has learnt what others have done and what still remains to be done in his area, he cannot develop a research project that will contribute to furthering knowledge in his field.

2.1. Review of Related Literature

The review of literature provides the researcher an opportunity of gaining insight into the measures, objects, samples, tools and approach employed by other research works.

Capitalizing on the review of expert researchers can be fruitful in providing helpful ideas and suggestions. While review articles that summarize related studies are useful, they do not provide a satisfactory substitute for an independent research. Even though the review of related literature is not a substitute for an independent work, it is one of the first steps in the research process. It is a valuable guide to define the problem, to recognize its significance, to suggest promising data gathering devices, to appropriate the study design and the sources of data for affective analysis and to arrive at fruitful conclusions (Kumari and Bhaskara Rao, 2000).

The search for related literature is a time consuming process, even though it is necessary, as earlier stated, for a good research work. Hence, this chapter on review of related literature is meant for the study of literature related to the stress, personality patterns and remedial programs to overcome stress and enhance personality.

In this chapter some of the relevant literature, both in abroad and India are discussed under following headings:

- **Studies on Stress and Situational Stress**
- **Studies on Personality Patterns**
- **Studies on Remedial Programs for Stress / Situational Stress**
The relevant research studies in the above said headings are presented in the logical sequences of ideas of similarity to bring more clarity to the concept under study. The related research studies of abroad and India on Stress, Situational Stress, Personality Patterns and Remedial Programs in particular are presented.

2.2. Studies on Stress and Situational Stress

2.2.1. Prevalence

Cox et al. (1970) found that schoolteachers reported that 79% of teachers mentioned their jobs as the main source of stress in their life whereas only 38% of the non-teachers did so. Stress was cited as a major factor for teacher to quit the profession.

Pratte (1978) reported that 60.4% of teachers felt some nervous strain in contrast with 51.1% of other professionals and 36.1% of other employees who felt stressful.

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) investigated and identified four factors: pupil’s misbehavior, poor working conditions, time pressure and poor school ethos as responsible for teachers stress in their study. They studied 257 teachers of 16 schools in England and noted that 15.6% found being a schoolteacher very stressful while 4.3% found it extremely stressful.

Tellanback Brenner and Lofgren (1983) conducted two studies on Swedish school teachers. In the first study on 1,838 teachers, 40.15% said teaching was always or often a mental strain and in the second study on 445 teachers, 31% found their work to be very much a mental strain.

Frese (1985) stated that stress plays some role in anywhere from 50 to 70 percent of all forms of physical illness. To list just a few, stress has been implicated in the occurrence of heart diseases, high blood pressure, hardening of the arteries, ulcers and even diabetes. The mechanisms involved have yet to be determined, but a good first guess as follows, by draining our resources and keeping us off balance physiologically, stress upsets our complex internal chemistry.

Murphy (1986) found that female teachers experienced more stress than males in the area of time management and even reported high scores of physical symptoms of stress in teacher-to-teacher relationship.
Pierson and Archambaults (1987) revealed that school psychologists and guidance counselors reported the highest levels of role stress, while the classroom teachers reported the lowest level of role stress.

Greenglass and Burke (1988) assessed the factors contributing to burnout in 229 female and 327 male teachers and school administrators using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Results indicate that men scored significantly higher than women on the MBI depersonalization scale. Women experienced significantly more depression, headaches and role conflict than males. Multiple regression analysis indicated that 47% of the variation in burnout among women was accounted for by a model of burnout that included role conflict, marital satisfaction, work source of stress, and social support. In men, the main contributor to burnout was stress.

Ogus (1990) examined and compared burnout in 227 female and 243 male teachers. Men scored significantly higher than women on depersonalization. A 2nd finding showed that men’s quality of daily life was low than of females. At the same time men experienced greater work stress women tended to put more energy into their friendships and to value them more. In women only existential coping and internal control were associated with lower depersonalization.

Abbotts (1991) examined how the national curriculum implemented by the 1988 education reform act in perceived as a significant cause at additional stress by those responsible for special education children 30% as the head teachers responded that they and their staff experienced greatly increased workload, pupil problems, and time pressure. The support mechanisms used fell into 4 categories, curricular support strategies, external professional support strategies, personal support strategies and external lay support strategies.

Catherine (1992) investigated burnout, locus of control and mental health of teachers. A sample of 385 teachers of both sexes participated in the study. The tools included Maslach Burnout Inventory, Rotter’s locus of control scale and teacher’s mental health scale developed by the researchers. Differential analysis and correlation were used for data analysis. Male teachers were emotionally over extended, internally controlled, anxious call our towards students and personally accomplished but less capable of establishing constructive relationship however they were more capable of coping with stresses than female teachers.
Christopher et al. (2006) viewed that job satisfaction can be conceptualized as a function of situational conditions, personal characteristics, and interactions between both groups of variables. The authors compared the relative predictive power of these determinants in 3 samples of professionals (total N = 1,065). Perceived job characteristics (qualification possibilities, social support, stress, autonomy, participatory leadership) uniquely explained 7-22% of the variance in job satisfaction, and dispositional factors (Big Five, occupational self-efficacy, work centrality, mastery goals) uniquely explained 8-12% of the variance. Dispositional influences were partially mediated by perceived job characteristics. Interactions between situational and dispositional factors were of little significance.

Elena Nerriere et al. (2009) viewed that teachers, as professional voice users, are at particular risk of voice disorders. Among contributing factors, stress and psychological tension could play a role but epidemiological data on this problem are scarce. The aim of this study was to evaluate prevalence and cofactors of voice disorders among teachers in the French National Education system, with particular attention paid to the association between voice complaint and psychological status. The source data come from an epidemiological postal survey on physical and mental health conducted in a sample of 20,099 adults (in activity or retired) selected at random from the health plan records of the national education system. Overall response rate was 53%. Of the 10,288 respondents, 3,940 were teachers in activity currently giving classes to students. In the sample of those with complete data (n = 3,646), variables associated with voice disorders were investigated using logistic regression models. Studied variables referred to demographic characteristics, socio-professional environment, psychological distress, mental health disorders (DSM-IV), and sick leave. They concluded that one in two female teachers reported voice disorders (50.0%) compared to one in four males (26.0%). Those who reported voice disorders presented higher level of psychological distress. Sex- and age-adjusted odds ratios [95% confidence interval] were respectively 1.8 [1.5-2.2] for major depressive episode, 1.7 [1.3-2.2] for general anxiety disorder, and 1.6 [1.2-2.2] for phobia. A significant association between voice disorders and sick leave was also demonstrated (1.5 [1.3-1.7]). Voice disorders were frequent among French teachers. Associations with psychiatric disorders suggest that a situation may exist which is more complex
than simple mechanical failure. Further longitudinal research is needed to clarify the co morbidity between voice and psychological disorders.

**Joseph Lau (2010)** expressed that a devastating earthquake occurred on May 12, 2008 in Sichuan, China. This study investigated the prevalence and factors in association with psychological problems among secondary school students living in Chengdu (90 km away from the disaster epicenter) in June 2008. In a cross-sectional survey, 3,324 secondary students self-administered a structured questionnaire in classroom setting. Validated scales were used in this study. Among all respondents, 22.3% reported post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD); 22.6% were probable depression cases; 10.6% reported suicidal ideation; and 14.1% would like to receive psychological counseling. No gender differences were found. While social / emotional support from teachers or peers (OR from 0.40 to 0.78) and exposure to positive news reports (OR from 0.59 to 0.62) were found protective, prior experience of severe mental distress (OR from 1.60 to 2.68) and corporal punishment (OR from 1.31 to 1.58), worry about future aftershocks (OR from 1.64 to 3.11), absence from school when it was not closed (OR from 1.38 to 1.48), exposures to scary or sorrowful disaster media coverage (OR from 1.39 to 2.07).

### 2.2.2. Characteristics of Stress and Situational Stress

**French et al. (1965)** differentiated work load in terms of qualitative (too much to work) and quantitative (too difficult to work) overload. These represent a category of potential stressors. They investigated the qualitative and quantitative work load of professors and administrators in a large university and found that one symptom of stress, low self-esteem was related to work overload, but found some difference between two occupational groupings. Qualitative overload was not significantly linked to low self-esteem among the administrators, but was significantly correlated for university professors.

**Kahn and Quinn (1970)** classified role stress into three categories, expectation generated stress which include role conflict and ambiguity, expectation resources discrepancy which include role overload responsibility and finally authority dilemma and inadequate information.
Belk (1975) found that stress can be examined in relation to the five situational characteristics: physical and social surroundings, task definition, temporal perspective and antecedent states. These characteristics can be considered as stressors or causative factors creating a stressful situation.

Dunham (1976) has reported the results of his investigation of teacher stress based on an analysis of data which included the reports of 658 teachers in primary and secondary schools in the United Kingdom. Dunham stated that the two major conclusion of his survey were that, more teachers were experiencing stress and severe stress is being experienced by more teachers.

French et al. (1976) states that stress refer to any characteristic of the environment which poses a threat to the individual – either excessive demands or insufficient supplier to meet his needs.

Cooper and Payne (1978) viewed that the other potential source of managerial stress is simply being in the organization and threat to individual’s freedom, autonomy and identity. This situation poses problems such as little or no participation in the decision making process, no sense of belonging, lack of effective consultation, poor communication, restrictions on behavior and office politics.

Cox (1978) identified five potential consequences of the effects of stress. These include Subjective Effects: Anxiety, aggression, apathy, boredom, depression, fatigue, frustration, loss of temper, low self-esteem, nervousness, feeling alone and the like; Behavioral effects: Accident Proneness, alcoholism, drug abuse, emotional outbursts, excessive eating, excessive smoking, compulsive behavior, nervous laughter, etc. and Cognitive Effects: Inability to take sound decisions, poor concentration, short attention span, hyper sensitivity to criticism, mental blocks and such others.

Piatt (1978) in his study of 124 primary school teachers reported a significant association between perceived stress reported by the teachers and an index of mental ill health (Goldberg’s General Health Questionnaire). A high score on the general health questionnaire indicates the probability of psychiatric illness.

Hendrickson (1979) stated that burnout is an occupational hazard for teachers that are a response to chronic stress caused by institutional and organizational factors and the immediate teaching environment. It begins with a feeling of uneasiness
accompanied by being tired all the time, sleeplessness, depression and being physically rundown. Other symptoms include frequent headaches, colds, dizziness and diarrhea. The end result is physical and emotional exhaustion.

Kyriacou (1987) explained the teachers stress as the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression, resulting from aspects of work as a teacher. They found that the teacher burnout as the syndrome resulting from prolonged teacher stress, primarily characterized by physical, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion. In many countries teacher’s job is often considered as one of the most stressful profession. In the last two decades, intensive researches have been carried out in USA and Europe concerning the sources and symptoms of teacher’s professional stress.

Susan (1987) investigated the relationship with stress and burnout of 8 selected psychological, organizational and demographic variables in 78 secondary school teachers. Subjects completed self report measures of stress, burnout, role conflict, role ambiguity, locus of control, and organizational and demographic variables. Analyses indicated that 6 of the selected variables were significantly related to stress, total burnout, frequency and intensity of burnout emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment subscales. Role ambiguity and locus of control explained most variance on stress and all burnout scales except burnout intensity and emotional exhaustion which were best explained by number of years teaching experience overall, however stress and burnout levels were found to be low.

Cherniss (1988) in an in-depth longitudinal study of 28 new human service professionals revealed four aspects of the job which were particularly important as sources of stress: ambiguity, professional-bureaucratic role conflict, professional-client relationship and the absence of formal, organizational concern about the quality of work life.

Cherniss (1988) developed a method for assessing the relationship between supervisory behavior and staff turnover. The present’s supervisor observation scale was tested in 2 schools for mentally retarded children with low and moderated levels of staff burnout, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Results indicate that the principal of the low burnout staff interacted less frequently with others, spent less time observing staff in their classrooms, spent more time engaged in planning and co-
coordinating activities and interacted more with supervisors. The low turnover principal also talked more and listened less, spent more time discussing work related problems but less time discussing administrative issues, and gave staff more emotional support.

**Geoffrey (1990)** conducted a study on 750 teachers responded to a questionnaire that investigated associations between selected aspects of burnout. High and low burnout groups were compared on biographic, psychological and work patterns variables and the importance of the variables in accounting for the variance in each of 3 burnout sub-scales were assessed. School type was related to perceptions of burnout. Higher levels of burnout were associated with poorer physical health, high rates of absenteeism, lower self confidence and more frequent use of regressive coping strategies. Teachers classified experiencing high levels of burnout attributed stress in their lives to teaching and reported low levels of career commitment and satisfaction. Teachers who recorded high levels of burnout were characterized by lower levels of hardiness, lower levels of social support, and higher levels of role stress and more custodial pupil control ideologies than low burnout teachers.

**Schonfeld (1990)** suggest that teachers who employ identifiable occupational coping behaviour are less likely to experience psychological symptoms and low morale.

**Rothbaum et al. (1992)** viewed that the most significant revision in DSM-IV was the addition of a minimum duration criterion requiring symptoms to have been present for at least 30 days. This constituted a response to new findings that symptoms and distress were common after a severe trauma and therefore might represent a normative process.

**Carol Gohm, Baumann and Sniezek (2001)** investigated the role of emotional experience and understanding in acute stress situations, the relations between three individual difference variables (clarity, attention, and intensity) and cognitive difficulties under acute stress were examined. Fifty-nine firefighter trainees completed personality measures several weeks before engaging in a series of four live-fire exercises. Individuals who were typically clear about their emotions (high clarity) reported fewer instances of cognitive difficulties, such as "blanking out" and being unable to think clearly during the exercises. Emotional intensity and attention to emotion were unrelated to reports of these symptoms.
Dominik Bach and Gisela Erdmann (2007) explained that focusing on bodily symptoms increases perception of internal states. The interaction between situational (experimentally induced) symptom focusing and a disposition to focus on one's bodily symptoms is unclear. We assumed that situational symptom focusing increases perception of stress symptoms only in persons that usually do not focus on their bodily symptoms. Forty participants were divided into two groups (N=20) according to their disposition towards bodily symptom focusing (habitual symptom focusing, HSF+ and HSF-). Ten participants per group were instructed to focus on their neck muscle tension (situational symptom focusing, SSF+), while the others received a control instruction (SSF-). All participants underwent anticipation of a public speech, representing an emotional and mental stressor. There was a significant HSF×SSF interaction in reports on muscle tension and palpitation under stress. While HSF- participants reported more stress symptoms in the SSF+ condition, HSF+ participants reported fewer symptoms. However, no interaction was found in physiological measures including neck electromyogram, skin conductance reactions, heart rate and blood pressure. Our results indicate either that symptom perception is adjusted by symptom focusing, or that the instruction to use a habitual coping strategy reduces stress symptoms.

NIOSH Work Organization (2007) viewed that stress-related disorders encompass a broad array of conditions, including psychological disorders (e.g., depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder) and other types of emotional strain (e.g., dissatisfaction, fatigue, tension, etc.), maladaptive behaviors (e.g., aggression, substance abuse), and cognitive impairment (e.g., concentration and memory problems). In turn, these conditions may lead to poor work performance or even injury. Job stress is also associated with various biological reactions that may lead ultimately to compromised health, such as cardiovascular disease or in extreme cases death.

Constantinos Kokkinos and Aggeliki Davazoglou (2009) examined that the sources of job stress in a national sample of 373 Greek special education teachers, using a self-report questionnaire assessing job stress, its perceived sources, and its demographic and professional characteristics. Although the participants in general considered their job moderately stressful, they felt stressed by issues concerning the
special needs child, such as the child's progress, safety, and social development. More than half of the teachers indicated that teaching children with autism poses major stress to them, followed by teaching students with behavioral and emotional difficulties. Regression analysis showed that the implementation of the special educational curriculum was the most important predictor of job stress, followed by the social and academic progress of children. The implications of these findings for in-service and pre-service teacher preparation, support, and awareness-raising regarding job stress are discussed.

Houdmont, Cox and Griffiths (2010) found that there is concern about lack of consistency in the design of case definitions used to measure work-related stress in national workforce surveys and the implications of this for the reliability and validity of prevalence estimates as well as for developments in policy and practice on tackling work-related stress. The study examined associations between case definitions used for the measurement of work-related stress in nationally representative workforce surveys and the prevalence rates generated. The study focused on 18 nationally representative workforce surveys conducted between 1995 and 2008 that involved British samples. The published report from each survey was scrutinized for evidence of the case definition used to measure work-related stress and the associated prevalence rate. Results several types of case definition were identified that differed in terms of their theoretical basis, structure, and content. Each was associated with a unique range of prevalence rates.

May-Britt Solem et al. (2011) reported the effects of child characteristics and parent coping practices on parenting stress, based on a sample of parents of 64 boys with behavioral problems and a comparison group with parents of 128 boys. All parents completed questionnaires about stress, length of education, child characteristics, social support, sense of coherence and coping practices, in addition to interviews in their home about daily activities and relations with the child. A hierarchical regression model for predicting parenting stress was tested, and the results showed that having a child with behavioral problems predicted 57% of the variance in parenting stress. Social support and parental resources and strategies added to the prediction of parenting stress after controlling for family demographics and child characteristics. The parents in the clinical group (with boys referred to
psychiatric units) were more often single parents with lower education, more often unemployed, less content with social support, and had lower scores on comprehensibility. These parents were significantly more stressed than parents in the comparison group. All these risk factors might be barriers against establishing a protective frame around a child. These parents, with a difficult child-rearing situation, who perceived less support and had fewer material benefits, seemed to be more vulnerable.

2.2.3. Causes / Associate factors of Stress and Situational Stress

Sir William Osler (1910) explored the idea of stress and strain causing ‘disease’, when he saw a relationship between chest pain and a hectic pace of life. The idea that environmental forces could actually cause disease rather than just short-term ill health effects, and that people have a natural tendency to resist such forces, was seen in the work.

Hans Selye (1936) explored the concept of stress and its consequences on the organism as General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). He defined stress as the state manifested by the specific syndrome, which consists of all the non-specific induced changes within a biological system. He also defined stress as the non-specific response of the body to any demand whether positive or negative that is made on it. This led to the theoretical formulation that stressors are external events or conditions that affect the organism. Hans Selye (1946) described three stages an individual encounters in stressful situations: (i) alarm reaction, in which an initial phase of lowered resistance is followed by counter shock, during which the individual’s defense mechanisms become active; (ii) resistance, the stage of maximum adaption and, hopefully, successful return to equilibrium for the individual. If, however, the stress agent continues or the defence mechanism does not work, he will move on to a third stage; (iii) exhaustion, when adaptive mechanisms collapse.

Miller (1960) proved that the frequently researched sources of stress are work overload which leads to individuals break down.

Khan et al. (1964) viewed that much of the research on organizational stress was focused on role conflict and role ambiguity as the principle sources of stress in organizations. Role characteristics have been one of the most widely studies organization qualities or sources in stress research.
French and Caplan (1970) studied the effect of psychological stressors on psychological, physiological and behavioral strains such as workload responsibility, responsibility for persons and things, job complexity, quality concern, job versus non-job conflicts, role conflict, and ambiguity in participation and under utilization of abilities received the attention of investigators.

Levi (1972) explained that environmental conditions and social situations which either overload or under load, were found to be directly associated with individuals need for stimulation. He further stated that situations of overload were associated with too much stimulation and situations of under load were associated with too little stimulation. Although qualitative overload might be more stressful it was suggested that under load represented a demand but either way the situation was associated with stress.

Bruke et al. (1976) stated that occupational stress may have functional as well as dysfunctional qualities. They indicate that very low or very high levels of stress have equally detrimental effect on the individuals as well as on the organization. Their studies imply that between such extreme levels of stress there is an optimum value of stress, which is unique for each individual and represents the level of stress at which a person’s performance effectiveness is maximized.

Cooper and Marshal (1976) explained that the important area related to organizational sources of stress is career crisis. The career crisis represents any one of several conditions in which individuals may find themselves and which occurs midway through the individuals career. These conditions include over promotions, under promotion, status inconsequence, lack of security (obsolescence) and thwarted ambition. These conditions in varying degrees appear to be most directly related to an individual’s need for achievement, intra-personal recognition, certainty and security.

Lazarus (1976) suggested that an individual’s stress reaction depends on how the person interprets or appraises (consciously or unconsciously) the significance of a harmful, threatening or challenging event. ‘Lazarus’ work disagrees with those who see stress simply as environmental pressure. Instead, the intensity of the stress experience is determined significantly by how well people feel they can cope with an identified threat. Any person who is unsure of his or her coping abilities and he is likely to feel helpless and overwhelmed.
**Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977)** reported that the sources of dissatisfaction for the elementary school teachers in California were: (1) supervisory duties at school (2) excessive clerical work (3) inadequate salary and (4) negative student attitude towards learning.

**Ramu (1977)** found that many Indian women refused transfers; promotions etc. as they did not want to move out and get separated from their families.

**Sylvestor (1977)** viewed that teacher’s work daily with students having unique problems and potentials. During school hours, teachers must cope with numerous interruptions, student absenteeism, students with special needs, insufficient funding and lack of parental support. Moreover, work does not end when teachers go home as in the case of other jobs. Preparation, reference, correcting the notebooks, valuation etc must be attended to even after they reach home.

**Beehr and Newman (1978)** identified the effects of stress. These include:

- **Psychological Effects:** Increased blood glucose levels, increased heart rate and blood pressure, dryness of the mouth, sweating, dilation of pupils, hot and cold flashes, etc.
- **Organizational Effects:** Absenteeism, poor turn over, low productivity, alienation from work, job dissatisfaction reduced organizational commitment and loyalty, etc.

**Dunham (1978)** identified three common stress situations. They are (1) reorganization of schools into comprehensive types (2) role conflict and role ambiguity and (3) poor working conditions like inadequate building and high noise levels. He concluded from his survey on 658 teachers in the United Kingdom that more teachers were experiencing stress’ and ‘severe stress were being experienced by more teachers.

**Kyriachou and Scutliffe (1979)** explained that considerable large portion of stress is confined to the study of industrial setting while relatively less number of studies is concentrating on teachers stress. In teacher stress studies the terms stress and burnout are used interchangeably. The difference lies in the degree. Burnout can be viewed as an extreme reaction of excessive degree of stress. Their definition and model of teacher stress conceptualizes teacher stress as a response syndrome (anger or depression) mediated by an appraisal of threat to the teacher’s self-esteem or well-being and coping mechanisms activated to reduce the perceived threat. They concluded that teachers’ stress as a response of negative effects such as anger, anxiety
and depression arising from aspects of the teacher’s job and mediated by the perception of the demands made upon the teacher.

Morse and Furst (1979) identified three kinds of stressors: physical, social and psychological. Physical stressors are external factors such as drugs, foods, noise, temperature and trauma. Social stressors or life-change events are externally induced and result from the interaction of the individual with his/her environment, for example, death of a loved one, divorce, job loss, a move to a new city, or financial difficulty. Psychological stressors (intense emotions) –may be brought on by physical or social stressors and include frustration, worry, anger, happiness, sadness, fear, anxiety, etc. This conceptualization further reflects the confusion of the concept of stress as both the causative factor (physical or social stressors) and the result/reaction (psychological stressor).

Newell (1979) contended that problems such as student indiscipline, lack of student progress, inadequate budget, lack of administrative support etc. contributed to teacher’s stress.

Tom Cummings and Cary Cooper (1979) explored that the stress process in a cybernetic framework as follows: (i) Individuals, for the most part, try to keep their thoughts, emotions, and relationships with the world in a ‘steady state’, (ii) Each factor of a person’s emotional and physical state has a ‘range of stability’, in which that person feel comfortable. On the other hand, when forces disrupt one of these factors beyond the range of stability, the individual must act or cope to restore a feeling of comfort and (iii) An individual’s behavior aimed at maintaining a steady state makes up his or her ‘adjustment process’, or coping strategies.

Harrell et al. (1980) explained that a person encountering any one of these factors may consider it a stressful situation. Social stressors could include salespeople, shopping with children, shopping alone or shopping with an indifferent friend or spouse. The intent to select, shop for or obtain information about a purchase refers to task definition. Such tasks as life-giving, last-minute Christmas shopping or failure to obtain the needed information to make an optimal decision may serve as stressors.

Sjoberg (1981) examined life situations and episodes as the basis for situational influence on behavior. He defined the individual’s life situation as a relatively stable set of needs, abilities, conceptual structures and external conditions.
Episodes were defined in terms of time, from very brief to very long. These definitions parallel those for micro-, macro-, chronic and acute stressors. This clearly puts stress in the domain of a situational influence.

Cohen (1982) revealed that sources of teacher stress in private boarding schools evolved the following expectations placed on teachers: poor administrative leadership, the physical environment, time pressure and age differences or similarities with colleagues and students. Coping with stress was found to involve lowered expectations, better personal health care, consistent supervision, training and more outside activities.

Mandler (1982) defined that Interruption Theory of stress provides a transition between the internal component of stress and the interaction component. Mandler defined stress as an emergency signaling interruption. The basic premise is that autonomic activity results whenever some organized action or thought process is interrupted. The term interruption is used in the sense that any event, whether external or internal to the individual, prevents completion of some action, thought sequences, or plan and is considered to be interrupted. Interruption can occur in the perceptual, cognitive, behavioral, or problem-solving domains. The consequences of the interruption will always be autonomic activity and will be interpreted emotionally in any number of ways, ranging from the most joyful to the most noxious.

Hudson and Meagher (1983) studied 200 teachers from four Midwestern states and analyzed that the lack of administrator support, working with other teachers, and discipline and behavior problems, were the most frequently reported stressors. They revealed that school psychologists and guidance counselors reported the highest levels of role stress, while the classroom teachers reported the lowest level of role stress.

Pareek (1983) proposed and classified role stress under two categories – role space and role set. He defined five main role stresses or conflicts in the role space of individual, viz., self-role distance and role ambiguity; role overload; role isolation and role-erosion and role inadequacy.

Pearlin (1983) revealed that the duration of a stressor (acute or chronic) refers to how long the pressure exists. Stressors which last a relatively short time (last-minute Christmas shopping or relocation) are acute stressors while those lasting over
a longer period are chronic stressors (e.g. managing career and household, income conditions, or family strains). Both acute and chronic stressors can be varying by intensity.

**Cooper and Methuish (1984)** found that some of the potential sources of stress like work, personality pre-dispositions of ill health (e.g. poor physical fitness, high blood pressure, emotional instability etc.) are significantly predictive of employee’s mental ill-health.

**Ferguson (1984)** ascertained that one teacher in four is likely to find disruptive students to be very stressful and attitude, the school discipline were strong stress factors. Teachers were most satisfied with their role of teacher in seeing students grow, but were least satisfied with student attitude, performance public attitudes, discipline, administration and paper work.

**Lazarus and Folkman (1984)** expressed that stress is an individual experience depending upon their perception and experiences they vary in their responses. Keeping in view the transactional model of stress, was operationally defined for the job satisfaction as excessive job demands or oppressive job conditions that are beyond their physical and psychological adjusitive resources.

**McCormick (1984)** revealed that as in the case of job satisfaction, there is an abundance of theories that aim to explain occupational stress. Recent research has endeavored to us an attribution of responsibility theory to explain teacher occupational stress. The theory posits that teachers blame their occupational stress on various aspects of the work environment and that factors of the work environment such as students, school administration and the school system are separate work domains to which teachers may attribute their stress. Antecedents of occupational stress are also referred to as sources of stress or stressors.

**Milsetin, Golazewski and Duquette (1984)** noted that urban elementary school teacher of their sample identified issues related to the core task of working with students in the classroom as most stressful.

**Pellicer (1984)** viewed that the job satisfaction is negatively related to teacher absenteeism.
Smilansky (1984) examined elementary school teachers’ work satisfaction and job related stress and their relation to external factors and internal factors. It was found work satisfaction to be related to internal factors, whereas stress to external factors.

French, Kast and Rosenzweig (1985) stated that the challenge is to minimize distress and maintain eustress. They pointed out that the conditions of organizational life create a series of paradoxes that demonstrate the need for balance and equilibrium. (1) Uncertainty - can lead to distress, but so can certainty or over control. (2) Pressure - can lead to distress, but so can limbo or lack of contact. (3) Responsibility - can lead to distress, but so can lack of responsibility or insignificance. (4) Performance - evaluation can lead to distress, but so can lack of feedback concerning performance. (5) Role ambiguity - can lead to distress, but so can job descriptions that constrain individuality. The role of management becomes one of maintaining an appropriate level of stress by providing an optimal environment, and “by doing a good job in areas such as performance planning, role analysis, work redesign / job enrichment, continuing feedback, ecological considerations and interpersonal skill training”.

Halpin and others (1985) hypothesized that locus of control was related to teacher stress. Results show that the teachers who felt they were in control reported less stress in job related situation than did those who did feel influential in their educational environment.

Santangelo and Lester (1985) investigated whether job satisfaction of public school teachers was related to subjectively perceived stress and to the belief in an external locus of control. Twenty one male and 24 female teachers (mean age 36 years) who had taught for an average of 10.4 years completed Rotter’s Internal-External Locus of control scale, a measure of subjective perceived stress and a job dissatisfaction scale. Results indicated that job dissatisfaction was related to belief in external locus of control for males but not for females and that job dissatisfaction was related to subjectively perceived stress for females but not for males. Psychological variables were found to be stronger correlates of job dissatisfaction than demographic and moonlighting variables.

The Journal of Educational Research (1985) revealed that the teacher characteristics have been identified as an important factor in understanding teacher
stress; little research has been done in this area. Previous research by the authors indicated a possible relationship between susceptibility to stress and pupil control orientation. This study investigated the bivariate and multivariate relationships between pupil control orientations, five dimensions of teacher stress, sex and age. Subjects were 130 full-time teachers from three states. Bi-variate analyses indicated that an authoritarian orientation was significantly related to higher scores on four of the five stress factors. No significant relationship existed between sex and the five stress factors, although female teachers tended to have a more humanistic orientation. Age was significantly related to two stress factors. In the multivariate analyses, after group instruction was entered, none of the other stress factors affected a significant increase in the multiple correlations, although sex did.

Weiss and Simson (1985) expressed that one would suspect that the behavioral and neuro-chemical impact of an acute stressor would be exacerbated by repeated exposure to the stressor. However, some stressor-induced behavioral, neurochemical, and immunological disturbances in rats and mice may be mitigated by prolonged stressor exposure.

Maslach, Jackson and Schwab (1986) conducted research in the U.S.-affiliated Pacific entities also supports this relationship. In general, educators in all ten Pacific entities experienced less occupational stress and burnout, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory, than educators in the continental U.S.

Misra (1986) conducted a study on secondary teachers and found that stress had become a basic characteristic with teachers and burnout becomes their apparent reaction. She found that a) age difference was significant with respect to stress of teachers; b) stress was positively related to burnout with respect to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and c) there was a negative relationship between meaning in life and stress variable measured by tests as well as self-reporting items.

Maes et al. (1987) found that stress as a “state of imbalance within a person, elicited by an actual or perceived disparity between environmental demands and the person’s capacity to cope with these demands”.

Dworkin (1988) surveyed 291 urban public school teachers on their experiences of stress and victimization associated with teaching. Subjects indicated the level of stress surrounding several issues, including salary, teaching load and student discipline and rated frequency of violent acts such as theft of assault at school.
Friesen and Sarros (1989) assessed 128 school based administrators (Principals and assistants) and 635 teachers in Canada for the extent to which overall work stress, job satisfaction, role clarity, and job challenge were significant predictors of burnout. These variables represented both the stressors and motivators. Results showed that overall work stress and satisfaction with work load were the major predictors of burnout.

Himle (1989) examined the buffering effect of Emotional Support (ES) among 399 Norwegian and 639 American social workers. Subjects completed a questionnaire measuring indices of job satisfaction, burnout supervisor support, job related stress and mental health problems. Data support previous findings that supervisor and co-worker emotional stress is associated with lower level of burnout, job dissatisfaction and mental health strains. However there was little evidence of buffering effects of emotional support on mental health strains and work stress in either sample.

Houghton (1989) investigated the relationships between organizations, personal variables and the ability to combat stress among 168 teachers in Northern Ireland. The effects of stress were assessed using the general health questionnaire and the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Although respondents felt generally positively toward teaching considerable work related stress was reported. Stressors included having too little time in which to do their work and meeting the emotional demands of students. Stress in teachers’ personal lives was reported less frequently than was stress related to work. Subjects who reported stress from financial difficulties and fear of losing their job were more likely to report mild psychotic morbidity and burnout.

Larrocco (1989) assessed the perceptions of 86 physicians 40 dentists and 94 nurses working in the same hospital on variables relevant to stress and well being (WB). The model incorporated job characteristics, job strain, job attitudes, Social Support (SOS), personal characteristics and health outcomes. Physicians reported greater satisfaction professional orientation and psychological well being. Dentists reported the most social support from their peers and significant others more qualitative workload demands and greater ability to predict job events, where as nurses reported the most control over others influence on decisions, self determination on the job and understanding of events occurring in the work environment.
Latha (1989) found in a study conducted on 391 classroom teachers, that stress was a multidimensional concept composed of five factors, (i) feeling of professional inadequacy (ii) principal – teacher professional relationship (iii) collegial relationship (iv) group interaction and (v) job overload.

Richard Dienstbier (1989) questioned the emphasis the GAS places on the role of chronic stress and proposes another model of stress, Physiological Toughening, which focuses on the duration of stressful events. He points out that stressors vary in their durations. Acute stressors are the briefest and often involve a tangible threat that is readily identified as a stressor. Chronic stressors are those of a longer duration and are not readily identified as stressors because they are often ambiguous and intangible. Because chronic stressors have become such a part of modern life, they may be taken for granted and can therefore pose a serious health risk if they are not recognized and properly managed. Physiological toughening is concerned with the third category of stressors, intermittent stressors. Intermittent stressors are the most variable in duration, alternating between periods of stress and calm. If an intermittent stressor is viewed as a challenge, it may improve one's physiological resistance to stress by causing repeated, periodic increases in sympathetic arousal which conditions the body to better withstand subsequent stressors.

Trendall (1989) found many teachers were under physical and mental strain and reported that the most frequent sources of stress were lack of time, large classes, teaching workload and pupil’s misbehavior. There are different factors for the stress of the teachers in general and women in particular. Women teachers have more stressful situations when compared to their male counterparts.

Barbada (1990) stated that plasma lipids dietary intake and self-reported stress and workload were assessed in 14 employees (aged 33-62 years) twice before major work deadlines (high workload, HWL) and once during a quiescent period of work (low workload, LWL). Increases in self-reported stress and workload between HWL and LWL periods were significantly positively associated with increases in plasma total cholesterol. Dietary intake of calories, total fat and percentage of calories from fat were significantly higher during HWL than LWL. The perception of increased stress and workload during a period of HWL is associated with elevated total cholesterol and dietary intake of foods that raise cholesterol levels is also increased.
Berry (1990) found that contact between cultures could be a cause of workplace stress. For teachers who move into unfamiliar cultures, acculturative stress can cause lowered mental health (e.g. confusion, anxiety, depression) and feelings of alienation; those who feel marginalized can become highly stressed.

Cary (1990) summarized research in the field of job relocation stress. Job relocations resemble other commonly regarded stressful life events in that they (1) disrupt daily routines (2) are accompanied by changes in social context (3) provoke feelings of anxiety, uncertainty, loss of control on challenge and (4) activate coping strategies to establish daily routines and to manage aversive feelings. A model is described on important factors (organizational, personal, familial and social) underlying the process of job relocation.

Dewayne (1990) determined the relationships between job satisfaction (JS), Job Related Stress (JRS) and teacher’s perception of principal’s leadership behavior, and determined which factors or sub-scales of the principal’s leadership behavior influenced JS and JRS among teachers. Questionnaires were completed by 166 middle and high school teachers in Florida. The questionnaire provided scores for JRS, JS and leadership behaviour. Principal’s leadership behaviour was significantly related to job satisfaction and job related stress of middle and high school teachers.

Farber (1990) identified the most satisfactory experiences for the teachers were those that made them feel sensitive to and involved with their students and committed to and competent in their jobs. It was further assessed that excessive paperwork, unsuccessful administrative meetings, and lack of advancement opportunities were the sources of stress among the teachers.

Holloway (1990) examined burnout in 108 fulltime child life specialists (aged 22-64 years) to determine whether a relation existed between burnout and role stress (role ambiguity and role conflict). The relationship of individual and organizational variables to the degree of burnout also was examined. Burnout existed for child life specialists but to a lesser degree in human service professions. Role ambiguity was a stronger predictor variable of burnout than role conflict. Organizational variables contributed more to predicting burnout than the individual variables.

Irvin (1990) examined the links between job related stressors and depressive and psycho physiologic symptoms and morale in by New York City teachers. He
found that the level of job strain (frequency of ongoing stressors) was more closely related to psychological distress and low morale that episodic stressors including crimes in which the teacher was victim. Colleague support was related to lower symptom levels and higher morale.

Matthews (1990) examined the potential propensity to burnout in 244 full time adult employees in people oriented occupations within health services, banking, social welfare, industry, education and postal service. Subjects completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory, which assesses 3 conditions believed to be aspects of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment). Subjects also completed the state Trait Anxiety Inventory and Matthews Burnout Scale for employees. Subjects in social welfare tended to experience more burnout that subjects in the other fields studied.

Reddy (1990) after reviewing a large number of related studies in the literature derived that the occupational stress research will be of different types such as (a) correlations between conflict ambiguity and enduring properties of the person such locus of control, need for clarity and higher order need strength, characteristics of the interpersonal relations such as attitudes towards role senders, trust, respect and liking for each sender job characteristics such as variety, autonomy, etc or properties of the organization such as organizational levels. (b) Correlations between conflict ambiguity and such out comes as low self-esteem, depression, job related tension, job threat and anxiety, dissatisfaction with job and life, productivity and various forms of withdrawal behavior. (c) Moderating effects of individual job and situational characteristics on the relationship between conflict / ambiguity and some of the outcome variables.

Wesley (1990) viewed that 63 male and 85 female professionals in the US and 74 male and 106 female professionals in Brazil completed a questionnaire identifying their responses to occupational stressors. The Brazilian cohort reported more stress related disorders than did the US cohort. Anxiety was the disorder reported with the highest frequency for the Brazilian cohort. Results show a distinct cross cultural and cross gender difference between us and Brazilian professionals with regard to the number of serious stress related disorders.
Anisman et al. (1991) viewed that factors that prevent or limit neurochemical adaptation may be associated with behavioral or physiological disorders. For example, some of the behavioral and neurochemical changes associated with chronic predictable stressors are less apt to appear following chronic unpredictable stressors. And he explained that in humans, stressors are typically of a varied nature, are encountered on an intermittent and unpredictable basis, and may be experienced over protracted periods. As indicated earlier, many stressors have secondary effects (e.g., rumination, financial loss, or loss of social support), which are themselves stressful or limit coping abilities. A chronic, intermittent stressor regimen is less likely to lead to neurochemical adaptation and, hence, favor the development of pathology.

David (1991) examined 4 types of social support (emotional, approval, instrumental and information) that co-workers and supervisors offer to clinical social workers to determine the buffering effects at such support on burnout. 399 Norwegian social workers completed a modified version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Informational and instrumental support provided by both co-workers and supervisors had buffering effects from emotional or approval support. Implications of these findings are discussed in terms of the use of informational and instrumental support to moderate burnout, and the organizational use at social support programs to ease the effects of work stress.

Monroe and Simons (1991) opined that with respect to behavioral outcomes, some stressors (e.g., loss of social support) are more likely than others to provoke depressive symptoms, whereas other stressors (e.g., threats or impending stress) are more closely associated with anxiety symptoms.

Srivastava and Krishna (1991) examined the relationship of different levels of perceived occupational stress with performance among technical workers. They found that employees who experienced moderate degree of job stress performed their job most efficiently. It was also observed that low occupational stress correlated positively and high stress correlated negatively with job performance. The findings confirm the inverted ‘U’ hypothesis of stress performance relationship in the industrial context.

Brown (1993) examined that exposure to stressful situations is among the most common human experiences. These types of situations can range from
unexpected calamities (e.g., bereavement, natural disaster, or illness) to routine daily annoyances. Regardless of their degree of severity, however, stressors may promote physiological and behavioral disturbances, ranging from psychiatric disorders to immune system dysfunction. Brown viewed stressful situations as among the most common human experiences. These types of situations can range from unexpected calamities (e.g., bereavement, natural disaster or illness) to routine daily annoyances.

**Gaziel (1993)** stated that “at the school level the increase in stress is reflected in a growing average annual day of teacher absences and a rise in the number of early retirements”.

**Herbert and Cohen (1993)** viewed that regardless of their degree of severity; however, stressors may promote physiological and behavioral disturbances, ranging from psychiatric disorders to immune system dysfunction. Stressful events also may profoundly influence the use of alcohol or other drugs (AODs). For example, the resumption of AOD use after a lengthy period of abstinence may reflect a person’s attempt to self-medicate to attenuate the adverse psychological consequences of stressors (e.g., anxiety). Alternatively, stress may increase the reinforcing effects of AODs.

**Robin (1993)** examined the prediction of occupational stress general life stress and mental health among 108 dentists who completed questionnaires at 2 points in time. In multiple regression analysis, the outcome variables were the dentists self-reported general life stress and mental health. Predictors were locus of control, non-verbal aggressiveness, age, gender, income, hours worked per year social desirability response set and baseline measures of occupational stress and satisfaction with 10 aspect of dental practice. Both dental practice related stress and general life stress were predicted by baseline occupational stress by feeling of lack of respect for practicing dentistry and by dissatisfaction with the amount of professional time available to improve clinical skills. Poorer mental health was predicted by baseline occupational stress by perceived lack at respect for practicing dentistry and by feeling of having too little personal time.

**Bernard and Krupat (1994)** explained that at one time or another, most people experience stress. The term stress has been used to describe a variety of negative feelings and reactions that accompany threatening or challenging situations. However, not all stress reactions are negative. A certain amount of stress is actually
necessary for survival. For example, birth is one of the most stressful experiences of life. The high level of hormones released during birth, which are also involved in the stress response, are believed to prepare the newborn infant for adaptation to the challenges of life outside the womb. These biological responses to stress make the newborn more alert promoting the bonding process and, by extension, the child's physical survival. The stress reaction maximizes the expenditure of energy which helps prepare the body to meet a threatening or challenging situation and the individual tends to mobilize a great deal of effort in order to deal with the event. Both the sympathetic / adrenal and pituitary / adrenal systems become activated in response to stress. The sympathetic system is a fast-acting system that allows us to respond to the immediate demands of the situation by activating and increasing arousal. The pituitary / adrenal system is slower-acting and prolongs the aroused state. However, while a certain amount of stress is necessary for survival; prolonged stress can affect health adversely.

Franken (1994) expressed that stress has generally been viewed as a set of neurological and physiological reactions that serves an adaptive function. Traditionally, stress research has been oriented toward studies involving the body's reaction to stress and the cognitive processes that influence the perception of stress.

Kedjidjian (1995) viewed that stress can lead to problems in the workplace, such as poor morale, job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, lowered productivity and high medical care costs.

Barton, Blanchard and Kickling (1996) conducted a study that retrospectively diagnosed acute stress disorder in a sample of motor vehicle accident victims with PTSD 1–4 months after the trauma similarly found acute stress disorder to be associated with higher rates of pre-morbid mood disorders other than major depression and pre-morbid axis I and axis II disorders. Dissociative symptoms correlate with high levels of anxiety and PTSD symptoms in all studies.

Cooper (1996) explained that all of the body’s rev-up activity is designed to improve performance. But if the stress which launches this activity continues unabated, researchers believe, the human body begins to weaken as it is bombarded by stimulation and stress-related chemicals. As stress begins to take its toll on the body and mind, a variety of symptoms can result. We have identified physical and
behavioral symptoms of stress occurring before the onset of serious stress-related illnesses; these include: insomnia, eating difficulties, breathlessness without exertion, a tendency to sweat with no good reason, frequent intestinal difficulties, loss of sense of humour, constant irritability with people, difficulty with making decisions, suppressed anger, difficulty in concentrating, the inability to finish one task before rushing on to the next and so on. Many of these symptoms are the prelude to more serious illness, in which stress is one of the risk factors. Recent research has shown that the psycho-social or stress risk factors can be found in hypertension, chronic fatigue syndrome, coronary artery disease, mental disorders and a range of other illness; also suppression of immune responses by the stress-related hormones may provide chemical explanations of links between environmental and emotional pressure and susceptibility to diseases.

DeRobbio and Iwanicki (1996) pointed out that teaching can be a stressful occupation. The daily interactions 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.

Marmar et al (1996) viewed that the risk of experiencing both peri-traumatic dissociation and subsequent PTSD may be elevated by common vulnerability factors. A study of rescue workers responding to a freeway collapse after an earthquake, in fact, found that particular personality traits and coping styles increased the risk of both peri-traumatic dissociation and subsequent PTSD.

Hammond and Onikama (1997) explored that 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 have all been identified as factors that can cause stress among school staff. They also revealed that stress has been identified as one of the factors related to teacher attribution and is believed to be a cause of high teacher turnover and absenteeism in parts of the Pacific.

Herman and Cullinan (1997) have suggested that both processive and systemic stressors might activate the HPA axis through distinct but converging neurological circuits. Specifically, processive stressors may primarily activate the
limbic system, a region of the brain comprising interconnected structures that are associated with arousal, emotion, and goal-directed behavior. Conversely, systemic stressors may more directly influence the hypothalamus, a brain structure with multiple regulatory functions that interacts extensively with the limbic system. In the absence of experimental evidence, it seems reasonable to speculate that processive stressors might be more closely associated with increased alcohol consumption than would systemic stressors.

Willner (1997) opined that a regimen of chronic mild stressors may result in an inability to experience pleasure (i.e., anhedonia) similar to that elicited by relatively intense stressors. Thus, even stressors that have modest effects when applied acutely may have pronounced behavioral repercussions when experienced on a chronic, unpredictable basis.

Schulkin et al (1998) viewed that two important caveats must be stressed with respect to the impact of chronic stressors. First, the compensatory neurotransmitter changes associated with repeated stressor exposure vary widely and occur in several brain regions. Not all of these variations necessarily progress at comparable rates or in all species of laboratory animals. Thus, the nature of the pathology associated with a chronic stressor regimen may depend on the specific neurochemical disturbances incurred. Second, the process of coping with chronic stressor exposure creates prolonged and intense demands on neurochemical systems, a condition termed "allostatic load." Sustained and excessive allostatic load may culminate in pathological outcomes. Evaluating the contribution of stressors to behavioral disturbances (e.g., alcoholism) in humans requires large-scale prospective studies assessing the impact of acute and chronic insults, the contribution of coping factors, and allostatic load associated with certain stressor regimens.

DSM-IV (1999) defines mental disorder as a clinically significant behavioral or psychological syndrome or pattern that occurs in an individual and that is associated with present distress (e.g., a painful symptom) or disability (i.e., impairment in one or more important areas of functioning) or with a significantly increased risk of suffering death, pain, disability, or an important loss of freedom. It also must not be merely an expectable response and must represent dysfunction.
Hymie Anisman and Zul Meral (1999) viewed that exposure to stressful situations is among the most common human experiences. These types of situations can range from unexpected calamities to routine daily annoyances. In response to stressors, a series of behavioral, neurochemical, and immunological changes occur that ought to serve in an adaptive capacity. Likewise, the biological changes, if sufficiently sustained, may themselves adversely affect the organism's well-being. Several factors may dictate an individual's response to environmental stressors, including characteristics of the stressor (i.e., type of stressor and its controllability, predictability, and chronicity); biological factors (i.e., age, gender, and genetics); and the subject's previous stressor history and early life experiences.

Hymie Anisman and Zul Meral (1999) expressed that the severity of stress-induced effects may be related to characteristics of the individual coupled with the nature of the stressor. Relevant stressor characteristics include the following: (1) the degree to which stress can be mitigated or eliminated by an appropriate response (i.e., controllability), (2) the predictability of onset of the stressor, (3) the duration or chronicity of exposure (i.e., either acute or over a relatively protracted period), and (4) the timing and frequency of exposure (e.g., intermittent).

Sharma (1999) opined that women and work was an emerging aspect of Human Resource Management. There was also a growing realization that women and work have an additional dimension of home and family. As a result often women have an additional dimension of home and family. As a result often women have to work harder to cope with the multiple roles and demands. He also opined that due to women’s preoccupation with family and childcare responsibilities, career development is affected and this results in role strain and role conflict and sometimes they have to sacrifice career for family. In comparison to their male colleagues they get late promotions, lesser salaries and poor benefits.

Bodrov (2000) viewed on the basis of analysis of the special features of operator performance under extreme conditions, a special form of occupational and psychological stress was determined, i.e., information stress in the operator. The relations between workload and stress are determined, and basic information stressors are indicated. The results of the use of information stress models and the data on personality-related determination of this condition are analyzed. The assumptions on the mental control mechanisms of stress resistance in the operator are suggested.
Jack Mearns and Jill Cain (2003) opined that teaching school is a highly stressful occupation. Consequences of this stress are burnout, physical and emotional distress, and choosing to leave the profession. Research on teacher stress and burnout has largely focused on environmental and contextual factors while ignoring personality characteristics of teachers that may have an impact on relationships between job stress and its consequences. The current study has a cross-sectional self-report design, focusing on teachers' negative mood regulation (NMR) expectancies as predictors of their coping, burnout and distress, in response to occupational stress. NMR expectancies are people's beliefs that they can control the negative moods they experience. Participants were 86 primary and secondary school teachers, who filled out questionnaire measures of teacher stress, NMR expectancies, coping, burnout, and distress. Simultaneous regression analyses showed that higher stress on the job did indeed predict greater burnout and distress. Additionally, stronger NMR expectancies predicted more active coping. NMR expectancies also predicted less burnout and distress, independent of stress level and coping. Believing one could control one's negative moods was associated with more adaptive outcomes for teachers. Results argue for the value of examining individual difference variables in research on occupational stress, in particular negative mood regulation expectancies.

Cameron Montgomery and André Rupp (2005) provided a co-relational meta analysis of 65 independently written or published studies on teacher stress between 1998 and 2003. They measured the relationships between teacher stress and numerous other constructs including coping, burnout, emotional responses, personality mediators, personal support, environmental structure, and background characteristics. A theoretical empirical model of construct relationships investigated across studies was developed and \( n = 2,527 \) co-relational effect sizes were used to estimate the empirical relationships between the operationalized theoretical constructs. Results showed that the strongest association of teacher stressors exists with negatively oriented emotional responses confirming the central role of teachers’ coping mechanisms, personality mediators, and burnout potential according to our model of the stress cycle.

Primm (2005) opined that a person's status in the workplace can also affect levels of stress. While workplace stress has the potential to affect employees of all
categories; those who have very little influence to those who make major decisions for the company. However, less powerful employees (that is, those who have less control over their jobs) are more likely to suffer stress than powerful workers. Economic factors that employees are facing in the 21st century have been linked to increased stress levels.

Neil Mcadam (2006) explained that the literature on new organizational forms commonly stresses the key role of 'collaborative individuals' in delivering the challenging balance of creativity and productivity, vision and focus, openness and decisiveness critical to achieving coherence and responsiveness in the turbulent environment of the 21st Century. This study reports a recent study that considers these requirements as expressed by competing psychological types/brain styles and assesses the impact of stressors within the task environment on the breadth of stylistic repertoire of high-potential managerial aspirants. It finds that stress significantly shrinks stylistic repertoire and, more critically, moves the focus away from creative, collaborative and ambiguity-tolerant styles towards performance-driven, control-oriented, and grounded styles. The implications of this finding for building the strategically coherent but flexible and developmental cultures advocated in the 'new organization' literature are discussed.

Tristan Bunnell (2006) examined that the diverse role and work of public relations practitioners in the growing body of international schools. It examines evidence of ‘role stress’ in the form of the subsets of role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict and role preparedness. Three particular aspects were identified. The role seems prone to change alongside the sudden and unplanned development of the school. An organizational culture of an informal, isolationist and highly individualistic nature seems to exist. The character of personality also seems to be a factor. Possible strategies for managing role stress are then discussed. The overall list of tasks might be cut, and some tasks delegated. A more detailed job description within a planned framework could be produced. A restructuring process within the school might simplify role diversification. These strategies seem to provide a forum for research and partnership for the newly emerging Alliance for International Education.
Chelsea, Piers Steel and Kibeom Lee (2007) proved that sexual harassment (SH) has been identified as one of the most damaging and ubiquitous barriers to career success and satisfaction for women. SH experiences are associated with negative outcomes such as decreased job satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, withdrawing from work, ill physical and mental health, and even symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder. In addition, organizational climate for SH figured prominently in facilitating these occurrences.

Joost Meijer (2007) examined that new demands are imposed by rapid change in the education system; these, in turn, cause stress. Previous studies have suggested that the degree of stress experienced by students is affected by characteristics of education, teachers and the students themselves. The purpose of the study was to identify student and teacher characteristics that determine the stress experienced by students in Dutch secondary education. The sample consisted of 3300 students with an average age of 16 years 5 months (standard deviation of seven months) who entered their first year of secondary education in The Netherlands in 1995. Design and methods students' cognitive ability levels were assessed by means of a cross-curricular skills test. Their level of fear of failure was assessed by means of an achievement motivation questionnaire. Student stress was categorized as experienced study workload and perception of lack of teacher guidance. Data suggested that fear of failure was associated with experienced workload as well as perception of lack of teacher guidance; cognitive ability was associated only with workload. Teaching style, as reported by teachers, was not associated with student stress. Only teachers' age was associated with student stress. Researcher concluded that student support should be differentiated depending on student need - some students may need cognitive support and others emotional support. It may be that if those perceiving a lack of teacher guidance were given support at the socio-emotional level, the possibility of their withdrawal from education would be reduced.

Bakhshi, Sudha and Sandhu (2008) opined that in the scenario of ever rising number of urban married women entering formal workforce; increasing amount of work stress both at home and workplace and its impact on family and home environment, the present study entitled, ‘Impact of occupational stress on home environment: an analytical study of working women of Ludhiana city’ was
undertaken with the objectives to know socio personal characteristics of selected categories of working women and their families; to examine working conditions of selected categories of working women and to analyze the impact of occupational stress on home environment as perceived by selected respondents. The study was conducted in Ludhiana city and a total sample of 150 respondents was selected from three categories of working women namely; doctors, university teachers and bank employees with 50 respondents in each category. Results showed impact of stress on house care and up keep as “pay full attention towards orderliness in home” scored maximum and “my dependency on servants has not changed” scored minimum. Impact of stress on social and leisure life revealed that “going out on holidays” scored maximum and “enjoy meeting social obligation” was least preferred. Impact of stress on miscellaneous work showed that maximum scoring statement was “pay attention towards bill payments, cheques, deposits etc.” and least scoring statement was “keeping an eye over kitchen needs is easy for me”.

Eric Lambert et al (2009) pointed out that there is a large body of literature that strongly suggests that role stress is harmful to correctional staff. Past research has found that role stress is linked to lower job satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, greater job stress and intention to quit. The bulk of the literature has looked at the consequences of role stress; this study examined the potential antecedents of role stress for correctional staff. While controlling for the shared effects of the personal characteristics of gender, age, position, tenure, educational level, race and supervisory status, this study examined whether different aspects of the work environment (i.e. input into decision making, supervision, formalization, integration, job performance and instrumental communication) were linked to role stress using survey data of correctional staff at a Midwestern prison. Ordinary least squares multiple regression analysis indicated that the personal characteristics of position and tenure had statistically significant associations with role stress. Specifically, non-custody staff and staff with higher tenure reported greater role stress that custody staff and staff with less tenure. With regard to the work environment variables, input into decision making, supervision, formalization, integration and instrumental communication all had a significant negative relationship with role stress, whereas job performance feedback did not.
Inge Seiffge - Krenke, Kaisa Aunola and Jari - Erik Nurmi (2009) explained that the interplay between developmental changes in stress and coping during early and late adolescence. Using a longitudinal design, stress perception and coping styles of 200 adolescents in 7 different stressful situations were investigated. Multilevel piecewise latent growth curve models showed that stress perception decreased during late adolescence, whereas active and internal coping increased continuously from ages 12 to 19. Adolescents’ high levels of perceived stress in a particular situation were associated with a high level of active coping but a low level of internal coping in that same situation. Withdrawal was associated with high levels of perceived stress, independent of situation. Developmental changes in individual.

Kirk Chang and Luo Lu (2009) examined that adopting a large-scale questionnaire survey (N = 880), this study examined the influence of occupation on stressors and behaviors in the workplace. Participants from four heterogeneous occupations groups were recruited, namely: high school teachers, shop clerks, factory employees, and civil servants. Analyses indicated that both work stressors and behaviors varied across occupations. These differences were due to two major factors - occupational characteristics and individual demographics. Individual demographics, as well as the occupation itself, had subtle impact on stress formation, absence behavior, intention of quitting job, and work morale. Research findings and their implications to personnel and management policies are discussed. Strategies to alleviate the negative impact of occupational influences are discussed accordingly.
Peter Love, David Edwards, and Zahir Irani (2009) explored that construction professionals are subjected to a plethora of occupational demands that can have a negative effect on their psychological wellbeing. Such demands can have an adverse influence on individual and organizational performance. To investigate the nature of self and social supports and mental health among construction professionals, an exploratory study was undertaken using the Stress and Mental Health Survey. The survey was distributed to construction professionals throughout Australia and 449 responses were received. Analysis revealed that those working for a contracting organization on-site reported higher levels of poor mental health and greater work stress than consultants. Those working on-site also experienced greater levels of self-stress, whereas consultants reported higher levels of self and work support. Work support was a significant predictor of poor mental health for consultants. Good health, however, was predicted by self, situational, and work support, whereas those working for a contractor only self-support predicated good mental health. It is concluded that while supports are essential in the fostering of good mental health, the absence of these supports can have a significant impact on poor mental health.

Yang et al (2009) explained the relationship between Quality of Life and Occupational Stress among Teachers. A cross-sectional study was conducted using cluster sampling. The study population was composed of 3570 school teachers working in 64 primary and middle schools in Heping District in Shenyang, China. A demographic questionnaire, the 36-item Short-Form Health Survey (SF-36) and the Occupational Stress Inventory Revised Edition were employed to collect demographic variables and assess quality of life and occupational stress. Multivariate stepwise linear regression analyses were performed to study the relationship between quality of life and occupational stress. Results: The mean scores for both male and female teachers in this study were significantly lower than those for the Chinese general population for all dimensions of quality of life, except mental health and vitality ($P < 0.05$). Male teachers scored significantly higher than female teachers for physical functioning, bodily pain, vitality and physical health ($P < 0.05$). Age, role overload, role insufficiency, vocational strain, psychological strain, physical strain, recreation and rational coping were significantly associated with both the physical and mental component summaries of the SF-36 ($P < 0.05$). Gender, physical environment and
self-care appeared to be robust indicators of physical health \((P < 0.05)\), while role insufficiency; interpersonal strain and social support were strong indicators of mental health \((P < 0.05)\). Conclusions: In China, teachers have a lower health status than the general population. The quality of life of female teachers is worse than that of male teachers, and deteriorates with age. Occupational stress and strain induce worsening physical and mental conditions for teachers, while coping resources could promote their health. This study suggests that having adequate coping resources, especially social support, in workplaces may be an important factor for improving teachers' quality of life. Moreover, psychological interventions should be set up for teachers, and psychological counseling should be provided to relieve stress and enhance quality of life.

Avi Besser and Yuval Neria (2010) used a follow-up Cross-Lagged-design was used to test the effects of attachment orientations and perceived social support on posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and major depressive disorder symptoms (MDD) in a sample of 135 Israeli students who were evacuated from a university campus located near the Israel-Gaza border in response to increased missile-fire in the area. An internet-based data collection procedure enabled the simultaneous survey of evacuees located up to 40 km from the border at war, both during the fighting and 4 months after the ceasefire. Proximity to the border did not affect levels of PTSD or MDD symptoms, attachment orientation, or levels of perceived social support. Analyses involving Cross-Lagged Panel Correlation (CLPC) path models revealed that Attachment-Anxiety had significant positive effects on PTSD, MDD, and perceived social support. Neither PTSD nor MDD nor perceived social support had any reciprocal follow-up effect on Attachment-Anxiety. These findings underscore the central role of individual trait personality differences in predicting changes in both mental health problems and interpersonal relations over time, following exposure to trauma.

Briana et al. (2010) revealed that prevalence of depression is associated inversely with some indicators of socioeconomic position, and the stress of social disadvantage is hypothesized to mediate this relation. Relative to whites, blacks have a higher burden of most physical health conditions but, unexpectedly, a lower burden of depression. This study evaluated an etiologic model that integrates mental and
physical health to account for this counterintuitive patterning. The Baltimore Epidemiologic Catchment Area Study (Maryland, 1993–2004) was used to evaluate the interaction between stress and poor health behaviors (smoking, alcohol use, poor diet, and obesity) and risk of depression 12 years later for 341 blacks and 601 whites. At baseline, blacks engaged in more poor health behaviors and had a lower prevalence of depression compared with whites (5.9% vs. 9.2%). The interaction between health behaviors and stress was no significant for whites (odds ratio (OR = 1.04, 95% confidence interval: 0.98, 1.11); for blacks, the interaction term was significant and negative (β: -0.18, P < 0.014). For blacks, the association between median stress and depression was stronger for those who engaged in zero (OR = 1.34) relative to 1 (OR = 1.12) and =2 (OR = 0.94) poor health behaviors.

Marie Griffin et al. (2010) pointed out that in an era in which rising costs, shrinking budgets and personal shortages are common, it is increasingly important to provide a positive work situation to ensure worker stability. Research indicates that job burnout is a negative response that is harmful to the employee and to the organization. Depersonalization, emotional exhaustion and feeling a lack of accomplishment at work are all dimensions of job burnout. This study examined the association of job involvement, job stress, job satisfaction and organizational commitment with burnout among correctional staff.

Carmen Binnewies and Sarah Wornlein (2011) applied a within-person perspective to research on creativity at work, this diary study examined daily positive and negative affect (NA) in the morning as well as daily job stressors (time pressure and situational constraints) as predictors of daily creativity. In addition, the general level of job control was investigated as a cross-level moderator in these relationships. Hypotheses were tested in a sample of 90 interior architects (N=326 days) who completed a general survey and two daily surveys over the course of one work week. Hierarchical linear modeling showed that a higher level of positive affect (PA) in the morning as well as an intermediate level of daily time pressure was related to higher daily creativity. Job control moderated relations between daily NA, daily situational constraints and daily time pressure (curvilinear effect) with daily creativity. Our results stress the importance of daily affect and daily job stressors as well as the moderating role of job control for daily creativity at work.
Mark Seery (2011) stated that humans continually face situations that require actions to achieve valued goals with meaningful consequences at stake. Although the pursuit of such goals can be a negatively “stressful” experience, it is not necessarily so. According to the biopsychosocial model of challenge and threat, evaluations of personal resources and situational demands determine to what extent individuals experience a relatively positive (challenge) versus negative (threat) psychological state in this context. Challenge occurs when evaluated resources meet or exceed demands, whereas threat occurs when demands exceed resources. The challenge response thus reflects resilience in the face of potential stress. Because challenge and threat reliably result in distinct patterns of physiological changes, assessing cardiovascular responses in particular can provide valuable insight into underlying psychological processes. Research applying this methodology to individual differences (e.g., self-esteem level and stability and cumulative lifetime exposure to adversity) has implications for understanding how early life experience could contribute to resilience versus vulnerability to potential stress in daily life.

Ritesh Singh and Neeti Rustagi (2011) viewed that birth weight is an important indicator of the survival of a newborn. Among the many maternal factors associated with low birth weight of the infant, physical activity and the job pressure of the women during her pregnancy are the important ones and also less studied. Association between parental occupation and risk of small for gestation age (SGA) births were seen in 8, 16, 310 first singleton live births in Sweden. After adjusting for other factors, several maternal occupational groups involving more job strain had a significantly higher risk of SGA birth. It has been shown that mothers exposed to severe life events during pregnancy have infants with significantly lower birth weight. The probable mechanism of stress-related effects on birth weight may be changes in lifestyle due to the exposure and stress-related dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA) during pregnancy. Production of corticotropin-releasing hormone appears to be stress sensitive; this neuropeptide may play a critical role in the physiological mediation among stressful experiences and work stress and risk of preterm birth or low birth weight. The timing of these exposures is crucial. Typically, the pregnant women reduce their working hours or workloads at the end of their pregnancy, but the experimental data and emerging theory point to the first rather than
the second or third trimester as a crucial period for regulating the relevant fetal hormonal set points, in particular the HPA. A team from University College Dublin, Ireland, examined 676 women who were working at the time of their first prenatal visit and delivered a single baby. Potential risk factors at work were defined as high physical work demands and working long hours (40 hours or more per week). Results showed significant and strong associations between these high physical work demands and low birth weight. Overall, babies born to women who were exposed to at least two of the four occupational risk factors had a nearly five-fold risk of having a low birth weight and a more than five-fold risk of preterm delivery. In India the number of women in work force is increasing. They work till late in the pregnancy to get the maximum maternity leave during the last few days of the pregnancy and early postpartum days to take care of their babies. More research is needed in developing countries to assess the association between job stress during the first and mid-trimester and pregnancy outcome.

2.2.4. Assessment of Stress and Situational Stress

Derogatis (1982) in his review of self report measures of stress concluded that self report measures of stress fall into one of the three categories: (1) those that measures stress stimuli (schedule of recent events, social readjustments rating questionnaire) (2) stress responses (Cornell Medical Index, SCL-90-R, physical symptoms checklists) (3) the transactional process between the person and his / her environment (coping scales, derogates stress profile).

Greenberg (1982) noted four basic approaches to stress measurement. They are self report, performance based measurement, psycho physiological and Biochemical measurement. The self report measures of stress form the major source of information. Heavy reliance placed on self reported measures is because they (1) provide economy of professional effort (2) are brief and cost effective and (3) provide the only date from the person as to how he/she experiences the stress.

Lawrence (1983) revised the teachers’ stress inventory prepared by Pettigrew and Wolf resulting in the 36 items, 9 factors measure. Reliability analyses and divergent groups validation indicated that this revised inventory has a theoretically verifiable factor structure, good internal reliability and support for
construct validity. 9 factors identified were as follows. F1 - Role ambiguity, F2 - Role overload, F3 - Role conflict, F4 - Non participation, F5 - Job satisfaction, F6 - Management style, F7 - Life satisfaction, F8 - Task stress, F9 - Supervisory support.

Quick and Quick (1984) suggested several diagnostic procedures for determining stress levels in organizations. Interviews allow in-depth probing, but they are time consuming and depend primarily on the listening skills of the interviewer. Questionnaires have the advantage of being able to process higher volumes of data, but they often lose the flavor or feel of the responses. Observational techniques (both medical and behavioral) can be either quantitative or qualitative. Quantitative techniques might involve gathering company records, such as the rates of absenteeism, tardiness, turnover and production. Qualitative techniques involve observing workers for signs of stress-related behavior.

Wolf (1984) developed a teacher stresses measure which consisted of 64 items representing 13 factors. It was developed on a sound theoretical base and has undergone some initial. Psychometric analysis work related stress is theorized to wise from three conceptually different sources, resulting in; “task / event stress” – steaming from a variety of specific tasks, teachers perform as part of their teaching duties, “role-related stress” – associated with the degree of congruity between the teachers expectations of his/her teaching role and actual teaching experiences, “work events stress” specific events that teachers experience while performing their duties.

Seidman (1986) developed a 21 item likert scale to measure burnout among public school teachers. The validity of the teacher burnout scale is supported by the results of a factor analysis of data from 365 teachers in which the 4 factors that imaged are consistent with the theoretical construct believed to underlie burnout. The factor analysis determined the subscale of the instrument (1) career satisfaction (2) perceived administrative support (3) coping with job related stress and (4) attitudes towards student. Additional analyses with 490 teachers indicated that the teacher burnout scale has good internal consistency, test-refers reliability, construct and predictive validity.

Keinan (1987) studied the sources and patterns of occupational stress explained by Israeli faculty members partially replicating a study of faculty stress in American Universities 100 faculty members drawn from all Israeli Universities were
asked to fill out a Hebrew version of the questionnaire to measure the degrees of stress resulting from various sources and the overall intensity of stress experienced on the job. Comparison of the responses to the questionnaire revealed a high degree of similarity between the 2 cultures in the patterns of the results. Both the American and the Israelis ranked the sources of stress similarly. The intensity of stress experienced by Israelis however was reportedly lower than that of their American Colleagues.

**Monica (1987)** surveyed 444 secondary school teachers (193 men and 252 women) in Barbados using a 36 item self report instrument on teacher stress and stress management. Individual item means indicated that difficulties associated with classroom instructional and management demands were perceived by the majority of subjects to be the most stressful aspects of their work. Factor analysis and analysis of variance (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. Women reported significantly more stress concerning time management and student behavior factors. Results are related to working conditions and the interaction of professional and family roles.

**Michael (1988)** investigated the internal consistency and split half reliability of the Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) based on data provided by 3,478 teachers from 6 states. It is concluded that the data indicated for both the strength and frequency dimensions that the teacher stress inventory is highly reliable in terms of both its regular and short term length and that the 2 short forms are highly correlated with one another.

**Rolelione (1988)** developed a work stress inventory from data gathered in 4 studies of 1,349 respondents. The inventory examined organizational stress and job risk. Intensity, frequency and composite indices for these scales were bound to have high internal consistency and good test retest reliability. Frequency of organizational stress was moderately related to anxiety, satisfaction with supervision and work and organizational commitment. Frequency of job risk was related to anxiety and satisfaction with work.

**Boyd (1989)** examined whether role ambiguity or role conflict best explained the variance in the level of burnout experienced by 85 full time employed child care professionals aged 9-65 years. Two questionnaires were used (The Maslach Burnout
Inventory and The Role Questionnaire). Role conflict was the strongest predictor of a sense of personal accomplishment while role ambiguity was the strongest predictor of a sense of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Pierce (1989) examined the construct validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) with a sample of 750 Australian 7th – 12th grade teachers. Analyses of teachers responded confirmed a 3 factor structure for the MBI and showed it to be a reliable measure.

Post (1992) expressed that stressful events not only have marked immediate effects but also may influence one's response to later stressor experiences. Such a sensitization effect may be responsible for the high rates of relapse associated with psychiatric disorders, such as depression.

Kazimierz Wrzesniewski and Joanna Chylinska (2007) explained that the relevant literature indicates a lack of measurement techniques for coping styles and strategies with school-related stress. This study presents the procedure of constructing The Coping with School-related Stress Questionnaire (CSSQ), which makes it possible to investigate dispositional as well as situational aspects of coping. Theoretical assumptions are based on the interactive model of coping with stress, which distinguishes styles and strategies of coping with school-related stress. CSSQ consists of 2 forms: Form A is designed to examine coping styles; Form B is designed to examine strategies of coping with school-related stress. On the basis of several factorial analyses three scales of the CSSQ have been distinguished: task, emotion and avoidance coping. The score is assessed for each scale separately. The psychometric coefficients of CSSQ are satisfactory. CSSQ is designed for adolescents, aged 15 - 16. Further research concerning its diagnostic qualities among different age groups needs to be conducted.

2.3. Remedial Program for Stress and Situational Stress

Lazarus (1966) viewed that a more or less comprehensive or integrative approach to stress suggests that persons actively define and shape stressful transactions by means of their cognitive appraisals and the coping responses.

Cox (1977) argued that forms of counseling may enable a teacher to improve his coping skills particularly by altering his perception of his own capabilities and the
consequences of his actions. Effective measures may have to be tailored to the circumstances in which a teacher is experiencing stress.

Katz and Kahn (1978) explored that social support systems seem to be extremely effective in preventing or relieving the deleterious effects of stress. Friends and family can provide a nurturing environment that builds self-esteem, and makes one less susceptible to stress. One study found that government white-collar workers who received support from their supervisors, peers and subordinates experienced fewer physical symptoms of stress. Managers can create nurturing and supportive environments to help minimize job-related stress.

Albrecht (1979) hypothesized that there are eight relatively “universal” factors that come into play when evaluating the balance between stress and reward (job satisfaction) in organizations. These are: 1) workload, 2) physical variables, 3) job status, 4) accountability, 5) task variety, 6) human contact, 7) physical challenge and 8) mental challenge. Each individual has a “comfort zone” for the eight factors. The goal of management is to find the “comfort zone” for each employee that result in optimal performance without producing undesirable side effects. Albrecht’s taxonomy is important because it recognizes the necessity of balance. For example, Taylorism stresses the ideas of maximum output, minimal task variety and continuous supervision. The predicted effect of these imbalances would be stress and a reduction in job satisfaction. Perhaps many of today’s organizational problems with worker stress are the result of the effective application of Taylorism.

Jick and Payne (1980) explained that there are essentially three strategies for dealing with stress in organizations: (1) treat the symptoms (2) change the person and (3) remove the cause of the stress. When a person is already suffering from the effects of stress, the first priority is to treat the symptoms. This includes both the identification of those suffering from excessive stress, as well as providing health-care and psychological counseling services. The second approach is to help individuals build stress management skills to make them less vulnerable to its effects. Examples would be teaching employees’ time management and relaxation techniques or suggesting changes to one’s diet or exercise. The third approach is to eliminate or reduce the environmental situation that is creating the stress. This would involve
reducing environmental stressors such as noise and pollution or modifying production schedules and work-loads.

Warnat (1980) examined the issues of teacher stress during middle age and contended that the way teachers cope with stress in this period depended on their view of stress as either a producer of crisis or a promoter of change.

Forman (1981) explained that awareness sessions presented in a non-threatening environment provide participants with updated information about the nature, signs, causes and symptoms of stress. For example, one stress management training program for school psychologists focuses on the definition of stress, the causes of stress in schools, the frequency of stress and the effects of stress on students and teachers. Following an initial awareness presentation, a more active and participatory component of stress management is often provided to help participants determine, identify and understand the origins of stress. Topics include how to: (1) Recognize stress-producing work events and the corresponding thoughts that they provoke (stressors); (2) Become aware of the effects of such thoughts on one’s physiological and emotional responses; (3) Recognize these physiological and emotional responses as manifestations of stress; (4) Systematically evaluate the objective consequences of stress-producing events at work and (5) Replace self-defeating thoughts that invoke stress.

Aronson (1983) emphasized the importance of cognitive appraisal and re-appraisal. Strategies for changing how one thinks about stressful or stress-producing situations, i.e., cognitive coping strategies are an important component that leads to the reduction or prevention of stress.

Training focuses on several mental techniques:

1. Replacing self-defeating, self-limiting beliefs with more constructive, realistic and empowering ones; learning how to recognize self-doubt in order to coach oneself into changing these thoughts.

2. Identifying Barriers: examining personal values, both work and non-work related and setting goals. Through this technique, roadblocks are identified. With training in other techniques such as time managements, barriers can be overcome.
3. Improving time management and goal setting/prioritization skills: keeping track of how one spends time and adjusting behavior to match identified goals. Activities such as To Do lists, weekly schedules and six month planning calendars help participants focus energy and combat procrastination.

4. Using problem solving techniques: encouraging participants to analyze, understand and deal with problem situations rather than avoiding them, blaming others or feeling helpless.

5. Handling emotions: looking closely at how emotions such as frustration, anxiety and fear contribute to ineffective coping strategies and allowing participants to reassess their feelings and “re-write” effective responses. These constructed responses provide cognitive, emotional and behavioral tools that can be used during stressful situations.

6. Dealing with life changes: developing counseling skills among participants in order to help colleagues deal with stressful events. This includes developing communication skills such as listening and empathy; actively listening as well as communicating one’s thoughts effectively and clarifying one’s personal feelings.

7. Training includes lessons in identifying irrational beliefs and discriminating between things that can and cannot be changed. Skills for changing how one thinks about a situation are an essential part of many interventions.

**Murphy (1983)** suggested that biofeedback and muscle relaxation are effective as part of a work-based stress-management program. In a study of nurses under stress, one experimental group received biofeedback, another received training in progressive muscle relaxation and a control group received self-relaxation training. After three months, the biofeedback group reported increased work energy levels and muscle relaxation group noted a greater ability to cope with stress. Both experimental groups reported successful results more frequently that the control group. In addition, all three groups reported decreased anxiety levels and improved sleep. The results demonstrate that both biofeedback and muscle relaxation are effective relaxation strategies.
Murphy and Lawrence (1984) viewed that worksite stress management studies are compared along dimensions of type of work group, program orientation and format, nonspecific effects, and long-term maintenance of skills and benefits. Methods used in these studies include muscle relaxation, biofeedback, meditation, and cognitive restructuring / behavioral skills training. Findings indicate that these programs offer promise for helping workers cope with stress and exert greater control over physiological and psychological systems that are reactive to stressors. Specific benefits have included reductions in tension, anxiety, sleep disturbances, and somatic complaints. Advantages and potential disadvantages of worksite stress management programs are described.

Seiler and Pearson (1984) revealed that overall work satisfaction was most closely related to higher stress levels. Stress coping techniques included recreational time off, cultivation and maintenance of friendships among colleagues and physical exercise.

Stout and Posner (1984) surveyed 138 subjects in 23-58 age group direct-service workers employed in mental health, mental retardation and physical restoration facilities. The findings of the study indicated highest correlations between stress, role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Role conflict was not significantly correlated with job satisfaction when stress and role ambiguity were partialed out. It was suggested that administrative and supervisor personal in health and human services organizations should design structures, policies and procedures that reduce both the general levels of stress as well as factors contribution to role ambiguity. Role ambiguity can be moderated of buffered by leader’s behavior, particularly the structuring behavior of leaders.

Muhammad (1985) revealed the prevalence of negative linear relationships between job stress and supervisory rating performance.

Arnold and Feldman (1986) viewed that employee stress is directly related to the amount of uncertainty in their tasks, expectations and roles. Managers can encourage employees to search for more information when they are given unfamiliar tasks, or when they are uncertain of their roles. Another way to reduce employee stress is to incorporate time management techniques, as well as setting realistic time schedules for the completion of projects.
Williams and Huber (1986) suggested five managerial actions that can be used to reduce stress in workers. (1) Clarifying task assignments, responsibility, authority and criteria for performance evaluation. (2) Introducing consideration for people into one’s leadership style. (3) Delegating more effectively and increasing individual autonomy where the situation warrants it. (4) Clarifying goals and decision criteria. (5) Setting and enforcing policies for mandatory vacations and reasonable working hours.

Gold (1987) in listing the different causes of teacher burnout (eg.disruptive students, inadequate salaries, community attitudes toward educators), stress reducing techniques suggested that include identifying a teacher’s ability to handle stress, taking inventory of outside activities that argument or reduce stress, identifying classroom situations that cause stress, and changing behavioral responses to the specific stresses.

Golembiewski Hilles and Daly (1987) studied an organizational intervention for human resources staff who became involved in their own stress diagnosis and treatment. Program features include the following activities: (a) listing three things that staffs like about their department; (b) listing three “concerns” that they want to change and (c) discussing the concerns. These steps then resulted in confronting their supervisor with the concerns and developing-through consensus-a career progression plan for the company.

Joshph (1987) explored alternatives for the individual and for the employer for averting occupational burnout. One example is the use of value appraisal by the individual. The burnout victim may seek to increase his/her positive experience with an expression of the values held most dear, keeping in mind that personal choices and the values they imply are essentially under the individuals direct control. It is argued that a clear statement of values by the employees may do much to prevent burnout, as may such simple devices as requiring that employees in high demand jobs use all their vacation days and maintaining a bulletin board as an informal place where staff can gather to share information.

Kyriacou (1987) studied the Teacher Stress and Burnout (TSB), focusing on the definition and models of TSB, reasons for the increase in international concern and measurement of the extent of TSB. Sources of and personality factors
contributing to TSB are noted. Research findings indicate that there are 2 main strategies for coping with TSB (i) direct action which involves positively dealing with the source of stress and (ii) palliative techniques which accept the source of stress but attempt to mitigate the emotional experience of stress that follows.

Maes, Vingerhoets and Van Heck (1987) pointed out that the disparity between environmental demands (e.g. shopping, household chores or job-related demands) and a person’s capacity to cope with these demands (i.e. Handle these tasks within the limited time available). This disparity of demands and available time is common in two-income households (Burke 1986; Lewis and Cooper 1987) and in persons experiencing job-related stress (Pavett 1986). It might be even more applicable to single parents who have no one with whom to share responsibilities.

Rebecca (1987) outlined a theoretical framework for work related stress and suggests assessment tools for practice and research. It is argued that attention tools for practice and research. It is argued that attention has been deflected from the source of stress and focused on the management of stress, placing and unrealistic and unfair burden on individual workers; Moreover, stress management programs have not proven particularly effective. It is concluded that the unique patterns of job stress within a variety occupations must be understood, specific conditions that pose a threat to the well being of workers can then be targeted for preventive action or organizational charge initiatives. The role of schools of social work in developing the knowledge base is discussed.

Jones et al (1988) conducted several studies on the effects of stress prevention programs in hospital settings. Program activities included (1) employee and management education on job stress, (2) changes in hospital policies and procedures to reduce organizational sources of stress, and (3) the establishment of employee assistance programs. In one study, the frequencies of medication errors declined by 50% after prevention activities were implemented in a 700-bed hospital. In a second study, there was a 70% reduction in malpractice claims in 22 hospitals that implemented stress prevention activities. In contrast, there was no reduction in claims in a matched group of 22 hospitals that did not implement stress prevention activities.

Cecil (1990) experimented that the 54 regular elementary and middle school classroom teachers were randomly assigned to one of the following 3 treatment groups coworkers support, stress inoculation training or not treatment control. Self
report data were collected the week prior to treatment control. Self report data were collected the week prior to treatment and 1 week and 4 weeks following termination of treatment, respondents, completed sub-scales of the teacher stress inventory, 5 sub-scales from job stress in the school setting questions as coping skills and were rated on an observational measures. Stress inoculation training was effective in reducing teacher’s self reported stress, while the co-worker support group was not. However neither treatment was successful in changing meteoric manifestations of anxiety in the classroom.

Hammen (1991) revealed that irrespective of the experimental approach, research clearly indicates that stressors, which are usually multidimensional, produce not only immediate actions but also protracted effects secondary to the primary stressor. For instance, stressful experiences are often followed by persistent brooding (i.e., rumination) that may in itself be stressful, and some events (e.g., bereavement) may have secondary effects (e.g., financial burden and loss of social support). Whereas some stressor is effects may diminish over time (e.g., sadness, remorse, or guilt), the effects of other stressors may increase (e.g., financial burden and loss of social support). In addition, the stress response itself may function as a stressor. For example, symptoms of depression induced by stress may lead to interpersonal conflict or, conversely, social withdrawal, further exacerbating depression.

Jerkins (1991) studied stress in the teacher’s environment and examined methods of assisting teacher’s environment and examined methods of assisting teachers with managing stress. Subjects were 124 female school teachers of Kindergarten through grade 12. Three weeks after completing a set of pretest questionnaires, subjects participated in 1 of 2 or 3 hour sessions: an individualized training method and a global approach training method. 83 subjects completed post test questionnaires 3 weeks after the training session concerning their activities in stress management since the training. Results provide data concerning types of stress experienced, sources of stress at work and home effects of stress and burnout, and relative effectiveness of the 2 training approaches in terms of degree of relief, variety and type of methods used and degree of involvement. Only subjects who received the individual training method significantly increased the time they spend on managing stress.
Malik (1991) tested a lisrel model of teacher stress that used grade level taught and years of teaching experience as independent variables. Perceived stress and life events stress were used as observed indicators of the latent dependent variable teacher stress. Subjects were 166 elementary and secondary public school teachers. Goodness of fit indices indicated a good fit of the proposed model. Grade level taught had a negative effect on teacher stress, whereas teaching experience did not account for a significant portion of the variance in the dependent variables. Results suggest that it might be beneficial to school administrators and others to focus more on possibly strong effect of grade level taught on teacher stress, rather than concerning themselves with alleviating the stress experienced by novice teachers.

Gaziel (1993) proved that lower stress levels could be due, in part, to the strong social networks that permeate Pacific cultures. Thus, a culture’s individualism or collectivism impacts the perception of occupational stress and also the choices of strategies for coping with it. Most stress-prevention and stress-reduction programs have been developed for Western societies. One direct approach that helps individuals improve their situational coping skills includes assertiveness training, which encourages workers to confront their superiors about their concerns.

Lazarus (1993) studied in humans support the view that stressor controllability may be fundamental in determining the stress response, despite the fact that in a great number of instances, control is actually illusory. Rather than assessing stressor controllability, researchers may find it more profitable to consider the specific coping mechanisms that are available to the individual. Broadly speaking, coping can be subdivided into several subtypes, including emotion-focused coping (e.g., emotional expression, emotional containment, blame, avoidance, denial, and passivity); problem-focused coping; social support; cognitive restructuring; and problem-solving.

Landsbergis and Vivona-Vaughn (1995) evaluated an intervention designed to reduce work-related stress in a large and growing public health agency. During a series of meetings with a facilitator, participants discussed their stressors; developed proposals and action plans to reduce the stressors; provided feedback to the other employees and encouraged and assisted management in implementing change to decrease stressful work-based situations.
Abouerie and Reda (1996) identified sources of stress and consequent stress levels in university academic staff, identified the coping strategies used by staff, and examined the relationship between stress levels and job satisfaction. Using the Life Stress Scale, 305 male and 109 female staff was asked to specify the 5 main causes of stress in their lives in general and at work. Ss rated work as the most significant cause of stress in their lives, and conducting research was the main cause of stress at work. 74.1% and 10.4% of the Ss fell into the moderate and serious stress categories, respectively, but there were no significant differences between genders in stress levels. There were significant differences between the 4 academic rank groups in stress levels, with lecturers as the most stressed group. SS indicated they use a wide range of coping strategies. There was a negative significant correlation between stress and job satisfaction.

Bunce and West (1996) explored that once causes of stress have been recognized and identified, preventative measures can be taken. They demonstrated that participants can become empowered through various stress-management activities. After helping employees identify primary stressors, employers can provide training in counseling skills to those staff members are able to offer support and guidance to colleagues who are facing difficulties at work.

Van der Hek and Plomp (1996) viewed that there are many occupational stress management programmes available which are designed to prevent and cure the negative aspects of job-stress. The focus of the programmes can be directed towards the individual worker, the working group, the organization of the work or the organization as a whole. Moreover, programmes show a considerable variation with respect to the type of interventions they promote and their underlying assumptions, as well as their duration and costs. In this paper, effect studies of occupational stress programmes published between 1987 and 1994 are reviewed. The aim is to give a practical overview of the variety in occupational stress programmes, their scope, applicability and the evidence of their effectiveness.

Cary Cooper and Sue Cartwright (1997) explored a range of sources of workplace stress and a three-prong intervention strategy for managing pressures at work. The three approaches highlighted are primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention interventions. Primary is concerned with stressor reduction, secondary
with stress management and tertiary with remedial support. In addition, a number of wider policy issues are suggested, such as risk assessment, economic incentives, and specific measures to help small- and medium-sized workplaces in managing workplace stress.

Ravindran et al. (1997) assumed that emotion-focused coping is a relatively ineffective strategy, whereas social buffeting, problem-solving, and cognitive restructuring may be more efficacious. To some extent, this conclusion is based on findings that depressed patients, relative to control subjects, tend to favor emotion-focused coping and revert to a more problem-focused strategy with successful treatment. Although emotion-focused coping can be ineffective and even counterproductive, the effectiveness of a strategy may depend on the specific stressor regimen. A given strategy may be ineffective under one set of conditions but be highly effective under another. Ultimately, the abilities to maintain flexibility and be prepared to use different strategies may be the hallmark of effective coping.

Antoni et al. (2001) tested effects of a 10-week group cognitive-behavioral stress management intervention among 100 women newly treated for Stage 0-II breast cancer. The intervention reduced prevalence of moderate depression (which remained relatively stable in the control condition) but did not affect other measures of emotional distress. The intervention also increased participants' reports that having breast cancer had made positive contributions to their lives, and it increased generalized optimism. Both remained significantly elevated at a 3-month follow-up of the intervention. Further analysis revealed that the intervention had its greatest impact on these 2 variables among women who were lowest in optimism, at baseline. Discussion centers on the importance of examining positive responses to traumatic events - growth, appreciation of life, shift in priorities, and positive affect—as well as negative responses.

Kitty Kwakman (2001) proved that the job Demand-Control model was used to study the quality of working life of Dutch secondary teachers. The Job Demand-Control model of Karasek is a theoretical model in which stress and learning are both considered as dependent variables which are influenced by three different task characteristics: job demands, job control, and social support. This model was tested for Dutch secondary teachers (n = 542). Results shed light on the relationship between
stress and learning, on the one hand, and the effects of task characteristics on work stress and on work-based learning, on the other hand. It is concluded that the relationship between stress and learning is mediated by the amount of job control as the model predicts. However, the results also reveal that the Karasek model is better suited for explaining stress than for explaining learning. To explain work-based learning variables other than task characteristics have to be taken into account.

**Van der Klink et al. (2001)** examined quantitative meta-analysis sought to determine the effectiveness of occupational stress-reducing interventions and the populations for which such interventions are most beneficial. Forty-eight experimental studies (n = 3736) were included in the analysis. Four intervention types were distinguished: cognitive-behavioral interventions, relaxation techniques, multi model programs, and organization-focused interventions. A small but significant overall effect was found. A moderate effect was found for cognitive-behavioral interventions and multimodal interventions, and a small effect was found for relaxation techniques. The effect size for organization-focused interventions was non-significant. Effects were most pronounced on the following outcome categories: complaints, psychological resources and responses, and perceived quality of work life. They concluded that stress management interventions are effective. Cognitive-behavioral interventions are more effective than the other intervention types.

**Stephen Auerbach (2002)** argued that stress management and coping studies in the health care setting have not been sufficiently theoretically grounded. In particular, in formulating and evaluating intervention strategies, researchers have not adequately taken into account the nature of the stressor under study in terms of the degree to which it poses emotion-focused versus problem-focused coping demands for the individual. This theme is explored in examination of research in five essential areas: (a) effectiveness of problem- versus emotion-focused coping strategies, (b) effectiveness of interventions, (c) the role of individual difference variables, (d) timing of interventions, and (e) evaluation of treatment impact.

**Deborah et al. (2003)** explained that a stress and coping perspective is used to outline the processes that determine employee adaptation to organizational change. A theoretical framework that simultaneously considers the effects of event characteristics, situational appraisals, coping strategies, and coping resources is
reviewed. Three empirical investigations of organizational change that have tested various components of the model are then presented. In the first study, there was evidence linking event characteristics, situational appraisals, coping strategies and coping resources to levels of employee adjustment in a sample of pilots employed in a newly merged airline company. In a more focused test of the model with a sample of employees experiencing a restructuring process in their organization it was found that the provision of change-related information enhanced levels of efficacy to deal with the change process which, in turn, predicted psychological wellbeing, client engagement, and job satisfaction. In a study of managers affected by a new remuneration scheme, there was evidence to suggest that managers who received change-specific information and opportunities to participate in the change process reported higher levels of change readiness. Managers who reported higher levels of readiness for change also reported higher levels of psychological wellbeing and job satisfaction. These studies highlight ways in which managers and change agents can help employees to cope during times of organizational change.

Konstadina Griva and Katherine Joekes (2003) viewed that the relationship between the components of the Karasek model and burnout, somatic complaints and job satisfaction in teachers. Questionnaires were collected from 166 teachers from six secondary schools in the greater London area. The European reference group consisted of 2017 teachers from 10 other countries who participated in the EUROTEACH Project. Regression analyses show that of the Karasek components, job demands was the most consistent predictor for the study outcomes, whereas control and social support appeared to have less predictive power. The inclusion of other job aspects (e.g. physical exertion, environmental risks, and job meaningfulness) significantly added varying degrees to the explained variance of the outcomes. The addition of coping strategies marginally adds to overall explained variances of the burnout components. The UK teachers were considerably worse off than their European colleagues on all outcome measures, and the majority of the predictor variables. They appear to use different coping strategies, work under worse conditions and report lower levels of psychological and physical well-being.

Pinheiro et al. (2003) explained that Coping represents the way people commonly react to stress. These reactions are related to personal factors, situational
demands and available resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, measures of general coping rarely fully contemlate situational factors. Coping measures in occupational settings should take into account available resources, should be easy to answer and fulfill all psychometric criteria. The objective of this work was (1) to translate and to adapt to Portuguese an occupational coping scale and (2) to investigate its psychometric characteristics through factor analysis and its relationships with measures of social support, work overload and emotional exhaustion. Three hundred ninety seven office workers (x = 37.9; sd = 9.7) answered in their workplace the proposed occupational coping scale and measures of social support, work overload and emotional exhaustion. Factor analyses showed three factors that explained 29.6% of the total variance. The results gave support to the criterion validity and reliability of the translated occupational coping scale.

David Hoza (2005) explained that situational stress is different than clinical stress. Interestingly, the stress situation can begin to dissipate when we get across the road, and get back to what we are doing, or it can stay in our minds, continuing to activate stress hormones and tensing muscles, for much longer. In the second scenario, the drama created by the anxiety-or remembered-may be so strong that our way of managing it may take us into entirely new paths. This may not be a bad thing, but to manage stress by continually diverting attention to fixing every external may not be feasible. Having a quick and efficient process that identifies the stressor, relaxes the body, and returns the mind to priority by choice rather than by reaction may be an emotionally intelligent practice.

Patrik Manzoni and Manuel Eisner (2006) explained that stress of police officers is assumed to be one of the causes for an increased use of force, but to date, very few studies have tested this relationship empirically. This study examines influences of perceived work-related stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and burnout on the use of force by police officers in Zurich, Switzerland (n = 422). A new approach is developed by including the officer’s routine activities (herein referred to as job profile) and victimization experiences as two situational controls and by capturing a continuum of self-reported force used in typical operational situations. Although bivariate results show significant relationships between use of force and work stress, job satisfaction, commitment, and burnout, multivariate analyses using structural equation models show no influence of stress-
related factors on the amount of force. The job profile remains the only predictor of police use of force, whereas victimization is strongly correlated with use of force.

Gerry Larsson et al. (2007) discussed that theoretical understanding of indirect leadership in a severely stressful peacekeeping context, focusing on the perspective of subordinates. Peacekeeping missions in recent decades have led to increased exposure to acute danger. Design/methodology/approach – Retrospective in-depth interviews were carried out with 17 Norwegian officers and soldiers, who were involved in the handling of a violent riot in Kosovo during a peacekeeping mission. The interviews were analyzed using a grounded theory approach. Findings – A model emerged with three categories: Situational Characteristics, Organizational Characteristics, and the Commander's Intent. A related core category was labeled Subordinates' Appraisal or Sense making. During the climax of the riot, a strict following of the ordinary chain of command was impractical. Local initiatives at lower organizational levels were needed, but these, in turn, required competence and a trustful organizational environment. Research limitations / implications: Not representative of the entire population. Given the male-dominated military context under consideration, there could be no meaningful analysis of possible gender-related differences. The results related to a general model of indirect leadership and specific stress. Organizational theory-related additions and limitations are suggested. Practical implications – The proposed model may be a practical tool for management education. Originality/value – The study's identification of key aspects of indirect leadership in severely stressful contexts is a useful addition to the literature.

Kazimierz Wrzesniewski and Joanna Chylinska (2007) revealed that the relevant literature indicates a lack of measurement techniques for coping styles and strategies with school-related stress. This study presents the procedure of constructing The Coping with School-related Stress Questionnaire (CSSQ), which makes it possible to investigate dispositional as well as situational aspects of coping. Theoretical assumptions are based on the interactive model of coping with stress, which distinguishes styles and strategies of coping with school-related stress. CSSQ consists of 2 forms: Form A is designed to examine coping styles; Form B is designed to examine strategies of coping with school-related stress. On the basis of several factorial analyses three scales of the CSSQ have been distinguished: task, emotion
and avoidance coping. The score is assessed for each scale separately. The psychometric coefficients of CSSQ are satisfactory. CSSQ is designed for adolescents, aged 15 - 16. Further research concerning its diagnostic qualities among different age groups needs to be conducted.

Samuel Salami (2007) examined the effectiveness of cognitive-behavioral therapy in managing stress among some trainee-teachers of a College of Education in Kwara State, Nigeria. The seventy-two participants employed for the study were randomly assigned into two experimental groups and a control group based on their high scores on an occupational stress scale. All the participants were administered the stress, depression, state and trait anxiety scales before and after treatment. The students in experimental group one received cognitive-behavioral therapy, those in experimental group two received relaxation training alone while the control group had none. Treatment lasted six weeks of twelve sessions. The post treatment scores of the students on stress, depression, state and trait anxiety were subjected to 3×2 ANOVA and Scheffe Test using pretest scores as covariates. The results indicated that the two experimental groups had significant reductions in their levels of stress, depression, state and trait anxiety than the control group after treatment. The two experimental groups maintained their reductions from post treatment level to follow-up after twelve weeks but not the control group. The therapeutic implications of the findings for treating stress and other related problems were discussed.

Gajendiran et al. (2008) explained that telecommuting is another way organizations can help reduce stress for their workers. Employees defined telecommuting as "an alternative work arrangement in which employees perform tasks elsewhere that are normally done in a primary or central workplace, for at least some portion of their work schedule, using electronic media to interact with others inside and outside the organization". One reason that telecommuting gets such high marks is that it allows employees more control over how they do their work. Telecommuters reported more job satisfaction and less desire to find a new job. Employees that worked from home also had less stress, improved work/life balance and higher performance rating by their managers.

Lisa Vizer, Lina Zhou and Andrew Sears (2009) expressed that Monitoring of cognitive and physical function is central to the care of people with or at risk for
various health conditions, but existing solutions rely on intrusive methods that are inadequate for continuous tracking. Less intrusive techniques that facilitate more accurate and frequent monitoring of the status of cognitive or physical function become increasingly desirable as the population ages and lifespan increases. Since the number of seniors using computers continues to grow dramatically, a method that exploits normal daily computer interactions is attractive. This research explores the possibility of detecting cognitive and physical stress by monitoring keyboard interactions with the eventual goal of detecting acute or gradual changes in cognitive and physical function. Researchers have already attributed a certain amount of variability and “drift” in an individual's typing pattern to situational factors as well as stress, but this phenomenon has not been explored adequately. In an attempt to detect changes in typing associated with stress, this research analyzes keystroke and linguistic features of spontaneously generated text. Results show that it is possible to classify cognitive and physical stress conditions relative to non-stress conditions based on keystroke and linguistic features with accuracy rates comparable to those currently obtained using affective computing methods. The proposed approach is attractive because it requires no additional hardware, is unobtrusive, is adaptable to individual users, and is of very low cost. This research demonstrates the potential of exploiting continuous monitoring of keyboard interactions to support the early detection of changes in cognitive and physical function.

American Academy of Dermatology (2010) suggested the following strategies for Stress Management are; Managing stress is all about taking charge: taking charge of thoughts, emotions, schedule, environment and the way deal with problems. The ultimate goal is a balanced life, with time for work, relationships, relaxation and fun – plus the resilience to hold up under pressure and meet challenges head on. Identify the sources of stress in your life. To identify your true sources of stress, look closely at your habits, attitude and excuses: Start a stress journal – A stress journal can help to identify the regular stressors in life and the way to deal with them. Each time you feel stress, keep track of it in your journal. As you keep a daily log, you will begin to see patterns and common themes. Write down: What caused your stress (make a guess if you’re unsure). How you acted in response. What you did to make yourself feel better. Look at how you currently cope with stress. Think about
the ways you currently manage and cope with stress in your life. Dealing with
Stressful Situations: The Four A’s – Change the situation: Avoid the stressor and
Alter the stressor. Change your reaction: Adapt to the stressor and accept the stressor.
They suggested certain stress reduction strategies such as;

- **Stress management strategy # 1**: Avoid unnecessary stress – Learn how to say
  ‘no’ – Avoid people who stress you out – Take control of your environment –
  Avoid hot-button topics – Pare down your to-do list.

- **Stress management strategy # 2**: Alter the situation – Express your feelings
  instead of bottling them up – Be willing to compromise – Be more assertive –
  Manage your time better.

- **Stress management strategy # 3**: Adapt to the stressor – Reframe problems –
  Try to view stressful situations from a more positive perspective – Adjust your
  standards – Focus on the positive – Adjusting your attitude.

- **Stress management strategy # 4**: Accept the things you can’t change – Don’t
  try to control the uncontrollable – Look for the upside – Share your feelings –
  Learn to forgive – Accept the fact.

- **Stress management strategy # 5**: Make time for fun and relaxation; Healthy
  ways to relax and recharge; Go for a walk; Spend time in nature; Call a good
  fried; Sweat out tension with a good workout; Write in your journal; Take a
  long bath; Light scented candles; Play with a pet; Work in your garden; Get a
  massage; Watch a comedy; Listen to music; Curl up with a good book; Savor a
  warm cup of coffee or tea; Set aside relaxation time. Include rest and relaxation
  in your daily schedule. Connect with others. Spend time with positive people
  who enhance your life. A strong support system will buffer you from the
  negative effects of stress. Do something you enjoy every day. Make time for
  leisure activities that bring you joy, whether it be stargazing, playing the piano,
  or working on your bike: Keep your sense of humor. This includes the ability to
  laugh at yourself. The act of laughing helps your body fight stress in a number
  of ways. Learn the relaxation response.

- **Stress management strategy # 6**: Adopt a healthy lifestyle- Exercise regularly;
  Eat a healthy diet; Reduce caffeine and sugar; Avoid alcohol, cigarettes and
  drugs; Get enough sleep; Stress Reduction Techniques: Don’t skimp on sleep;
Adequate sleep reduces stress and gives skin time to rejuvenate; Pace yourself; Think calm; Free your mind with a relaxation technique; Deep breathing, progressive relaxation, visualization, yoga, meditation or listening to a relaxation CD can help; Write away your worries; Research shows that taking 15 minutes each day to write down your concerns is an effective stress management technique. Participate in a hobby; Doing something you enjoy can enhance your mental, emotional and physical well-being. Get a pet. Pets reduce stress for many. Make time for yourself every day. Join a support group.

Charles Carver & Jennifer Connor-Smith (2010) viewed that personality psychology addresses views of human nature and individual differences. Biological and goal-based views of human nature provide an especially useful basis for construing coping; the five-factor model of traits adds a useful set of individual differences. Coping responses to adversity and to the distress that results is categorized in many ways. Meta-analyses link optimism, extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to more engagement coping; neuroticism to more disengagement coping; and optimism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness to less disengagement coping. Relations of traits to specific coping responses reveal a more nuanced picture. Several moderators of these associations also emerge: age, stressor severity, and temporal proximity between the coping activity and the coping report. Personality and coping play both independent and interactive roles in influencing physical and mental health. Recommendations are presented for ways future research can expand on the growing understanding of how personality and coping shape adjustment to stress.

Joanna Clare Gamble, Christina Maree Bava and Mark Wohlers (2010) found that stress triggers frequently experienced by relatively affluent working mothers of young children, to explore the situational context surrounding the various coping strategies used and to assess the value of foods specifically targeted at affecting stress (i.e. "mood foods"). Women with young children were selected as the focus because the greater dependency of young children creates the potential for significant work-family conflicts. A two-staged study explored the stressors that mothers with young children encounter and identified their means of coping. Some common coping strategies were viewed positively as behaviours the women wished to
retain, but other strategies such as crying, yelling/shouting or drinking alcohol involved behaviours with which they were less happy. Time restraints limited the choice of coping strategy.

Getting a massage provides deep relaxation, and as the muscles in body relaxes, so do over-stress mind. And you don’t have to visit the spa to enjoy the benefits of massage. There are many simple self-massage techniques you can use to relax and release stress (Northwestern Health Sciences University, 2010 and American Massage Therapy Association, 2010).

Scarlett O’hara (2010) suggested that to overcome stress is; knowing yourself and your limits may be the most important way to manage stress effectively. Dare to say no. One more little thing may be the “straw that breaks the camel’s back”. It’s okay to say “No”, “I can’t”, or “Later”. Acquit yourself. Sometimes events really are out of control and you really are “Not Guilty”. Quit blaming yourself. When you need help, get help and Other ways- Get a good night’s rest, Eat healthily, Listen to your favorite music, Exercise, participate in a sport or engage in fun activity. Plan out your time and prioritize, Talk to a friend about your problems, don’t hold it in, Get a massage, Take a nap, Take a warm bath and Read a book or watch TV.

Yashwanth (2010) opined that the worker characteristics that can cause job stress may include (1) A Need to be in Control: The worker feels a need to be in control at all times, the worker views lack of control as a sign of weakness, the worker has difficulty delegating assignments to others, the worker avoids showing signs of weakness or nervousness. (2) A lack or Perceived lack of Competence: The worker feels his or her work is inferior compared to others, the worker feels he or she makes poor judgments, the worker feels a lack of common sense, the worker feels doubts about his or her competence and ability to do the job. (3) A Desire to Please People: The worker relies on favorable opinions and input from others as a basis for building self-esteem, the worker fears he or she may disappoint others, the worker cares more about others' needs than his or her own, the worker avoids communications and actions that would displease others. (4) A Need to be perfect (Perfection): The worker feels under pressure to achieve, the worker is highly self-critical, the worker feels a job well done could have been done even better.
American Journal of Public Health (2011) explained that stress can initiate change, help us focus on the task at hand, and in some cases even save our lives. The first tip in managing stress is to recognize your stressors. The next step is to put each of them in their place. The following stress management tips, based on some old and some new adages are: Taking a deep breath or two adds oxygen to your system, which almost instantly helps you relax. In addition, taking a moment to step back can help you maintain your composure, which in the long run, is what you need to work rationally through a stressful situation; Stand up and stretch. Remember relaxation is the opposite of stress. Stand up and smile. Try it! You’ll feel better! Take a short walk. If you’re at work, take a bathroom break or get a glass of water. Do something that changes your focus. When you come back to the problem, chances are it won’t seem nearly as insurmountable.

David Chan (2011) explained that the relationships among teacher stressors, active and passive coping strategies, and psychological distress were investigated in a sample of 412 Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. A direct effect, or stress-distress, model and a meditational, or stress-coping, model were postulated and tested with structural equation modeling procedures. For comparison, a direct-and-meditational model and a moderated effect model were also fitted to the data. The results indicated that the meditational model with coping strategies mediating the effects of stressors on psychological distress represented an adequate fit to the data. Implications for the role of active and passive coping strategies in mitigating the effects of stressors on psychological distress and for teacher stress management are discussed.

George Mark and Smith (2011) proved that well-being at work has been shown to be influenced by job characteristics and individual differences in coping styles. This study investigated the relationships between job demands, control, social support, efforts, rewards, coping, and attributional style in predicting anxiety, depression, and job satisfaction in a sample of 307 university employees from the UK. Results were compared to those from a sample of 120 members of the general population. Workplace demands, intrinsic and extrinsic effort, and negative coping and attributional behaviors were associated with high levels of depression and anxiety and low job satisfaction in university employees. Rewards, social support, job control,
and positive coping and attributional behaviors were associated with lower levels of depression and anxiety and high job satisfaction. The study adds to the growing research on university samples by showing that a transactional approach should be adopted. This has implications for interventions and suggests that rather than just trying to change job characteristics one should identify at-risk individuals in this population and help them adopt appropriate positive coping styles.

Meditation that cultivates mindfulness is particularly effective at reducing stress, anxiety, depression, and other negative emotions. Mindfulness is the quality of being fully engaged in the present moment, without analyzing or otherwise “over-thinking” the experience. Rather than worrying about the future or dwelling on the past, mindfulness meditation switches the focus to what’s happening right now. Mindfulness meditation is not equal to zoning out. It takes effort to maintain concentration and to bring it back to the present moment when your mind wanders or start to drift off. But with regular practice, mindfulness meditation actually changes the brain – strengthening the areas associated with joy and relaxation, and weakening those involved in negativity and stress (Mindtool, 2011).

Visualization, or guided imagery, is a variation on traditional meditation that can help relieve stress. When used as a relaxation technique, guided imagery involves imagining a scene in which you feel at peace, free to let go of all tension and anxiety. Choose whatever setting is most calming, whether a tropical beach, a favorite childhood spot, or a quiet wooded glen. Close the eyes and let the worries drift away. Imagine restful place. Picture it as vividly as can - everything can see, hear, smell, and feel. Guided imagery works best if you incorporate as many sensory details as possible-See, Hear, Smell, Feel and Taste (Mindtool, 2011).

Yoga is an excellent stress relief technique. It involves a series of both moving and stationary poses, combined with deep breathing. The physical and mental benefits of yoga provide a natural counterbalance to stress, and strengthen the relaxation response in your daily life. Although almost all yoga classes end in a relaxation pose, classes that emphasize slow, steady movement and gentle stretching are best for stress relief. Look for labels like gentle, for stress relief, or for beginners. Power yoga, with its intense poses and focus on fitness, is not the best choice. If unsure whether a specific yoga class is appropriate for stress relief, call the or ask the teacher. Since
injuries can happen when yoga is practiced incorrectly, it’s best to learn by attending group classes or hiring a private teacher. Once learned the basics, yoga can practice alone or with others, tailoring your practice as see fit (Mindtool, 2011).

Tai chi is a self-paced, non-competitive series of slow, flowing body movements. These movements emphasize concentration, relaxation, and the conscious circulation of vital energy throughout the body. Though tai chi has its roots in martial arts, today it is primarily practiced as a way of calming the mind, conditioning the body, and reducing stress. As in meditation, tai chi practitioners focus on their breathing and keeping their attention in the present moment. Tai chi is a safe, low-impact option for people of all ages and levels of fitness, including older adults and those recovering from injuries (Mindtool, 2011).

2.4. Situational Stress / Personality Patterns

Caplan (1971) holds that under potentially stressful objectives conditions Type A persons are prone to perceive stress in a quite exaggerated fashion such a person is enmeshed in his inexorable torrent of life, creating harsh but unnecessary self imposed deadlines and work standards; making a mountain of urgency and perfection out of a mole-hill of moderate work demands.

Adaval (1973) conducted a study on “Conformity Behavior as related to Anxiety and other Personality Variables”. The objectives of the investigation was to study the relationship of conformity behavior with nine personality factors – anxiety, intelligence, conservatism, conventionality, confidence, dominance, group-dependency, ego-strength and shyness. The sample consisted of 100 undergraduate arts students of Allahabad university -50 boys and 50 girls. The scores in the three tests were combined to yield a behavioral measure of conformity and scores on picture conformity test were taken as an attitudinal measure of conformity behavior. The anxiety level was measured with the help of Sinha Anxiety Scale. Questionnaire by Jabota and Kapoor was used. Product-moment correlations between conformity and each personality variable were calculated. The findings were (1) High level of anxiety, lack of confidence, submissiveness, and group-dependency and low ego-strength were correlated with conformity behavior. (2) Low conformity subjects were confident, dominant, self-sufficient and possessed high ego-strength and a low level of anxiety.
Swinn (1977) points out that Type A patterns of behaviour are learned patterns of behaviour. Type A individuals experience many stresses work load, need for promotion and recognition, deadlines etc. Secondary stress may result when achievement is blocked. He observes that a consequence of Type A behaviour is reinforcement as the individual is likely (a) to advise him or her goal and (b) to reduce the original stress situation. Type A behaviour which are strengthened through reinforcement are themselves stress producing as such individuals tend to put themselves in situations which involve stress because of high level of drive. They then react to this increased stress by displaying those very patterns which have been strongly reinforced. Thus the individual is caught in a vicious circle from which he finds it difficult to extricate himself.

Van Dijkhuizen and Reiche (1980) viewed that study of individuals in the middle management revealed that job ambiguity was the factor with its most negative consequences highly correlated with a high cholesterol level and arterial pressure. The experience as well as the relations between stressors and strain may be influenced by behavioural dispositions (A and B types) and contextual variable. (Company size and hierarchical level).

David (1987) examined perceived organizational variables (Sources of role stress and job characteristics) personality variables (manifest needs, Type A personality and self esteem) and psychological and attitudinal measures of stress in 62 employees from a manufacturing firm. Co-relational data indicate that the job characteristics were generally systematically related to diastolic blood pressures. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the incremental variance accounted for by certain personal characteristics, the personality variables and the organizational variables. Personality factors as a group accounted for significant variance in manifest anxiety. A number of organizational factors and personality variables are accounting for significant variance in each of the dependent measures.

Writh (1988) conducted a Boston women teacher’s group study and concluded that teacher’s feeling about burnout, isolation, job satisfaction and efficacy were rooted in school-based working relations and institutional structures. Teacher stress is an institutionally derived problem, not a result of individual personality failures.
Kagan (1989) investigated the relationships between the cognitive styles of 70 elementary school teachers and the leadership styles they preferred in a school principal and the relationship between teachers scores on the inquiry model questionnaire and their perceptions of occupational stress. Teachers with non analytic and pragmatic cognitive tended to prefer a more process oriented style of leadership while analytic teachers preferred a more task oriented principal. Non analytic teachers appeared to be relatively insusceptible to many source of occupational stress. The more analytic and realistic teachers were, the more they tended to report occupational stress.

Kohan (1989) investigated the interactions between leadership style and the personality variable, locus of control on teacher’s satisfaction. Findings indicated that the leadership dimension of consideration had a significant effect upon job satisfaction of teachers, initiating structure was not supported, although teachers evidently were more satisfied under a superintendent who was structured, and locus of control may be an important factor influencing teacher job satisfaction. Internals had greater job satisfaction.

Mazur and Lynch (1989) viewed that the relationships among the independent variables of the principle leadership style, the school organization and the teachers personality characteristics and the dependent variables of the teacher burnout among 200 public high school teachers showed that (1) leadership style was not a significant predictor of teacher burnout; (2) organizational stress factors such as work overload, social support and isolation and (3) personality were significant predictors of teacher burnout.

Mohapatra (1989) investigated the mental health of primary school teachers. The findings were (1) the school load on a large section of teachers was heavy. (2) their relationship with authority was not good (3) students respected teachers (4) Teachers left that mental health depended on physical health (5) the majority of teacher did part time jobs for more income (6) they expressed the view that a good social environment was necessary for good mental health.

Perrewe et al. (1990) investigated the impact of job demands, personal control, and employee age on somatic complaints (Health strain). The results of the study showed that there were no moderating effects of control on the relationship
between demands and health strain except for elders. They perceived control over their work characteristics, such as amonie, personality type A or B, empathy and self-concept, were significant predictors of teachers’ burnout.

Wilson (1990) collected data from 145 female and 77 male secondary school teachers who completed the Jerkins Activity Survey show that type and behaviour may be related to occupational stress among males. Culture, operating through sex roles may mediate the relating between “Type A” behaviour and stress.

James Walsh et al. (1997) investigated the relationship between individual differences in personality and susceptibility to stress in the workplace. Stress in lecturers employed by a computer training organization was assessed by means of self-report and measurement of salivary cortisol output during lecturing and non-lecturing weeks. Neuroticism, Type A behaviour pattern and locus of control were measured. Self-reported stress was found to be much greater during lecturing weeks, but cortisol levels were unaffected by working conditions. There was a significant positive correlation between neuroticism and locus of control and a negative correlation between locus of control and Type A behaviour pattern that approached significance. Multiple regressions were employed to explore relations between personality and stress. Subjects with lower neuroticism scores yielded a bigger increase in reported stress, in the lecturing compared with the non-lecturing week, than subjects with high neuroticism scores. Type B subjects showed a progressive decrease in cortisol over the working week while Type A counterparts showed a resurgence of cortisol towards the end of the week. Finally, Type B subjects having an internal locus of control showed a faster decline in cortisol level during the lecturing week than the other subjects. Implications of these results are discussed in terms of the importance simultaneously incorporating a variety of individual differences in personality dimensions and stress indices in research designs.

Patricia Hedges (1997) explained that having provided an historical review of the development of theories of personality, author discusses the significant research that has been undertaken in this area. One example is Myers’ work which is important both in terms of the original research and of the production of a questionnaire (type indicator) which has been used in over 40 countries. Using Jung's theory of psychological types and the more recent work of David Keirsey on temperaments,
Patricia Hedges argues that there will be cases where a mismatch between teacher and pupil temperament will exist, with potentially serious consequences. The final section introduces a programme designed to increase self-understanding, heighten awareness and ultimately lead to more satisfactory relationships and to more effective learning and teaching.

Kay Wilhelm, Jodie Dewhurst - Savellis and Gordon Parker (2000) explained that in 1978, teacher trainees who were undertaking a postgraduate teaching diploma at the Sydney Teachers' College were invited to participate in a longitudinal study, and 156 of the original 170 cohort subjects have provided full data on work, social networks and patterns of illness, and completed self-report measures at 5-yearly intervals since 1978. Cohort subjects were divided into 'teaching' groups (those whom stayed teaching) and 'not teaching' groups (those whom left). Results indicate that the majority of the 'not teaching' group left within the first 5 years of teaching, with self-rated social desirability predicting teacher retention in 1983. Those who were still teaching in 1993 were younger and had a more positive view of teaching prior to commencement in 1978, as evidenced by preference to remain in teaching, seeing it as more enjoyable and greater exposure to a positive role model. The cohort seemed to have preconceived ideas about teaching prior to entering into the classroom and these ideas influenced their decision; however, there is still a need to consider personality style when assessing reasons for teacher retention.

Niels Christensen, Cohan and Stein (2004) used Kenny's social relations model to examine the relationship between Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder-related impairment and interpersonal perceptions. Participants were 124 students who had previously completed the Post-traumatic Stress Diagnostic Scale as part of a larger study. After engaging in brief dyadic conversations with 3 other students, participants recorded perceptions of personality traits for themselves, their interaction partners and how they believed their partners saw them (metaperceptions). Results indicated that those with more severe post-traumatic stress disorder-related impairment saw themselves negatively and believed their interaction partners also viewed them negatively. However, these individuals were not seen differently by others, except that they were rated as less dependable. Our findings suggest that post-traumatic stress disorder is associated with negative beliefs about the self that may influence self-esteem and interpersonal relationships.
Elizabeth Scott (2007) opined that many personality traits, such as extroversion, are innate, most researchers believe that Type A personality characteristics are more of a reaction to environmental factors, or tendencies toward certain behaviors, and are influenced by culture and job structure. While many personality traits, such as extroversion, are innate, most researchers believe that Type A personality characteristics are influenced by culture and job structure.

Matthew Prewett et al. (2009) examined that using meta-analytic evidence, this study tested trait- and task-based theoretical approaches to team personality management, using both team behaviors and team outcomes as criteria. Trait theories state that maximization of the team trait is harmful for Extroversion (complementary team fit) but beneficial for Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Emotional Stability (supplementary fit). Task-based theories state that tasks with few work exchanges are best reflected by mean trait scores, whereas tasks with frequent work exchanges are best represented by other types of scores (e.g., minimum score). Correlations between different aggregations of team personality and team performance were coded, as well as the study criterion choice and the pattern of workflow (as moderators). Partial support for both trait and task theories were found. Team Conscientiousness and Agreeableness provided supplementary fit primarily with team behaviors, but there was mixed evidence that Extroversion provided complementary fit. Furthermore, minimum and variance measures of the team trait related to team performance in tasks with frequent work exchanges, but not in tasks with few work exchanges. Results suggest several limitations with existing measurement methods, which are discussed.

Alexandra Alvergne, Markus Jokela and Virpi Lummaa (2010) examined that the existence of interindividual differences in personality traits poses a challenge to evolutionary thinking. They showed that personality dimensions predict reproductive success differently in men and women in such societies and, in women, are associated with a trade-off between offspring quantity and quality. In women, neuroticism positively predicts the number of children, both between and within polygynous families. Furthermore, within the low social class, offspring quality (i.e., child nutritional status) decreases with a woman’s neuroticism, indicating a reproductive trade-off between offspring quantity and quality. Consistent with this, maximal fitness is achieved by women at an intermediate neuroticism level. In men,
extraversion was found to be a strong predictor of high social class and polygyny, with extraverted men producing more offspring than their introverted counterparts.

**Chandraia (2010)** studied in the field of teachers stress how that the greater part stress is associated with the rapid pace of changes in education, particularly in 1980s and 1990s. Teaching profession is generally considered as a noble profession with lots of expectations form the parents towards their children’s education and the development of their personalities. These expectations may also contribute as a source of stress. Chandraia concluded that the increased demands of the job, the reported attribution rates and issues related to occupational stress should not be surprising, but what needs investigation is the nature of the relationships between job satisfaction and occupational stress among teachers.

**Dana Anaby (2010)** opined that one of the key factors for promoting well-being lies in balancing one’s daily life occupations and the nature of these occupations. Occupation refers to a group of everyday life goal-directed activities which may be associated to any life domain, not necessarily work, such as leisure, education, or self-care. Yet it is not clear what constitutes occupational imbalance, and its association to other factors has not been examined systematically. This study proposed and tested a theoretical model for specifying the structural relationships between occupational imbalance, occupational characteristics, personality and well-being. 288 working adults completed the following questionnaires: Inter-goal Relations Questionnaire (occupational imbalance), Personal Projects Analysis (occupational characteristics), the Big Five Inventory (personality traits) and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (well-being). Twenty-five models were tested using structural equation modeling. All the models fit the data well. Occupational characteristics, with the exception of stress, served as significant mediators between personality and well-being, yet occupational imbalance did not play a significant role across all models. Our findings provide substantial support for the importance of occupation to well-being, however occupational imbalance is still an elusive concept that requires further investigation theoretically and empirically.

**Newbury-Birch and Kamali (2010)** proved that work related stress and anxiety may have a profound effect on an individual’s wellbeing. This study measured stress, anxiety, and job satisfaction and the influence of personality factors on these in
a group of preregistration house officers in the north east of England. A total of 109
preregistration house officers anonymously completed a lifestyles questionnaire
designed to measure self rated psychological stress, state anxiety, job satisfaction, and
personality characteristics. Results showed that 37.5% of women and 24% of men
preregistration house officers suffered from possible psychological stress. Altogether
30.6% of men and 41.7% of women reported to be dissatisfied with the organisational
processes in their job. There were significant negative correlations between stress and
job satisfaction scores ($r = -0.508; p<0.0001$) and significant positive associations
between anxiety and stress scores ($r = 0.593; p<0.0001$). Stress, anxiety, and
depression scores were significantly correlated with neuroticism scores in both men
and women.

2.5. An Overview of Researches Reviewed

An overview of the research reviewed in this chapter reveals the following:

Cox et al. (1970), Pratte (1978), Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979), Tellanback
Brenner and Lofgren (1983), Frese (1985), Murphy (1986), Pierson and
Catherine (1992), Christopher et al. (2006), Elena Nerriere et al. (2009) and
Joseph Lau (2010) have been found the causes, identification, factors, symptoms,
levels and burnout of stress, stress and responsibility, locus control and mental health,
situational condition and personal characters and psychological tension,
environmental factors under the estimation of prevalence of stress and situational
stress in abroad and India.

Regarding characteristics of Stress and Situational Stress researches,
French et al. (1965), Kahn and Quinn (1970), Belk (1975), Dunham (1976),
French et al. (1976), Cooper and Payne (1978), Cox (1978), Piatt (1978),
(1990), Schonfeld (1990), Rothbaum et al. (1992), Carol Gohm, Baumann and
Sniezek (2001), Dominik Bach and Gisela Erdmann (2007), NIOSH Work
Organization (2007), Constantinos Kokkinos and Aggeliki Davazoglou,
Houdmont (2009), Cox and Griffiths (2010) and May-Britt Solem et al. (2011)
have been attempted on qualitative and quantitative work load, classification of role
stress, physical and social characteristics, severe stress, characteristics of environment, managerial stress, effects of stress, perceived stress and mental health, institutional and organizational factors, teacher burnout syndrome, stress and burnout, sources of stress, supervisory behavior, burnouts, occupational coping behavior, symptoms and distress, emotional experience in acute stress and bodily symptoms and stress related disorders in abroad and India.

(1990), Matthews (1990), Reddy (1990), Wesley (1990), Anisman et al. (1991),
(1993), Gaziel (1993), Herbert and Cohen (1993), Robin (1993), Bernard and
Krupat (1994), Franken (1994), Kedjidjian (1995), Barton, Blanchard and
(1996), Hammond and Onikama (1997), Herman and Cullinan (1997), Willner
(1997), Schelkin et al. (1998), DSM-IV (1999), Hymie Anisman and Zul Meral
(1999), Hymie Anisman and Zul Meral (1999), Sharma (1999), Bodrov (2000),
Jack Mearns and Jill Cain (2003), Cameron Montgomery and Andre Rupp (2005),
Primm (2005), Neil Mcadam (2006), Tristan Bunnell (2006), Chelsea, Piers Steel
Eric Lambert et al. (2009), Inge Seiffge-Krenke, Kaisa Aunola and Jari-Erik
Nurmi (2009), Kirk Chang and Luo Lu (2009), Yang et al. (2009), Avi Besser and
Yuval Neria (2010), Briana et al. (2010), Marie Griffin et al. (2010), Carmen
Binnewies and Sarah Wronlein (2011), Ritesh Singh and Neeti Rustagi (2011) in
abroad and India.

Derogatis (1982), Greenberg (1982), Lawrence (1983), Quick and
Kazimierz Wrzeniewski and Joanna Chylinska (2007) have been developed self
report, stress measurement, diagnostic procedure, teacher measurement stress, scale
for burnout, occupational stress, stress and stress management, teacher and stress
inventory, stress inventory, role conflict, burnout inventory, depression and
questionnaires for the assessment and identification of stress and situational stress.

Integrative approaches, coping skills, social supports, stress and reward,
strategies, coping procedures, cognitive appraisal and reappraisal, reappraisal, stress
management, recreation, restoration facilities, rating performance, managerial actions,
reducing techniques, alternatives, stress and burnout strategizes, environmental
demands, occupational strategies, stress prevention programs, stress inculcation
trainings, experimental approaches, managing stress, Lisrel model, cultural model,
human supports, interventions strategies, emotional focused coping, cognitive
behavior / stress management, stress reducing interventions, Karasek model, coping

Newbury-Birch and Kamali (2010) have been made significant researches on stress and personality, behavior and anxiety, type A behavior and stress, ‘A’ and ‘B’ pattern and stress, type A behavior and organizational behavior, women teacher personal and stress, cognitive style and stress, leadership stress, leadership and organization, mental health, type A and B, job demand and occupational stress, type A stress, individual difference and personal variables, reviews, personality and teacher retention, social relational –model, extroversion and job stress, extraversion and teaching, personality type and women in jobs, teachers stress, occupation and personality, anxiety and stress in abroad and India.

2.6. Reflections of Related Research Reviewed in the Study

An overview of related researches reviewed in this chapter confirmed that sizable number of research studies have been carried out on stress and situational stress in India and abroad. These all researchers were given more important and emphasize on prevalence rate of stress and characteristics of stress and situational stress. Further the researchers identified huge number of researches on causes and associate factors of stress and situational stress in abroad and India.

In concerned with the development and assessment of stress and situational stress, very few number of researches have been carried out both abroad and India. While concerned about the stress and situational stress reduction programs / strategies / trainings, notable researches have been identified in abroad and very meager researches have been noted in the Indian context. On scanning the researches reviewed on stress and situational stress in relation to personality, it is seen that very few researchers have attempted studies on it, both in abroad and India.

The experimentation of stress reduction program has been widely adopted in the researches depending upon the need, environment, culture and values in both abroad and India. This research synthesis has also reviewed that satisfactory number of researches have been carried out on teachers’ stress in abroad and India. Only a very few researches have been attempted for reducing teachers’ stress and the development of remedial programs in abroad and India.

Further the present study identified that minimum number of researches have been correlated stress and personality patterns. As a whole, the scanning of reviewed
researches related to this study is concluded that more number of researches have involved in the area of situational stress and stress in abroad than in India.

But as far as this review is concerned, no researcher has attempted to develop a remedial program for situational stress of teachers in relation to their personality patterns in India and abroad. The development and use of remedial program for situational stress of teachers in relation to personality patterns is the most viable and practical way for shaping and strengthening the teachers as well empowered with all round personality and this will go a long way for the development of a sound health personality without situational stress in the development of the national welfare and progress.

The statement of the problem is presented in the succeeding chapter.
Chapter–III

Statement of the Problem
CHAPTER-III: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

3.0 Introduction

3.1 Title of the Study

3.2 Meaning of Certain Terms Used in the Study

3.2.1 Effect

3.2.2 Remedial Program

3.2.3 Situational Stress

3.2.4 Personality Patterns

3.2.5 Upper Primary Teachers

3.3 Objectives of the Study

3.4 Assumptions of the Study

3.5 Hypotheses of the Study

3.6 Scope of the Study

3.7 Need and Importance of the Study

3.8 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study