Chapter I
Introduction
INTRODUCTION

Education is universally recognized as the most effective instrument of bringing about a change towards the social and economical betterment and cultural transformation of a country. The democratic scene and world outlook both clearly demonstrate the urgent need for more and better education, which means qualitative and quantities improvement of education. That is to say, developed countries allocate more and more funds for education. Today, in our country, though the quantative improvement did not reach to the satisfactory levels, but we are still far behind from developed countries in the qualitative improvement of education. There are various reasons behind this problem, like corruption, population, insincerity, and instability of political system, including ineffective teaching in the classroom. The products of present day secondary schools are ill-equipped with the knowledge and skills as they are, fail to relate them to varied contingencies of life or make their effective use in the solution of those problems which confront them in their daily life. This is because of ineffective teaching of classrooms.

Effective and good teaching, in the ultimate analysis, depends upon good and competent teachers. They occupy central position in the teaching learning process. Once, Whitehead wrote. “Every thing depends upon teacher; A teacher effects eternity, he can never tell where his influence stops”. Historian philosopher, Henry Adam, holds that “good
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Teachers are those who are skillful with respect to the way and mean of stimulating intellectual appetites, and capable of patience, understanding and sincere feelings for others. Poor teaching country wise, would seem to be significant contributor of its unfortunate share to the perpetuation of ignorance, misunderstanding and intellectual and cultural stagnation.

Other educational thinkers too like vise agree that the success and failure of the educational system of any educational institution rest largely or teacher’s classroom behavior and that there is no substitute for a good teacher. A teacher’s behavior in the classroom serves as the most important source of information regarding his teaching effectiveness. At present, however, teacher is one among the weakest link of Indian education. Why; with all the efforts put into the preparation of teacher’s into the in-service education of teacher, and with teacher’s individual efforts to modify and improve their works with youngsters. Why do researchers engaged in classroom observation find teachers so controlling, restrictive and inhabitative why is it that teachers tend to do most of the talking themselves? In 1927, Dewey pointed out that, so much in education was the result of routine, tradition, accident and transitory accidental influence; because the field lacked the existence of systematic methods of inquiry, enable us to understand them better and to control them more intellectually. In the absence of empirical data, the concept of teaching was till recent past governed by philosophical
conceptions, and psychological theories of learning. Research on teaching was conducted from outside of the classroom and therefore the actual classroom behavior of teachers could not be properly studied. Under these circumstances the concept of teaching remains vague, it is of lack of clear concept of this complex process. i.e. teaching, that experience frustration in conducting investigation in this area. One may say that while teachers tried to teach and researchers tried to understand and improve it no body seemed to know exactly what teaching is. In this contexts, Barr (1961) very interestingly said that teaching means many different things, that the teaching act varies from person to person and from situation to situation. Dinkins and Biddle (1974) introduced their ranging review of research on teaching with a “dream and Belief”. Their dream was of an educational system where procedures were governed by research and by theories that are empirically based, and their belief is that the study of teaching is the heart-land of the research effort which would govern education. They accept that both are arguable propositions and acknowledge the lack of integrating theories concerning teaching. The possible sources of theories of teaching are still open to debate. Both Rosenstein and Furat (1971) and Traverse (1971) suggest that concepts developed in laboratory setting might proved a starting point, but Nuthalls (1968) argument is that “traditional psychological theory can not be of any significant rater until the investigation of classroom behavior
have themselves produced significant theoretical explanations of classroom event. The need is not for further adaptation and stretching of old theory but for the criterion of new theory which arise directly from natural grain and details of the behavior it is intended to explain. Dunkin and Biddle accept this later view and argue that the development of explanatory theories will begin as attempt to explain related groups of findings rather than all event concerned with teaching. Serious concerted attempts will have to be made in research on teaching in general and teacher behavior in particular, not sitting on the finer but entering into nucleus the classroom, if teaching process is to be grounded in sound theoretical base.

For long, the Indian educational researchers, as in other countries kept on investigating teaching, keeping themselves on the periphery and looking towards the nucleolus (classroom behavior). It is now considered quite difficult, if not impossible, to understands to describe and analyze concept of teaching unless we decide to enter the classroom and explain first hand live drama as it proceeds on the stage itself. The dominant theoretical model which generated most research on teacher effectiveness, which Gage (1972) terms as “Criterion of effectiveness” model was in his opinion wrong. The use of this model involved selecting criterion first and then finding its predictors. Criterion has included ratings of teachers by administrators, colleagues and students and the
teacher or teacher's student's scores on various tests of personality or cognition. Predictors have included many aspects of teacher's backgrounds as well as measures of their behavior, personal qualities and academic achievement, in training and in service.

Later on pupil growth became a favored criterion but with no more success. The difficulty was that pupil growth is the result of a host of factors, such as pupil's own academic aptitude, adjustment, personality and motivation, his home background, parental attitudes and community inferences, etc. The effect of all these factors can not be isolated from teacher's effects nor can other teacher's effect be easily controlled in this way. A number of factors intervene between teacher effect and pupil growth to pollute and confound relationships between them. Pupil achievement has been found to have quite low correlation with teacher effectiveness in one of the more careful and objective studies concerned with the relationship between a group of ten measures of teaching ability and pupil achievement, Barr (1935) obtained conformably low coefficient of correlation.

Research literature is replete with studies in which attempt was made to predict teacher effectiveness on the basis of a single variable or a combination of variables. The research report indicates that only four of the factors are important, intelligence, scholarship, personality, and scores earned. (yankey and Anderson, 1933). Fattu (1962) and Howsan (1960)
both revived the research on predictor criteria and teacher effectiveness and concluded that such research had failed to substantiate links for such characteristics as intelligence, age experience, cultural background, social-economic background, sex, marital status, scores on aptitude tests, job interests, voice quality and special aptitude. The results were so disappointing that Hunka (1963) after discussing studies that have used predictor or criterion variables concluded that researcher on teacher effectiveness has reached a dead point and that attempts to build a theory have failed to prescribe as to what should be done. Even examples of best teaching do not provide a basis for effective teaching. Agreeing with Munka, Cooper and Wober (1973) also point out that until recently research conclusions were so skimpy that educationist may have been somewhat justified basing their programme on tradition and speculation. Ryan (1069) who conducted a most sophisticated study involving a large number of predictor variables, concluded that the probability of arriving at universally accepted definition and description which might be applied to identifying generally superior and poor teachers is really dim with criterion of effectiveness model to conceptualize the nature of teaching, has now shifted its focus to the process. It is now realized that there is no more oblivious approach to research on teaching than direct observation of the behavior of teachers while they teach and pupil while they learn. It is further held teacher effectiveness is an area of research which is
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concerned with relationship between the characteristics of teachers, teaching acts, and their effect on the educational outcomes of classroom teaching. It must ultimately be defined in terms of effect on pupils, in terms, more specifically, of changes in pupils behaviors (American Educational research association 1952-53 and Mitzet 1960). Again it is believed that the central problem in understanding teacher effectiveness is establishing relationships between teacher behaviors and teachers effects. These statements suggest that these two classes of variables are minimally necessary in the study of effectiveness.

The conceptualization of the sets of variables to be included in the study of teaching has led to the broad acceptance of a model initially proposed by Mitzet (1957) and adopted by Dunkin and Biddle (1974). There are four larger classroom of variables namely, presage, context, process and product. Presage variables relates to the characteristics of teachers, their experiences, their cognitive, and effective properties, context variables relate to the conditions to which the teacher has to adjust, the characteristics of the school, classroom and pupils. Process variables concern the actual activities of classroom teaching, teacher and pupil behavior and their interaction and the type of classroom climate engendered. Finally product variables concern the outcome of teaching, the changes that occur in pupils as a result of their involvement in
classroom activities. The pupil "growth or pupil changes, can relate to both cognitive and effective characteristics.

Thus a study of the relationship between teacher's personality and teacher classroom behavior is called a presage process study, whereas a study relating classroom behavior and change in pupil attainment is termed process products study. Mitzet argued that the best hope of improving research on teaching lay in the study of process variable, i.e. teacher classroom behavior. The chain of all acts which the teacher performs in the classroom constitutes his classroom behavior. As the teacher helps children to learn in the classroom situation, the teacher as a leader takes interests in the children both as individual and as a guardian. In the process of this interaction he influences the children. Thus, the teacher's classroom behavior is likely to have a direct influence upon the development of pupil's abilities, capacities, and personalities. The teacher is continuous exerting his influence over the pupils, and for this reason it becomes very important to study his behavior in order to know his effectiveness in teaching.

Researches into the teacher effectiveness has a long history, but has up to now largely focused on finding characteristics of "generic" effective teachers by measuring teachers classrooms practical aspects, cognitive student's outcomes (Brophy and Good 1986, Mortimore, Samonons. Stoll, Lewise and Ecob, 1988; Mujis and Reynolds, 2000). While many
of the teacher effectiveness researches found difference in effective teacher behaviors depending on students background (Socioeconomic Status) and subject area (e.g. Math and English) (Rosenshine, 1978, Stallings, 1984), a lot of this research has subsequently been reinterpreted in a more generic way (Mujis and Reynolds, 2001).

While effective instruction is clearly a major dimension of teaching, the work of teachers is substantially broader than classroom performance. As societies become more secular, schools have become important sites of moral and social values formation. Under these trends, the role of teachers is expected to be broader to take in effective dimensions. A model of teacher's effectiveness is required to incorporate measures of effectiveness across these different roles rather than be limited to aspects of the cognitive. Thus teacher effectiveness is a complex concept. The studies so far have focused on intelligence, ability, personality variables, cognitive outcomes as criterion variables. There can be a number of variables which can predict teacher effectiveness. The present researcher has, for this purpose, selected occupational stress, social support and spiritual orientation of teachers to explore their effect on teacher effectiveness.

Occupational Stress:

The term stress emerged in the literature from Latin world stringer that refers to hardship, strains, adversity or affiliation, in the 18th and 19th
century. It was Hans Selye (1936) who introduced the concept of Stress in life science in the realm of Life Science/Medical Science. Cannon's homeostasis and Selye's general adoption syndrome have considerably influenced the conceptualization of stress, since then the concept gained popularity in research literature and frequently used by behavioral and social scientists.

Psychologists are of the view that it is imperative to maintain the optimum level of Stress for Success, achievement, higher productivity, effectiveness in every walk of life, growth and development.

Pestonjie (1987) was of the view that when the stresses are left unchecked or unmanaged they may create problems related to the performance of the employee and also may have hazardous effects on the health and well-being of the organism.

The stress had been viewed as having three major approaches viz. stimulus oriented, responder oriented and internationally oriented.

The stimulus oriented approach refers to external negative force impinging on individual. Selye (1956) maintains that any external event or any internal drive which threatens to upset organic equilibrium is stress. Actually researchers have examined catastrophic events and considered it as independent variables. The response based approach to stress is associated with response to certain stimuli. This approach is mainly concerned to describe how stress is related to and in what manner
people function under Stress. This approach concerned responses as dependent variables.

The transactional approach defined stress as interaction or transaction between person and organizational factors. According to this approach, stimulus and response are insufficient because some situations are stressful for some specific individuals but not for others.

Stress in modern times is due to over demand, frustrations, and conflicts, hence the present day world is considered as age of anxiety. It is well accepted truth that people in every era experience stress due to unpredictable natural climatic in present day world also stress is related to such calamities but the degree is low in today’s world people can walk on the moon and other planets, may communicate with persons sitting thousands of miles away sends and relives message from one place to other in shortest period of time. but these innovations which are the sign of modern civilization have made the life of man much more complex and full of hazards. This modern civilization is considered an era of stress frustration, conflict, tension, anxiety, overcrowding, pollution, unemployment, dowry death, ethic and religious clashes and terrorism to mention a few. Stress at work place, home, school, college, society or place of living undoubtedly results in personal and organizational inefficiency, sickness, socio-cultural alienation and dissatisfaction at individual as well as in the organizational level.
In this fast pacing world, it is evident from the research literature that the problem of executive stress has received enormous attention in management, including educational institutions (Aagarwal, 1979). Despite moderate amount of attention, executive stress continues to take its toll of human life, pares impairment of mental and physical health and it is to say that all in all it is diminishing the effectiveness of people.

Thakur and Mishra (1998) reported different physical and psychological conditions at different types of work as potential source of occupational stress. Lazarus (1991) pointed out that stress is transactional phenomena experienced when source situation is appraised as taxing the individual resources beyond tolerable limits.

Social Support:

Literature on social support suggests that it is an important concern in our daily lives. This concept has also emerged as the moderator and mediator of stress. Lack of social support has been associated with risks for emotional problems, excessive worry, self-preoccupation and stress proneness (Blazar, 1982; House et al., 1982). The concept of social support has been defined by the researchers as social bounds (Hinderson, 1977), social networks (Mueller, 1980) meaningful social contact (Cassel, 1976), availability of social confidents (Brown et al 1975) and human companionship (Lynch, 1977). Bowlby (1969) defines social network resources as the available social network relationships that objectively
may be called upon for help in times of need and that offer stable attachment to social groups. In other words, it may be stated that social network resources indicate the type and number of existing relationship person is having, who provide him help when ever he needs. Bowlby’s theory of attachment relies heavily on this interpretation of social support. Cohen and Syem (1985), and House and Khan (1985) called social network as structural support. Structural support refers to the existence of an inter-connections between social ties, (e.g. marital status, close family and friends) participation in group activities. Henderson (1981) has pointed out that other informal revenues of assistance may be obtained and he called them diffuse resources. There may be other interpersonal contacts beside gang, friends, and ties with community organization. Cohen (1982) noted “help is where you find it” and he suggests the source of support may be formal, institutional or informal help. These definitions suggest that there are three aspects of social support. i.e. (1) Social network resources, (2) Supportive behavior, and (3) The subjective appraisal of support.

Social support refers to the perceived comfort, caring, esteem, or help a person receives from other people or groups (Cobb, 1976, Wills, 1984) According to Cobb (1976) people with social support believe. They are loved and cared for, esteemed and valued, and part of social network, such as a family and community organizations, that can provide goods,
services and mutual defame at times of needs and danger. Khan and his associates (1979) define social support as the expression of linking, admiration, respect, love agreement and affirmation as well as the provision of direct aid and assistance. It is apparent that social support is multidimensional construct which not only represents, that the person has social relationship but also indicates that he is esteemed and cared for. As a product of social activities or transactions he perceives that a support can come from many different sources, the person’s spouse or lover, family, friends, coworkers, physician, or community organization. Social support is defined as the comfort, assistance, or information one receives through formal or informal contacts with individuals or groups (Walston et al, 1983).

Another aspect of social support is the kind of help person receive from other i.e. emotional, personal practical, informational and instrumental. It is more concerned with the quality and amount of support given by different resources. According to Caplan’s theory (1974), social support implies enduring pattern of continuous or intermittencies that play a significant role in maintaining the psychological and physical integrity of individual over time. For Caplan, a social network provides a person with” psychological supports for the maintenance of mutual and emotional health. Cohen and wills (1985) have defined social support in terms of functional support. According to them functional support
indicates whether interpersonal relationship serve particular function or not (e.g. provide affection, feeling of belonging on material aid). According to Bhumaker and Breownell (1984) supportive behavior would be seen as "an exchange of resource between at least two individuals perceived by the provider or the recipient to the intended to enhance the well being of recipient. These interactions tend to be viewed as supportive when they are intended to gratify people is needed.

Cognitively oriented theories pointed out that it is not the availability of the receipt of support that is important, but its perception or feeling that he has supportive network and can get supportive behavior when ever he needs, has beneficial and facilitative positive effect.

Observations in a variety of settings have led to the idea that social support (a) contributes to positive adjustment and personal development and increased well-being in general (Branda et al., 1980; Cohen and Will, 1985) and (b) provides a buffer against the psychological consequences of exposure to stressful life events (Cohen and Syme, 1985 Mcleod 1985). Despite theoretical advances in the area of social support, much more empirical studies are needed to determine its beneficial effects. The present study is intended to explore the influence of social support on teacher effectiveness. Teachers are the need of every society, without their active participation it is impossible to bring changes in the society.
They also need social support in order to perform their duties at the maximum level.

Type of Social Support:

Researchers have suggested that there are five types of Social Support (Cohen and Mckey, 1984, Cohen and Wills 1985; Russell, 1990.)

1. **Emotional support**: It involves the expression of sympathy, caring and concern towards the person. It provides the person with a sense of comfort, reassurance, belongingness, and of being loved in times of stress.

2. **Esteem support**: It occurs through people’s expression of positive regard for the person, encouragement and agreement with the individual’s ideas or feelings, and positive comparison of the person with others such as people who are less able to work. This kind of support is required to build the individual’s feeling or self-worth, competence, and of being valued. Esteem support is especially useful during the appraisal of stress, such as when the person assesses whether the demands exceed his or her personal resources.

3. **Tangible or functional support**: This type of support involves direct assistance, as when people give or lend the person money or help out at the time of stress.
4. **Information support:** It includes giving advice, directions, supports or feedback about how the person is doing, for example, a person who is ill might get information from family or a physician or now to treat the illness.

5. **Network support:** It provides a feeling of membership in a group of people who share interests and social activities.

Recently social support has been classified into two categories perceived support and received support. Perceived support most generally refers to the psychological side of support derived from feeling loved, and part of network of reliable and trusted social relationship (Gottlieb, 1985) it is more stable over time because it is not context dependent. Received support, on the other hand, represents concrete intones of helping derived from once social network, with this help or provision, usually being categorized as emotional support, and informational support.

**Spirituality: Meaning and Definition:**

The term spirituality is coined from the Latin word “Spiritus” meaning “breath of life”. In Arabic “spirituality” is translated as *Ruhaniya* derived from the adjective *ruhani*, which means, mind or animating principle as distinct from body. *Quran* Says:

They ask thee concerning the spirit, say “The spirit is of the command of my Lord”. Chapter 15
The definition of spirituality provided by the tenth edition of Oxford English Dictionary is as following: "the equality or condition of being spiritual, attachment to or regard for the thing of the spirit as opposed to material or worldly interest". Belief in spiritual reality continues to characterize a majority of people, be it belief in supreme being or order, life after death, an ultimate reality, or supernatural beings, like angles or demons. Whatever behavioral scientists and health care professionals may themselves believe, the spiritual side of human nature remains important to many or most people.

A substantial number of people describe spirituality as the most important source of strength and direction in their lives. We inherit spiritual elements from our parents as well as from the previous generation, first like physical and psychological elements of past lives of the community, history, arts, cosmic world, and beyond.

Spirituality has been a proper subject for scientific study e.g. William James (1958) Carl Jung (1933, 1964); Abraham Maslow (1962, 1966, 1970, 1971); Rudolph Otto (1923); John Dewey (1934); Gordon Alport (1950); Mircea Eliade (1959) Martin Buber (1970); Erich Fromm (1950); victor Frankl (1963) have explored this concept for more than a century ago. Definitions of spirituality in relevant literature usually include some version of the following words and phrases: Feeling connected or belonging in the universe, believing in a power outside of
one self, searching for a sense of meaning or purpose, experiencing transcendence and immanence, seeking one's ultimate and personal truths, experiencing numinous quality, knowing unity of the visible and invisible, having an internal relationship between the individual and the divine, encountering limitless love, and moving towards personal wholeness (Canda, 1995; Ganje-Fling and McCarthy, 1996; Decker, 1993; king et al, 1995; Wulff, 1996). An operational definition of spirituality is yet to come. A great deal of convergence and overlapping were found among the various writers in their usually implicit descriptions of spirituality. It became increasingly clear that the spirituality could not be defined in simple words, because it is a complex phenomenon on the basis of theoretical research. Elkins, Hedstrom, Hughes, Leaf, and Saunders (1988) formulated the following definitions of spirituality. It is a way of being and experiencing that comes about through awareness of a transcendent dimension and that is characterized by certain identifiable values in regard to self, others, nature, life, and whatever one considers to be the ultimate”.

A functional definition of spirituality which has been adopted by the California state psychological association takes force of spirituality and psychotherapy- as courage to look within and to trust implying that what is seen and what is trusted appears to be a deep sense of belongingness, wholeness, of connectedness and of opinions of the
infinite. Spirituality which has always been considered to be natural part of being human, is an innate human capacity to transcend the egocentric perspectives from which people constantly experience and evaluate their lives, opening them to a broader world view a heightened capacity for loving, and an increased motivation to enhance the greater good (Chandler, Holder and Colander, 1992). According to Vrinte (1996) spirituality is inspired and sustained by transpersonal experiences that originate in the deepest recesses of the human being and they are but natural manifestations of that domain of the human psyche that contain the greater depth of life.

Dimensions of Spirituality:

Spirituality is not adequately defined by any single, continuum or by dichotomous classification rather, it has many dimensions. Spirituality is better understood as multidimensional space in which every individual can be located (Lorson Swyers, and Mc Cullorgh, 1997).

Psychologists have described spirituality in different dimensions. Glook and Stark (1965), for example, described four elements or domains, all of which are associated with religion. The experiential, the ritualistic, the intellectual and the consequential. Capp, Ramboo and Ranshoff (1976) offered a somewhat deferent categories of Six spiritual dimensions within religion: the mythological, ritual, experiential, dispositional, social and directional. Elkins, Hughes (1986) reported
components of spirituality, transcendent dimension, meaning and purpose in life, mission in life, sacredness of life, material values, altruism, idealism, awareness of the tragic, and fruits of spirituality. Kaeasy (1999) explained the three ways to spirituality in the context of belief in the sacred, belief in unity and belief in transformation. Miller and Thoresen (1999) proposed three broad measurement domains as: spiritual practices, beliefs and experience. The three domains described by Miller and Thoresen are meant to characterize spirituality more generally, whether inside or outside the context of religion. These broad domains are consistent with a psychological perspectives that is sensitive to cultural, ethnic, socioeconomic, and religious difference. Each domain, such as practices, can encompass a wide range of constructs and variables. Each is amendable to a variety of qualitative and quantitative assessment approaches (e.g. biographical and autobiographical material, narrative interviews; psychological measures self report questionnaires).

**Spiritual Practices:** It is the easiest to measure because it focuses on overt observable behaviors (e.g. Connors, Tonigin, and Millar, 1996). People can be described by the extent to which they engage in spiritual practices such as prayer, fasting, meditation, contemplation, and paying visits to holy shrines or pilgrimage to holy places, participation in specially religious activities such as worship, scriptural study, offerings, and public prayer.
Spiritual Beliefs: This domain is large, and its content varies with culture. Smith (1994) directly pertinent are beliefs about transcendental (e.g. soul, afterlife), deity, and the reality of a spiritual dimension beyond sensory and intellectual knowledge. Personal and endorsed values are also part of this domain (Rokeach, 1973). Transcending the "me" factors (i.e. I, me, my, mine) in personal values has been a common quest in many religions (Bracke and Thoresen, 1996). The concept of God is an integral dimension here (e.g. whether the nature, image, and intentions of a supreme Being are seen as being fundamentally loving, indifferent, or punitive toward humankind).

Spiritual experiences: It offers the greatest challenges for valid measurement, yet it is fundamental to an understanding of spirituality. Many would regard this experiential dimensions as the fundamental and defining nature of spirituality (Helminiak, 1996) such experiences might be roughly divided into routine, everyday encounters of the transcendent or sacred, versus exceptional spiritual and mystical experience. Two perplexing problems of definition emerge. The first is the problem of defining which experiences are spiritual. Among individuals who have sudden, dramatic, and transcending life experience, for example, some describe them in spiritual language and others do not. (C Miller and C. De Baea, 1994). Believers and non-believers may have essentially parallel experiences, but they differ in the understanding of their meaning.
and nature. A second challenge is empirical description of the experiences themselves. Whether they are labeled as "spiritual" there appears to be a relatively common topography to certain numinous phenomena including mystical (Bucke, 1923, Oactes, 1973), transformational (Loder, 1981), and near-death experience (Kellehear 1996).

**Significance of the Study:**

The teacher is the backbone of educational institutions. It is only when the teacher is effective, student's learning can be sound. Learning is not only restricted to information, but includes knowledge and character building. The effectiveness of the teacher is yet to be explored and investigated from different angles and perspectives. The effect of spiritual orientation, occupational stress and social support on teacher effectiveness have not been explored. Spirituality is an important dimension which constitutes the value dimension of personality. Spirituality has been found to be an indicator of mental health in psychological studies. In this fast changing world the stress and strain become an invertible reality for the working persons. Therefore, occupational stress seems to be a potential contributor towards teacher effectiveness. Similarly, a teacher also needs social support, emotional support in particular, to work effectively. In the knowledge of present researchers, the influence of these factors on teacher effectiveness has not
been studied as yet. Therefore, the present study is a humble attempt at establishing the effect of occupational stress, social support and spiritual orientation on teacher effectiveness.

OBJECTIVES:

Teacher’s effectiveness can be studied from different perspectives. Our main concern is that do spiritual orientation social support and occupational stress contributes towards the effectiveness of teachers. The main objectives of the study are given below:

1. Whether occupational stress has any effect on teacher’s effectiveness?
2. Whether social support orientation has any effect on teacher effectiveness.
3. Whether spiritual orientation has any effect on teacher effectiveness.
4. Whether the three independent variables i.e., occupational stress, social support and spiritual orientation will deferentially effect teacher effectiveness among male and female teachers.
5. Whether the three independent variables viz, occupational stress, social support and spiritual orientation will differentially effect teacher effectiveness among subjects classified on the basis of age?
HYPOTHESES:

The hypotheses are presented below in null form:

1. Occupational stress, will not have any effect on teacher effectiveness.
2. Social support will not have any effect on teacher effectiveness.
3. Spiritual orientation will not have any effect on teacher effectiveness.
4. Sex will not differentially effect the contribution of occupational stress, social support and spiritual orientation on teacher effectiveness.
5. Age will not differentially effect the contribution of occupational stress, social support and spiritual orientation on teacher effectiveness.

Delimitations:

Keeping in view the limitation of availability times resources and various constrains the study was delimited in terms of following.

D1 The study was confined to only to the A.M.U. teaching staff.
D2 The study was confined to the college teachers.
HYPOTHETICAL FRAME WORK

OCCUPATIONAL STRESS
SOCIAL SUPPORT
SPIRITUAL ORIENTATION
DEMOGRAPHIC SEX. AGE

TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS