CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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An attempt is made in this chapter to make an exhaustive review of related literature. In this endeavor apart from the manual searches of locating articles from journals, several other modes were followed to locate relevant articles and pieces of information related to the variables.

Education is the process of instruction aimed to develop the knowledge, skills, attitude or character of individuals preparing for a meaningful life. Teachers are arguably the most important group of professionals of a nation's future. Management of emotions is most essential for the peaceful and meaningful life of everyone. In various situations it has been observed that educated people fails in front of challenges and problems, because of their poor emotional management.

Emotions are personal experiences that arise from complex interplay among psychological, cognitive and situational variables (Singaravelu, 2007). Emotionally competent teacher is the heart and soul of educational program and venture.

Strain is associated with various psychological and physiological reactions. Psychological strain refers to a particular form of emotional distress arising in response to a situation involving perceived threat to a person's well-being. Strain may also be manifested in terms of physiological or somatic disturbance. Somatic disturbances include stomach complaints, ill health, sleep disorders, complaints, and low back pain. In more serious manifestations, work-related stressors are associated with hypertension and cardiovascular disease (Landsbergis et al., 2001).

There is no single prescription for coping with stress of teaching, and coping begins with the awareness of symptoms and causes and the commitment to change. Coping strategies chosen by individuals are often influenced by several factors. According to this, personality variables are internal coping resources that can help individuals handle adverse environmental events.
Many researchers have examined the causes of stress among teachers. Very few researchers looked into the concept of personal strain and its impact on teacher performance. The present research is a modest attempt to assess the impact of gender, type of institution and social status on emotional intelligence, personal strain and coping strategies of high school teachers. Relevant studies available on these variables are presented in this chapter.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GENDER

A study conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary school teachers in Haryana State, revealed that there are no significant differences between various sub groups of teachers i.e. male rural; male urban; female rural; female urban; male rural-female rural; male urban-female urban; urban-rural; and male-female teachers with regard to their emotional intelligence (Chadda, 1985).

Schutte et al., (1998) and Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) found that females have significantly higher reported emotional intelligence than do males. A similar result was obtained by Atkins and Stough (2005). However, Petrides and Furnham (2000) found that males 'overall' and 'self motivation' estimates of emotional intelligence were significantly higher than females' estimates. It was suggested that males score higher on self-estimates of emotional intelligence than do females, because females may tend towards self-derogation on self-report measures.

Alexis-Boyd (1998) conducted a study on the emotional life of teachers. The study was conducted on a sample of eighteen public school teachers. The emotional life of teachers was studied and it was found that teaching would have a deleterious effect on the lives of teachers. This study pointed out the growing evidences for the harsh realities of today's classrooms which might be as a result of teachers' ability to live up to the expectations of students. Teachers sought mental, physical and emotional afflictions to get remedy through some means which were not always effective. The findings of the study suggested a need for the development of interventions and programmes that would help teachers to deal more effectively with the negative effects of teaching profession on their emotional lives.
Mayer, Salovey et al., (2000) suggested that Emotional intelligence may have an impact on many work-related outcomes, including job performance and interpersonal interactions, such as job interviews and interacting with co-workers on a daily basis. Research confirmed that IQ accounts for approximately 20 per cent of the variance in life success, but emotional intelligence accounts for the remaining 80 per cent of the variance.

Petrides and Adrian Furnham (2000) studied gender differences in measured and self-estimated trait of Emotional Intelligence. Results revealed that females scored higher than males on the social skills factor of measured trait of Emotional Intelligence. However, the 15 facets of self-estimated Emotional Intelligence were combined into a single reliable scale and the participants measured trait, Emotional Intelligence scores were held constant. It was demonstrated that males believed, they had higher Emotional Intelligence than females.

Thingujam and Ram (2000) in their attempt of Indian adaptation of Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al., 1998) had developed Indian norms (N=811) for males and females separately and found that women were significantly scoring higher than men.

A study by Chu (2002) revealed that males have high level of emotional intelligence than that of females. The probable reason for the present findings might be due to the fact that emotional intelligence primarily deals with managing and expressing one's emotions as well as social skills.

Banshibihari and Pathan (2004) conducted a study on 500 secondary teachers to study the emotional intelligence. The findings show that 98% of teachers had low emotional Intelligence and there was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of male and female teachers and age was independent of Emotional Quotient.

Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals (181 male and 233 female) having traumatic experiences and simultaneously studied their emotional intelligence level, and the results showed that males have higher Emotional Intelligence than females.
Pandey and Tripathi (2004) conducted a study on a sample of 100 individuals (50 males and 50 females), completing the measure of Emotional Intelligence, consisting of identification of emotion, perception and recognition of emotion with probing, perception and recognition of emotion without probing, understanding emotional meaning and emotion intensity rating. Results revealed that females scored significantly higher than males and were more proficient in managing and handling their own emotions as well as of others.

Pant and Prakash (2004) have studied gender differences in emotional intelligence of Indian participants (N=60). 30 male and 30 female subjects/individuals were approached for the study from personnel and human resources departments of both government and non-governments organizations. Multifactor emotional intelligence scale was used for assessment process. Results showed no substantial gender differences on various Emotional Intelligence dimensions. More specifically indicating that both males and females do not differ significantly on the two sub-tasks of managing emotions, whereas, in managing others (sub tasks) males (M=0.28, S.D. = 0.08) scored higher than the females (M=0.26, S.D.=0.08). On the sub-task of managing self, both the males and females have the same mean (M=0.25). However, women scored higher, though not significantly than men on total Emotional Intelligence (M women = 5.13, M men=4.86).

In order to measure the relationship between emotional intelligence and gender, Tyagi (2004) conducted a study on secondary school teachers. The results revealed that emotional intelligence is independent of gender. VanRooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) in their study examined gender differences on emotional intelligence by administrating a common measure of emotional intelligence on 275 participants (216 female). Results indicated that females scored slightly higher than males. However, Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have been reported a significant effect of gender on emotional intelligence in their study among 300 B.Ed. teacher trainees.

Mohanasundaram (2004) revealed that men and women teacher trainees did not differ in their Emotional Intelligence. There was significant but low positive correlation between emotional intelligence and overall academic achievement of
teacher trainees. The teacher trainees of co-educational institutions were at a higher level, than that of other types in their Emotional Intelligence. There was significant but low positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and achievement in science subjects.

Okech (2004) carried out a study on public school teachers. The study examined differences in emotional intelligence between male and female teachers, Co-relational and causal- .comparative-research design approaches were used to conduct the study. The Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 1999), the Science Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument (Riggs and Enochs, 1990), and a demographics questionnaire were used to collect the data. Independent-measures of t-test, the Pearson r, and the one-way MANOVA were the statistical techniques used to analyze the data. Results indicated that there existed a significant positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and teacher self-efficacy; but it is very much surprising to note that no significant relationship was found to exist between Emotional Intelligence and "length of teaching experience," and between Emotional Intelligence and age. Normally, with experience and age, Emotional Intelligence is assumed to be growing even till old age, but this requires further research. Statistically significant differences were also found in Emotional Intelligence with respect to gender, and among the three race/ethnicity groups.

Pathan (2004) conducted a study on Emotional intelligence of secondary teachers at D.Ed. College, Maharashtra. This study examined the level of emotional intelligence (EI) of secondary school teachers in relation to gender and age. The tool used for the study was a structured questionnaire called 'Emotional Intelligence Test'. The results indicated that nearly all the teachers under study were under 'low' category of emotional intelligence. There was no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of males and females, and the age was independent of Emotional Intelligence.

Tyagi (2004) conducted a study on "emotional intelligence of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age". Sample consisted of 350 males and 150 females belonging to secondary schools (urban and rural) from Dhule district,
Maharashtra. Results revealed that there were no significant age and gender differences in emotional intelligence.

A study on pre-service student teachers by Perry et al, (2004) found that females reported significantly higher emotional intelligence than the males. Other studies show remarkably similar results. (Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Day and Carroll, 2004). Women scored significantly higher than did men on overall emotional intelligence.

Suresh (2005) attempted to find out the emotional intelligence among school teachers. He found that men and women teachers do not differ in their Emotional Intelligence. Indu (2009) study also revealed that majority of teacher trainees possessed Emotional Intelligence and there was no significant difference in their Emotional Intelligence of sub-samples like gender, type of family, type of institution.

The profile of successful female teachers includes a demonstration of a broad range of emotional intelligence competencies, although there is a negative effect upon their success when they exhibit the gender role expected competencies related to developing others. The successful male teachers also have a wide range of emotional intelligence competencies and are rewarded when they show their gender-expected individual achievement-oriented behaviors (Hopkins and Margaret, 2005).

Amrittha and Kadhirvan (2006) carried out research on "The influence of personality on the Emotional intelligence of Teachers". The results revealed that Gender, age and qualification will influence the Emotional Intelligence of the teachers. It was also noted that Thinking, Judging dimension of personality has significant positive impact on Emotional Intelligence.

A study conducted by Kaneez (2006) showed that there is a significant difference between men and women on some subscales of emotional intelligence i.e. Assertiveness, Independence, Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control. The findings revealed that men show more assertiveness, self recognition independence and management according to the situations than the women. Independence, impulsive assertiveness is usually observed in men. One of the reasons for this is that, men are powerful in our society.
Jyothika Gupta and Rajwinder Kaur (2006) investigated on Emotional Intelligence among prospective teachers. Results revealed that there is significant difference in emotional intelligence between male and female prospective teachers.

Ajay Kumar and Bhimrao Patil (2006) emphasized that there is no significant difference between male and female student teachers with regard to the emotional intelligence. It was also stated that Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement are significantly related.

Liang (2007) revealed significant relationship function between faculty's personality type and emotional intelligence skills and their age and emotional intelligence; but not between gender and emotional skills.

A study conducted by Summiya Ahmud et al., (2009) examined gender differences in emotional intelligence on a sample of 160 subjects of Pakistan. Snowball sampling technique was used to select subjects. The findings show that males have high emotional intelligence as compared to females.

Gupta, Jyotika and Rajwinder Kaur (2008), conducted a study to compare emotional intelligence of prospective teachers of different groups. Samples of 200 B.Ed. students were selected randomly from different educational colleges under the jurisdiction of Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar. Results revealed that there were 9% male and 22 % female B.Ed. students with high emotional intelligence while 6% male and 12% female students have low emotional intelligence. Male and female B.Ed. students differed significantly on self management, dimension of emotional intelligence while arts and science stream B.Ed. students differed on social skills dimension of emotional intelligence. B.Ed. students of non working mothers were scoring more on internality while B.Ed. students of working mothers were scoring more on empathy.

Gowri Shankar and Keerthi (2010) conducted a study on emotional intelligence among middle school teachers. The sample consists of 300 teachers selected from the middle schools of Nagapatinam district of Tamilnadu. Emotionally Intelligent teachers help students with improved motivation, enhanced innovation, increased performance, effective use of time and resources, improved leadership
qualities and improved teamwork. An effective, successful teacher is largely one who can handle his or her negative feelings in an authentic, real and healthy way. The results reveal that men teachers are better than women teachers.

Findings of Sreekala Edannur (2010) study points out to the fact that, a teacher can produce good teachers for the country only when he/she is emotionally intelligent. The results of the study imply that the teachers possessed average emotional intelligence and female teachers fared equally with the male counterparts in the component, social skills and their performance is better than the male teacher educators.

Sowmya and Ningamma Betsur (2010) findings show that female teachers are better than male teachers in their emotional stability.

The study of Ilhan Adilogullari (2011) aims to examine the level of emotional intelligence in relation to the demographic variables of the teachers working in the Province of Gaziantep. 340 teachers participated in the study. Age, gender, marital status variables did not show any significant change in emotional intelligence of teachers. Senior teachers are expected to be peaceful and productive in social life and make work environment happy.

Nisha Maharana (2011) made an attempt to study the emotional intelligence of the higher secondary school teachers. The result shows that emotional intelligence was independent of sex, type of school, age and length of experience.

Fatemeh Naghavi and Marof Redzuan (2011) research showed that emotional intelligence is meaningfully associated with gender differences. The article is divided into several sections. The review is started with the definition of emotional intelligence and this is followed by a review on the emotional intelligence, as well as the effects and interaction of gender differences. Then, an overview of the paper included a demonstration of the influence of gender on emotional intelligence. Finally, as conclusion it is important to realize that girls are higher than boys in emotional intelligence, but high emotional intelligence in boys is a better predictor achievement.
Findings of a study conducted by Nahid Naderi Anari, (2012) indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, and between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The findings of the study provide support for gender differences, with females reporting higher emotional intelligence.

Paul et al., (2012), analysed the nature and extent of emotional intelligence among some selected secondary level school teachers of Burdwan district in West Bengal. The study covers three hundred teachers both in urban and rural areas encompassing different sex, age, teaching experience, qualification and training. The results revealed that few factors have significantly positive impact on enhancing the level of teachers’ emotional intelligence (EI) while some are non significant on Emotional Intelligence. Finally, it can be concluded that the extent of Emotional Intelligence among teachers’ is significantly affected by their own personality, attitude along with age, experience, qualification and training.

Prem Shankar Srivastava (2012) carried out a study to assess the interaction effect of sex, locality and self-confidence on emotional intelligence on a sample of 100 prospective teachers. The results revealed that the main effects of gender is found to be significant.

Sampath Reddy et al., (2012) conducted a study on gender and locale as related to emotional intelligence among teachers. The results clearly indicate that there is no significant difference between male and female teachers with regard to their emotional intelligence. Results also show that there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of teachers working in rural and urban areas.

Suman Rani (2012) conducted a gender based study on emotional Intelligence of secondary school teachers.160 male and female secondary school teachers were studied in northern Haryana. Observations suggested no significant difference in overall emotional intelligence of male and female teachers, and female teachers mainly dominated in factors like self-awareness, empathy, self-development and
altruistic behavior of emotional intelligence as compared to males who are dominated in factors like self motivation, emotional stability, integrity and commitment.

Sunita Godiyal (2012) explored that female teachers working in private schools exhibit difference in their self-awareness and management of emotions and dimensions of emotional intelligence in a negative manner compared with male teachers.

Shweta Agarwal and Vinita Gupta (2012) analyzed the effect of emotional intelligence on teacher effectiveness in teacher training process (B.Ed. courses). 100 teacher educators (50 female and 50 male) were randomly selected from Agra city. The findings revealed that female teacher educators emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness are at high level compared to male teacher educators.

Srivatsava and Anil Prasad (2012) conducted a study on role of emotional intelligence in achieving life satisfaction. They found that (i) male teachers enjoy the optimum life satisfaction; (ii) every male teacher possesses above average status of life satisfaction and level of emotional intelligence; (iii) the emotional intelligence has positive and significant influence on one’s life satisfaction status.

Aruna Jyothi (2013) investigated the emotional intelligence among B.Ed. teacher trainees. The results revealed that no significant difference was found in Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. teacher trainees with respect to their gender and type of institution, i.e., Government and private schools.

Thilagavathy (2013) conducted a study in Tiruvarur district of Tamilnadu state and survey method was employed. Out of 250 samples, 150 were male and 100 were female teachers; 131 teachers from Government and 119 teachers from private schools were selected by random sampling technique. The investigator has found significant difference in emotional intelligence of male and female teachers no significant difference between Government and Private school teachers.

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND CASTE**

Sampath Reddy (2009) focused on nature of caste differences among teachers with regard to their emotional intelligence. The results revealed that open category
teachers are better than the other categories i.e., backward category and scheduled caste. Also found that backward category teachers are better than the scheduled caste teachers with regard to their emotional intelligence.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND EXPERIENCE

Emotional Intelligence should increase with age and experience as is the case with other cognitive abilities (Mayer et al., 1999) or at least vary with age (Schaie, 2001).

Jossey (2002) reported no significant difference in Emotional Intelligence scores of male and female school teachers. It is also explained that there is significant difference in the mean scores of emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers in different extent of teaching experiences. It is expected that those teachers who have higher experience in teaching, score better in emotional intelligence.

Bansibihari et al., (2004) conducted a study on emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers and found that emotional intelligence developed and increased with the increase in the experience of teachers. The higher emotional intelligence is linked with higher job experience.

Day and Carroll (2004) found that, years of experience (studying in university) correlated positively with emotional intelligence: younger teachers, males and those in lower status positions have lower levels of emotional intelligence than do females, older teachers and those in higher status positions. It can be argued that training to improve emotional intelligence would make a valuable contribution, particularly to the skills of younger teachers, males, and those in lower status positions.

Zuhal Guvenc and Kazim Celik (2010) suggests that there is no significant difference regarding the emotional intelligence perceptions of teachers in terms of the variables like sex, educational background and number of the students in the class. Unlike those variables, class teachers have shown a significant difference to perception of emotional intelligence according to one variable, ‘professional seniority’.
The construct of emotional intelligence refers to the individual differences in the perception, processing, regulation and utilization of emotional information: these differences have been shown to have a significant impact on important life outcomes like social relationships and work performance. Emotional Intelligence is a form of social intelligence and a suitable predictor of general functioning and particular areas such as occupational performance, including one’s ability to manage his/her and other’s feelings and emotions, distinguish them and use such information to direct one’s thinking and practice. It develops along with age and experience (Mangal, 2012).

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERFORMANCE

Researchers have showed the linkages between job performance and Emotional Intelligence. Higher levels of Emotional Intelligence predicted higher levels of job performance and stronger connections with co-workers and supervisors (Abraham, 1999). Cote and Morgan (2002) found that amplification of positive emotions increased job satisfaction while suppression of unpleasant emotions decreased job performance. The benefits of applying Emotional Intelligence in the workplace may include higher tolerance for stress, better people management skills and more effective performance as part of a team (Klohn, 1996).

Rao (2001) developed and implemented an in-service training programme for teachers of Navodaya Vidyalayas in enhancing their ability in meeting students’ emotional needs. The major objectives of the study were to identify the emotional needs of students; to develop an in-service programme for teachers in meeting student’s emotional needs and to implement and study the effectiveness of the developed programme for Navodaya Vidhyalayas. The training consisted of Counselling Skills, Rational Emotive Therapy and Transactional Analysis. These training inputs helped teachers to look at their own behaviour and the impact that they were making on students. This helped them to be more sensitive and caring towards their students.

Bar-On (1997); Slaski and Cartwright (2003) and Nikolaous (2002) found that highly emotionally intelligent individuals appear to experience significantly less stress.
at work than less emotionally intelligent counterparts. They had better physical and psychological well being, and demonstrate higher in-role job performance.

Bhalla and Nauriyal (2004) reported in their study that emotional intelligence is a factor that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work. They further reported that emotional intelligence is extremely important in Indians as they have high affiliation need and emotional intelligence can lead to significant gain in productivity.

Boyd (2005) conducted a study on “The emotional intelligence of teachers and students' perceptions of their teachers' behaviour in the classroom”. The results indicated that there was significant difference between those teachers who scored well in the Emotional Intelligence test and those who displayed emotionally intelligent behaviors as perceived by students in the classroom. It was remarked that teachers' perceptions of how students feel about them or the classroom environment they create, are not always accurate. The Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) may indicate emotional intelligence knowledge, but it cannot predict how individuals will be perceived by others. Also it was found that teachers who are emotionally intelligent do not necessarily use it in the classroom. Lastly, teacher behavior matters to students in terms of relationships and perceptions, and in creating the feeling that the classroom is emotionally safe. It was concluded that an emotionally safe classroom is more conducive to learning.

Cumming (2005) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace performance with a sample of workers from New Zealand. In addition, she studied the relationship among demographic factors, emotional intelligence and workplace performance. The results of her study suggested that a significant relationship exists between emotional intelligence and workplace performance. In the case of emotional intelligence and demographic factors, no significant relationships were found between gender and emotional intelligence, age and emotional intelligence, occupational groups and emotional intelligence, neither between education and emotional intelligence.
Afsaneh Ghanizadeh and Fatemeh (2006) examined the role of teachers' emotional intelligence in their success. The analysis revealed that there is a significant relationship between teachers success and Emotional Intelligence and also found significant correlations between teachers' emotional intelligence, their teaching experience and age.

Todd H. Drew (2006) conducted a study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and student teacher performance. The collected data from the cooperating teacher and student teacher perspective did not reveal any statistically significant relationship.

Drew (2007) tried to determine whether Student Teacher Performance (STP), (as measured by a behaviour-based performance evaluation process), was associated with Emotional Intelligence (EI), (as measured by a personality assessment instrument). The sample consisted of 40 student-teachers. The study revealed that Emotional Intelligence, as assessed by the Bar On EQ-i, and College Supervisors' assessments of STP were related. However, data collected from the Cooperating Teacher and Student-Teacher perspectives did not reveal any statistically significant relationship for any EQ/STP variable pair studied. While total Emotional Quotient (EQ) scores and scores for the Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and General Mood Scales had a statistically significant association with two or more individual aspects of STP, the Stress Management and Adaptability Scale scores did not have any statistically significant relationships with total or any aspect of STP. The four participants in the study who had the most anomalous EQ/STP combinations were contacted to participate in interviews. Two individuals agreed, and these interviews revealed the complexity surrounding assessment of STP, and four themes which fall within the following analogous EQ-i Subscales: Assertiveness, Interpersonal Relationships, Social Responsibility, and Flexibility.

Ogrenir (2008) revealed that some significant differences existed in pre-service teachers' teacher effectiveness beliefs associated with emotional intelligence skills. Moreover, the study found that teacher effectiveness is influenced by years in College of Education and gender. The findings indicated that Pre-service teachers possess Emotional Intelligence skills in average range, but their Emotional
Intelligence with respect to stress management, and adaptability account for some differences in GPA. It was recommended that future research should be conducted to improve the quality of teacher education.

Vijay Kumar Chechi (2008) explained that developed emotional skills are more likely to be content and effective in their lives, mastering the habits of mind that foster their own productivity, whereas people who cannot marshal some control over their emotional life will fight inner battles that sabotage their ability for focused work and clear thought. The role of emotional intelligence is very important as emotional intelligence skills were linked to classroom management and performance and also relates to retention factors for new and novice teachers.

A study was conducted to assess the impact of intervention package on emotional intelligence skills of school teachers by Duhan, Chhikara and Sangwan (2009). The intervention program was imparted to 30 teachers in various schools for a period of 15 days in each school. After a gap of one month, post testing was done and the impact of the given package was measured. To see the effectiveness of the program, a group of 120 children (10 children each from 6 preschool classes and 6 primary classes) were also pre-tested and post-tested (after implementation of the program to teachers) on a checklist developed to judge the emotional intelligence. A significant difference between pre and post testing assessment of emotional intelligence skills in all the four aspects of emotional intelligence was found which was also observed in children’s behaviour. The teachers were instructed to pass on the learned emotional skills (through intervention) to the children of their classes. It is concluded that, to inculcate the emotional skills and their appropriate use among children it is a must for the teachers to be emotionally intelligent; then only they can motivate the children, to learn the emotional intelligence skills.

The construct of emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the individual differences in the perception, processing, regulation, and utilization of emotional information. These differences have been shown to have a significant impact on important life outcomes (e.g., mental and physical health, work performance and social relationships). Results showed a significant increase in emotion identification and emotion management abilities in the training group. Follow-up measures after
6 months revealed that these changes were persistent. No significant change was observed in the control group. These findings suggest that Emotional Intelligence can be improved and open new treatment avenues (Delphine Nelis, Jordi Quoidbach, Moïra Mikolajczak and Michel Hansenne, 2009)

The research of Wibowo and Danang Mukti (2010) determined the correlation of emotional intelligence with teacher performance. 38 items of emotional intelligence Scale based on the aspects of emotional intelligence i.e., emotional self-identify, understanding the emotion, using emotions effectively, organizing and controlling for themselves and others and Teacher performance Scale consists of 35 items which was showed on three aspects of teacher competency standards that management of learning, teaching and professional development were the tools administered. Positive sign on the correlation scores indicated that emotional intelligence had significant correlation with teacher performance.

Prarthna (2011) suggests that teaching competency/performance and one's work performance is influenced positively by emotional intelligence. David and Roy (2010) and Khurram and Shazad (2011) concluded that there is moderate relation between emotional intelligence and teaching competency.

There is a general agreement that learning is a lifelong process and an educator's best practice involves dedication to lifelong learning and a commitment to personal and professional growth. For this, educator's must be equipped with sufficient knowledge, skill and awareness in order to carry out their jobs. One of the critical aspects involved in the development of a healthy, personally accountable and successful person is Emotional Intelligence. The study with a sample of 120 secondary school teachers revealed that there is significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and professional development of secondary school teachers. (Samir Kumar Lenka and Ravi Kant, 2012).

Jaidek and Viplove Passi (2012) assessed and compared the Emotional Intelligence and Teaching Competency/performance of Scheduled Caste and Non Scheduled Caste teacher trainees. 400 teacher trainees were selected from various educational institutions of Panjab University. The results showed that there was no
significant difference between Schedule Caste and Non-Schedule Caste teacher trainees on the variables of Emotional Intelligence and Teaching Competency/ performance.

Lokanadha Reddy and Vijaya Anuradha (2012) conducted a study on emotional intelligence and job performance of teachers. 327 teachers were selected as sample for this study. The results reinforce the need to inculcate emotional intelligence and enhance job performance among higher secondary teachers. Emotional Intelligence training workshops for teachers should be organized to provide in depth information about the emotional intelligence skills which play an integral role in enhancing performance, academic learning, decision making, classroom management, stress management, interpersonal relationships, team building and overall quality of teaching profession. Emotional skills training for teachers can create a more stable, supportive and productive learning environment-one that encourages positive social interaction and better performance at the workplace.

Soleiman and Fatemeh (2012) designed a study to examine the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and major factors associated with job. The findings showed that there were significant relationships between teachers' emotional intelligence and the factors i.e., nature of the work, attitudes towards supervisors, relations with co-workers, opportunities for promotion, work condition in the present environment.

Roisin Corcoran and Roland Tormey (2013) explains the theoretical grounds for the importance of emotional intelligence in the teacher’s skill set. This was addressed, with gender and prior academic attainment: also being explored as possible contributors to teaching performance. No association between the three independent variables and teaching performance was found. This raises serious questions for our understanding of emotions and teaching.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND STRESS

Alam (2009) investigated the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. The determinants of job stress which were examined under the study included, management role, relationship with others, workload pressure, role
ambiguity and performance pressure. The sample of the study consisted of 300 university academicians from Klang Valley area in Malaysia. The results showed that work load pressure, role ambiguity and performance pressure were the predictors of job stress.

Bhagawan (1997) studied job stress among 53 male and 47 female teachers from 20 schools in Orissa. It was found from the results that male teachers experienced more stress compared to female teachers.

Thingujam and Ram (2000) during the process of Indian adaptation of emotional intelligence scale (Schulte et al., 1998) reported, as a part of the convergent validity studies that, Emotional Intelligence was correlated strongly and positively with coping, and moderately and negatively with trait-anxiety. Research has correlated high emotional intelligence with lower levels of perceived stress, positive conflict styles and other measures of positive adaptations in difficult work environment (Abraham, 2005).

Spector and Goh (2001) examined the role of emotion in occupational stress or strain. They employed a narrow definition of job stress as “any condition or situation that elicits a negative emotional response, such as anger / frustration or anxiety / tension” in an attempt to overcome the broadness of previous definitions and focus on negative emotional responses. The authors suggested that emotions influence how the work environment is perceived, that is, whether a particular condition is appraised as a job stressor or not. They further suggested that these appraising emotions may lead to psychological and physical strains. Psychological strain might result from continual negative emotional experiences and may lead to decreases in job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Physical strains (for example, suppression of immune system, heart disease) may result from the physiological components of experienced emotions that can adversely affect health. It was concluded that an individual's ability to manage and control his emotions (particularly negative emotions) in the workplace will influence the outcome of stress.

Chapman and Clarke (2003) conducted a study on “Emotional intelligence as a concept that can be used in stress management” and found that there was a strong
correlation between overall and each of the five EQ abilities and lower levels of stress, emotion management showing the strongest relationship.

A study was conducted on "The relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational burnout among secondary school teachers" by Mendes (2002). The study was aimed to compare the emotional intelligence (EI) and occupational burnout of secondary school teachers. The sample consisted of 49 credentialed secondary teachers. Emotional Intelligence was measured by the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale-MEIS, and burnout levels were measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey-MBI-ES. Emotional Intelligence theory agrees that effective leadership is possible only if emotions are recognized, understood, and managed. Quantitative analysis resulted in the following four significant findings:

(a) In the high emotional exhaustion sub-group there was a negative correlation between emotional exhaustion and the ability to manage emotions.

(b) In the emotional exhaustion sub-group there was a negative correlation between personal accomplishment and the ability to manage emotions.

(c) In the low personal accomplishment sub-group there was a positive correlation between emotional exhaustion and the ability to manage emotions.

(d) In the total sample a positive correlation was found between the number of years of teaching and the ability to identify emotions i.e., with more experience, teachers were found to be better in identifying emotions.

Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) reported a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and stress at work indicating that high scores on emotional intelligence suffered less stress related to occupational environment. Landa et al., (2008) found a differential effect of the emotional intelligence on stress.

Gohm, Corser and Dalsky (2005) led an investigation among 158 freshmen to find an association between emotional intelligence (emotion-relevant abilities) and stress (feelings of inability to control life events), considering personality (self-
perception of the meta-emotional traits of clarity, intensity, and attention) as a moderating variable. The results suggested that emotional intelligence is potentially helpful in reducing stress for some individuals, but unnecessary or irrelevant for others. It may be because they have average emotional intelligence, but do not appear to use it, presumably because they lack confidence in their emotional ability.

Nina Oginska and Bulik (2005) focused on emotional intelligence in the workplace, which effects occupational stress and health outcomes. The results confirmed that role of emotional intelligence in perceiving occupational stress and preventing employees of human services (Teachers, nurses, probationary officers) from negative health outcomes. The ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in coping with occupational stress.

Amit Kauts and Richa Saroj (2010) explained that teachers with high emotional intelligence were having less occupational stress and more teacher effectiveness/performance, whereas the teachers with low emotional intelligence were having more occupational stress and less teacher effectiveness/performance. The results are in tune with the studies conducted by Cirarrochi, Chan and Caputi (2000); Sutton and Whitely (2003); Suresh and Joshith (2008).

Akomolafe Moyosola Jude Misra (2011) investigated the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on occupational stress among secondary school teachers. Four hypotheses were postulated and tested. An ex-post facto design was used to gather 392 usable copies of the questionnaires from secondary school teachers working in Ondo state. Stratified random sampling technique was used to choose the sample. Two instruments, emotional intelligence and occupational stress scales were used to collect data for the study. The t-test analysis at 0.05 level of significance indicated that there was a significant difference between the occupational stress of secondary school teachers with low and those with high emotional intelligence. There was no significant difference between the occupational stress experienced by male and female secondary school teachers.
Lokanadha Reddy and Vijaya Anuradha (2013) explored the correlation among emotional intelligence, occupational stress and job performance of high school secondary school teachers. The results reinforce the need to enhance and inculcate emotional intelligence among higher secondary teachers to reduce their occupational stress and further to improve their job performance. Possible strategies for this are: training in proactive supervision which emphasizes positive feedback, professional growth and development, open lines of communication and strong level of support, training in conflict resolution and team building.

Anuradha Mehta (2013) conducted a study based on the assumption that application of emotional intelligence can increase teacher effectiveness and reduce occupational stress among teachers. 300 secondary school teachers were selected as a sample for the study. Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) was used to measure the emotional intelligence of the teachers, Teacher Effectiveness Scale (TES) was used to measure the effectiveness among teachers and Occupational Stress Index (OSI) was used to measure the stress among teachers. Findings show that there is significant effect of emotional intelligence in reducing occupational stress in teachers.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND STRAIN

Day, Therrien and Carroll (2006) had examined emotional intelligence’s ability to predict health outcomes after controlling for related constructs or Emotional Intelligence ability to moderate the stressor- strain relationship. The study explored the relationships among Emotional Intelligence (as assessed by a trait-based measure, the EQ-i), daily hassles, psychological health/strain factors (in terms of perceived well-being, strain and three components of burnout). After controlling for the impact of hassles, the five EQ-i subscales accounted for incremental variance in two of the five psychosocial health outcomes.

Melita Prati et al., (2009) examined the moderating role of emotional intelligence in the surface acting-strain relationship. Specifically, the authors hypothesized that higher levels of emotional intelligence were associated with a weaker relationship between surface acting and strain (i.e., depressed mood at work, somatic complaints). Results supported the hypothesized relationships and the authors
found that higher emotional intelligence attenuated the positive relationship between surface acting and depressed mood at work and somatic complaints.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND COPING

Chan (2006) stated that the higher level of emotional intelligence positively correlated with the more use of coping by valuing peer acceptance and involvement in activities and the less the use of coping by attempting avoidance. Significant difference was not obtained between male and female on emotional intelligence. Number of findings suggest that females use more frequently social support, avoidant and emotion focused coping strategies than males

Batool and Mridula (2008) investigated to understand how people with different degree of emotional intelligence vary in use of coping strategies. The relationship of emotional intelligence with coping strategies was examined on a sample of 599 adults (300 males and 299 females) between 20 to 50 years of age group from Mysore city. The findings show that the mean scores on problem solving, distraction, positive and acceptance strategies showed that the subjects with high levels of emotional intelligence used these strategies more than those with low levels of it. On the other hand, the subjects with lowest levels of emotional intelligence coped with their anxiety through distraction negative, religion, denial or social support more than other strategies.

Chan and David (2008) assessed emotional intelligence to represent personal resources, facilitating active and passive coping a sample of 273 Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong-Kong. Intrapersonal emotional intelligence and interpersonal emotional intelligence were found to predict significantly active coping strategy and intrapersonal emotional intelligence in the prediction of active coping, especially for male teachers.

Hulsheger, Lang and Maier (2010) reported that models of emotional labor suggest that emotional labor leads to strain and affects job performance. 151 trainee teachers are the sample in this study. Results revealed that the emotional labor strategy of surface acting led to increases in subsequent strain while deep acting led to increases in job performance.
Poornima and Lokanadha Reddy (2012) asserts that the curriculum of teacher education should include Emotional Intelligence training package and that the service teachers should be given training in Emotional Intelligence competencies techniques to practice and impart competencies to student-teachers.

STRESS

Research suggests that gender may be an important demographic characteristic to be considered in the experience of stress. Mondal et al., (2011) found a significant difference between male and female teachers, with male teachers having more psychological stress and physical stress than the female teachers. Also, male teachers were reported to be more insecure and emphasized financial concerns, while females expressed concerns about intrinsic facets of their jobs. Moreover, males were observed to have higher stress and anxiety than the females. Quite contrary to this, female teachers tended to complain more of burnout than male teachers (Ravichandran and Rajendran, 2007). Some researchers failed to advocate any significant result to support gender difference in their studies regarding level of stress.

Dimensions of stress were workload, student misbehaviour, professional recognition needs, time/resource difficulties and poor colleagues relations. Students misbehavior and workload emerged as the strongest predictors of stress and were entirely consistent with studies reported elsewhere. However, results of time/resource difficulties and professional recognition needs, contradicted the findings of other researchers. Poor relations with colleagues failed to emerge as a direct predictor of stress in its own right, in contrast to results generally reported by other researchers. Regardless of the contradiction in some of these results, the study still offers the support for notion of multiple sources of teacher stress (Boyle, Borg, Folzon and Baglion, 1995).

Malhotra and Kaur (2009) conducted a study on stressful life events and gender differences. Females would perceive some stressful life events more seriously and would report more physical and psychological effects as compared to males. These findings supported that women usually develop sense of responsibility and
perceive stressful life events as threatening. On the contrary, men are not vulnerable to stress as women.

Beere and Jackie (2005) revealed that daily interactions with students and coworkers, the incessant and fragmented demands of teaching often lead to overwhelming pressures and challenges, which may lead to stress among teachers. A recent study done on primary school teachers also revealed that unrealistic expectations, paperwork and administration can be major contributors to stress among teachers.

The early years of a teacher's career have been recognized as being stressful. Contradict to this, the years of experience on the school teachers did not show any significant effect on job satisfaction and job stress. Younger and less experienced teachers were observed to be more burned out than older or more experienced teachers (Chang E, Strunk D. R. Dysphoria, 1999).

Usha Patil (2012) found that Stress Management is an important part of daily living for everyone. Stress is the state of mind. When tolerance level is unable to cope up with the pressure, stress is produced. Since the tolerance level of individuals vary, the level of stress also varies. It is very important to know the ill effects of stress and art of its management to remain productive in the job.

Mariya Aftab and Tahira Khatoon (2013) examined the relationship of a set of independent variables (gender, qualification, teaching experience, salary, subjects taught and marital status) with occupational stress among secondary school teachers. The population in this study consists of 608 teachers from 42 schools of Uttar Pradesh (India). The Teachers Occupational Stress Scale was used for data collection, while t-test and F-test are used for statistical analysis. According to the results of the analysis, nearly half of the secondary school teachers experience less stress towards their job and males display more occupational stress towards job than the females. Moreover, the trained graduate teachers are found to have higher occupational stress than postgraduate and untrained teachers. Teachers with an experience of 6-10 years face occupational stress the most, and 0-5 years the least; while those falling in the remaining two groups slide in between these two. Findings also reveal no significant
differences between monthly salary, subjects taught, marital status and occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

STRESS AND GENDER

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) revealed that Female teachers found pupil misbehavior significantly to be more stressful than did their male colleagues. Martocchio and O'Leary (1989) found that there were no differences in experienced stress between male and female, in a work setting.

Okebukola and Jegede (1989) developed a questionnaire in order to study factors related to occupational stress among teachers in Nigeria. They found five main factors related to stress: student factors, teacher factors, the school working environment, administrative procedures and service conditions. Female teachers were more influenced by the school environment and administrative procedures than male teachers.

Trendal (1989) found that more stress was experienced by the teachers with 5-10 years of experience, but senior teachers reported lesser stress.

Chaplain (1995) and Romano and Wahlstrorn (2000) found different/ sources of stress amongst teachers in their studies and both the studies found that female teachers experienced more stress than male teachers.

Sahu and Mishra (1995) made an attempt to explore gender differences in relationship between stresses experienced in various areas of life. The sample for the study was 120 men and 120 women teachers. The results revealed significant positive relationship between work related stress and society related stress in males. On the other hand, in females, a significant positive relationship was observed between family stress and society related stress.

Chaplain (1995) study on elementary school teachers in England revealed that approximately 23 percent of the sample identified their work as 'very' or 'extremely' stressful. Stress levels variation is based on the teacher's sex, age and amount of experience. Female teachers scored higher than male teachers in terms of occupational stress.
Ushashee et al., (1995) considered 80 male and 80 female high school teachers in the age group of 25-40 years (adult) and 41-60 years (middle) age to know the effect of gender on teacher’s experience of job stress and job satisfaction. Analysis of data indicated significant effect of gender on job stress.

Findings of Wadud et al., (1998) indicated that the teachers with up to five years of experience scored much lesser on stress-coping than the teachers with more than five years of experience on all the dimensions of coping and the scores also indicating that with increased experience, the women are in a better position to cope with the job stress.

Wahlstrom and Romano (2000) found that female teachers expressed more stress than male teachers. Arroba and James (2002) reported that the relationship between gender and stress is complex and varied and that women are more affected with stress than men.

Azizi and Nik Husain (2001) shows that the level of stress among secondary school teachers is in medium level. The results also showed that there were no significant relations between the stress factors and gender. Furthermore, there were significant relations between workload and experience of teaching, age and number of children. The most dominant stress’ factor was student’s discipline problem.

Prakash et al., (2002) in their study on University teachers found no major differences between male and female teachers at varying teaching experience levels on measures of occupational role stressors and coping.

Triveni and Aminabhavi (2002) conducted a study to know the gender difference in occupational stress of professionals and non-professionals. The sample consisted of 300 professionals (doctors, lawyers and teachers) and 100 non-professionals. The results revealed that women professionals experience significantly higher occupational stress than men due to under participation.

Antoniou and Polychroni (2006) reported that female teachers experienced significantly higher level of occupational stress, specifically with regard to interaction with students and colleagues, workload, students’ progress and emotional exhaustion.
Increased occupational stress among teachers had weakened the efficiency of the teachers.

Eva Tsai, Lena Fung and Lina Chow (2006), examined the sources and manifestations of stress of Hong Kong female teachers. Results suggest that Time Management and Work-related stressors are more common sources of stress whereas feelings of Fatigue and Emotional related symptoms are more common manifestations of stress.

Ravichandran and Rajendran (2007) investigated various ‘Sources of stress’ experienced by higher secondary teachers. A sample of 200 higher secondary teachers was randomly selected and they were administered Teacher’s Stress Inventory developed by Rajendran, which measures eight independent factors of sources of stress. The results revealed that female teachers experienced more stress than male teachers.

Lath (2010) conducted a study on the occupational stress among teachers in India. The research findings revealed no significant differences in the job stress experienced by male and female teachers.

Surindar Kaur (2011) conducted a comparative study of occupational stress among teachers of private and Government schools in relation to their age, gender and teaching experience. The results revealed that private school teachers experience more stress than the Government school teachers. Women with below 15 years of service experience more stress than above 15 years and men.

Gayatri Malhotra and Rita Rani (2012) attempted to find the relationship of role performance with age and experience of secondary school teachers. The findings revealed that there is significant positive relationship between role performance and demographic variables. Findings of the present study revealed that there is significant positive relationship of role performance with age and experience of secondary school teachers. It is suggested that administrator should be aware about the psychological conditions of Secondary School Teachers to give better performance to their students. Hence, the Secondary School Teachers having maladjusted problems should be identified as early as possible for better performance in education.
Madhu Gupta (2012) explored and compared the job stress of school teachers; measures the stress of the school teachers in relation to various factors such as type of school, sex differences, age, educational qualification and teaching experience. The results clearly indicate that the stress level of male teachers’ is higher than that of the female teachers. The public school teachers’ stress is higher than Government school teachers. The teachers having 10 years or more than 10 years of teaching experience were less stressed than the teachers having below 10 years of teaching experience.

Vandana Mehra and Harpreet Kaur (2012) conducted a study on occupational stress among secondary school teachers of Chandigarh. Sample consists of 600 teachers, who are more prone to stress because, dealing with students and caring for their better performance throughout the day is itself a stressful situation. Results revealed that Government school teachers exhibited more occupational stress than private school teachers.

STRESS AND TYPE OF INSTITUTION

Pervez and Hanif (2003) found that teachers working in private schools had significantly more complaints with cardiovascular problems than those of working in Government schools.

Shukla Indira (2008) conducted a study entitled ‘Burnout and stress among secondary school teachers in relation to their teaching effectiveness’. The relationship between teachers experienced stress and teaching effectiveness as perceived by teachers and students on the basis of teacher’s qualification, experience, subject taught and type of school and age was analysed. There is positive significant relationship between teachers experienced stress and teaching effectiveness; the teachers from private schools experience high stress than Government school teachers.

Reddy and Sridhar (2012) focused on occupational stressors in secondary schools in Andhra Pradesh. 120 teachers were randomly selected from the Government and private schools hailing from Rangareddy District. The results revealed that there was significant difference between Government and private secondary school headmasters with regard to their occupational stress.
Vandana Gandhi and Sharda (2103) revealed that (i) female teachers are more stressed than their male counterparts. (ii) 90% of the female senior secondary school teachers were found to be stressed. (iii) the occupational stress affected the teacher’s efficiency. With the increase in occupational stress, effectiveness was reduced. (iv) the results showed that private senior secondary school teachers were more effective than the Government senior secondary school teachers.

STRESS AND EXPERIENCE

Several studies indicated that stress levels reduced with years of teaching experience, possibly arising from a heightened ability to deal with various situations at school that comes from experience.

Gaur and Dhawan (2000) examined the relationship between work related stressors and adaptation pattern among women professionals. A sample of 120 women professionals (30 teachers, 30 doctors, 30 bank officers and 30 bureaucrats) participated in the study. It showed that the four professionals groups have shared almost similar level of stress except in the categories of career development and stressors specific to working women.

Blix et al., (1994) conducted a study on occupational stress among university teachers and found that faculty having less than 10 years of experience had higher stress than faculty with more than 20 years of experience.

Mohan Reddy and Kishore (2011) studied job stress of secondary school teachers. 190 teachers were sample in this study. The results revealed that (i) male teachers experience high stress in rural areas than female teachers, (ii) private school teachers experience more stress than Government school teachers and (iii) teachers with below 10 years of teaching experience having more stress than above 10 years experience teachers.

Swarnalatha (2011) conducted a study on factors influencing stress among school teachers. Results revealed that management, gender, marital status and teaching experience have significant influence on the stress among school teachers. Female teachers experiencing high stress than male teachers Teachers working in private schools having more stress than the teachers working in Government school
teachers. Married teachers show significant difference. Teachers with below 10 years of experience are with high level stress than the other groups i.e., 11-15 years and above 15 years of teaching experience. Teachers who have 11-15 years of experience have more stress than the teachers with above 15 years of experience.

Mariya Aftab and Tahira Khatoon (2013) examined the relationships of a set of independent variables (gender, qualification, teaching experience, salary, subjects taught and marital status) with occupational stress among secondary school teachers. The population of this study consists of 608 teachers from 42 schools of Uttar Pradesh (India). The Teachers Occupational Stress Scale was used for data collection, while t-test and F-test are used for statistical analysis. According to the results of the analysis, nearly half of the secondary school teachers experience less stress towards their job and males display more occupational stress towards job than the females. Teachers with an experience of 6-10 years face occupational stress the most, and 0-5 years the least.

STRESS AND COPING

Jamuna and Uashree (1990) found that private and public school teachers differ significantly in their career satisfaction, perceived administrative support and coping with job related stress.

Christina Mann Layne, Thomas H. Hohenshil and Kusum Singh (2001) examined the relationship of occupational stress, personal strain and coping resources. Path analysis was used to analyze causal relationships among turnover related variables. The hypothesized model included age, experience, number of clients on a caseload, occupational stress, strain, coping resources. Occupational stress produced the largest significant effect and had the most influence on turnover intentions. It indicates that occupational stress is inherent in the job functions of rehabilitation counselors, and not individual coping resources or demographic variables account for turnover in the field of rehabilitation.

Hasnain et al., (2001) in their study “Role stress and coping strategies in different occupational groups” assessed the coping strategies in three different occupational groups (20 engineers, 20 managers and 20 teachers). No significant
difference was obtained among the coping strategies of the three groups. The two coping strategies used by these three groups were extra-persistent and inter-persistent (approach coping). In a nutshell, it can be said that in all the three groups, approach coping strategies were more frequently used than avoidance strategies.

Aruna and Vani (2002) conducted a study on job stress among primary school teachers of missionary and Government schools. The sample consisted of 100 women primary school teachers. The results indicated that majority of teachers have experienced medium stress in the areas related to students, poor remuneration, curriculum load etc. It was also observed that there was no significant difference in the status of stress among primary school teachers of missionary and Government schools. From this, it can be concluded that individuals do experience stress of different levels; only their sources of stress vary according to the type of institution they work.

Vijayalaxmi and Triveni (2002) conducted a study on “Gender difference in Occupational stress among professionals and non-professionals.” Sample consisted of 300 professionals (Doctors, lawyers and Teachers) and 100 non-professionals. The results revealed that women professionals experience significantly higher occupational stress than men due to under participation.

Austin, Shah and Muncer (2005) examined teacher stress and the coping strategies used to reduce stress among high school teachers. They found that the main sources of stress were work-related stress (e.g., related to administration, preparation, parental involvement, and hours worked outside of school), time management, discipline, and student motivation. Additionally, significant relationships were found between ways of coping and stress. Coping methods such as, escape avoidance, accepting responsibility, and uncontrolled aggression were used by teachers as negative coping strategies or ineffective ways of reducing stress. These types of coping strategies increased with greater stress levels. Only exercise was indicated by teachers as an effective way of coping. Teachers with lower levels of stress use more coping methods such as exercise, than those with higher levels of stress.
Aditi and Kumari (2005) found that the stress buffering effects of friendship and social support systems seem to be significant contributors to alleviate high levels of stress.

The relationships among teacher occupational stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources, and burnout were investigated on a simple of 247 Spanish secondary school teachers. Concretely, two specific aims were formulated in order to examine the effect of teaching stressors on teacher burnout and the role of self-efficacy and school coping resources as mediator or moderator variables in the stressor-burnout relationship. Teachers reported that when their pedagogical practice in the school setting was being interfered with or hindered by a set of factors from the multiple contests involved in students' learning, problems of burnout occurred. In addition results revealed that teachers with a high level of self-efficacy and more coping resources reported suffering less stress and burnout than teachers with a low level of self-efficacy and fewer coping resources, and vice versa (Fernando Domenech Betoret, 2009).

Shejwal and Shahnaz (2006) found that male teachers, compared to the female teachers, used more problem-focused and emotional-focused coping mechanisms. Male teachers, compared to the female teachers, had higher job burnout. Among the male teachers, there were no significant correlations between coping mechanisms and the job burnout variables except for depersonalization, which showed a significant positive correlation with both the coping mechanisms.

Arun Kumar and Srivastava (2007) explored the gender differences in occupational stress and coping strategies among teachers. There is no significant difference between the male and female teachers regarding their occupational stress. Female teachers score high on the use of coping strategies such as positive/negative cognition, magical thinking, avoidance, religious approach and help seeking. The male teachers use problem solving strategies more than the female teachers where as external attribution strategy is used equally by male and female teachers.

Zhang and Li-fang (2007) reported that occupational stress remained as a significant predictor of teaching style. A stronger feeling of role overload and more
frequent use of a rational/cognitive coping strategy were conducive to employing both creativity-generating and conservative teaching styles.

Jayasree Nayak (2008) studied the factors influencing stress and coping strategies on a random sample of 200 teachers of Dharwad city. Gender wise significant difference was observed in case of personal development stressors and interpersonal relation stressors. Offering prayer, positive thinking, working in-group, avoiding painful reminders, delegating the tasks and listening music were practiced as coping strategies to reduce their strains. In coping, there was no significant gender difference in the teachers.

Gur Pyari Prakash (2009) attempted to examine the effect of coping strategies as moderator variable which buffer the relationship between stress and strain in his study “Effective moderators of stress - strain relationship among university teachers”. The sample consisted of 185 male and 115 female teachers (age range 25 to 55 years). The participants had teaching experience of 1 to above 20 years. It was hypothesized that (i) the effect of role overload (RO), role inefficiency (RI) and role ambiguity (RA) stressors are moderated by cognitive coping strategies (ii) the effect of responsibility (R) and role boundary stressors (RB) are moderated by self care coping strategy (SC) (iii) the effect of physical environment stressor (PE) is moderated by social support coping strategy.

Occupational Stress Inventory (OSI) developed by Osipow and Spokane (1987), comprised of three scales i.e. Occupational Roles Questionnaire (ORQ), Personal Strain Questionnaire (PSQ) and occupational Resources Questionnaire was used to collect the data from sample. The results of moderated regression analysis revealed the fact that social support and self care coping strategy significantly moderate stress – strain relationship among university teachers. It was also concluded that for this sample physical environment (PE) role insufficiency (RI) and role boundary (RB) were the significant stressors contributing to all four types of strain.

Zhang and Li-fang (2009) examined the predictive power of occupational stress for teaching approaches. Results suggested that the combination of role overload and the use of rational/cognitive coping was conducive to the conceptual
change teaching approach (both intention and strategy) and that role insufficiency negatively predicted the conceptual-change teaching strategy. Rational/cognitive coping and psychological strain contributed to information-transmission teaching strategy.

Fritzevote (2010) conducted a study on job stress and coping strategies among secondary school teachers. Relationship between job-related stress variables and individual coping strategies was also explored in a purposive probability sample of 200 secondary school teachers using a questionnaire. The use of the chi-square test revealed the following significant relationships: (1) Teachers stressed by student indiscipline do not necessarily develop aggressive behaviors; (2) Poor salary situations do not make teachers engage in income generating activities; (3) It is very likely that teachers lose enthusiasm for their work when they have a sense of under promotion; (4) Work overload does not make teachers dialogue less with their students; (5) Conflicting relationship with principals will not make teachers change their careers. Socioeconomic factors are the most important predictors of stress, followed by interpersonal relations and then by instructional problems. Individual personality differences and social support systems moderate the impact of stressors on teachers.

Sammina Malik and Fouzia Ajmal (2010) revealed that most of the student-teachers experienced moderate level of stress during teaching practice. Heavy workload, evaluation by supervisor/teacher, managing classroom, writing detailed lesson plans were identified as major causes of stress. Three main coping strategies, communication/feedback, talking to the family/friends and use of self-management skills such as preparation, planning and organizational skills were practiced by the teachers to reduce their stress and strains.

Jeffrey Sprenger (2011) examined the stress and coping behaviors among school teachers. One hundred teachers interviewed for this study, reported that the teaching profession is stressful, with 72% describing the profession as extremely or very stressful. This study recognizes and investigates the stressors that affect school teachers, and identifies the coping behaviors that are used in response to these stressors. The results also indicate that primary school teachers will most often
employ neutral coping behaviors, followed by positive coping behaviors and negative coping behaviors. With these stressors, being a part of the teaching profession, it is suggested that primary school teachers should participate in stress management educational programs in order to more effectively handle stress.

Parul Misra and Kiran Sahu (2011) investigation was aimed at studying the relationship between level of organizational role and the ways of coping of teachers. Results show that problem focused coping, confrontive, seeking social support and planful problem solving significantly and negatively related to role stress. The results are same for male and female teachers in the sample. As far as emotion focused coping is concerned, distancing, self control, accepting responsibility, escape avoidance and positive reappraisal are types of emotion focused coping and results also show that all the emotion focused coping significantly and positively related to organizational role stress among these teachers, expect self control in rural. Suldo (2008) studied the relationship between stress, coping and mental health and found that coping style moderate the influence of stress on global life satisfaction. It is also obvious with the obtained results that, seeking social support is used most of the time for dealing with stress by rural teachers.

STRESS AND PERFORMANCE

Rubina Hanif (2004) findings showed that there were significant differences between government and private school teachers on levels of teacher stress, job performance and teacher efficacy. Government school teachers showed high levels of stress, poor job performance and low self efficacy as compared to private school teachers. Correlation was also found between .teacher stress, job performance, self-efficacy and some job related and demographic variables i.e., marital status, family system, number of students, monthly income, age and job experience of teachers. T-test and ANOVA showed differences between groups related to demographic variables. The findings indicated that these variables contribute significantly in teacher stress, job performance and self efficacy of women school teachers.

Ismail, Suh-Suh, Ajis and Dollah (2009) conducted a study to examine the effect of emotional intelligence in the relationship between occupational stress and
job performance. The outcome of the study clearly stated that relationship between occupational stress and emotional intelligence significantly correlated with job performance. Statistically, the results confirmed that the inclusion of emotional intelligence in the analysis mediated the effect of occupational stress on job performance.

STRESS AND STRAIN

Strain is a feeling of tension that is both emotional and physical (Ellis, 1999). It has been diagnosed as: a state of psychological tension produced by the forces of pressures (Reber and Reber: 2001); a state of mental or emotional strain (Soanes, 2003). Stress up to moderate level is inevitable and leads to motivation but prolonged occupational stress in teaching results in both physiological and psychological ailments.

The literature has established the relationships between role stressors and the feeling of strain (Lee and Ashforth, 1996). According to Posig and Kickul (2003), strain occurs mainly because of fatigue that results from pressure to comply with the set of demands.

Role overload creates strain, because of the pressure to do more work, having a heavy workload that interferes with work quality, and the feeling of not being able to finish a given task within a specified period of time (Conley and Woosley, 2000). The workload by itself is not harmful but rather the perception of threats related to the workload causes strain (Smith and Lazarus, 1990).

Pithers and Rebecca Soden (1998) examined occupational stress, strain and personal coping resources of a comparative group of Scottish and Australian vocational teachers. 332 teachers were selected as sample. It was found that stress and strain similarities between the two national groups far outweighed the differences. For instance, there were no between-group differences in strain levels, which were found to be at "average" levels for both groups.

Lynda Younghusband (2000) assessed the level of stress among teachers. The results supported that teachers are experiencing a high level of stress due to their occupation and highlighted serious concerns. The greatest stressor was found to be
Role Overload. The vocational strain caused by this stress is measured in attitudes toward work and the extent to which the individual is having problems in work quality or output. The interpersonal strain caused by occupational stress is apparent as teachers report lately doing things by themselves instead of with others.

Yang, Wang, Lan and Wang (2004) reports that Occupational role and personal strain were positively correlated, and both were correlated negatively to the personal resources. The correlations of work ability, occupational stress and strain, and personal resources were significant among teachers.

Chaplain (2008) investigated a relationship between stress and psychological distress among trainees of secondary school in England. Differences were identified between men and women in respect of stress and psychological distress. Perceived occupational stress was found to be significant predictor of psychological distress.

Shirom et al., (2009) tested the hypothesized unidirectional or bidirectional effects of 5 types of teachers' work-related stressors on each of 4 types of psychological strain: somatic complaints, burnout and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The authors found support for the expected unidirectional effects of the T1 (beginning of school year) work related stressors on the respondents' T2 (end of the school year) somatic complaints. The study suggested that the directionality across time of the relationship between stressors and strains may depend on the intrinsic properties of the strain under consideration.

Mohd Kamel Idris (2010) indicates that role ambiguity account for the strongest direct effect on strain; strain had the strongest direct effect on cynicism. The path analysis revealed that role ambiguity, strain, cynicism, organizational commitment and turnover intention were critical in the model. The perceived organizational support, peer support, and self-efficacy are added in consideration of research indicating that those variables can buffer the effect of role stressors on strain.

The main objective of the study conducted by Kassim Kimo Kebelo and Ananda Rao, (2012) was to explore the extent at which role stressors predict psychological strain of academic officers in Ethiopian higher educational institutions. A total of 369 academic officers were randomly selected. The findings of the study
indicated that over 37% of variations in psychological strains were accounted for by combined effect of role stressors. It was also found that role boundary, role overload, role insufficiency and role ambiguity were significant determinates of psychological strains.

Anish Korla and Sumith Sharma (2013) conducted a study on occupational stress, psychological strain and coping resources of teachers of Government secondary schools of Chandigarh in relation to their Gender and length of teaching experience. The results revealed that teachers differed in occupational stress, Psychological strain and coping resources of teachers. Length of teaching experience had no effect on occupational stress, psychological strain and coping resources of teachers.

STRAIN AND GENDER

Richard and Kriehok (1989) found that women in higher occupational ranks experience more strain than men when they controlled for age, stress, and coping. Ryan (1996) found that male counsellors had significantly higher stress scores than females.

Azizi and Nik Husain (2001) shows that the level of stress among secondary school teachers were in medium level. The results also showed that there were no significant relations between the stress' factors and gender. Furthermore, there were significant relations between workload and experience of teaching, age and number of children. The most dominant stress' factor was students discipline problem.

Wang et al., (2001) assessed occupational stress and strain in primary and secondary school teachers. The results showed that level of occupational stress and strain in male teachers were significantly higher than those in female teachers; the occupational stress and strain in secondary school teachers were significantly higher than those in primary school teachers.

Carolin Cope (2003) reported gender differences in physical strain and also found that stress management interventions and awareness campaigns are important for all levels of men and women employees.
Alkhadher and Al-Naser (2006) assessed occupational stress, strain and coping for North American teachers in Kuwait. The differences in levels of occupational stress and strain experienced by the teachers were measured by Occupational Stress Inventory. No differences appeared among measures of stress or strain between male and female teachers or between married and single teachers.

**STRAIN AND TYPE OF INSTITUTION**

Evans, Ramsey and Johnson (1986) analyzed the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic job stressors on 47 Physical Education teachers randomly selected from the Florida public schools. Perceived levels of stress were compared among these teachers when physical illness, psychological strain and absenteeism were present. The analysis of variance technique was used to analyze the collected data using three demographical variables. Results indicated that Physical Education teachers who have experienced physical illness or psychological strain during the school years had significantly higher levels of both intrinsic and extrinsic job-related stress than the teachers who did not. Stress also appeared to be a significant factor among teachers who experienced excessive absenteeism from work.

Louden (1987) in a major Western Australian study sent General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) to a sample consisting of government teachers in the state. 20% of the teachers were found to be suffering from psychological distress whereas 9% suffered from severe psychological stress. Differences between respondents based on sex, age, geographical region, teaching status, subject taught or level of qualification were not significant. The occupational stressors identified were correlated with level of distress and grouped into categories: unacceptable student behaviour, time pressures, relationships with colleagues and the community, opportunities for alternative employment and working conditions. Of these, relationships with colleagues and unacceptable student behaviour were found to be of particular importance.

**STRAIN AND EXPERIENCE**

Trendall (1989) in his study on primary, secondary and special school teachers studied the relationship of age, sex, experience, qualification and level of
responsibility with stress, strain and coping. Significant differences were found for gender and level of qualification. It was found that the teachers with 5-10 years of experience, experienced more stress, but senior teachers reported lesser stress.

Amareswararaju and Samiullah (2013) conducted a study on a sample of 225 women teachers and 335 men teachers working in Government and private B.Ed Colleges in S.V. University area, to assess the amount of psychological strain experienced by men and women teachers with short and long job tenure. Results revealed that (i) There is no significant difference between men and women teachers in their psychological strain.(ii) Teacher educators working in Government B.Ed colleges experience more psychological strain than the teacher educators working in private colleges.(iii) Teacher educators with short job tenure experience more psychological strain than the teacher educators with long job tenure.

STRAIN AND COPING

Alexander, Monk and Jonas (1985) conducted a study on occupational stress, personal strain and coping among residents and faculty members. The findings support the need for residents to employ coping strategies during the residency years and provide guidance regarding the kind of coping strategies needed.

Abrol Kapil (1990) examined the strains experienced and coping strategies used by 27 male and 27 female teachers with at least 5 years experience. Social support, personal strain and personal resources questionnaires were administered. Findings indicate that the Social support was used by teachers suffering from interpersonal and psychological strain. Social support and cognitive coping was used to deal with felt stress.

Niles and Anderson (1993) found that males and females scores on the Occupational Stress Inventory differed substantially, indicating that gender has an impact on how stress is experienced. They reported that “female clients reported average scores for occupational stress, strain, and coping, men reported higher stress and strain scores and lower coping scores”.

The results of Lease, (1999) study reveals that there is no significant difference on measures of stress or strain between male and female faculty or between
new and more experienced faculty members. Results on the negative impact of role and avoidant coping on measures of personal strain are consistent and suggest the need for promoting different coping strategies.

Forgarty et al., (1999) in their four studies, employed path analysis to examine how measures of occupational stressors, coping resources and negativity (NA) and positive affectivity (PA) interact to predict occupational strain. The occupational stress inventory (Osipow and Spokane, 1987) was used to measure stress, strain and coping. The Positive and Negative Affectivity Schedule (Watson, clark and Tellegen, 1988) was used for the affectivity variables. The hypothesized model showed NA and PA as background dispositional variables that influenced relations among stress, strain and coping while still allowing stress and coping to have a direct influence on strain. Goodness of fit indices were acceptable with the model predicting 15% of the variance in stress, 24% of coping and 70% of strain. Study 2 replicated these findings. Study 3 added a positive outcome variable, job satisfaction to the model. The expanded model again fit the data well. A fourth study added a global measure of personality to the model tested in study 3. Results indicated that personality measures did not add anything to the prediction of job satisfaction and strain in a model that already included measures of stressors, coping resources, negative and positive affectivity.

Heather walen and Margie Lachman (2000) examined the association of social support and strain from partners, family and friends. Positive and negative social exchanges were more strongly related to psychological well-being. For both sexes, partner support, strain, family support were predictive of well-being. Family strain was predictive of well-being and health outcomes more often for women. The findings also evident that supportive networks could buffer the detrimental effects of strained interactions; friends and family served a buffering role more often for women than for men.

A study conducted by Pithers, Robert; Soden, Rebbecca (2002) on a sample of vocational teachers revealed that there is a significant negative relationship between personal resources (Recreation, self-care, social support, rational/cognitive) and occupational strain, differing by gender, age and type of strain (vocational,
psychological, interpersonal, physical). Women and older teachers are more effective in using resources to reduce or buffer strain.

Khan et al., (2005) conducted a study on coping strategies among male and female teachers with high and low job strain. The results of the study indicate that both male and female teachers used the same strategies to cope with job strain. Significant difference was not found to exist between the male and female teachers on different types of coping strategies except use of humour. Teachers have adopted a range of coping strategies most tend to be functional or active and some are dysfunctional or passive (i.e. self-distraction and use of humour). Male and female teachers did not give response on alcohol dimension of cope scale.

Vijaya Lakshmi (2008) explained about the teacher stress and coping strategies to alleviate stress. The article deals with the concepts of teachers stress, sources and warning signs of stress. It also suggests the coping strategies that can be used by teachers to alleviate stress thereby preventing strain and ensuring productivity and efficiency of teaching.

Yang et al., (2009) compared the occupational stress and work ability in doctors, police-officers and teachers. The findings show that personal resources of police-officers were lower than those of the doctors and teachers; Recreation and self-care of doctors and teachers were superior to those of police-officers. The score of social support was highest in doctors. Occupational role and personal strain were positively connected and both were connected negatively to the personal resources. Also suggested that police-officers, doctors and teachers, though different, yet relevant measures should be taken to reduce the occupational strain so as to improve their work ability.

Leung et al., (2009) showed that 38.6 percent of teachers had experienced strong maladaptive stress due to vocational strain but coping resource was limited with most deficits on rational and cognitive coping. Also revealed that participants paid little attention to their own health and the management of stress. Those who exhibited more stress management behaviors showed significantly less physical symptoms, higher satisfaction with teaching, and lower occupational stress.
Secondary teachers in Hong Kong have high occupational stress but insufficient stress coping resources. Cognitive-behavioral programs are recommended to enhance teachers' stress management.

Yang, Ge, Hu, Chi and Wang (2009) found that 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 counselling should be provided to relieve stress and enhance quality of life.

Siying et al., (2007) conducted a study for intervention on occupational stress among teachers in the middle schools in China. 459 teachers were participated in this study. The integrated interventions (involving organizational and individual level intervention) were given to the teachers in the study group. The scores of some scales of occupational role questionnaire and personal strain questionnaire decreased significantly and the scores of some scales of personal resources questionnaire and work Ability Index increased significantly after interventions.

COPING

Yue (1995) presented the findings of a study on occupational stress among primary and secondary school guidance teachers in Hong Kong. Social support was found to be significantly and negatively connected with all of the occupational stress measures and that job dissatisfaction was significantly and positively related to need deficiency, work load and work strain.

Age was not found to be a significant variable for elementary school counselors on stress and strain measures; results indicated that older counselors had higher coping scores than younger ones (Trivette, 1993). This indicates that least some coping strategies/resources are better utilized by older counselors as compared to some younger counselors.
Wu, Wang, Li, and Zhang (2006) studied the status of occupational stress and work ability of teachers in the primary and secondary schools and also intervention measures to reduce the occupational stress. Among four items of personal strain questionnaire, the scores of interpersonal strain of the teachers in the study group significantly decreased; compared with the teachers in the control group, the scores of the vocational strain and interpersonal strain were significantly lower after taking intervention measures.

Among the four items of personal resources questionnaire, the scores of the recreation, self-care and rational cognitive coping of the teachers in the study group significantly raised and were significantly higher than those of the teachers in the control group.

Lewis, Ramon; Roache, Joel; Romi, Shlomo (2011) reported the relationship between the way teachers generally cope with the stresses associated with student classroom misbehaviour and their choice of specific management techniques to cope in the classroom. A sample of 515 teachers completed questionnaires assessing teachers’ use of six classroom management techniques and 19 generic coping strategies which provide support for three coping styles: Social Problem Solving, Passive Avoidant Coping, and Relaxation. Results showed that coping styles play a significant role in mediating the relationship between teachers' concerns about student misbehaviour and their use of classroom management techniques.

COPING AND GENDER

Empirical support for gender differences in coping strategies was found by Folkman and Lazarus (1980). These authors noted that when the individuals encounter stressful situations, men tended to engage in problem-focused coping more often than women.

The gender differences in coping mechanisms are highlighted by some researchers and found that women prefer emotional expressions and self blaming (Vingerhoets and Van Heck, 1990) and men prefer more of cognitive style of coping (Olsson, Kandolin and Kauppinen, 1990).
Mc Donald and Korabik (1991) found that female were more likely to talk to others about their problems and seek social support when they experience stress.

Upamanyu (1997) explored the stress management techniques used by the educated working women. The sleep and relaxation, exercise, time management, diet and yoga are the best ways adopted to manage stress by educated working women.

Khan et al., (2006) conducted a study on coping strategies among 140 male and 60 female teachers with high and low job strain. The results revealed that male and female teachers with high job stress differed on the coping strategy i.e. self distraction. Significant difference existed between the male and female teachers with low job strain on use of humour dimension of coping strategy. Male as well as female teachers consider all strategies effective, irrespective of active or passive type of coping situations.

Results of the study on “Role conflict and coping strategies among public school teachers: Perspectives and implications”, demonstrated that teachers perceived their professional roles to interfere with their personal roles. Results also showed that women utilized a variety of coping mechanisms compared to men (Jason Todd Lincoln, 2009).

Lawrence Mundia (2010) investigated the extent to which Brunei trainee teachers used the task-oriented, emotion-oriented and avoidance-oriented coping strategies in stressful situations. The results revealed that there were no significant gender and program of study differences in the way participants employed the three coping procedures.

COPING AND EXPERIENCE

Griffith, Steptoe and Cropley (1999) found that the social support at work and the coping responses, behavioural disengagement and suppression of competing activities predicted job stress independently of age, gender, class size, occupational grade and negative affectivity. High job stress was associated with low social support at work and greater use of coping by disengagement and suppression of competing activities. It is suggested that behavioural disengagement and suppression of competing activities are maladaptive responses in a teaching environment and may
actually contribute to job stress. Coping and social support not only moderate the impact of stressors on well-being, but influence the appraisal of environmental demands as stressful.

Paula Harlow (2008) explored the relationships between stress, coping, job satisfaction, and experience in teachers. Teacher stress was found to be significantly related to socioeconomic status. No relationship was found between teacher stress, direct action, and palliative coping methods. Additionally, teaching experience was not significantly related to teacher stress and coping methods.

Chaturvedi and Purushothaman (2009) investigated the role of certain demographic variables in determining stress-coping behavior of female teachers. The sample consists of 150 female teachers selected by stratified sampling method from various schools of Bhopal. Stress-coping behavior was measured with the help of a subscale of "The Occupational Stress Indicator" consisting of 28 items encompassing six-dimensions of coping strategies i.e. Logics, Involvement, Social Support, Task Strategies, Time Management and Home and Work Relations. The scores of the subjects were compared in terms of marital status, age, and level of teaching with the help of 't'-test and 'F'-test. Results reveal that marital status, age, and experience were found to be significant determinants of stress-coping, but the scores did not differ significantly on the basis of level of teaching. Married teachers in the age range of 40-60 years, with higher experience can cope better with the job stress than their counterparts.

RECREATION

Cunningham (1989) reported that productive and satisfying use of recreation and leisure time has been identified as a potential coping strategy in reducing stress. Trivette (1993) found that Recreation scores for elementary school counselors were in the average range for both the genders.

Kuljeet Kaur (2007) found that teachers are stressed due to role overload, responsibilities and physical stressors present in school. Mentally healthy teachers use coping resources to combat the effect of teachers occupational stress. Teachers use recreational activities such as TV, music, social support from friends to get relief from
mental tensions. The results also indicate that correlation between occupational stress and coping tends to be negative.

SELF-CARE

Teachers with chronic disease, a greater number of days of sick leave, recent experience of a stressful life event and divorced/separated/widowed status tended to suffer greater strain than their peers. Regression analysis showed that the Personal Strain Questionnaire score was significantly associated with role overload, role boundary, responsibility and physical environment, and inversely associated with recreation and rational coping. The most crucial predictors of occupational strain were chronic disease, days of sick leave, recent experience of a stressful life event and marital status. Being a class teacher was the strongest indicator of interpersonal strain. Self-care was associated with vocational strain and psychological strain, and inversely associated with physical strain (Yang et al., 2011).

It was found that counselors who had participated in stress management courses reported significantly higher levels of self-care than counselors who did not (Sowa et al., 1994). Counselors with two children had lower scores for self-care than counselors with no children. Counselors aged 56 and up scored higher on self care than counselors aged 32 to 39.9 and 40 to 47.9 (Trivette, 1993).

SOCIAL SUPPORT

Sorborn and Wallius (1985) adopted Lazarus' stress model and attempted to test variance in stress-strain relationship over time. In a longitudinal study, they asked Swedish teachers to fill in questionnaires concerning coping strategies and social support, work load, mental health, physical well-being and the quality of their sleep. Data were collected twice, at the beginning and at the end of a period of six months. Co-variations between variables were analyzed and relations were found between stress and strain. Relationships between stress and coping strategies and stress and social support were weak.

Pierce and Molloy (1990) in their article entitled "Relationship between School Type, Occupational Stress, Role perceptions and Social Support" highlights major findings in rank order from greatest to least occupational stress factors like
work load, time management, salary, resources, comment in the media, interaction with colleagues and managing student behaviors.

Trivette (1993) found that Social Support scores for elementary school counselors were in the average range for both the genders. Similarly Ryan (1996) found the same results for counselors.

Fogarty (1995) reported that males scored average, lower than females with regard to Social Support. Pithers and Soden (1999) also found that vocational teachers, that were females, scored higher than males on this variable.

Harshpinder (2002) studied the stress management techniques utilized by women in Ludhiana city. A total sample of 150 respondents were studied under 6 subheadings (meditation, psychotherapy, social support, altering situation, planning and reducing responsibilities). Results show that prayer, recreation, talking, proper-house management, setting priorities were the most common stress management techniques utilized by women. Working women were significantly making more use of certain tasks during time shortage and changing standard of job performance. Use of stress management techniques were found in both the categories though the frequency was more in working women.

De Nobile and McCormick (2005) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and occupational stress among Catholic primary school in New South Wales, Australia. They found that four stress domains (information domain, personal domain, student domain, and school domain) were the predictors of job satisfaction. Negative associations were found between job satisfaction and occupational stress. Sources of stress included lack of support from school administration, supervision, job variety, the staff-principal relationship and staff-student relationships.

Wagner and Lori (2010) indicated that there was a significant difference between probationary teachers and other professionals for the Role Overload, Role Insufficiency, and Role Ambiguity, Self-Care, and Social Support. They also reported higher levels of stress in relation to their priorities, expectations, and evaluation criteria when compared to other professionals. They have a greater ability to cope
with stress by completing personal activities and feel more significantly supported and helped by those around them when compared to other professionals.

Hung and Chih-Lun (2012) explored the association between job stress and coping strategies in teachers in Central Taiwan. The results of the study suggest that (1) teachers believed that their job stress was due to lack of teaching autonomy and worked-related stressors. They perceived seeking social support as the most important coping strategy; (2) teachers reporting the most stress were those, who were single, under the age of 25, and with less than 5 years teaching experience; (3) there was a significant relationship between job stress and coping strategies.

RATIONAL/COGNITIVE COPING

Folkman and Larazus (1988) found that individuals who engage in rational, planful problem-solving are less likely to communicate hostility than those who use confrontive coping and also reported that counselors who reported high occupational stress did not report lower levels of Rational/Cognitive Coping resources. This indicates that counselors who have been taught rational/cognitive problem solving skills may not necessarily translate having "coping skills to deal with stressful environments.

TEACHER PERFORMANCE

Teachers with good emotional intelligence improves ability to carry out their duties, play their role as possible in accordance with a predetermined standard of competency. Implementation of teacher competency standards is the optimal form of teacher performance.

Qadri et al., (1983) conducted a study on desirable qualities in ideal secondary school teachers. They administered questionnaires to 55 principals of secondary schools. The desirable qualities of teachers identified by them are; life long quest of knowledge, cordial relations with colleagues, proud of their profession, cheerfulness, interest in the welfare of students, fair in dealing, honesty, resourcefulness and sympathetic to students.
Swartz et al., (1990) judged the teachers' performance on five teaching functions: instructional presentation, instructional monitoring, instructional feedback, management of instructional time and management of students' behavior. The sample for the present study consisted of 218 teachers, each with three years teaching experience. A final sample of 171 teachers ratings were used to conduct the factor analysis. The reliability consistency was found to be from 0.77 to 0.91. The results of this exploratory factor analysis indicated that the teaching performance appraisal instrument measures to dusting but interrelated dimensions of teaching: instructional presentation and management of students behaviour. The pattern of correlations among the teaching practices and the factors indicated that the number of teaching practices that need to be observed and rated to describe a teacher's performance could be reduced by concentrating on those teaching practices most highly correlated with the teaching factors.

Borg, Riding and Falzon (1991) studied occupational stress and its determinants among Maltese primary school teachers. The authors discovered that environmental factors, such as pupil misbehaviour, time/resource difficulties, professional recognition needs, poor relationships ability and group taught, had an impact on teacher stress. Results also showed that teachers who reported greater stress were less satisfied with their job and less committed to choose a teaching career given a second chance. Abel and Sewell (1999) in the US found that stress from pupil misbehaviour and time pressures were significantly greater than stress from poor working conditions and poor staff relations for both rural and urban school teachers.

Perveen and Qadri (1992) identified desirable teaching competencies through a survey study on the basis of responses of 99 secondary school teachers. They found that the desirable teaching competencies of secondary school teachers are; appropriate culmination of the lesson, keeping students actively engaged, explaining lesson with examples and diagrams, repeating and summarizing the lesson.

Smith and Smith (1994) explains that internal factors have an impact on teachers feeling of success and a number of external forces can either aid or hinder a teacher's success. There are number of factors that influence teacher performance. Increased duties and demands on time, low pay, and disruptive behavior of students
have significant impact on teachers' attitudes toward their jobs. In addition, lack of support from staff at all levels has an effect on teacher performance.

Teacher's background variables include age, gender, education, subject taught and teaching experience. Teacher's beliefs about subject matter can affect instructional practices and students' achievement. Teacher's pedagogical beliefs on the other hand refer to their notions about the best way to teach a particular topic within a discipline. The engagement of teachers with the ideas and activities will promote the teachers' development (Bell, 1996).

Iqbal (1996) conducted a study and distributed questionnaires to 150 teachers and 50 principals of the institutions to identify the teachers' personal and professional competencies. He found that the desirable teachers' competencies are; honesty, punctuality, hardworking, awareness of national history, confidence, simple, serious, cheerful, straight-forward, teaching according to syllabus, using Audio Visual aids, awareness of students' deficiencies, cordial relationships with parents and informs the parents about the performance of their children.

Perie and Baker (1997) discovered differences between school types with regard to job satisfaction: private school teachers tended to be more satisfied than public school teachers and elementary school teachers tended to be more satisfied than secondary school teachers. School location was also found to be a factor in predicting job satisfaction levels among teachers. Abel and Sewell (1999) in the US found that urban secondary school teachers experienced significantly more stress from poor working conditions and poor staff relations than did rural school teachers. Poor working conditions and time pressures predicted burnout for rural school teachers while pupil misbehaviour and poor working conditions predicted burnout for urban school teachers.

According to Wisniewski and Gargiulo (1997), when performance expectations are established for teachers but relevant resources are not provided, a degree of uncertainty is experienced by these teachers. "This uncertainty becomes an important source of anxiety and stress that ultimately influences a teacher's performance."
A study conducted by Ferris et al., (1998) consists of 157 public school teachers from three school districts of a major metropolitan center of the Midwestern United States. Approximately two-thirds of the sample was female and the average age of the group was 37 years. Each teacher was rated on five point likert-type scale by their respective principal on seven performance dimensions. Results reveal that reparation and planning, effectiveness in presenting subject matter, poise, relations with students, self-improvement, relations with other staff and relations with parents and community were found to be the important seven dimensions of teachers' job performance.

Jahangir (1998) evaluated teachers' performance on a rating scale pertaining to the four broad categories of teaching behavior: intellect, personality, teaching techniques and interaction with students. The main aim of the present research was to study the characteristics of teachers serving at post graduate level. The entire valuation is based on students judgment regarding the overall performance of their teacher. The data reveals that, in general the students perceived their teachers positively. The sample consisted of 70 post graduate students of Peshawar University who were randomly selected. The scale consisted of 20 items each of which was evaluated on a five point scale. The major aim of the present study was to see how the students of the Peshawar University perceived and evaluated their teachers. Results indicate that the mean scores of the teacher was 67.71 which presented a favorable view about the representative teachers. The results further revealed that the consulting students had judged the personality and intellect of their teachers in a favorable manner. It would be one of the possible reasons for satisfactory teacher student interaction.

Mohanty (2000) explains that teacher performance is the most crucial input in the field of education. Teachers are perhaps the most critical component of any system of education. How well they teach depends on motivation, qualification, experience, training, aptitude and a mass of other factors, not the least of these, being the environment and management structures with in which they perform their role. Teachers must be seen as part of the solution, not part of the problem. Low pay, low status and morale are the key causes of poor performance.
The 'teacher teaching performance' refers to the conduct of instruction: posing questions, providing explanations, giving directions, showing approval, engaging in the myriad instructional acts that a teacher performs in the classroom (Rao, 2001). The definition of teaching performance has not been attained universally. Within this context, opinions of students are being recognized as most important in determination of teaching excellence (Perry, 1990 and Abrami et al., 1990).

Ma and MacMillan (1999) surveyed over 2,000 elementary school teachers. The study found that female teachers were more satisfied with their professional role as a teacher compared to their male counterparts. The gender gap in professional satisfaction grew with increased teaching competence. The study also found that teachers who stayed in the profession longer were less satisfied with their professional role. Gender was also a significant factor in a study by Klecker and Lodman (1999) in the US who found that female elementary teachers rated their job satisfaction more positively, even across years of teaching experience.

Riaz (2000) measured teachers' performance on such factors: teaching competence demonstrated, motivational skills, teachers' attitude toward students and fairness in grading. The total number of students who participated in the present evaluation of university teachers was 2038 (men and women). These students were enrolled in MA previous and final year classes in 19 postgraduate departments of humanities and science faculties of Peshawar University. The number of teachers who were evaluated by this sample was 144 and construct validity was determined by factor analysis and item total techniques. The scale, likert-type consisting of 25 items was used. It was concluded that Peshawar University teachers' rating scale is a uni-dimensional test that can be used by the teachers themselves in order to identify, provide valuable information to the teacher concerned for the improvement of teaching quality.

Teachers can create a special atmosphere in classroom in which students are expected to co-operate with their classmates in order to learn. In this way, students come to view their classmates as valuable learning resources, rather than as threats to their academic survival and success. Education under present scenario happens to be a
teamwork, which without sound and healthy interpersonal relations cannot create healthy environment conducive for effective learning (Shah and Sultana, 2000).

The factors affecting the performance of teachers are of two types; the external factors and the internal factors. There are many external factors affecting how a teacher makes decisions in the classroom. It is difficult to attach any order of significance to these factors, because every teacher is different, they will include to some degree, the expectations of the community, the particular school system in which the teacher is employed, the school itself, the grade policies, the parents and the students. Many of the expectations from these external factors will appear conflicting and it is the classroom teacher who weld these into a workable framework while integrating a range of internal factors like individuals' beliefs about teachers, how children learn most effectively, how to teach in a particular discipline or key learning area. The teachers own preferred ways of thinking, acting and seeing the world, learners and learning will be affected by the availability of resources both human and physical (Groundwater and Cornu, 2002).

Competent teachers apply broad, deep, and integrated sets of knowledge and skills as they plan for, implement, and revise instruction. Technology proficiency is but one dimension of teachers' competence (Siddiqui, 2004).

Veer (2004) described about specific studies, in which he has highlighted factors affecting teachers' performance. These factors included measures of teacher aptitudes, attitudes, subject mastery, expertise in teaching methodology and the characteristics of the environment of teaching. Although the major purpose of his work was to relate teaching performance to student learning, it was also designed to analyze the relation between a number of factors and teaching performance.

Malik, Dharmender (2005) conducted a study on performance of teachers of Government Senior Secondary Schools of Haryana. It has been found to be highly effective, which is consistently upheld among all the performance factors chosen for the study that is by gender, age, training, teaching experience, location. There exists no significant difference between the level of performance of male and female senior secondary school teachers and also found no significant difference between the levels
of performance of senior secondary school teachers having teaching experience of 10 years or more with those having teaching experience less than 10 years.

Lyons and Schneider (2005) examined the relationship of ability-based emotional intelligence facets with performance under stress. The authors that expected high levels of emotional intelligence would promote challenge appraisals and better performance, whereas low emotional intelligence levels would foster threat appraisals and worse performance. The authors found that certain dimensions of emotional intelligence were related more to challenge and enhanced performance, and that some emotional intelligence dimensions were related to performance after controlling for cognitive ability, demonstrating incremental validity.

Students who know what to do in the classroom produce results and results produce learning and achievement. This is because, the students take responsibility and ownership for the task that needs to be done, resulting in fewer behavior problems and increased academic learning time. Procedures result in behavior changes that are permanent. Stated in a similar manner, effective teachers manage their classrooms with procedures and routines. Ineffective teachers discipline their classrooms with threats and punishments (Harrywong, 2007).

To explore the relationship between teaching effectiveness and emotional intelligence, Chhabra and Ajawani (2008) have conducted a study on 30 teachers having high emotional intelligence and 30 of them having low emotional intelligence (N=60). The study aimed at finding out the difference between teaching effectiveness of both the aforesaid groups of teachers. Results revealed that teachers having high emotional intelligence score are higher on teaching effectiveness as compared to teachers having low emotional intelligence. Further it confirmed a significant relationship at 0.01 level of significance between teaching effectiveness and emotional intelligence.

Memeon (2008) conducted his research to identify levels and sources of teacher stress, teachers’ job performance and self efficacy among women school teachers. The study was carried out with two independent samples i.e. teachers and students. Sample I comprised of 330 women secondary school teachers from
government and private schools of three cities of Pakistan. Sample II comprised of 990 girl students selected from 9th and 10th classes of the schools selected in Sample I. Results showed that teachers displayed moderate level of stress and the highest scores were displayed on work related stressors. Significant negative correlation was found between teacher stress and job performance and also between teacher stress and teacher efficacy. The findings also showed significant differences between government and private school teachers on levels of teacher stress, job performance and teacher efficacy.

Elizabeth Phillips (2009) studied the effect of tenure on Teacher performance in secondary education. The merits of teacher tenure currently debated across the country, but little is known about their true effect on teacher performance. Analysis suggest that teacher tenure does not have an effect on teacher performance.

Shafqat Hussain Khan, Muhammad Saeed and Kiran Fatima (2009) focuses on assessing the performance of government secondary school head teachers. The sample comprised 150 secondary school teachers drawn at random from 15 government schools. Results revealed that the performance indicators of professional attitude, interpersonal relationships, leadership qualities and managerial abilities were found to be better, but the aspect of instructional behavior was weaker among the head teachers. The performance of female head teachers in regard to instructional behavior, professional attitude and managerial abilities was found to be relatively better than those of their male counterparts. There were significant inter correlations among all the independent variables of head teacher performance.

Anthony Milanowski (2011) reports that managing the human capital in education requires measuring teacher performance. To measure performance, administrators need to combine measures of practice with measures of outcomes, such as value-added measures, and three measurement systems are needed: classroom observations, performance assessments or work samples, and classroom walk throughs. However, these methods should not be combined haphazardly, because different measures are appropriate for different functions.
Nakpodia (2011) investigates the degree to which the performance of teachers is in relation to certain factors in secondary schools of Delta State. The results show that teachers' performance in Secondary Schools is significantly dependent on the capacity of the principals to effectively conduct adequate and valuable supervision which validates the importance of discipline, record keeping and teaching aids. The study recommends that school principals should routinely adopt reasonable supervisory behaviour to enhance teachers' task in the classrooms.

Mohammad Nadeem et al., (2011) conducted a study to identify and analyse the factors affecting the performance of female teachers in Bawalpur. The in-depth investigation of the findings open a number of options for teachers and planners to manipulate the relationship for promoting the performance of female teachers. Poor socio-economic status of teachers effects the teacher's performance. Poor socio-economic condition of the area where school is situated decreases the teacher's motivation but society gives more respect to female teachers as compared to male teachers. Undue political interference also affects the teacher's performance. A positive relationship was found between most of the factors and the performance of female teachers.

DeAnnaR. Sturm et al., (2012) indicated that mean ratings of teaching performance were significantly different between men and women. Results suggest that gender and optimism are factors in the perception of teacher performance.

Padhye Vilas (2012) study attempts to explore Gender and caste effects on teaching performance of teachers. The sample comprised of 517 teachers and 10256 students from the state of Maharashtra. Teacher performance was measured with the help of the Teacher Assessment Scale (TASC). The results revealed that, despite equal academic qualifications and eligibility among all teachers, female teachers and those from the backward castes are seen to underperform. The effect is most pronounced for female teachers from the backward castes who have to deal with both stereotypes of caste and gender.

Sajjad Akbar, Zeb Jan and Asiya Gul (2012) focused on impact of work life conflict on job performance of female school teachers while keeping organization
policy as a moderating variable. Data were collected from 200 female school teachers of different schools using questionnaires. Result showed that Work life conflict has a negative impact on job performance of female employees and Organization policies do not moderate this relationship. The results are analysed using Regression and other statistical tests to check that whether organization policies contribute to reduce work life pressure and stress or not. The research proved that improvement is desired in improving organization policies to enhance female teachers' performance and to increase their motivation, reducing work life pressure and stress.

Atiya Inayatullah and Palwasha Jehangir (2013) examined the effect of motivation on job performance in public and private schools of Peshawar city. The collected data was analyzed through SPSS software. The findings of the study revealed that there is a significant and positive relationship between teacher's motivation and their job performance.

Somprasong Senarat and Benjamaporn Senarat (2013) examined the relationship between predictor variable and the discouragement in duty performance of teachers. The sample was 421 teachers from seventeen schools in South Thonburi school district of the Bangkok metropolis. Two-stage random sampling technique was used for selecting the sample during the year 2004. The instruments were the questionnaires considering Work experience, Work load, Teaching capability awareness, work satisfaction, Role conflict, World perspective strength, and Discouragement in duty performance. The findings were as follows: firstly, the factors negatively and significantly related to Discouragement in duty performance of teachers were: Work experience, Teaching capability awareness, Work satisfaction, Role conflict, and World perspective strength; and the factor positively and significantly related to Discouragement in duty performance of teachers was Work load.

Rosman Bin et al., (2013) investigated the relationship between Job Stress, Performance and Emotional Intelligence. A sample of 65 faculty members was taken from public and private sector. They found that negative relationship exists between Job Stress and Performance, whereas a strong positive relation was found between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance. The findings of study show that the
faculty members in the Higher Education Institutions of Pakistan should focus not only on identifying the Job Stress factors but should also try to manage their emotional competences through a conducive work environment. In this way they can deal with the problem of Job Stress and boost up their Job Performance.

Rammath Kishan (2013) conducted a study on teacher effectiveness in relation to stress, coping strategies and personality factors. The findings of the study show that (i) no significant relationship was found between stress and teacher effectiveness/performance, and (ii) there exists significant relationship between the coping strategies and teacher effectiveness/performance.