CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

1.0.0. INTRODUCTION:

Teaching is the most arduous and complex profession in our society, and also an important job. Yet teachers are often overworked, underpaid, and under appreciated. There is a common bond which unites all teachers, i.e. the desire to help students reach their maximum potentials as human beings. When we achieve this goal, when we see students grow as a result of our teaching, we know that all the training and hard work have been worth the effort.

It is generally agreed that the ‘goodness’ of an educational system, to a great extent, is dependent only on the quality of teachers available to implement it. A school may have excellent material resources, equipments, building, library and other facilities along with a curriculum appropriately adopted to suit the community needs, but if the teachers are misfit or indifferent to their responsibilities, the whole programme is likely to be ineffective and wasted. The problem of identification of effective teachers is, therefore, of prime importance for realizing desirable educational goals.

Development of a nation always relied on knowledge acquired through education and its practical applications. Considering any efficient education system or educator, effective instructional strategies with identity and high potentials in which the contents were delivered are the main pillars of quality education system.

Quality education is a pre-requisite for national, regional and global development. For delivery of quality education, we need quality teachers who are committed to teaching and equipped with necessary knowledge, skills and competencies for effective teaching.

Quality teachers and teaching only can be the strong agent of social re-engineering and national reconstruction. Educationists, no matter, how different their
educational philosophies and ideologies may be admit that the ultimate test of nation's greatness is the quality of her citizens which depends upon the quality of her teachers.

For teachers to be more effective and quality professionals, teacher education must be brought into the mainstream of the academic life of our institutions at all levels. Planning and implementation of futuristic, exhaustive and farsighted reforms and recommendations can make a real breakthrough and vitalize teacher education.

An effective teacher “a unique human-being who has learnt to use his self effective and sufficiently for carrying out his own and Social purposes” (Comb, 1964). He is not just a teaching machine but a sensitive human-being who in conscious of his role responsibilities as a teacher. As reported earlier (Kumar & Mutha, 1983 ), certain personality characteristics like intelligence end anxiety have been found to characterize the personality of effective teacher at the secondary level. The present study in continuation has tried to examine the relation of some other personality variables-teaching aptitude, job-satisfaction and marital adjustment with teacher effectiveness at the secondary level.

All Education Commissions and Policies since independence stressed on the restructuring and re-organization of teacher education and of teaching profession. Radhakrishnan Commission (1948) for higher education, Mudaliar Commission (1952-53) for secondary education, Kothari Commission (1964-66) for all levels of education, were constituted to suggest reforms to push forward the agenda of educating India, strengthening teacher education and re-warm teaching-learning strategies.

The Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) stated, "we are, however, convinced that the most important factor in contemplated educational reconstruction, is the teacher, his personal qualities, his educational qualifications, his professional training and the place that occupies in the school as well as in the community".

The Education Commission (1964-66) observed, "Of all the different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to the national development, the quality, competence and character of teachers are
undoubtedly the most significant". The Commission also emphasized on the training and orientation of teachers at all levels. The Commission also observed that investment in teacher education could yield very rich dividends because the financial resources required are small when measured against the resulting improvement in the education of millions.

The National Education Policy of India (1986) focused its attention on an educational system which can produce citizens who are by and large physically, mentally and morally healthy; who are conscious of their duties and rights, who are keen to learn on a life long basis and incessantly eager to improve their performance and who consequently are well grounded individuals competently contributing to the uplift of the quality of life everywhere.

National Council for Teacher Education, which is a creation of the NPE (2005) suggested to make teacher education effective and productive, the prevailing teacher education system is to be undergone drastic changes.

National Curriculum Framework (2005) introduced 'Critical Pedagogy', based on social constructivism, to restructure the system of teacher education. According to NCF, content and pedagogy blended together, that is content inbuilt pedagogy is the landmark of teacher education system. To achieve this NCF recommended academic planning and leadership at the school level, block level and cluster level, as essential for improving quality and strategic differentiation of roles of teachers.

It is very difficult to define good teaching. This term is so value-laden that what appears to be good teaching by one person may be considered poor teaching by another, because each one values differently on the process of teaching – its techniques, outcomes or methods. One teacher may run the classroom in organized, highly structured manners, emphasizing the intellectual content of academic discipline, while another may manage it in a less structured environment, allowing the students much more freedom to choose subject matter and activities that interested them personally. One observer, because of
one’s personal values in favour of more intellectual attainment as the end of teaching, may identify the first teacher as a good teacher, while criticizing the second teacher for running too loose a ship sheerly to cater for individual interests in the name of education. Another observer may come to the opposite conclusion with respect to which teacher is better; again, because of a different set of values that govern one’s choice.

While it remains difficult to agree on what constitutes good teaching, effective teaching can nearly be demonstrated in terms of what is really intended as the outcome of teaching. An effective teacher is able to bring about intended learning outcomes, though the nature of learning be still more important. The two different teachers, as in the example above, may strive for and achieve different outcomes and both be judged effective. The two critical dimensions of effective teaching are “intent” and “achievement”. Without intent, student achievement because random and accidental. However, intent is not enough by itself. If student do not achieve their intended learning goals, the teacher cannot be truly effective. Thus, the effective teachers may be defined as those who can demonstrate the ability to bring about intended learning outcomes that enable them to achieve the desired result for their students. This once again, refers to the role performance of teacher’s vis-à-vis the making of good and effective teachers. The quality of education, we provide to our children depends on the quality of education of teachers we inject into the education system, which in turn depends on the quality of teacher education program. Only competent, committed and resourceful teachers can give quality education. Teacher education holds the most crucial position in the education system today. In fact, a teacher educator is the topmost academic and professional person in the educational pyramid. A teacher educator is responsible for the education of teachers under whose the destiny of our children is placed by the community. The onus of the quality of teachers, therefore, rests on the teacher educator himself.

1.1.0 TEACHER EDUCATOR EFFECTIVENESS:

The evaluation of teachers is not a new issue. Teacher evaluation existed in the days
of the one-room school. The initial purpose was to determine job continuation and pay increases. Evaluation tended to happen at the local level with standards that were based upon local education objectives. The industrial revolution brought about some changes in the evaluation process as schools became larger and unions started to exert their influence. Unions started to set specific evaluative criteria for teachers and rules for dismissal and advancement. These criteria tended to be minimal and were still dominated by local boards of education. During the 1950s, more men entered the teaching profession. There also emerged an increase in professional activity and union membership. Sputnik and The Cold War focused additional attention on education by raising fears that Soviet students were better educated than American students. The cold war brought about the desire to find better teachers in order to compete with the Soviets. This led to even more men entering the teaching profession and unions increasing their influence. Clark (1993, p. 7) said, “Their influence and role in evaluation of teachers offered the profession the respect long overdue.” America prospered, and students went to college in larger numbers than ever before (Clark, 1993).

A Nation at Risk Report (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) changed the educational landscape by telling the country that education was again in trouble, and students were not learning and lacked even basic skills. Clark (1993) described what happened in the intervening decades.

Education had evolved into a system based on the premise that teacher-proof curriculums, test-based instructional management, and student competence testing alone would improve learning. These policies assumed the adherence to a predetermined teaching format would result in the desired level of learning. Teachers were viewed as laborers implementing a prescribed program in a manner determined by policy makers further up the educational hierarchy rather than as professionals with a repertoire of techniques and the ability to decide for themselves how techniques should be applied. One of the prime outgrowths from the A Nation at Risk (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) report was the effective schools movement. Effective schools emphasized minimum requirements to be a teacher and the ability to implement specific correlates, such as
punctuality and provision of a safe learning environment. Teacher evaluations gained a new
importance as a call for effective teachers spread across the United States. Systems, such as
North Carolina’s TPAI (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2000), had their
wrote that three questions emerged from this movement; “(1) what is an effective teacher?
(2) how can they best be evaluated? and (3) what can we do with this evaluation?” (p. 11)
These questions still drive the debate about teacher evaluation today.

1.1.1. DEFINING THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER:

Research offered a plethora of definitions of an effective teacher. Clark (1993, p. 10) wrote that, “Obviously, the definition involves someone who can increase student knowledge, but it goes beyond this in defining an effective teacher.” Vogt (1984) related effective teaching to the ability to provide instruction to different students of different abilities while incorporating instructional objectives and assessing the effective learning mode of the students. Collins (1990), while working with the Teacher Assessment Project established five criteria for an effective teacher: (a) is committed to students and learning, (b) knows the subject matter, (c) is responsible for managing students, (d) can think systematically about their own practice, and (e) is a member of the learning community (Clark, p. 11).

Swank, Taylor, Brady, and Freiberg (1989) created a model of effectiveness that was based upon teacher actions. For them, effective meant increasing academic questions and decreasing lecture and ineffective practices, such as negative feedback and low-level questions. The authors believed that these factors become easily identifiable in the assessment of performance. Million (1987) based effectiveness on the lesson design and method of delivery. If teachers met a preset list of criteria during their evaluation, they were deemed effective. Papanastasiou (1999) stated “that no single teacher attribute or characteristic is adequate to define an effective teacher” (p. 6).

Wenglinsky (2000) believed that the classroom practices are important to learning. In his research, he found that what happens in the classroom is critical and that how a
teacher teaches is important. Practices that promote higher order thinking and active participation are most successful. The problem is to translate this knowledge into an acceptable evaluation procedure. Clark (1993) pointed out that “One area that was avoided by most authors was the idea of using student achievement as a measure of effectiveness” (p. 12).

Researchers appear to have taken student achievement for granted; they have believed that effective teaching techniques would automatically yield positive student achievement. Only recently has research seriously begun to look at achievement data. As Clark (1993) pointed out, the problem is determining how best to measure student achievement. The research of Sanders (Sanders, 1996, 1999; Sanders, Wright, & Horn, 1997) and others at the University of Tennessee and of Wenglinsky (2000) offered a possible solution to this question. Their work demonstrated that teacher effectiveness can be measured and may be critical to student success. Both Sanders’ (1999) and Wenglinsky’s (2000) work asserted that teacher effectiveness is the single biggest contributor to student success. Teacher effectiveness outweighs all other factors, such as class size, socioeconomic status, and gender.

Sanders and his associates used data from the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) database to run multivariate analyses of students who took the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program test. The results of their longitudinal study showed that teacher effectiveness is both “additive and cumulative with little evidence of compensatory effects” (Sanders & Rivers, 1996, p. 1). Sanders, Wright and Horn (1997), who followed up the original work of Sanders (1978), found that successive years with effective teachers created an “extreme educational advantage” (p. 3). Conversely, successive years of an ineffective teacher placed students at an extreme disadvantage due to the cumulative effects of poor instruction. Minority students suffered the most. African American students were twice as likely to be assigned to ineffective teachers (Sanders & Rivers, 1996).

Wenglinsky (2000) built on the work of Sanders and Rivers (1996) and others by
trying to identify practices that improve student outcomes. Data from the eighth-grade science report of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) provided the basis for this study. Wenglinsky (2000) acknowledged that this snapshot limited his study, thus providing avenues for additional research. The research showed that teacher input, professional development, and classroom practices all influence student achievement. The most significant of the three areas was classroom practices, especially those geared toward high-order thinking (Wenglinsky). Darling-Hammond (2000) studied data from the 1993-1994 Schools and Staffing Surveys and the NAEP data to gauge teacher effectiveness. The results indicated that states, such as North Carolina, that invested heavily in improvements to teacher quality and student accountability showed the greatest gains on NAEP assessments.

Not all researchers were convinced that teachers provide measurable input into student gains. English researcher Goldstein (2001) asserted, “In secondary schools, it is very difficult to ascribe the progress of any one pupil in a given subject to the teacher of that subject” (p. 4). Instead, other factors influence the student, such as other teachers, student background, and school setting. Citing Gray (1979) and Saunders (1978) as well as his own work, British researcher Long (2000) concluded that there is no established connection between teaching and learning. Long stated that “Findings from a number of different areas therefore consistently indicate that there is little variation between teachers in terms of their impact on pupil’s progress” (p. 7).

Since the publication of the A Nation at Risk (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) report, the definition of teacher effectiveness has been slowly evolving. Initially, effectiveness was defined by meeting a set of vague criteria associated with the effective schools movement. This evolved into the multiple strategies of methods and instruction. While this was an improvement over the earlier evaluation methods in that the role of teacher was recognized, it still left large gray areas. New research (Sanders 2002, Strauss and Vogt) advocated the increased use of student data, especially gain data that measure student growth from the beginning of the year to the end of the year. The definition of teacher effectiveness most likely lies in the middle. Teachers must have adequate knowledge of the techniques and methods that are related to their profession and
must understand that student learning must increase over the course of the year.

1.1.2. EVALUATION PRACTICES:

No matter how one defines effectiveness, there is an understanding that teaching “involves a complex set of knowledge, abilities, and personal attributes in dynamic interplay” (Davey, 1991, p. 121). Davey explained that evaluating teachers is different from evaluating laborers or assembly line workers in that there is no end product to assess. Because there is no simple way to evaluate teachers, multiple methods have evolved. The most common method is classroom evaluation. One study found that 99.8% of public schools use principals’ classroom observations as the primary source of data for teacher evaluation (Sullivan, 2001). Other methods include teacher portfolios, student evaluations, value-added assessment, and peer evaluations.

The most common method of evaluation involves observation and feedback. The North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (2000) provided a typical example of this. Under this system, teachers were observed and rated on their lesson designs and teaching techniques. There is the wide-ranging debate over what constitutes good practice. One recent report cited the lack of agreement by teacher colleges and other professionals on what constitutes good practices (Cochran-Smith, 2000). Wilson and Wood (1996) pointed out a number of flaws with this system. Observations do not take teaching differences into account; instead, observers tend to look for the same practices from different subject teachers. Principal observations force teachers to limit their performance to established evaluation criteria. The National Center for Educational Statistics (1999) noted several criticisms of observations: (a) limited competence of the principal; (b) teacher resistance and apathy; (c) role conflict for the principal; and (d) lack of expertise in specialized areas, especially at the secondary level. In North Carolina, a new teacher must be observed four times, and tenured teachers require only one observation. Sullivan (2001) pointed out that this method is not linked to student performance.

Research indicated that observation is important to teacher evaluation because
teachers must demonstrate that they can perform certain pre-established competencies, such as lesson presentation and classroom management (Clark, 1993). One caution with observation evaluations was “the implication that, if it looks good, then it is good. Unfortunately, it is just not that simple” (Clark, p. 18). Both Sullivan (2001) and Clark urged a multifaceted approach that incorporated observation used with some other evaluative tool.

Other evaluation methods incorporate observations and feedback from nontraditional observers, such as students, peers, and parents. Each of these has proven less than effective in gauging effectiveness. Andrews (1995) found that “Poor instruction is not identified through the use of student ratings” (p. 5). Sullivan (2001) substantiated this finding and concluded that there is no evidence of increased student achievement with the use of student evaluations. Parent and peer evaluations showed similar results (Sullivan). Andrews found that peer evaluations tended to be even more inflated than principal observations. Papanastasiou (1999) believed that peer reviews have merit, but research on the subject is very limited.

One method of evaluation was becoming more prevalent at the time of this writing: data-driven evaluation that is based upon student achievement. Sullivan (2001) stated, “As state and school districts begin to gain an appreciation of just how inefficient current evaluation systems are and investigate how to create data driven systems to raise performance, value-added systems of accountability are likely to become more prevalent” (p. 7). There are, however, several criticisms of student achievement tests. The first concern is that it is hard to assess teacher input into student learning. The second criticism is that standardized tests examine outcomes of students who start at different levels (Mehrens, 1998). Kohn (2000) feared that any standardized testing program would narrow the scope of teacher evaluation. Sanders and others who helped develop the TVAAS system in Tennessee tried to address these criticisms. Sanders and Horn (1995) pointed out that past efforts in the use of test data were not feasible because of the cost and lack of computing power. This meant that there was no way to differentiate educational influences from external factors. The advent of powerful computers and
sophisticated software changed this equation.

The research demonstrated that observations comprise the bulk of the evaluation process, whether the principal or others conduct them. New research (Sanders and Rivers 1996, & Mendro, Gomez, & Anderson 1998) shows that data-driven evaluations are gaining acceptance and reliability. The next logical step is to combine observations with data analysis. In a search for the best evaluation model, a combination of observation and data-driven evaluation deserves a serious examination. Observation is necessary to ensure that the teacher provides instruction using accepted pedagogy and that there is an understanding of the teaching process. A data component provides a quantifiable method of determining teacher input and student learning. Combining the two would maintain the salient features of the old system and incorporate the new wave of available data.

1.1.3. MEASURING EFFECTIVENESS:

Although there exists extensive literature about how to evaluate a teacher and what method is best, there has been very little published that relates directly to quantifying teacher effectiveness. Sullivan (2001) pointed out that 99% of evaluations are the result of teacher observation. Most of these observations are then formalized into rating systems. Vogt (1984) suggested using a system with four levels of performance: (a) exceeds district expectations, (b) meets districts expectations, (c) needs improvement, and (d) is unsatisfactory. Variations of this system were still in use at the time of this writing. North Carolina’s TPAI (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2000) used a similar ranking system.

Frase and Streshly (1994) reported a serious flaw with this ranking system. Their research showed that teacher evaluations tended to be inflated due to tenure laws and union regulations. Their study of six eastern districts found that ratings tended to skew toward the high side of the rating scale. In most districts, none of the teachers rated “below standard.” Frase and Streshly were alarmed at these results because the school districts they studied had demonstrated very poor instructional practices. Research by
Wilson and Wood (1996) raised concerns with evaluation instruments. They concluded that these instruments are not sensitive to innovative teachers or differences in teaching across content areas. Scrivens (1987) questioned the ability of administrators to judge teachers who teach outside their area of expertise. Can a history-teacher-turned-principal evaluate an effective French lesson?

Perhaps because of the problems that have been highlighted in the research, other methods of quantifying teacher effectiveness were emerging at the time of this writing. The Teacher Assessment Project (Sullivan 2001) program urged a mixed approach that included observations and portfolios. The portfolios contained evidence of knowledge and skills that were used during the school year. Student work, various teacher assessments, and lesson plans could be included in a typical portfolio. The intent was to provide documentary evidence of the teachers’ competence and effectiveness (Clark, 1993). Savage (1982) advocated a portfolio system that included the artifacts of teaching. Savage believed that portfolios worked well in conjunction with observations. Portfolios, though, are not perfect and may not even be a true alternative. Research by Wilson and Wood (1996) raised concerns with evaluation instruments. They concluded that these instruments are not sensitive to innovative teachers or differences in teaching across content areas. Scrivens (1987) questioned the ability of administrators to judge teachers who teach outside their area of expertise. Can a history-teacher-turned-principal evaluate an effective French lesson?

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Alexandrov (1989) found that portfolios were not an effective tool for measuring teacher performance. Alexandrov found that there was little direct improvement in classroom instruction. Sullivan (2001) pointed out that portfolios are highly subjective and may not reflect the true ability of a teacher.

Sullivan’s (2001) research into evaluation methods concluded that nearly all methods are subjective in nature and lack any connection to student achievement. The only measure that is both objective and related to student achievement is the use of test data to determine teacher effectiveness. As Sullivan pointed out, administrators must “embrace the idea that the ultimate measure of a teacher is whether his or her students are learning” (p. 19).

The origin of the idea that school factors, such as teachers, may or may not have an effect on learning can be traced to the Coleman (1966) report, which said that schools have little, if any, impact on the education of the child. Hanushek (1986) reviewed 147 empirical studies that examined the relationship between school factors and student achievement. His conclusion, as paraphrased by Lee (2001), was that “Most empirical studies have a limited set of tools mainly based on single equation regression analysis to estimate the relationship between school characteristics and student achievement” (p. 2). The fundamental problem with using test data for measuring effectiveness is that the results inevitably lead to skewed or biased evaluations. In the 1970s, Cronbach (1976) began researching effects between classrooms and not just between schools. He stated that “The majority of studies of educational effects--whether classroom experiments or evaluations of programs or surveys--have collected and analyzed data in ways that
conceal more than reveal” (p.1). Unfortunately, this means that most accountability models in the United States use test data inappropriately. Stevens, Estrada, and Parks (2000) pointed out the problem with this. They said, If data are analyzed at the student level, the school variables are repeated exactly for each student in a school, giving a false impression of their variability. If data are analyzed at the school level (as is done in almost all state accountability systems), then all student variables within the school must be averaged, thereby losing important information about student differences. Neither analytic approach is correct, and each will result in biased interpretations of the true relationships among the variables of interest (p. 12).

Raudenbush and Bryk (1986) concurred with the idea that educational policy is a multilevel problem but that researchers have used traditional multilevel approaches that produce erroneous results.

Only recently have researchers recognized these limitations in data analysis and begun looking for other approaches to the problem. Williams (1999) pointed out that, 20 years ago, the question was what level was the appropriate one for analysis: the student, the classroom, or the school. This separation of levels is wrong, and only recently have researchers understood this and begun to examine schools as hierarchies that are interrelated. This has led to the development of a new tool in educational research, called multilevel models, mixed effects models, covariance components models, or mixed linear models. The name used for the purposes of this study is Byrk and Raudenbush’s (1992) HLM.

The origins of HLM can be traced to the work of C. R. Henderson, a pioneer in statistical modeling. Henderson’s work provided the basis for much of the research of W. Sanders, who was one of the first to see the implications of using mixed models in education (McLean, Sanders & Stroup, 1991). Raudenbush and Bryk (1986), two more pioneers in the field, believed that education is a field with multiple levels and that data can be analyzed at different levels. They believed that “The new approach provides a flexible statistical tool for studying how variations in policies and practices influence the educational process” (p. 3).
Sanders’ background was in genetics and agriculture, but he was given the task of creating one of the first true HLM models in Tennessee. Sanders (Sanders & Horn, 1994) developed complex statistical analyses to examine student scores on the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program test to measure student achievement gains over time. The data are used to assess how effectively a teacher or school increases what students know. This is what Sanders called “value-added” (Sanders & Horn, 1998). What makes TVAAS different from other systems is that there are 3 or more years of longitudinal student data available for analysis. Sanders claimed that it is possible to assess individual teacher effectiveness using a form of HLM statistical analysis (Sanders & Horn, 1994, 1995, 1998). Sanders, Rivers and others stated that teacher effectiveness is paramount to student success and that the effects, both positive and negative, are cumulative. One feature of the TVAAS system is the use of gain scores instead of raw scores in measuring teacher effect (Sanders & Rivers, 1996).

TVAAS is not without its critics. Several reviews of the program have raised some concerns. Baker, Xu, and Detch (1995) raised concerns about the variation in scores from year to year, problems with identifying teacher factors, and data collection issues. Sanders (Sanders et al., 1997) stated that this system answers many of these concerns and is a valid indicator of teacher effectiveness. Bock, Wolfe, and Fisher (1996) also found some areas of concern with the model. These included problems with missing data, the number of questions on the new science and social studies test, test changes over time, and some test administration issues. Bock, Wolfe, and Fisher (1996) were concerned about the use of national norming numbers in the TVAAS system.

Although there were concerns, the researchers did conclude: We agree that the central concept of the assessment system is the only present, fair, objective, and dependable methods of evaluating teacher effectiveness based on scores and the measurement of achievement gain shown by students during a period a teacher is responsible for their instruction in the subject matter measured by the test (Bock, Wolfe, & Fisher, 1996, p. 69).
Bock, Wolfe, and Fisher (1996) concluded that the underlying statistical model was reasonable. A follow-up assessment by Fisher (1996) raised other questions. Fisher was primarily concerned with contractual problems and data collection problems. He noted that the complexity of the model hinders its effectiveness as an assessment tool.

Goldstein (1997), a leading British HLM researcher, highlighted another common complaint about the TVAAS model. This is the lack of an independent evaluation of the model. With the exception of the one study cited above, studies that provide details about the statistical model that was used have been lacking. Instead, there have been a number of articles (Sanders, 1999, Sanders & Horn, 1994, 1995, 1998, Sanders & Rivers, 1996) that explained the results and conclusions but left out the procedures. Goldstein believed, though, that HLM has a place in educational research. “The statistical models now available, together with the powerful and flexible software, enable researchers to explore the inherently complex structure of schooling in a manner that begins to match that complexity” (Goldstein, p. 18).

Additional work using HLM analysis was done by Webster and Mendro (Millman, 1997) when they helped to create the Dallas Value-Added Accountability System. The Dallas system is a two level HLM model that examines student and school achievement. The results provide the assessment of the effectiveness of each school and the progress of individual students. Although the Dallas model has received good reviews, not everyone is convinced. Researchers Thum and Bryk (Millman) said, “On balance, there is much to commend about this work. Nevertheless, our examination of the system provides reason for caution” (p. 108). Their reasons for caution include complexity and the inherent problems of using test data to measure student outcomes. Byrk has become one of the leaders in HLM research. He teamed with Raudenbush (1992) to create a computer program for HLM analysis. The version that was current at the time of this writing was HLM5.04 (Raudenbush, Bryk, Fai Cheong, & Congdon, 2001). The advances in statistical theory and the advent of powerful, affordable computers and software enabled researchers to solve much more complex problems. Although the system is complex, that should not preclude TVAAS or similar systems.
from using statistical modeling as an evaluation tool. Even Wenglinsky (2000) used student results on standardized tests to measure teacher practices against student achievement.

Adequate measurements of teacher effectiveness have been lacking. What evaluation methods exist are highly subjective and bear little connection to student achievement. If one agrees with Sullivan (2001) that ensuring student learning is the prime purpose of evaluation, then the new statistical models of Sanders (1999) and others (Raudenbush & Bryk, 1986) offer the best hope for creating a truly useful evaluation measure.

1.1.4 TODAY’S TEACHER – ROLE DIVERSITY:

There is a paradigm shift in the role and responsibilities of modern teacher. For remaining at the centre stage of the multi-dimensional teaching-learning process, the teacher has to redefine the role, has to undergo rigorous changes, has to update the knowledge, to have basic human values, to have accountability to the society and to the students. Only such a teacher can work for the formation of right habits, thoughts, actions, cultivation of values and development of right behavior patterns in children.

In ancient times, as revealed by great Epics like Ramayana and Mahabharata, teachers occupied a predominant role in the man making process. The teacher was given the top-most position in the hierarchy and was paid the highest reverence by all people including the rulers. The society looked upon the 'Acharya' for his valuable suggestions and guidance.

In Vedas also, teacher qualities are described. In Atharva Veda, teacher is compared to Yama, the propagator of Dharma, to Varuna, the propagator against sins and to moon, giver of light and happiness. Sastra made it clear that wrong teaching is a crime.

Teaching in the modern era is a challenging profession that requires good subject knowledge, good questioning skills, an emphasis upon instruction, clear objectives, good time management, effective planning, good classroom organization, effective use
of human resources, good interaction, effective communication skills, attitudes, perceptions, interests, etc. That is why, Moore (2001) defined teaching, "as the actions of someone who is trying to assist others to reach their fullest potential in all aspects of development".

Role of teachers change over time in response to new pattern of educational governance and management, new kind of students, new theories of teaching and learning, and the arising of the new technologies (Chapman and Adams 2004). Even though innovations and reforms occur, teacher is still in the pivotal position of the classroom interaction process. In the learner-centered, process-oriented, competency-based, environmental-attached, human based instructional situation, a teacher has to face multi-level problems like planning of content, selection of appropriate teaching-learning strategies and situations, creation of motivation among multi grade - multi level students, usage of group dynamics, completion of curricular objectives, its linkage with practical life, adaptations in curricular statements for the deviated students, timing, continuous and comprehensive evaluation, classroom management, linkage with society and parents, good relationship with the local bodies and their planning processes etc. That is, the role of a teacher changes to that of a planner, manager, designer, director, facilitator, researcher, psychologist, philosopher, sociologist, artist, friend, guide, actor, well wisher, etc. The technological developments, the knowledge explosions, the familial problems, social issues, the behavioral problems are other challenges that makes the teacher's role more complex.

A competent, committed and an accountable teacher keeps his torch of accumulated knowledge burning and ignites the minds and souls of his pupils. In the words of Tagore, "a teacher can never truly teach unless he is still learning himself. A lamp can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn its flame".

In this era of rapid changes in the field of science and technology, communication and interaction, life styles of human beings, societal viewpoints, cultural thoughts, educational expansions, the teacher has to perform a diversified role to cope up with them. That is why, all policies and commissions invested their interests in developing
teaching professionals, professional aptitudes, and their production factor.

The term “teacher educator effectiveness” has been used to refer to the results a teacher gets or to the amount of progress the pupils make towards some specified goal of education. One implication of this definition is that teacher effectiveness must be defined, not behaviors of teachers. For this reason, and because the amount that pupils learning in strongly affected by factors not under the teacher’s control, teacher educator effectiveness will be regarded not as a stable characteristic of the teacher as an individual but as a product of the interaction between certain teacher characteristics and other factors that very according to the situation in which teacher works.

In the present study, “Teacher Effectiveness Scale (1999 Revision) by Pramod Kumar and D.N. Mutha” was used to assess the effectiveness of teacher educators.

1.2.0. ANXIETY:

Modern time is characterized by an era of tension, anxiety, frustration owing to cut throat competition and increasing consumerism. In this era, explosion of population and changing dimensions have brought a rapid change in socio-economic scenario of human life. The mutual relationship, principles of co-existence and tolerance have got a major setback in the days. These shortcoming infused isolation, helplessness and feeling of insecurity, direct or indirect lack of reliable warmth, overprotection, lack of real guidance, disparaging attitude, injustice, discrimination, un-kept promise and so on so forth. The above situations increase tension and conflict. Extreme of these two leads to ego problems. Due to this, personality of an individual is distorted.

Today man is facing problems related with fast changing social structure, communal and racial prejudices, the dangers of war, economic hardships, ecological imbalance etc. which are becoming complex day by day. All this has led to stress, anxiety and unknown fear in the human mind. Therefore, the present century has been rightly referred to as the "Century of Fear" or the "Age of Anxiety" by thinkers like Albet Camas and W.R Auden (Singh, 2004).
Anxiety is the least understood and most extensively studied of all the emotions. The twentieth century has been called the age of anxiety but the concern with anxiety phenomenon has been as old as the history of humanity. It is both an emotional state and a personality trait or quality. The concept of anxiety is very important for understanding the emotional life of a person even though there is much diversity in the definition of anxiety, its origin and its role.

Anxiety is a feeling of apprehension or fear that lingers the source for this uneasiness is not always known or recognized. Anxiety is an emotion often accomplished by various physical symptoms. The way to understand the different symptoms of anxiety attack is: first, comes the sudden jolt of fear with less or no triggering motivation, and then this will lead to a release of adrenaline which causes the supposed fight-or-flight response, where the person's body prepares for major physical activity. This results to an increased heat rate, labored breathing or hyperventilation, and sweating. The diaphragm, involved in the action of the lungs, is also a muscle and it can become overly tight. When there is continuous, inferior anxiety, a person frequently works too hard when breathing. However, if there is hyper anxiety or an anxiety attack, there is overwhelming excitement, and a person may hyperventilate. Anxiety attack may affect your quality of life if not given treatment immediately. As a human being, it is normal that we feel anxious, worried, and fears from time to time due to the things that our complicated lives being. Anxiety is just a pat of life. It helps us cope with the stresses we may encounter.

According to the dictionary definition, anxiety is a painful uneasiness of mind concerning some impending of anticipated ill. An anxiety reaction is a state of apprehension without an apparent object, in which attempts are made to discharge internally generated tension and to reduce anxiety through increased bodily activity. The essential aspect of anxiety is that, it brings on an internal or subjective condition. It represents a danger or threat within the person himself rather than solely on external danger.
Anxiety is a vague term. The word finds itself grouped with synonyms like apprehension and uncertainty. It is derived from the Latin verb anguere, which means “to choke” or “to cause distress (Harper, 2000). In traditional psychology, anxiety is defined more specifically as a “physiological reactivity to events with uncertain but potentially aversive outcomes” (Hayes, et al 1998) or “unfocused worry not connected to recent stressful events” (Tyver et. al. 2006). In all of these definitions, the pervasive concept is uncertainty. However, vague any of these definitions seem, we can point to the concept of uncertainty as being a common link. Because our lives don’t follow a set course, it is imagined that uncertainty is a familiar theme to just about everyone. When anxiety somehow develops to the disorder-level is when it becomes a concern of psychology.

According to Freud (1926), anxiety is central to the psychoanalytic concept of neurosis, an unconscious state which has evolved through repression of unacceptable feelings. The process of repression is maintained through the operation of defense mechanisms such as sublimation, displacement and projection or through disguised expression in conversion symptoms, phobias, obsessions or hypochondrias.

According to Ojha (2002), anxiety to some extent is necessary for successful life but when a person is very anxious then personality is disrupted. If you are in a state of anxiety, it is likely that you experience anxiety attack. Anxiety attack is a sudden surge of overwhelming fear that comes without warning and without any apparent reason and this would usually last for no more than 10 minutes. It is far more intense than having anxiety or the feeling of being stressed out. One in every 75 people worldwide will experience an anxiety attack at one point in his/her life. (Jocelyn Snider, 2009)

The above discussion shows that anxiety is an important dimension or trait of personality and it directly or indirectly affect the overall personality of an individual.
1.2.1. TRADITIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL VIEW OF ANXIETY:

As a psychological entity, anxiety was the cornerstone of Freudian psychoanalysis. Much of Freud’s ideas involved balancing inner states as a way of relieving anxiety. Freud defined three types of anxiety: neurotic, reality-based, and moral. Under the reality-based anxiety heading would lie things that could happen to you in the real world, like being hit by a bus. Likewise, the neurotic heading contained controlling our drives (or id), and the moral heading contained anxiety about doing the “right” thing. In Freud’s estimation, anxiety was inevitable, and the only thing to be done about it is to develop ways to counter the anxiety: repression, denial, and development of defense mechanisms are some examples.

As Freud listed three types of anxiety, the DSM-IV lists twelve different anxiety disorders: panic attack, agoraphobia with panic, panic disorder, agoraphobia without panic, specific phobia, social phobia, obsessive-compulsive, post-traumatic stress, acute stress, generalized, and both anxiety due to physical causes and anxiety not otherwise specified (DSMIV-TR, 2000). The DSM lists separate guidelines for each specific disorder, but anxiety in general is characterized by uncontrolled worry that becomes maladaptive. Symptoms include restlessness, fatigue, difficulty concentrating, muscle tension, and sleep disturbance that lasts longer than six months. The anxiety that causes the symptoms is out of proportion with any possible outcomes of any events. The specific types of anxiety disorders appear to depend on the subject of the uncontrolled worry. Anxiety disorders have a high co morbidity rate, meaning that anxiety is often present as a symptom in other diagnosable disorders, from the physical (thyroid disorder) to the mental (somatization disorder) (Tyver, 2006).

Traditional psychology generally uses pharmaceutical intervention along with different types of therapy to treat anxiety disorders. For short-term intervention (intervention that lasts less than two years), selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, or SSRIs, can be used (Compton et al, 2007). SSRIs make available more serotonin in the brain, which is linked with relief of depression. Benzodiazepines, which have sedative
qualities, are also used in the short-term to treat anxiety disorders. Along with these drugs, some evidence-based treatments include relaxation training, cognitive-behavioral therapy, supportive therapy, and cognitive therapy (Ayers et al, 2007). The goal is that through a combination of these treatments, the afflicted can be relieved of the anxiety.

1.2.2 RADICAL BEHAVIORISM VIEW OF ANXIETY:

Unsurprisingly, behaviorists do not see much to gain from the traditional viewpoint of anxiety. Behaviorists first consider anxiety to be an instance of verbal behavior, and find definitions unhelpful to uncovering what anxiety actually is. Because behaviorism sees anxiety as a hypothetical construct instead of an actual objective and quantifiable thing, it treats it as verbal behavior and in order to describe it, looks to the common environmental cues for the usage of the term.

Behaviorism takes a functional-dimensional approach to anxiety. Every type of anxiety described in the DSM-IV-TR contains some aspect of experiential avoidance. We may use the term “anxiety” to describe a private event contingent upon anticipation of a public event that we’d rather avoid. We learn what we want to avoid by first experiencing the event, whether we experience it directly or indirectly. If I have done poorly on a math test, the next time I check my calendar and see that I have a test the next day, I may have some physiological effect that could occasion me to say I’m anxious. Anxiety can be operationally defined as avoidance responding to an upcoming event (Hayes et al, 1998). Behavioral intervention to an anxiety response would avoid talk-therapy routes and tend toward the reinforced habituation or exposure. The expectation is that the more exposure to an anxiety-inducing event or object, the less avoidance responding will be prevalent. Through exposure, the public avoidance response will be extinguished and the private even that accompanies the avoidance will also be extinguished (Hayes et al, 1998).

The major downfall for traditional psychology’s account of anxiety is that even the best definition uses symptoms to illustrate the cause of the disorder. Anxiety is
described as maladaptive worry or uncertainty, but those are also listed as symptoms. It does not appear very hopeful to find a countermeasure for anxiety if we are only able to describe the symptoms and not what leads to it. Likewise, it is useless to try to generalize a theory for anxiety when we must consider, as the DSM does, multiple agents of the same affliction. As Moore noted in “Conceptual Foundations of Radical Behaviorism,” Skinner laid out three stages of developmental theory, the first step being to clearly define the basic data. Traditional psychology has not accomplished that step, and radical behaviorism does not require this step (Moore, 2006).

The other means of allaying anxiety is through making compromises for new dependencies. In such a pursuit also, one eventually gets involved in intra-psychic conflicts and develops neurotic patterns. Therefore, what can safely be inferred for the argument, is that (i) acquisition of “freedom” without new relatedness makes one free, but, alone, isolated and threatened from all sides. (ii) occurrence of anxiety as such, cannot unequivocally be interpreted as contributory or derogatory to human development. It depends upon the way one deals with the situation of anxiety, which further may vary with the nature of the individual—his inherited dispositions and acquired traits and habits.

Thus, anxiety as an affective, stressful, palpable but transitory emotional state, happens to be a highly unpleasant condition that signals a danger to the ego and is characterized by nervousness, painful uneasiness of mind with feelings of tension, apprehension and heightened arousal of automatic nervous system. The physiological, cognitive and subjective components help the person to deal effectively with clearly recognized, real and immediate dangers but may be damaging for present or unresolved, unconscious conflicts and may affect both somatic and physiological participation and threatens the integrity of the organism with acts of different discharged phenomenon along a particular path.
1.2.3. KINDS OF ANXIETY:

DSM IV (American Psychiatric Association, 1994) classified anxiety into subgroups namely panic disorder, phobic disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, obsessive-compulsive disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder (Davison and Neale, 1998). The words fear and anxiety are often used interchangeably. However, it is sometimes useful to make a distinction. The word fear is used when the object of emotion is known and anxiety when the object is unknown or completely or partially hidden, unrecognized or unconscious in the sense that the anxious person is not clearly aware of the nature of conflicting conditions which make him uneasy. He does not realize that anxiety comes from feelings of insecurity within oneself and not from external situation to which he projects fear.

In the present study, “Comprehensive Anxiety Test (CAT)” by Dr. R.L. Bhardwaj, Dr. H. Sharma and Dr. M. Bhargava was used to assess the anxiety of teacher educators.

1.3.0. STRESS:

Stress like relatively, is a scientific concept which has suffered from the mixed blessing of being too well-known and too little understood. We are exposed to stress every moment of our lives and response to it often determines the quality of our life and health. Hippocrates, so called father of modern medicine and other Greek physicians recognized the phenomenon of stress and its role in the treatment of certain disorders. Over forty five year ago, Selye (1950), the person responsible to bring maximum attention to the concept, wrote his first article on stress. Despite widespread interest in the phenomenon of stress and the comprehensiveness of the framework, most findings in the area of stress are still tentative, controversial and inconclusive.

During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, stress was equated with force, pressure or strain exerted upon a material object or person which resists these forces and
attempts to maintain its original state. The use of the concept in this manner encouraged physicists and engineers to adopt it to suit their ends. Thus, stress in engineering is known as the ratio of the internal force brought into play when a substance is distorted to the area over which the force acts. The popularity of the concept has dwindled in the physiological field where it was first introduced, and the use of stress terminology continues to flourish in the psychological and social sciences. Stress, or the stress experience, can be considered from at least two perspectives. First, stress can be viewed as a trigger for a response. In this sense it may be thought of as a cause. When stress is used in this way, it is commonly called a stressor. Second, stress can be thought of as an effect, in that case it is called a stress response. The stress response is made up of a relatively stereotypic set of psychological and biological patterns. In reality neither stressor nor the stress response exists in isolation. Rather, both feed back on each other to produce the stress experience. The idea that stress exists only when there is a stress response has lead to concern about potential circularity in thinking by some researchers. That is, if there is a stress response, there must be a stressor and vice-versa. For many researchers, this circularity is intentional, since the stress experience is made up of both stressors and stress response. It is useful for discussion purposes to separate the two parts of the stress experience.

The terms ‘stress’ probably drives from the Latin word Stringer which means to draw tightly or bind. That means at least three things to different persons. For some, it is an external factor a ‘stimulus’ which is perceived as threatening and evokes a state of anxiety.

Stress is a psycho-physiological process, which results from the interaction of the individual with the environment (Luthans, 1998) and results in disturbances caused to the physiological, psychological and social systems, depending upon individual characteristics and psychological processes. Individual characteristics may include factors such as sex, health status and heredity. Psychological processes refer to such factors as attitudes, values and various personality dimensions. Stress is defined as “a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint or
demand related to what he desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important” (De Cenzo, 1998). Constraints are barriers that keep us from doing what we desire. These inhibit in us ways that take control of a situation out of our hands. Demands, on the other hand, may cause us to give up something we desire. Thus these preoccupy our time and force us to shift priorities. Constraints and demands can lead to potential stress. When they are coupled with uncertainty about the outcome and importance of the outcome, potential stress becomes actual stress. Regardless of the situation, if we remove the uncertainty or importance, we remove stress.

However, when constraints or demands have an impact on an important event, and the outcome is unknown, pressure is added; pressure resulting in stress. (De Cenzo, 1998). Stress can not be identified simply by the physical trauma; it is in the eyes of the beholder. The extent to which the situations are stressful is determined by appraisal, that is, how an individual understands, interprets, sees and feels about a situation. It is fundamentally a cognitive phenomenon, depending more on how the individual construes the situation than on the nature of the situation itself. The key aspects are uncertainty and control.

According to Druckman (1988). “The less knowledge an individual has about a potentially harmful situation, the less control he feels, can be exerted and the more stressful the situation is. Conversely, the more understanding and certainty the individual has about a situation, the more he feels in control and the less stressful it becomes. Another way to put it is that stress arises in the face of demands to which there are no readily available or automatic adaptive responses”. What is more important is that an individual must learn how to live with stress by using his adaptation energy productively (Seleye, 1983). Greenberg (2002) has offered a comprehensive definition of stress that “encompasses a whole spectrum of factors (stimulus, response, cognitive appraisal of threat, coping styles, psychological defenses, and the social milieu”. There is nothing essentially or extraordinarily wrong with stress, because stress primarily serves as the force which moves us along the path of progress and development; individually as well as collectively. However at the same time, the consensus of scientific opinion indicates
stress to be one of the most dangerous afflictions of society today. Though people have experienced stress and suffered from it since the beginning of mankind, it has been researched systematically only recently (Beach, 1985).

1.3.1. STRESS IN A PSYCHOLOGICAL TERM:

In psychology, the term stress is used to refer both to certain heightened mental and body states and to the causes of such states. A person in a physically or mentally demanding or dangerous situation is said to be under stress. Internal disorders such as acidosis, cirrhosis, and other conditions can also produce stress responses. Chronic repetition of certain emotions, such as anger or despair, as well as changes in work or home situation or a reaction to surgery are just a few of the further ways in which stress can occur. Finally, more than one factor causing stress can be present at one time.

Stress is a normal part of life, and such producers of stress as physical exercise, various emotional states, and creative activity are usually considered healthy. Prolonged and unwanted stress, however, can have undesirable effects on mental and physical health, although reactions to such pressure can vary greatly among individuals. A number of stress-related disorders are known, even though the interaction of body and mind in the development of such disorders are not yet fully understood.

Various methods have been developed to cope with stress; Medication such as Tranquilizers are used Psychiatrists and Psychologists can also help people to cope with stress by various forms of Psychotherapy.

Lot of changes occurs in the psychological functioning when a person is under stress. Reaction is quicker, perception more discriminating, learning and memory more effective. But when coping mechanisms are weaker, psychological functioning deteriorates. Precise motor skill are impaired, discrimination and judgments are more inaccurate; learning is slower, memory is less efficient, intellectual problem solving is less effective.
1.3.2. WHAT STRESS IS NOT?:

1. Stress is not Simply Anxiety: Anxiety operates solely in the emotional and psychological sphere. Whereas, stress in addition to these two, operates in the physiological sphere as well. Thus stress may be accompanied by anxiety but the two cannot be equated (Luthans, 1998).

2. Stress is not Simply Nervous Tension: Like anxiety, nervous tension may result from stress, but the two are not the same. Unconscious people have exhibited stress and some people even when awake may not reveal it through nervous tension (Luthans, 1998).

3. Stress is not Necessarily Something Damaging, Bad or to be Avoided: Although most of the stress is harmful from the health point of view, not all the stress is damaging to human performance. Indeed, a certain tolerable stress can incite people to action and generate good performance (Beach, 1985). Thus, stress is not something bad or damaging and is something that people should seek out rather than avoid. However unmanageable stress, even if it is stress, is damaging. The key is that how a person handles the stress (Luthans, 1998).

1.3.3. CATEGORIES OF STRESSORS:

People react differently to essentially identical events. In order to be stressful, some barrier or a stumbling block must accompany the event to our action (Powell, 1983). This barrier may be real or an imagined one and may take one of the following forms:

1. Frustration. Frustration appears to be an inevitable part of life (Roediger 1984). It is the discomfort caused by the environmental forces that prevent or delay actions. When one’s efforts are thwarted, either by obstacles that block progress or by one’s personal inability to achieve desired goal, frustration occurs (Powell, 1983). Frustration can be particularly difficult for us to cope with, because it so often leads to self-devaluation, making us feel we have failed in some way or that we are
incompetent. Frustrations may be the result of major life events or an accumulation of daily life hassles.

2. Threat. Threat is an expectation of the inability to manage a future situation. It differs from frustration, in that it has not happened yet. It causes stress due to the anticipated future frustration or harm and the perception that the individual cannot avoid it. (Santrock, 1990).

3. Conflict. In many instances stress results from the simultaneous occurrence of two or more incompatible needs or motives; the requirements of one preclude satisfaction of the other. In essence, we have a choice to make and we experience conflict while trying to make it. The more we move towards making one choice, the stronger the pull of the other is. This conflicting situation ultimately leads to stress (Powell, 1983). Conflicts can be of three different types. In an approach-approach conflict, people are attracted to two stimuli, but have to choose one of them. This conflict is the least stressful of the three types because either choice leads to a reasonably positive result (Santrock, 1990). In an avoidance conflict, one must choose between two unattractive stimuli. People want to avoid both, but must choose one. In many instances, they delay their decision about the conflict until the last possible moment. In an approach-avoidance conflict, a single event or circumstance includes both positive and negative aspects. People’s lives particularly in adolescence, are full of approach-avoidance conflicts and they can be very stressful. As the people approach the decision time the avoidance tendencies usually dominate (Santrock, 1990).

1.3.4. STRESS RESPONSE STAGES:

Our mental and physical mechanisms normally work at average level of arousal to deal with routine tasks. But on appearance of a stressor, the over all response of an individual follows a sequence of stages. The reaction or response stages are as under:

1. Alarm. During this stage, an external stressor mobilizes the internal stress system of the body. The body suddenly prepares for danger and extreme physical activity (Luthans, 1998). Endocrine glands release hormones that increase heartbeat and
respiration, elevate blood sugar, increase perspiration, dilate the pupils, and slow the digestion. (http://www.humanmentality.com)

In the initial shock phase of the alarm reaction, bodily resistance to stress drops. If the stress is too severe, the organism may die during the shock phase of the alarm reaction. If the stress is not severe, but continues, the second shock phase of the alarm reaction is initiated. During this phase the resistance to stress increases above the normal, as more specific local defenses are prepared. Seleye suggested that the events of alarm reaction function to maintain life while these local adaptive responses are organized (Buck, 1988). During this phase, tasks that require great strength and stamina may be done very well. However meticulous co-ordination and judgment are likely to be impaired unless they have become automatic. The alarm or emergency reaction to a powerful stressor includes a variety of physiological changes, some of which are mediated by the activity of the adrenal glands. The main changes that have been repeatedly noted, include, rapid heart beat, increase in the blood supply to the muscles and the brain, with a corresponding decrease in the blood supply to the skin, increase in the activity of the sweat glands, dilation of pupils, dilation of the bronchi in the lungs and deeper and more rapid breathing (Seleye, 1983). This stage is relatively brief, lasting from minutes to hours in inexperienced people and from seconds to minutes in experienced ones. This phase finishes if the organism survives death (Roediger, 1983)

2. Resistance. In this stage the body calls upon the needed organ to deal with the stressor (Luthans, 1998). By now, the most appropriate local channel of defense against the stress has been organized and the generalized response is no longer necessary. For example, a person who enters a cold environment may, after a period of suffering, acquire physiological responses that help adapt to chronic cold. Such local adaptive responses may successfully eliminate the source of stress (Buck, 1988). The level of resistance to the stressor greatly increases in this stage. Performance here usually remains at least normal and may even increase. Resistance actually is the productive period in the process of stress coping, as it is instrumental in realization of our goals. During the period of resistance the body is fatigued. This fatigue is normal and
acceptable till the time it starts interfering with normal functioning of body or in the stress coping process itself.

3. Exhaustion. When stress is very high or continues for a very long time, physical and psychological resistance is consumed faster than the body and mind can maintain. This situation eventually leads to the exhaustion. Performance becomes highly erratic and may even shut down. Thus the exhaustion occurs when the irritation persists for a very long time and resultantly, the ability of local adaptive responses to contain the stress and respond to new stress eventually breaks down (Powell, 1983). Selye uses the term “disease of adaptation” to describe a disorder that results as much from body’s attempts to deal with stress as it does from external agents such as infection (Buck, 1988). The problems arise when one fails to recognize or acknowledge the onset of exhaustion. One in this stage engages in fruitless and frivolous activity and sees no reason to relax rest or engage in any recreational activity. The deteriorating performance is countered by more input resulting in more rapid depletion of energies and a stress-related disorder might result. Prolonged exposure to stress depletes the body’s energy supplies and can even lead to death, stress-related disorders, diseases or injuries brought on or worsened by psychological stress. These psychosomatic disorders commonly involve the autonomic nervous system, which controls the body's internal organs. Some kinds of headache and facial pain, asthma, stomach ulcers, high blood pressure, and certain kinds of injury, such as repetitive strain injury and backache, are examples of stress-related disorders. 

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1.3.5. SOURCES THAT CAUSED STRESS:

Stress can be caused by a number of factors called stressors (De Cenzo, 1998). Generally stress is created by a perceived threat to an individual’s physical or psychological well being and the feeling that he is unable to deal with it. The list of things that bring on stress varies widely from individual to individual. So the important
factor is an individual’s perception of an event or situation (Roediger, 1984). Different types of sources are discussed below:

1. Extra-Organizational Sources: Organizations of today are open systems and, therefore, are greatly affected by external environment. Stress is thus not limited to events inside an organization. The phenomenal rate of social and technical change, has had a great impact on people’s lifestyles and this, of course is carried over into their jobs. Although medical science has increased the life span of people and has eradicated or reduced the threat of many diseases, the pace of modern living has increased stress and decreased wellness. Life changes may be slow (getting older) or sudden (death of loved one). Medical researchers have found that especially sudden life changes do in fact have a very stressful impact on people. Extra-organizational stressors include things such as societal and technological changes, economic and financial conditions, race and class, and community conditions (Luthans, 1998). Some theorists suggest that modern society produces more stress than did earlier periods of human life, in part because of the large number and rapidity of changes people now endure (Roediger, 1984). Chronic or relatively long-term unpleasantness can also prove stressful. Environmental stress such as barrage of noise in modern urban environments is an example of this type of problem (Roediger, 1984).

2. Organizational Sources. As organizations dramatically change to meet the environmental challenges, like globalization, Information technology explosion, diversity for employees, they may be required to work in a state on internal stress, which may be evident from diversity of tasks for employees, fast pace of activities and monitory benefits being linked to productivity. Stress is thus inevitably transmitted to the employees. Moreover, the internal climate of the organization may also turn out to be non-conducive and thus, stressful for the employees (Roediger, 1984). Work and responsibility do not induce stress until they exceed the individual’s capacity to control a situation; it is the reaction that counts. On the other hand, some occupations involve so much of tension that almost every one engaged in them experiences a great deal of stress. Air traffic controllers, for example, have a very
high rate of peptic ulcers and hypertension (Roediger, 1984). According to Cooper and Marshall, the following are the major sources of stress at work (Seley, 1983):

1. **Intrinsic to Job**
   (i) Poor physical working conditions.
   (ii) Work overload.
   (iii) Time pressures.
   (iv) Physical danger.

2. **Role in Organization**
   (i) Role ambiguity.
   (ii) Role conflict.
   (iii) Responsibility for staff.
   (iv) Conflicts occurring due to ill-defined organizational boundaries, both internal and external.

3. **Career Development**
   (i) Over promotion.
   (ii) Under promotion.
   (iii) Lack of job security.
   (iv) Thwarted ambitions.

4. **Relationship at Work**
   (i) Poor relations with boss, subordinates or colleagues.
   (ii) Difficulties in delegation.
   (iii) Responsibility problems.

5. **Organizational Structure and Climate**
   (i) Little or no participation.
   (ii) Subsidiary role in major decision-making.
   (iii) Restriction on behavior (budgets, cost containment, etc.)
   (iv) Organizational political climate.
   (v) Lack of effective consultation.
1.3.6. HAZARDOUS EFFECTS OF STRESS:

An excessive burden of stress, either in amount or duration so taxes the adaptive efforts of an individual that a breakdown can occur in a number of areas (Powel, 1983). The effects of stress are discussed below:

1. Physical Problems: Most of the attention in research has been given to physical problems arising from stress. A prolonged exposure to stress can result in essential hypertension, high cholesterol level, ulcer, arthritis, heart disease and even cancer (Luthans, 1998). Such ailments are not only a source of problems for the individual but also for the organization. Severe stress acting through central nervous system to change hormonal balance) can also impair an individual’s immune responses, decreasing the body’s ability to fight invading bacteria and viruses. Indeed, it is estimated that emotional stress plays an important role in more than 50% of the medical problems. Allergies, migraine, high blood pressure, heart disease, ulcers and even acne are some illnesses believed to be related to emotional stress and fall in the category of psychosomatic illnesses (Atkinson, 1983). Psychological stress produces excessive hydrochloric acid, which by damaging the walls of stomach causes peptic ulcer, particularly in those individuals who are biologically predisposed to secrete a high level of the acid (Atkinson, 1983). Stress also plays an important role in heart disease.

2. Psychological Problems: The psychological problems due to stress may be as serious as the physical problems. Anger, anxiety, nervous tension, depression, irritability and boredom may accompany high levels of stress. These types of psychological problems, in turn, are especially relevant to poor job performance, lowered self-esteem, resentment, inability to concentrate and make decisions, and job dissatisfaction (Luthans, 1998). Psychosomatic disorders and hysteria represent fundamentally different ways of dealing with repressed emotional tension. Hysterical and other neurotic symptoms express the tension in a distorted “symbolic” way in the form of effects, ideas, dreams and fantasies. This sort of expression is absent in the psychosomatic disorders. Such patients have difficulties in the expression of their feelings (Buck, 1988).
3. Behavioral Problems: Direct behaviors that may accompany high level stress include, under-eating or overeating, increased smoking and drug abuse. Research evidences show that increased rates of absenteeism, turn over and accidents are also indicators of stressful climate or working conditions in an organization (Luthans, 1998). The European Agency for Safety and Health at Work reported that over half of the 550 million working days lost annually in the U.S. from absenteeism are stress related and that one in five of all last minute no-shows are due to job stress. Stress taxes relationships with others. Frequently it is because a person is so caught up in combating the moment to moment pressures of the workday that little energy is left over to maintain loving relationships (Powell, 1998).

1.3.7. AFFECT OF STRESS ON JOB PERFORMANCE:

1. Individual performance is a core concept within work and organizational psychology. During the past two decades, researchers have made progress in clarifying and extending the performance concept (Campbell, 1990). Moreover, advances have been made in specifying major predictors and processes associated with individual performance. With the ongoing changes that we are witnessing within organizations today the performance concepts and performance requirements are undergoing changes as well.

2. Despite the great relevance of individual performance and the widespread use of job performance as an outcome measure in empirical research, relatively little effort has been spent on clarifying the performance concept. Still, in 1990, Campbell described the literature on the clarifying on the structure and content of performance. Campbell, et. al. (1993) agree that when conceptualizing, one has to differentiate between an action (i.e., behavioral) aspect and an outcome aspect of performance.

3. The behavioral aspect refers to what ban individual does in the work situation. It encompasses behaviors such as assembling parts of a car engine, selling personal computers, teaching basic reading skills to elementary school children, or performing heart surgery. Not every behavior is subsumed under the performance concept, but only behavior, which are relevant for the organizational goals: “performance is what
the organization hires one to do, and do well” (Campbell, et al, 1993). Thus, performance is not defined by the action itself but by judgmental and evaluative processes

4. The outcome aspect refers to the consequence or result of the individual’s behavior. The above described behaviors may result in outcomes such as number of engines assembled, pupils’ reading proficiency, sales figures, or number of successful heart operation. In many situations, the behavioral and outcomes aspects are related empirically, but they do not overlap completely. Outcomes aspects of performance depend also on factors other than the individual’s behavior. For example, imagine a teacher who delivers a perfect reading lesson (behavioral aspect of performance), but one or two of his pupils nevertheless do not improve their reading skills because of their intellectual deficits (outcomes aspect of performance). Or imagine a sales employee in the telecommunication with potential clients (behavioral aspect of performance), but nevertheless achieves high sales figure for mobile phones (outcome aspect of performance) because of a general high demand for mobile phone equipment.

5. In practice, it might be difficult to describe the action aspect of performance without any reference to the outcome aspect. Because not any action but only actions relevant for organizational goals constitute performance, one needs criteria for evaluating the degree to which an individual’s performance meets the organizational goals. It is difficult to imagine how to conceptualize such criteria without simultaneously considering the outcome aspect of performance at the same time. Thus, the emphasis on performance being an action does not really solve all the problems. Moreover, despite the general agreement that the behavioral and the outcome aspect of performance have to be differentiated, authors do not completely agree about which of these two aspects should be labeled ‘performance.

1.3.8. PERSPECTIVES ON JOB PERFORMANCE:

1. Researchers have adopted various perspectives for studying performance. On the most general level one can differentiate between three different perspectives; (i) an
individual differences perspective which searches for individual characteristics (e.g., general mental ability, personality) as sources for variation in performance, (ii) a situational perspective which focuses on situational aspects as facilitators and impediments for performances, and (iii) a performance regulation perspective which describes the performance process. These perspectives are not mutually exclusive but approach the performance phenomenon from different angles, which complement one another.

2. Job performance, which refers to the degree to which an individual executes his or her roles with reference to certain specified standards set by the organization, is central to any organization (Nayyar, 1994). It is a complex phenomenon that depends on various factors. Hence it needs to be studied with a multidimensional approach. The field of practice in any profession is the range of different environments in which competency are expected. Standards are target skills and knowledge that we wish professionals to have before they are considered competent in a field.

3. There are two types of models concerning to define job performance. First, there are several efforts outlining general models of job performance and the determinants of job performance. Campbell, Mc Cloy, and Oppler (1993) proposed the view of job performance as multidimensional in nature and comprised of eight factor latent structure e.g., declarative knowledge, skill and motivation. Waldman and Spangler (1989) developed a model of job performance focusing on characteristics of the individual (e.g., experience, ability), outcomes (e.g., feedback, job security) and the immediate work environment.

4. The second category of the models defining job performance move toward more flexible definitions of work roles and job, they viewed jobs as dynamic and more interchangeable and are defined with less precision. The focus is on the personal competencies required to perform various work roles and jobs rather than a narrow review of specific tasks and duties inherent in fixed jobs and work roles.

5. Factors such as, ability effort, luck and task difficulty are among the most frequently offered explanations of performance (Ravegad and Zilberman 1998).
1.3.9. TEACHERS’ JOB PERFORMANCE:

1. The quality of educational process and its product is unquestionably influencing by teachers job performance. The entire edifice of education is shaky if the performance of teachers is weak and ineffective. Therefore effective job performance of teachers is a must for educational improvement, which we are striving hard to bring about. The definition of what constitutes best performance of teachers is of course much more complicated than a simplistic listing of goals. It is much easier to list the rules of game than to coach someone to excel in performance. The mere creation and ratification of standards will never define good teaching at any level.

2. There are many factors, which contribute to a teacher’s performance. A good teacher has to teach effectively in the class and to satisfy with his teaching style and teaching quality; moreover he has to manage time for teaching and other duties assigned buy head teachers and department. He also has to manage class discipline, disruptive students, students; motivation and achievement levels. He has to be regular and punctual. He has to be good interaction with his students, their parents and his colleagues, because his interpersonal skills also determine his job performance, rather directly or indirectly. His attitude should be same for high grader student and low grader student. We can say that factors contributing to the good job performance of school teachers are many and diverse.

3. Although a universally agreed upon definition of teaching performance has not yet been attained, the concern for its formulation is strongly felt by educationists and policy makers. Within this contest opinions of students are being recognized as most important in determination of teaching excellence (Abrami, Apollonian, and Cohen, 1990, Perry, 1990).

4. In the 21st century, schools have become very crucial to supporting the rapid developments on individuals and in local communities, societies, and international relations and are expected to perform a wide range of new structural, social, political, cultural and educational functions (Cheng, 1996). In this connection, teachers in the era of rapid, change are often required to take up expanded roles and responsibilities, including curriculum developer, new teacher mentor, staff development facilitator,
action researcher, pre-service teacher educator, team leader, decision maker, and member of management board, etc. (Boles and Troven, 1996; Murphy, 1995), as such, teachers are inevitably in need of continuous life-long professional education to update themselves with new knowledge, competence, and attitudes to meet all these challenges.

5. It is commonly accepted that the teacher is the key element for the success of school education (Russell and Munby, 1992). In the last two decades, policy-makers, teacher education institutions, and schools have implemented numerous initiatives in teacher education and development, aiming to improve teacher performance. Although huge amounts of resources have been invested into educational reforms, the performance of students as a whole declined at a significant rate in Hong Kong as well as other developed countries. People are becoming aware of the limitations of the traditional efforts on improving teacher performance and educational quality in schools.

6. In order to understand the complex nature of teacher effectiveness and develop an approach to maximizing it, there is a great demand for research on teaching, teachers, teacher education and on the related personal, organizational, and contextual factors. Traditionally, concepts of teacher effectiveness focus mainly on individual teachers, particularly on instruction in a classroom context, and ignore the complexity of school organizational environment or the influence of the community that may affect the role and performance of teachers at individual, group, and organizational levels. Inevitably, there is a conceptual barrier adversely affecting any initiatives on teacher education and development to maximizing teacher effectiveness.

7. As discussed above, teachers have to perform a wide range of roles and responsibilities that may relate to teaching, school management, curriculum changes, educational innovations, teacher education, working with parents, and community services. All these suggest that the conception of research and policy initiatives on teacher education and development should be broadened to cover a wide range of changing teacher roles in a complex context if we are to maximize teacher effectiveness. In other words, we need to pursue a new knowledge base for teacher education and development in the new century.
8. According to Cheng (1995), the structure of teacher effectiveness in the classroom is a comprehensive structure that integrates the teacher trait perspective, the teacher behavior perspective, and the process-product of teaching perspective to account for the relationships among teacher competence, teacher performance, student learning experience, and educational outcomes. Moreover, teacher effectiveness should be regarded not as a stable characteristic of the teacher as an individual but as a product of the interaction between certain teacher characteristics and other factors of which vary according to the situation in which the teacher performs.

9. Furthermore, the structure of teacher effectiveness should include the following important components (Cheng, 1995): Pre-existing teacher characteristics (i.e. the set of knowledge, abilities, and beliefs that a teacher possesses on entering into teacher education program); Teacher competence (i.e. the set of knowledge, abilities, and beliefs that a teacher possesses and brings to the actual teaching environment on completion of teacher education program); teacher performance (i.e. the behavior of a teacher that may change differently when the teaching environment is changed); student learning experience (i.e., the experience from interactions between teacher and students in the process of teaching and learning); Student learning outcomes (i.e., the progress that a student makes toward a defined educational goal); External teacher education (i.e., education or training provided by external teacher education institutions for building up teacher competence); School organizational environment (including school organizational structure, personnel management, culture, teaching facilities, resources, and school goal and mission, etc.); Classroom environment (including existing class size and composition, pupil abilities, classroom climate, teacher pupil relationship, etc.); Curriculum (i.e., the characteristics of planned teaching and learning content in the classroom); per-existing student characteristics (i.e. individual student’s previous learning experience, physical and intellectual ability, learning styles, and other personal characteristics); Teaching evaluation (i.e. activities of monitoring and evaluating teaching performance and student’s learning experience and outcomes); and School-based teacher education/staff development (i.e. training or staff development activities organized by
the school with reference to the results of teaching evaluation or the needs of teachers in teaching).

10. Inevitably, there is an urgent need to understand the complex nature of school process and teacher effectiveness from broader perspectives and develop appropriate teacher education programs to help teachers become effective professionals in school organizations (Cheng, 1996). Current research (Cheng and Tsui, 1996) has documented that the concepts of total teacher effectiveness, multi-level self management, and multi-models of teacher effectiveness can be used to develop new strategies for conceptualizing teacher effectiveness research and teacher education programs in a school organizational context.

11. In order to enhance teacher effectiveness, it would also be necessary to find out what teacher characteristics that were in terms of personalities, attitudes, skills, and knowledge - age important to the achievement of assigned goals and tasks and why they are. The understanding of how teachers develop appropriate action plans with clear goals and tasks that are consistent with school mission and goals and how teachers gain the necessary attitudes, skills, and knowledge to implement their action plans and achieve their assigned goals and tasks is essential to establishing staff development programs for effectiveness.

1.3.10. INDIAN PERSPECTIVE:

The concept of stress in the modern sense is not easily found in the traditional Indian Literature. However, a number of concepts developed by ancient Indian scholars relate to or appear similar to the phenomenon of stress. Some of these, for example are dukha (pain, misery or suffering) klesa (afflictions) Kama or Trisna (desires), atman and ahankara (self & ego), adhi (mental aberrations) and prajanapradha (failure or lapse of consciousness). The body-mind relationship, characteristic of modern stress studies, is emphasized in the Ayurvedic (Indian system of medicine). In a laudable effort, Rao (1983) has highlighted the ancient Indian contribution as an alternative way of thinking about stress so that a comprehensive conceptual model of stress culturally specific to India can be developed. Confining himself to the indigenous systems known as Samkhya,
Yoga and Ayurveda, Rao (1983) highlights two Indian concepts namely *klesa* and *dukha* which correspond not only to the concept of stress in common use but also to an extent with this concept in its technical sense. The concept of *klesa*, as crystallized in the Yoga framework, refers largely to the stressor aspect, and the concept of *dukha* in the *Samkhya*, more to the phenomenon of stress by classifying the *klesas*, which are really innumerable, into five sequential phases arranged in two levels (*Sutra*, 2,3,4). The fundamental cognitive failure, called *Avidya* (non-cognition) constitutes the first of these levels. It is the ground for the other level comprising four types of *klesas*. *Asmita* is the self-appraisal of an aroused organism, an inter-individual stressor indicating personal involvement in the situation. The consequence phase of self-appraisal is intentionality (*raga*), defined in the text as anticipation of satisfaction. It is a *klesa* or stressor in as much as it involves the evaluation of the environmental details, and tends to press on the individual to make approach responses. Intentionality (*raga*) defines the situation for the individual, and necessitates a fresh evaluation of one’s own needs and abilities *apropos* the situation, it provides the direction for behavior. The next phase in the sequence is called *dvesha*-intense repulsion involving the tendency to strike (*pratigha*), alarm or anxiety when confronted with inimical object (*manyu*), urgency to remove (*jighamsa*) and anger (*krodha*). It is obvious that at this stage the individual perceives threat either to one’s own integrity (or self-esteem, *asmita*) or to one’s need-dominance (*raga*). This involves not only the re-evaluation of one’s own ability and the extenuating conditions in the situation on one hand, but the role of emotions appropriate in conflict, competition, or antagonism. It may be seen that is this phase which broadly corresponds with the stage of initial shock (or alam) in Hans Selye’s model. It will be conceded that the analysis in *Yoga-sutra* taken into account the psychodynamics that precedes this stage. The conceptual model provided by the Indian text thus seems more meaningful. The final phase in the *Yoga-sutra* series is called *abhinivesa* – which signifies fear of death (*marana-trasa*), defensive reactions. This phase does not indicate a collapse of the adaptive mechanism as Selye’s stage of exhaustion implies, but mark the beginning of the behavioral response pattern or what the modern stress analysis would call coping behavior. In sum, *asmita* is self-appraisal, *raga* object appraisal, and *dvesha* is threat appraisal. They represent the increasing relevance of transactional cognitive processes to
life situations, and also the role of energy dynamics. All these three phases half in what may be called the arousal mechanism and reality testing, but they are only preparations for deliberate adaptive behavior. It is true, however, that some behavioral response is involved in each of these phases, but it is only the fourth phase (abhinivesa) that behavior can be described as ‘coping activity’ (Ramachandra Rao, 1983a). The Samkhya system takes dukha to signify the stress that the individual experiences in the course of his interaction with the world around him. It describes an orgasmic state involving the experience of emotions, and is characterized by an urge to escape or avoid. The well known tripartite division or dukha into personal (adhyamika) situational (adhibhautika) an environmental (adhidaivika) is a contribution of the Samkhya thinkers. Personal stress is occasioned by physiological (sarira) and psychological (manasa) stressors. Situational stress is caused by unwholesome interpersonal transactions (conflicts, competition, aggression, exploitation, etc.). It is conceded by Gaudapada, the commentator on Samkhya Karika that all stress is mental. But he argues that the nature of the stressor (viz., the source of stress) determines whether the stress is personal, situational or environmental. Some stresses are purely psychological (man-mantra-janya), while others have non-psychological sources (amanasa). The liability of the individual to stress is universal and continuous, but the incidence of stress depends upon stretching of the stressor beyond the limit of endurance. The expression in Samkhya Karika for the state of abhighate (direct striking), which is explained as ‘unbearable relationship (asahya-sambandha).

The basis to the Samkhya thought (and thus to the entire Indian thought) is the notion of three-fold gunas (psychological field of existence), sattva, comprehending all activity (sarva-bodhha), rajas comprehending all activity (serva-chesta), signifying change to becoming, and tamas comprehending all inhibition and resistance (sarvasthitih) tending toward withdrawal or offset. The three gunas may be taken to represent respectively, perceptions (appraisal, cognitive processes), performances (normal adaptive activities) and resistance (exhaustion, inhibition, fatigue). Rao (1983) reinterprets the three-fold aspects of Hans Selye’s General Adaptation Syndrome from this perspective ‘alarm’ in sattva (perception), adaptation in rajas (performance), and
exhaustion in *tamas* (resistance). But the correspondence may not be more than superficial. In the *Samkhya* framework, besides other differences in the conceptual model, stress is not a consequence of the stage of exhaustion (*tamas*), but is a manifestation of the adaptive behavior (*rajas*). Hence, Vachaspati’s emphasis on the differential and sequential change in *rajas* are more contribution toward the understanding of stress. The three *gunas* together are responsible for the existential, the experiential, the evaluative and the transactional dimensions, each of which may be regarded as an operative motivational source of stress.

On the basis of the review of the ancient Indian Literature (Rao, 1983), it can be concluded that the broad-based conceptual model of stress provided by *Yoga-sutra* relies on the cognitive appraisal of the self, the object and the threat. In fact, cognitive appraisal constitutes the functional framework for the conceptual model of stress, not only *Samkhya-Yoga* system but also in the *Vedanta* and *Buddhism*. Rao also discusses stress with reference to the situations in the *Gita* and *Ayurveda* claiming that the *Gita* provides an excellent illustration of stress and how it is to be handled, and that the main importance of the *Gita* is to redefine the major aspects of stress in life situations. Adopting the conceptual model provided by *Yoga-sutra*, it brings out the importance of the individual’s perception of himself in his role-status, and of the objective environment, including the task as assigned to or as accepted by him. Rao has also outlined an elaborate ideology of stress based on *Ayurveda*, Indian System of Medicine, which relies on the *Samkhya* school for its general theoretical orientation. In fact, the concepts of cognitive structuring, threat, emotional involvement, organic reactions and coping activity can be found in the discussion of stress in Indian thought. It has been demonstrated that such a conceptual model of stress concerns itself much more with cognitive processes than the Western model of stress. Thus, Rao convincingly brings to light the ancient Indian contribution to the understanding ‘stress phenomenon’ on the basis of which a comprehensive model of stress culturally/typical to India can be developed.
1.3.11. GENERAL GUIDELINES TO REDUCE STRESS:

1. Avoid getting overtired, by keeping a nice balance between rest and activity.
2. Make sure that you give yourself the time, conditions and frame of mind to ensure good enough, good quality sleep.
3. Cultivate the ability to say ‘No’ of demands put on your feel that these are going to cause you to feel overburdened.
4. Don’t be afraid to admit your limitations, we all have them, but only you can decide in all honesty where you own limits be.
5. Keep a “Stress Diary” in which you note your particularly stress times during the week. By spotting the critical periods you will be able to apply unit tension relaxation measures when they are needed to reduce your unwanted responses.
6. Never be shy about seeking help and advice about stressful situations. One of the problems with stress is that it can be self-reinforcing.
7. The highest reward for a man’s toil is not what he gets for it, but what he becomes by it.

In the present study, “Personal Stress Source Inventory (PSSI-SSS)” by Arun Singh, Ashish K. Singh and Arpana Singh was used to assess the stress of teacher educators.

1.4.0. JOB-SATISFACTION:

Job-Satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job; an effective. Weiss (2002) has argued that Job-satisfaction is an attitude but points out that researches should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affect, beliefs and behaviors. Thus, he suggests that we form attitudes towards our jobs by taking into account our feelings, our beliefs and our behaviors.
Job-satisfaction is when you find meaning in your work, even if your job is unchallenging or menial; finding meaning will make it much more bearable, if indeed that is how you feel. There are three levels of meaning that we can take from our work:

1. No meaning. Work makes no sense to you.
2. Work has meaning because it supports you and your family.
3. Work has meaning in itself because you are contributing to something great or you are making the world a better place to live.

In the Dictionary of Education, it is defined as the quality, state and level of satisfaction which is a result of various interests and attitudes of a person towards his job. It is the desire or an-desire with which employees view their work. It expresses the extent of match between the employer’s expectations of the job and rewards that the job provides.

The extensive research that has been done on levels of job satisfaction may have distinctive applications to academic faculty. This is especially true when the separation between satisfaction and dissatisfaction is viewed in relation to the intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics of academic employment.

In his well known motivational model, Herzberg (1987) makes some basic distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The differentiations are founded on needs related to prime human characteristics, the ability to achieve and through that achievement to experience psychological growth. The dual factors arise from alternate needs that spring from basic animal nature, a drive to avoid pain from the environment and all the learned drives that are built on those basic needs. For example, an extrinsic factor, the drive to earn a good salary, is built upon the basic need of hunger. However, intrinsic factors such as responsibility and the satisfaction with work itself arise from the human ability to personally advance and grow.
In the educational setting, intrinsic factors involve a direct link between faculty and their day to day routine, the actual performance of the job itself. "Intrinsic to the job are: the work itself, responsibility, and growth or achievement (Herzberg, 1987)." Herzberg's extrinsic or dissatisfaction-avoidance factors include organizational policy, status, pay, benefits, and overall work conditions. These factors comprise the background of one's work, the environment setting. Extrinsic factors less immediately affect the day to day job but are always in the background.

Job satisfaction is an elusive, even mythical, concept that has been increasingly challenged and refined particularly since the Herzberg, Mauser and Snyderman study in 1959. The job satisfaction of an employee is a topic that has received considerable attention by researchers and managers alike (Gautam; Mandal and Dalal, 2006). The most important information to have regarding an employee in an organization is a validated measure of his/her level of job satisfaction (Roznowski and Hulin, 1992).

Behavioral and social science research suggests that job satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated (Bowran and Todd, 1999). A better understanding of job satisfaction and factors associated with it helps managers guide employees' activities in a desired direction. The morale of employees is a deciding factor in the organization's efficiency (Chaudhary and Banerjee, 2004). Thus, it is fruitful to say that managers, supervisors, human resource specialists, employees, and citizens in general are concerned with ways of improving job satisfaction (Cranny et al 1992). The foundation of job satisfaction or job motivation theory was introduced by Maslow. He (1943, 1954) asserts that human motives emerge sequentially to satisfy a hierarchy of five needs: physiological (food, clothing, shelter, sex), safety (physical protection), social (opportunities to develop close associations with other persons), and achievement/esteem (prestige received from others), and self-actualization (opportunities for self-fulfillment and accomplishment through personal growth). Individual need satisfaction is influenced both by the importance attached to various needs and the degree to which each individual perceive that different aspects of his or her life should, and actually do, fulfill these needs. Porter (1961) argues that within the work environment, individual develop
attitudes concerning their jobs based upon their perception of the presence or absence of positively-valued job characteristics that address specific needs. Thus, a person’s job satisfaction is contingent on that individual’s expectations of and actual need fulfillment from his or her position. Job dissonance result when job-related exceptions and needs remain unfulfilled.

Herzberg, Mauser and Snyderman (1959) posited the view that job satisfaction is not an un-dimensional concept, but rather that work-related variables which contribute to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those factors which contribute to job dissatisfaction. By 1968 Herzberg had advanced the dual factor theory, which held that to not have job satisfaction does not imply dissatisfaction, but rather no satisfaction, whereas the absence of job dissatisfaction does not imply satisfaction with the job, but only no dissatisfaction. Looked at in terms of ‘opposites’, the ‘opposite’ of job satisfaction is no satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction and the ‘opposite’ of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction, rather than satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1959), intrinsic elements of the job are related to the actual content of work, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibilities, and advancement. These were referred to as ‘motivational’ factors and are significant elements in job satisfaction. By contrast, Herzberg described extrinsic factors as elements associated with the work environment, such as working conditions, salary, working conditions, supervision, company policy, and interpersonal relationships. These were referred to as ‘context’ or ‘hygiene’ factors which are related to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg concluded that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on the same continuum. As a result, he argued that income), and that such decisions are influenced by intrinsic motives, such as seeking opportunities for professional growth through compatible work activities and colleagues. Manger and Eikeland (1990) also examined factors that impact on academics’ intentions to leave the university, and found that relations with colleagues were the largest predictor of intention to leave. They also found that general job satisfaction was a further strong predictor of intention to leave. In short, academics who found their work less intrinsically satisfying than others, more commonly intended to leave the university. Salary or economic resources as such did not appear to influence intentions to stay or go. Such
studies indicate that the ‘climate’ or ‘culture’ of the environment in which academics work has a large influence on their feelings of satisfaction with the job as a whole, and their commitment to stay in the job rather than seeking to fulfill intrinsic needs elsewhere. The motivation to investigate the degree of job satisfaction arises from the fact that a better understanding of employee satisfaction is desirable to achieve a higher level of motivation which is directly associated with student achievement. Recently, the assessment of employees’ attitude such as job satisfaction has become a common activity in organizations in which management is concerned with the physical and psychological well being of people.

The relationship between the individual and the factors determining job satisfaction has been extensively researched in developed countries. In 1992, it was estimated that over 5,000 articles and dissertations have examined the topic of job satisfaction (Cranny et al., 1992), and this is a continuing topic for research. An early assumption can be made that interest in the subject illustrates the significance that employee satisfaction seriously influences the total operation of an organization.

1.4.1. STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE JOB SATISFACTION:

If you are stuck in a job because of lack of education or a down turn in the economy, it does not mean your work has to become drudgery. With a little imagination, you can create new challenges and make the best of the job you have. Some ideas that may help to increase your Job Satisfaction:

- **Improve job skills**: Imagining yourself in your dream job, you might envision yourself as an excellent project manager – a confident communicator and a highly organized person. You try to work on these skills in your present job.

- **Develop your own project**: Take on a project that can motivate you and give you a sense of control. Start small, such as organizing as work-related celebration, before moving on to larger goals. Working on something you care about can boost your confidence.
• **Mentor a co-worker**: Once you have mastered a job, you may find it becoming routine. Helping a new co-worker or an intern advance his or her skills can restore the challenge and the satisfaction you desire.

• **Break up the monotony**: Take advantage of your work breaks. Read and listen to music. Go for a walk. Write something of your taste.

• **Cross-training**: If you work consist of repetitive tasks, such as entering data or working on an assembly line? Talk with your boss about training for a different task to combat boredom. Once you have completed the training you can switch back and forth.

• **Volunteer**: If you come across that your office/company is launching a new project, volunteer for the work team.

Keep in mind that boredom can literally be deadly if your job involves working with machinery or caring for people. If your mind wanders to the point that you put your life or the lives of others in jeopardy, take action now. Talk to your supervisor about new challenges you can take on or seek a new position.

In brief, job-satisfaction is the result of various attitudes a person holds towards one’s job, towards related factors and towards life in general. Job-satisfaction is the whole material for job factors that make a person like the work as well as the work situation.

In the present investigation, “Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (T.J.Q) (For Teachers)” by Pramod Kumar & D.N. Mutha (1982) was used to assess the job satisfaction of teacher educators.

1.5.0. **JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY:**

Teacher effectiveness constitutes one of the most important spheres of human behavior. The teacher plays a central role in the learning process of the pupil. In school, teacher effectiveness is essential for the purpose of effective teaching learning process.
Thus, effective teaching, to some extent, is the result of teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness depends to a great extent on anxiety, stress and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is indeed of great significance for efficient functioning of any teaching institution. Favorable and good performance brings job satisfaction to the teacher. Satisfied workers are the greatest asset to any organization. Thus, no institution can successfully achieve its goal unless and until those who constitute the organization are in their job and posses favorable perception of the job workers are the greatest asset to an educational institution, teacher play a key role.

A teacher educator is responsible for the education of teacher, who in turn plays a major role in the society through his academic, sociological and technological skills. As we know, education is a life long process, so teacher profession is considered as life time profession, which is influenced by various psychological factors. To keep his teaching as effective as possible, a teacher has to cope up with these factors. In the same manner, the effectiveness of teacher educators is influenced by certain psychological factors, which works as barriers as well as facilitators; stress, anxiety and job satisfaction are some of them.

Though there are some studies being undertaken in the areas of teacher effectiveness, anxiety, stress and job satisfaction, still there is great need to take up more studies in the same area. The present study is modest effort in this direction.

1.6.0. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

“A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHER EDUCATORS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN RELATION TO THEIR ANXIETY, STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION”

1.7.0. DEFINITIONS OF THE KEY TERMS USED:

The following Definitions of the key terms were used.
1.7.1. TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS:

The operational definition of teacher effectiveness has been adapted from Collin (1990) who states that “Effective Teacher is that who has the ability to clear concepts of a subject matter, ability to organize learning materials, ability to communicate his knowledge to the students successfully and to deal with classroom situations effectively.

1.7.2. ANXIETY:

Anxiety is a painful uneasiness of mind concerning some impending or anticipated ill. An anxiety reaction is a state of apprehension without an apparent object, in which attempts are made to discharge internally generated tension and to reduce anxiety through increased bodily activity. The essential aspect of anxiety is that, it brings on an internal or subjective condition. It represents a danger or threat within the person himself rather than solely on external danger.

1.7.3. STRESS:

Stress may be defined as any characteristics of the job environment which poses a threat to the individual either due to excessive demands or insufficient supplies to meet his needs.

1.7.4. JOB-SATISFACTION:

Job-satisfaction is the result of various attitudes a person holds towards one’s job, toward related factors and towards life in general. Job-Satisfaction is the whole material for job factors that make a person to like the work as well as the work situation’.
1.7.5. TEACHER EDUCATORS:

In this study, teacher educators refers to the teachers who are teaching in Government, Government Aided and Self-financed teacher education institutions/Colleges.

1.7.6. GOVERNMENT TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS/COLLEGES.

Government teacher education institutions/colleges refer to the teacher education institutions/colleges run by the Government. In the present study Government Teacher Education Institutions/Colleges also includes Government-aided teacher education institutions/colleges as they are receiving 95% grant from the State Government.

1.7.7. SELF-FINANCED TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS/COLLEGES

The teacher education institutions/colleges run by the Societies/Trusts but are not getting any grant from the State Government.

1.8.0. VARIABLES INVOLVED IN THE STUDY:

1. Dependent Variable
   Teacher Effectiveness

2. Independent Variables
   1. Anxiety
   2. Stress
   3. Job Satisfaction
1.9.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

The objectives of the study are as under:-

1. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions of Haryana.
2. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having high anxiety.
3. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having low anxiety.
4. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions having high and low anxiety.
5. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions having high and low anxiety.
6. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having high stress.
7. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having low stress.
8. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions having high and low stress.
9. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions having high and low stress.
10. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having high job satisfaction.
11. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having low job satisfaction.
12. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions having high and low job satisfaction.
13. To compare the teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions having high and low job satisfaction.
14. To find the relationship between teaching effectiveness and anxiety of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions.
15. To find the relationship between teaching effectiveness and anxiety of teacher educators working in self-financed teacher education institutions.
16. To find out the relationship between teaching effectiveness and stress of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions.
17. To find the relationship between teaching effectiveness and stress of teacher educators working in self-financed teacher education institutions.
18. To find out the relationship between teaching effectiveness and job-satisfaction of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions.
19. To find the relationship between teaching effectiveness and job-satisfaction of teacher educators working in self-financed teacher education institutions.

1.10.0. HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

The hypotheses of the study are as under:

1. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions.
2. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having high anxiety.
3. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having low anxiety.
4. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions having high and low anxiety.
5. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions having high and low anxiety.

6. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having high stress.

7. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having low stress.

8. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions having high and low stress.

9. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions having high and low stress.

10. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions with high job-satisfaction.

11. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government and Self-financed teacher education institutions having low job-satisfaction.

12. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions having high and low job-satisfaction.

13. There is no significant difference between teaching effectiveness of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions having high and low job-satisfaction.

14. There is no significant relationship between teaching effectiveness and anxiety of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions.

15. There is no significant relationship between teaching effectiveness and anxiety of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions.
16. There is no significant relationship between teaching effectiveness and stress of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions.
17. There is no significant relationship between teaching effectiveness and stress of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions.
18. There is no significant relationship between teaching effectiveness and job-satisfaction of teacher educators working in Government teacher education institutions.
19. There is no significant relationship between teaching effectiveness and job-satisfaction of teacher educators working in Self-financed teacher education institutions.

1.11.0. DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY:

Due to paucity of time, resources and to make the study more meaningful, the study has been delimited in the following areas:

1. The study has been confined to 200 teacher educators of Government and Self-Financed teacher education institutions situated in the districts of Bhiwani, Gurgaon, Mahendergarh, Rewari, Rohtak, Sonepat, Kurukshetra, Ambala, Karnal, Hisar and Sirsa.
2. The study has been delimited to the teacher education institutions only.
3. The study has been delimited to investigate relationship of effectiveness of teacher educators working in various teacher education institutions.
4. The study has been delimited to the three variables i.e. anxiety, stress and job-satisfaction.
5. Government and Government aided institutions/colleges have been assigned the category of Government institutions/colleges because pay scales and other facilities are similar in both types of institutions.