INTRODUCTION

Education serves society in a variety of ways. It is the most effective means that society possesses for confronting the challenges of life and for personal enlightenment. Education is the means for disseminating knowledge and developing skills for bringing about desirable changes in behaviours, values and life styles of people. It also enhances the capacity of people to transform their vision of society into operational realities and desirable outcomes.

Role of teacher is crucial in education system as all the educational programmes revolve around him. Norton (1999) stated that a variety of tasks performed by teachers include: the number of administrative routine and paper work, evaluation of student performance, student behaviours and discipline, teacher load and expectations for assuming extra-curricular activities, relationships with colleagues, authorities and management etc. Thus, the role of a teacher is complex and multifaceted. Job-responsibilities, change in nature of job, increasing demands of society create stressful situations. Stress pose a serious threat to health and lower performance (Adams, 2003). According to Gold and Roth (1993) “stress represent a condition of disequilibrium within intellectual, emotional and physical state of an individual; it is generated by one’s perceptions.” Unproductive levels of stress perceived among teachers negatively influence the educational institutions as well as overall teaching performances (Philips, 1993) which ultimately influence the intellectual climate to varying degree.

Every organization operates according to a set of principles and
established roles in order to attain certain objectives and the individuals in it operate within structured environment. An individual working in organization helps to achieve organizational objectives, and at the same time satisfies his own needs. Yates (2004) opined the institutional climate as an average of the perceptions, individual have of their daily work environment.

Organizational climate is multi-dimensional and complex phenomena. It is composed of several dimensions like (i) ecological dimension; (ii) behavioural setting; (iii) organizational structure; (iv) personal and behavioural characteristics of individuals and psychological characteristics (Moos, 1974; Katz and Kahn, 1966). Frieberg (1998) noted that, “the interaction of various organizational and intellectual climate factors can create a fabric of support that enables the teachers to teach and learn at optimum levels”.

Thus, intellectual climate can be considered as one of the most important aspect of organizational climate, which may be described by the; demographic factors of the institution such as size, form of control and ratio of library size to enrolment; demographic differences (Richard et al., 1966) between colleagues and; the students who attend it (McConnell and Heist, 1959). The personality characteristics of the teachers, the interests, values and vocational preferences of students differ, yet to the extent that the teachers and students with similar interests and motivations come together on a campus, the atmosphere of the campus is surely influenced and perhaps in all sense created by their presence. Intellectual climate may be described as the one in which intellectual, creative and personological potencies of teachers and students flower out rightly. Hence, it is worthwhile to explore intellectual climate in relation to certain specific factors such as Organizational role stress and teacher personality.

Intellectual climate constitutes one important aspect of the total organizational climate or environment, and hence, what is true about the total or general organizational climate may be true about the
intellectual climate. Therefore, before presenting the concept of intellectual climate it will be in order to understand the concept of organizational climate, which is inclusive of the former.

1.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The word 'climate', quite often used interchangeably with 'atmosphere' or 'environment' of an organization, mainly refers to generalized attitudes towards various practices and aspects of Organizational life, which the people working with organization share with each other inspite of their individual differences. The development of these attitudes is an outgrowth of their interactions with each other and also with the organizations' equipment and facilities. As a result of their participation in Organizational activities and programmes, people soon develop shared expectations about how they should act and react, what kind of persons they are, and how they like their organization. These expectations and attitudes influence the behavior of an organization, by creating a social atmosphere or climate that appears to be fairly stable when once established. Thus, the 'climate' of an organization means the interpersonal relationship within the group as also between the group and its leader i.e., staff personnel and the head of the institution.

The concept of organizational climate can be traced to Tolman's (1926) description of cognitive maps of the environment, the schema that individuals create to make sense of their surroundings. Tolman's view of cognitive maps, however, indicated only an individual's perception. Later Lewin (1951) proposed his classic formulation,

\[ B = f(P,E) \]

Where, behaviour (B) is a function of the person (P) and his or her psychological environment (E). Lewin (1951) also suggested that climate of any group could be defined as the shared perceptions of the individuals belonging to that particular group. Based on the Lewinian field theory, a number of studies showed that organizational climate
influences, and is also influenced by, the attitudes and behaviors of individuals (Litwin and Stringer, 1968; Prichard and Karasick, 1973; Padaki, 1988; Somasundaram, 1995).

The pioneer work in this field was done by Halpin and Croft (1963) who equated internal climate with an organizational personality. They defined climate of the school with reference to behavior of the principals and teachers. Halpin and Croft (1963) chose to name the ends of the organizational climate continuum as ‘open’ and ‘closed’. Halpin described three types of schools, which one may encounter, “In one school the teachers and principal are zestful and exude confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in working with each other, this pleasure is transmitted to the students who thus are given a chance to discover that school can be a happy experience. In a second school the brooding discontent of the teachers is palpable, the principal tries to hide his incompetence and his lack of sense of directions behind a cloak of authority, and yet he wears this cloak poorly because the attitude he displayed to others vacillates randomly between the obsequious and the officious. The psychology of such faculty spills over on the students who, in their own frustration, feed back to the teachers in a mood of despair. A third school is marked by neither joy nor despair but by hollow rituals. Here, one gets the feeling of watching an elaborate charade in which teachers, principal and students alike are acting out parts. The acting is smooth and glib, but it appears to have little meaning for the participants, in strange way the show just does not seem to be ‘for real’.”

Forehand and Gilmer (1964) defined institutional climate as the overall impressions of an institution of an individual gathered through numerous activities, interactions and feelings, etc.

As to the conceptualization and operationalization of the organizational climate construct, a number of reviews have reported diverse and intensive efforts (Campbell, Dunnettee, Lawler and Weick, 1970; Glick, 1985; Payne and Pugh, 1976; Powell and Butterfield,
The attempts to understand organizational climate have also given rise to the conceptual morass. Hence, it will be in the fitness of things to present some definitions of "organizational climate" given by pioneer authors with a view to clarify its meaning and nature. The term 'environment' or climate appearing in these definitions has been used synonymously to the term organizational climate.

Tagiuri (1968) defined "climate and atmosphere as summary concepts dealing with the total environmental quality within an organization - its various dimensions include its ecology (physical and material aspects) its milieu (the social dimension concerned with the patterned relationship of persons and groups) and its culture (the social dimension concerned with belief systems, values, cognitive structure and meaning)."

Bloom (1968) regarded organizational environment as:

"...a network of forces and factors, which surround, engulf and play on the individual.... The environment is a shaping and reinforcing force which acts on the individual."

Webster's (1975) New World Dictionary defined environment as an aggregate of all the external conditions and influence affecting the life and development of an organism.

Miskel (1977) defined "climate" with special reference to interpersonal relations of people in the organizations. He preferred the term "interpersonal climate" and defined it as "the social environment" within an organization. For him,

"the climate is a result of the behaviors, attitudes and perceptions of the individuals within the building as they interact with each other" He further stated that "openness of communication levels and the confidence among the teaching supervisory and administrative personnel constitute example indicators of inter personal climate".
Pareek (1993) maintained, “Organizational climate can only be discussed in terms of how it is perceived or felt by organizational members.”

Gani and Shah (2001) opined that “Organizational climate is a product of leadership practices, communication pattern and enduring and systematic characteristics of the working relationships among the persons and divisions of any particular organization.”

The analysis of existing conceptual and operationalizational framework of definitions of organizational climate broadly manifests two types of approaches:

1.1.1 Structural Approach

1.1.2 Perceptual Approach

A brief description of these approaches is as follows:

1.1.1 Structural approach to organizational climate: includes all the characteristics of an organization and/or the group that constitute the set-up. Here, organizational climate becomes almost synonymous with organizational structure. Objective aspects of the work context, such as the size, decision-making, the number of levels in the authority hierarchy, technology used, rules and policies etc. constitute the climate of an organization (Pyne and Pugh, 1976). As these characteristics can collectively be termed as organizational structure, therefore, this approach is termed as a structural approach. This approach was the most evident in the definition of organizational climate formulated by Forehand and Gilmer (1964) who viewed it as the sets of characteristics that described an organization include (a) characteristics distinguish the organization from other organization, (b) are relatively enduring overtime, and (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organization.

A large number of researchers have utilized this approach (Katz and Kahn, 1966; Porter and Lawler, 1965; Pugh, Hickson, Hinnings and Turner, 1968; Thomas and Fink, 1963; Drexler, 1977; James,
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1982), but this approach has manifested two main short-comings, viz., empirical and conceptual. Empirically, the relationship between structural variables and climates have failed to show consistency (Berger and Cummings, 1979). Conceptually, structural approach does not explain the differences that arise in climates across work groups within the same organization. As the work groups within an organization are subjected to the same structural influences, therefore, differences in work group climate cannot be explained on the basis of structural properties of an organization. The structure and functioning of an organization may be shaped by organizational activities (Khandwalla, 1988). Mathur, Aycan and Kanungo (1996) opined that organizational environment may affect the internal work culture of organizations. James and Jones (1974) who termed this approach as multiple measurement-organizational attribute approach also admitted that this approach has failed to provide any clarity to the concept of organizational climate.

1.1.2 Perceptual approach to organizational climate: Perceptual operationalization of organizational climate has been most prevalent in two forms:

1.1.2(a) First, climate is viewed as situationally determined psychological process, wherein the organizational climate variable become causative or moderator factors for attitudinal and performance variables. Organizational climate, thus, is considered as a perceptual measure, which describes the organization. This approach has been utilized by a number of researchers (Campbell et al., 1970; Kahn et al., 1964; Litwin and Stringer, 1968) and also has been criticized by some researchers (Glick and Roberts, 1984; Guion, 1973; James 1982; Schneider and Reichers, 1983; Schneider, 1987; Lindell and Brandt, 2000).

Litwin and Stringer (1968) included the following elements as constituents of climate; one’s feelings regarding the structure of organization, i.e., its rules and regulations, procedures, loose-strict and
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formal-informal atmosphere, one’s perception of responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standards of performance, conflict resolution, and one’s identification with institution.

Campbell et al. (1970) proposed four major dimensions of organizational climate: (i) Individual autonomy, (ii) degree of structure imposed on the position, (iii) reward orientation, and (iv) consideration, warmth and support. Further, they viewed organizational climate as a situationally determined psychological process intervening between organizational processes and dependent variables.

Guion (1973) described the perceptual measurement of organizational climate as a methodological convenience. He suggested that organizational climate considered as an organizational attribute but measured perceptually, then accuracy of perception should be validated against consensus of perceptions.

Mathew (1973) proposed some of the factors, which constituted elements of intellectual climate of an educational institution: (i) goal focus i.e. reasonably clear goals of an organization, (ii) communication adequacy with little distortion of communication – vertically or horizontally where information travel reasonably well, (iii) optimal power equalization i.e. avoiding intergroup struggles for power even in presence of conflict, (iv) resource utilization involved using human resources effectively, (v) cohesiveness had scope to giving recognition to members of an organization, (vi) morale included satisfaction from work among individuals with a sense of general well-being, (vii) innovativeness or inventing new procedures and movement towards new goals, (viii) autonomy i.e. reasonable degree of independence from environment which allow interaction with the environment but not controlled by it, (ix) adaptation in order to bring about corrective change in system, and (x) problem-solving adequacy included solving problems with minimal energy and maintaining and strengthening of problem-solving mechanisms. Institutions can considered to be “healthy” on the basis of the preceding criteria developed by Mathew.
Likert (1976) following the same approach proposed an interaction-influence model, wherein climate dimensions were causal variables and leadership techniques interact with personality to produce perceptions. Hence, organizational climate mediated an individual’s perceptions about an organization. This has given to a major criticism, as here individual differences in perception in similar situation referred not to differences in climate but rather appear to indicated other sources of variation.

James and Jones (1974) who termed this approach as organizational attribute perceptual measurement approach have also criticized the domain of variables included in its conceptualization as well as operationalization. They observed that variables such as leadership, autonomy, etc. were included, while variables, such as, size, span of control, etc. had been excluded and further, the criterion for differentiation has not been clear.

1.1.2(b) Second form of perceptual approach to organizational climate viewed individual as information processor who forms perceptions regarding his/her organizational environment. These perceptions are based upon interaction between the objective events and characteristics of the organization and characteristics (e.g., values, needs) of the individual (Schneider and Hall, 1972). Since climate has caused by discrete experiences and in turn caused consequent behaviors; it has been considered as an intervening variable. This approach has been championed by Schneider and his associates (Schneider, 1975, 1987; Schneider and Bartlett, 1968, 1970; Schneider and Hall, 1972).

Considering the perceptual approach as a basis Schneider and Reichers (1983) and Schneider (1987) in their review of etiology of climate, have discussed two main theories: (a) Selection-Attraction-Attrition theory; and (b) Symbolic Interactionist theory.

The Selection-Attraction-Attrition (SAA) theory proposed that organizational processes, such as, selection into the organization and
individual processes, such as attraction to the organization and attrition from the organization combined to produce relatively homogeneous memberships in one organization. Organization members, then, have similar perceptions and attach similar meanings to organizational events because the members themselves are in some ways similar to each other (Schneider and Reichers, 1983). Whereas symbolic interactionist theory by Schneider and Reichers (1983) postulated:

"...the same processes that act to socialize newcomers into the settings also give rise to climates. Specifically, social interactions in the workplace help newcomers to understand the meaning of various aspects of the work context. And it is through social interactions that individuals in the workplace come to have similar perceptions of the context (p.31)."

The selection-Attraction-Attrition (SAA) theory was quite evident in the recent work of Lindell and Brandt (2000). They proposed that:

"...climate arises from the types of people attracted, selected and retained by an organization, its work processes, physical layout, and method of communication, the shared values and norms of its members; the exercise of authority; and the history of internal and external struggles (p.331)."

In other words, symbolic interactionist theory, presented the social interactions among new entrants and other job associates at the place of work helped them to understand the meaning of many aspects of the work context and these social interactions lead the individuals to have similar perceptions of the context.

Upadhyay (1983) in his conceptualization of organizational climate included the role of social factors. Climate was treated as a dependent variable influenced by external and internal factors. The external influences, such as, the cultural system; the economic system, the political/administrative system, and the science and technology system were considered as important determinants of
climate. Since, any organization as a part of the large unit, i.e. the society, these influences cannot be ignored.

1.2 INTELLECTUAL CLIMATE

The operationalization of climate, discussed above, has also given impetus to the debate regarding the appropriate units of theory in climate research (Guion, 1973; Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974; James and Jones, 1974; James, 1982; Mossholder and Bedeian, 1983). Initially organization was considered to be the natural unit of organizational climate research (Forehand and Gilmer, 1964; Leavitt, 1964; Litwin and Stringer, 1968; Schneider and Reichers 1983; Schneider, 1987). James and Jones (1974) made distinction between psychological climate and organizational climate, thereby, proposed two different units of theory, viz., individual and organization. Briefly, psychological climates is the meaning an individual attaches to a work context, while organizational climate is the summated averaged meaning that people attach to a particular work setting.

Although the distinction between psychological climate and organizational climate is generally accepted (James, 1982; Powell and Butterfield, 1978; Schneider and Reichers, 1983; Lindell and Brandt, 2000), yet conceptual and methodological problems are not fully resolved. James (1982 p. 220) asserted

".....the constructs of interest in climate measurement are intrinsically psychological.......it is axiomatic that the unit of theory be the individual." This emphasizes the fact that organizational climate cannot be considered as a truly organizational property.

Further, emphasis was being placed on the congruence between unit of analysis and the unit of theory. Organizational climate has been inferred, generally, by aggregating measures of psychological climate. When one has concerned with the individual as the unit of theory, aggregating psychological climate is appropriate because the (aggregate) unit of analysis has been inconsistent with the unit of
theory, i.e., individual (Glick and Roberts, 1984). Suggested by Glick (1985) that “the units of analysis and theory must remain consistent, does not imply that psychological climate is unrelated to organizational characteristics” or that organizational climate is entirely independent of individual characteristics. Khandwalla (1988) pointed out that a sizeable organization may have multiple climates, therefore, the department rather than the organization may be a suitable unit of analysis.

In case of educational institutions student/teacher is considered as the unit of analysis as the study stresses upon psychological perceptions of students and teachers. The psychological perceptions aggregate to constitute the educational climate or intellectual climate. Educational climate represent the kind of social interaction by various kinds of feelings and emotions, which are generated in the people working together. It mainly emphasizes the ways the people relate themselves to one another and the kind of emotional experiences they undergo in doing so. This description incorporates within the concept, "the whole structure of emotionalized group relationship (Kahn et al., 1964)."

Thus a large number of terms such as ‘Educational Environment’, ‘Educational Climate’, ‘Press of an institution’, ‘Environmental press’, ‘Educational atmosphere or Intellectual Climate’, although slightly different from each other in operation, are quite often used interchangeably. For the purpose of present study the term ‘Intellectual Climate’ has been chosen to represent the ‘press’ of an educational institution.

The institutional press is characterized by the people’s interactions, their attitudes, behaviour, and approaches, their actions and reactions, their philosophy about institutional practices and their perception of what it is.

Press is the climate or atmosphere of the institution, organization or environmental setting, which is inferred from the social, and physical
characteristics of the environmental setting as perceived by the respondents (Stern, 1970). When students enroll in these educational institutions they are presumably entering a new environment, which presents to them an assortment of expectations and activities, pressures and rewards, facilities and people to whom they must make adaptive responses. These characteristic demands and features as perceived by them constitute environmental press (Stern, 1958) that may be characterized by 'high' or 'low' intellectual climate. Thus, intellectual climate possesses the effective capabilities of spurring or prodding the students to enhance their power of problem-solving, analysis, synthesis, conceptual thinking and critical evaluation. It refers to the group of tangible and intangible goods having the strength of expanding the correctiveness and the intellectual horizons not only in a single organism but also in that majority who come in contact with it.

The pioneer work in this field was done long back by Murray (1938). He used the term 'Environmental press.' According to him, term 'press' represents a general level for stimulus, treatment, or process variables. Though Murray provided a starting point for the construction of various objective measures of 'press', yet no parallel development in the objective measurement of environmental press took place. Thus, environmental press is a way of viewing the environment, which can be compared analytically and synthetically to the more familiar ways of dealing with the individual.

Stern (1970) opined that climate or atmosphere of an institution means the conditions forced by the environment on its workers. Pace and Stern (1958) suggested the consensus of students in characterizing their college environment constituted a measure of environmental climate and that environmental climate exerted a directional influence on student behaviour. Systematic ways of describing educational environments or climates using different sources of information, have been developed and widely used. One such method used to study the demographic factors such as size, form
of control, proportion of boys and girls in the student body, number of fields in which degrees are offered, faculty–student ratio, size of operating budget and ratio of library size to enrolment. It represents perception of institutional attributes characterizing the ‘psychological climate’.

Davis (1963), described educational environment as the conditions, processes and psychological stimuli which affect the educational achievement of the learner. He further observes educational environment as “a component of the total environment in which the learner continuously interacts with various forces impinging upon him, of which intellectual environment is one of the aspects”. He also views that it may be present in the educational institution, in the classroom, in home and in the community at large. Such an environment inspires the learners for independent self-study and encourages the originality.

Richard et al. (1966) unfolded the second approach and have noticed that demographic differences between colleges and university environments were along dimensions of cultural affluence, technological specialization, size, age of the institution, transfer emphasis and business orientation.

The third most common way of describing the educational environment is to describe the students who attend it. The personality characteristics, interests, values and vocational preferences of students differ to the extent that the students with similar interests and motivations came together on a campus, the atmosphere of the campus is surely influenced and perhaps in all sense created by their presence. The researches regarding the differences between student bodies at college and universities have been reported by McConnell and Heist (1959).

Clark and Trow (1966) have used the typological approach based on the assumption that the student body is the main constituent of the environment and as such the chief determinant of the
atmosphere of the college. They made use of the observation and interview techniques and tried to classify them into certain pre-defined types of sub-culture, such as vocational, academic, collegiate and non-conformist cultures. In making surveys, brief paragraph descriptions of the characteristic values and orientations of each of these sub-cultures was prepared and presented and students were asked to indicate which comes closer to their values, which comes next and so on. The atmosphere of the institution was then inferred from the proportion of students identifying themselves with each of the four value orientations. Thus, they defined college climates in terms of student sub-culture types or dimensions.

Using Murray’s concept as a model, Stern (1963) studied the dimensions of educational environment, which included general norms of the groups, its rules and standards, value orientations and other psychological characteristics that determine the educational climate of an institution. He studied these characteristics of the academic learning climate through systematic observations and analysis of educational institutions. He pointed out that descriptions of institutional climate are based on inferred continuity and consistency of events (Stern, 1970). For example, classroom seats fixed for students, attendance requirement, seeing teachers only on appointments were the conditions that emphasize a particular press of the environment.

Randhawa and Michayluk (1973) opined that students’ perception toward ‘press’ reflect the relationship of the students to the subjects studied, to the institutional properties to the physical environment and students’ observation of general kinds of activities.

Thus, intellectual climate or ‘press’ of an institution may be described as one in which intellectual, creative and personological potencies of the individuals flower out rightly. Such environments or climates provide incentives to the students to learn, to work and to perform various kinds of concerted endeavors in order to accomplish their scholastic goals to enhance their power of problem-solving.
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analysis, synthesis, conceptual thinking and critical evaluation. To create diversity in institutions, such as linkage of multiple faculties and research institutes, to carry out periodic reviews of existing organizations and to modify them in response to new demands can be fulfilled through advancement and diversification of educational institutions by means of the development and expansion of educational institutions.

Many educationists have emphasized that present day centers of education are found to be lacking in 'Press' that the external environmental situational counterparts to the internalized personality needs. Press, is what is usually referred to as the climate or atmosphere of the institution, organization or environmental setting which is a well defined criteria (Khandwalla, 1988).

Institutions with conducive intellectual climate make an important contribution towards education and research that matches expanding economic power as also towards training people who can work successfully in the international community. They are more flexible with regard to teaching staff and interaction with other (Japanese Government Policies, 1995; http://www.mext.go.jp/ery1995/index-18.html) institutions. Conducive environment of an educational institution can create a fabric of support that enables all members of the school to teach and learn to optimum levels (Freiberg, 1998).

Sweeney (1997) expressed that principals capabilities, and working conditions determine the institutional press and culture of an institution. The interactions between subordinates and superordinates also influence the educational climate. He further, suggested on the basis of instructional leadership and institutional climate that institutional leaders need to work together with their faculties to create an open and healthy climate in order to realize educational goals, successful implementation of curriculum and ultimately improving student achievement. Ounpigul (2001) opined that relationships of students' perceptions and the factors, which might affect them, are
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focused on academic and intellectual characteristics of students and their perceptions of tasks. Students' perceptions have been important for academic progress and are related to student achievement. Positive interpersonal relationships and optimal learning opportunities can increase achievement levels of students (McEvoy and Welker, 2000).

Educational institutions with better educated teachers, more instructional materials, a larger stock of institutional resources such as libraries, laboratories or subject rooms also emphasize on scholarly interests of students, provide cultural opportunities to them, can accelerate the students academic achievement by enhancing their aspiration level and self-expression (Welker, 2000). Hence, the institutional press may be a determining factor in the type of educational programmes carried out in an institution.

The intellectual climate in the structured settings must be flexible and relaxed in respect of student settings and limit of the activities (Davenport, 2001). High intellectual climate can be created with the realization of educational goals, successful implementation of curriculum and ultimately the improved student achievement. High intellectual climate can increase achievement levels of students and reduce undesirable behaviour (McEvoy and Welker, 2000). Positive intellectual climate enhance the performance of students and overall working of institution (Hirase, 2000).

Educational centers with high intellectual climate include equity, excellence, clarity and promoting positive youth development (Kupermine, et al., 2004) faculty–student interactions impact a variety of students outcomes from grade performance to satisfaction with certain aspects of college and intellectual development (Maestas, 2001).

Davis (2002) described intellectual press as a set of underlying beliefs that are always there to color the perceptions of actions and communications (Willats@cats.ucsc.edu). Goddard (2003) opined that
good educational institutional processes contribute to a cohesive, supportive climate. While, Mary (2002) expressed his views in conference that good school climate prevent the learning and problems of students and enhancing their achievement.

In India, promotion of quality of education specially at the higher education has become the prime concern. The National Policy of Education (1986) played a major role and gave a concrete shape to the assessment council. NAAC (National Assessment and Accreditation Council) was established as an autonomous body by UGC in 1994 after 8-years of national level consultations, involving the large number of academician, educational administrators and policy makers. Quality of higher education varied from ‘Apprehension to Appreciation’. Criteria for assessing the quality of an educational institution by NAAC include following areas: (i) curricular aspect; (ii) teaching–learning and evaluation; (iii) research, consultancy and extension; (iv) infrastructure and learning resources; (v) student support and progression; (vi) organization and management and (vii) healthy practices or innovations or institution–specific models (NAAC, 2003). NAAC is a national body and UGC recently declared that it is mandatory for every institution to be assessed and in some states the state governments have established “Quality Assurance Cell” which works closely with NAAC. The NAAC assessment and accreditation areas can theoretically be previewed as inclusive of measuring institutional press.

Out of varied descriptions given above Stern’s (1958, 1961) concept of intellectual climate has been considered comprehensive. He defined intellectual climate in respect of eight-dimensions as measured by his college characteristics index 1158-SF (pace and stern, 1958) namely-Aspiration level, intellectual climate, student dignity, academic climate, academic achievement, self-expression, play work and vocational climate. These dimensions covary together to define the overall dimension of intellectual climate.
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and also include important aspects of the academic programme such as (i) qualities of staff and facilities; (ii) standards of achievement set by students as well as the faculty; (iii) opportunities for development of self assurance; (iv) non-custodial student-personal practices and (v) absence of vocationalism. According to Stern (1963) the climates of educational institutions run along a continuum from, 'low intellectual climate' to 'high Intellectual climate'. To frame this idea more concretely these two extreme ends of intellectual climate along with various dimensions are described briefly as below.

1.2.1 Intellectual Orientation

Intellectual orientation refers to the understanding of perspectives and its critical judgment, where the extent of pupils’ curiosity in learning and the faculty members’ enthusiasm in teaching as a whole contribute to the prosperity of the students.

Universities or educational institutions with high intellectual climate tend to stress more on scholarly interests where 'Alma Matter’ seems to be less important than subject matter’. Working hard for high grades is not regarded unusual and in class discussions, papers and examinations are encouraged. The emphasis is on the breadth of understanding and critical analysis. Students in such institutions who insist on analyzing and classifying art and music, are not likely to be regarded as odd; they are allowed to select courses of their own choice; their interests in modern art and music is not nipped-in-the bud rather it is allowed to flourish. It is not uncommon in institutions characterized with high intellectual climate, to see students with an independent cast of mind who are concerned with developing their own personal and private value systems. Students do not always accept what the professors have to offer and are likely to argue with them. Varied experimental background is sought by the students who travel a lot or work part time during vacation. They gladly patronize a lecture by a renowned theologian, outstanding literary critic or a scientist. On the whole, the aforesaid institutions have an excellent
reputation for academic freedom. For the students, the faculty members also put in a lot of energy and enthusiasm into their teaching. Quite a few of them have had varied and unusual careers. They are willing to rate a well-reasoned report as an ‘A’ grade even if it presents a viewpoint, opposed to their own.

Universities with low intellectual climate make students more practical and realistic. The future goals for most students emphasize job security, family happiness and good citizenship. There is little emphasis on preparation for achievement of higher intellectual pursuits. Students avoid tough courses and are not aware of the ‘snap’ courses. When they get together they seldom talk about trends in art, music or the theatre. Students follow rigid time and class schedule, as few classes ever meet out of doors on nice days. Public debates, declamations and discussions are seldom organized. Books dealing with psychological problems or personal values are rarely read or discussed. The future goals for most students emphasize job security, family happiness and good citizenship.

But unlike the high intellectual climate type, students in low intellectual climate institutions put ‘Alma Matter’ before ‘subject matter’. They would like to understand themselves better but they dislike thinking about serious social problems like drug addiction, increasing crime rate etc.. However, they would like to understand better the causes of some of society’s social and political problems.

1.2.2 Social Relationship

Social relationships include the university’s entertainment media’s, students performance in the curricular activities, teacher-student relationship and their involvement in student’s affairs.

Universities with high intellectual climate emphasize a higher degree of personal freedom for its students and faculty asserting the emotional expression associated with the social effectiveness. Intimate, friendly relationships exist between students and faculty. The
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professors really talk with the students not just at them. Students with non-conformative attitude and intellectual freedom are highly regarded. Independent and individualistic thought development is encouraged and the student organizations are not closely supervised. Practical courses are offered such as typing or report writing. No student leaders are given special privileges. Students do not take particular pride in their personal appearances.

In the institutions with low intellectual climate, students quickly learn what is expected of them and that the rules and regulations are to be obeyed. The academic process is very narrowly compartmentalized and there is evidence of greater separation between student culture and the academic community. Regular classes meet only at appointed times and places and attendance is regularly marked by the professors. Neatness and cleanliness is stressed in order to keep classes and buildings look well-kept. Students are expected to present neat papers and reports.

Students’ behaviour pattern is uniform and few students try to pattern themselves after outstanding people they admire. Students lend a helping hand to their mates in preparation of lessons and examinations. Variety of co-curricular activities are offered but students show little interest for social work. Students quickly learn about what is done and what is not done on the campus. They feel embarrassed when people laugh at their mistakes.

1.2.3 Emotional Expression

Emotional expression is the exposure of those inherent qualities like feeling sorrow, weeping, pain, anger and also overt expression of love and affection in public.

Students in high intellectual climate institutions dislike working for someone who always inhibit their initiative and creative impulses by stressing their own viewpoints and telling what-to-do and how. Impulsiveness is given expression here as they do what is in tune with
the passing mood. Aesthetic values and natural phenomenon like wind sighing through the trees intrigue them. Fantasies and superstitions are not given any prominent place. Stress is laid on hard work as means of satisfying emotional needs and providing emotional outlet.

In institutions with low intellectual climate there is much pomp and splendour, noise and activity when students collect at a place and lot of excitement and restlessness prevails before the happening of an event. Overt romantic expressions are avoided. Opinion, guidance and experience of others is sought by the students, when decisions have to be made, giving advice and directions to others is also not feared by the students. Active student organizations exist on the campuses. However, students dislike engaging themselves in any type of unusual behaviour that would set them apart from the rest.

1.2.4 Administrative and Organizational Differences

Administration and organization of institutes with high intellectual climate cultivate higher mental processes. Student needs are recognized and given thought to. Students are allowed to actively participate in running the administration. A consensus with the students is arrived at before taking a decision on any important issue and on their implementation. All these organizational and administrative characteristics are conspicuous by their absence, in the institutions having low intellectual climate.

1.2.5 Student Activities

Variety of student activities like rallies, processions and strikes are prominent in the high intellectual climate institutions. Student government and social activities are of particular importance in such institutions, whereas, the institutions with low intellectual climate are not strong in either of these (Hawes, 1959).

In reckoning, universities with high intellectual climate tend to accentuate scholarly interests as an end in themselves and also provide richer, cultural and intellectual opportunities. The universities
and colleges with low intellectual climate on the other hand are technically oriented, non-cultural institutions. The academic process is narrow and rigid and administrative organization is more compartmentalized and less integrated. Both the groups are alike in their search for self-understanding and in their interest in social and political realities as both are equally energetic, especially, where self-involvement exists.

From all the differences enumerated above, most of which have emerged from Stern's (1961) study of the intellectual climate with response of more than 1000 students in twenty three colleges in the United States of America, it has been clear that the climate of the institutions profoundly affect and is also affected by the whole educational process, academically, socially and emotionally, and; such an environmental factor is worth empirical investigation.

The preceding paragraphs indicate that intellectual climate promote the whole educational process and result in enhancing students’ performance and development. High intellectual climate offer positive interpersonal relationships, optimal learning opportunities (Harris and Lowery, 2002) and is associated with smooth working of institution (Freiberg, 1998) while low intellectual climate creates stress among teachers (Bacharach et al., 1986). While performing different roles in the educational organization, unsuitable conditions of educational environment can produce stress (Schofield and Bourke, 1997; Leonard, 1998). Conducive institutional climate offers less stress and inhibits powerlessness and social isolation (Biswas and De, 1993). Teachers experience less negative orientation and are effective toward different aspects of their professional role. Perception of institutional climate is also related with support, conflict and standard of performance (Mogaji, 2002). So, educational climate and organizational role stress among teachers are closely related with each other.

Organizational role stress in educational environment has an
added impact of a reduction in the quality of educational outcomes and institutional environment contributing stress among teachers which further influences the intellectual climate (Meijer and Oostdam, 2004; Donaldson, 1993). Hence, it is worth studying the nature of intellectual climate existing in teacher education institutions in relation to organizational role stress experienced by teacher educators in these institutions.

1.3 ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE STRESS

The Organizational role stress is the stress caused within an organization. It may involve the arousal of negative or unpleasant emotional states created, while playing certain roles in organization. Certain jobs and organizations expose individuals to the high levels of stress. The concept of organizational role stress was first evolved in the classical work of Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) who were the earliest to draw attention to organizational stress in general and role stress in particular. Admittedly, organizational stress is a molar concept that includes role stress. Experienced by the teachers role stress as one of the crucial factors contributing to the Intellectual Climate.

In educational organizations, teachers occupy an important position in educational network. Institutions have certain objectives, which cannot be achieved by any one teacher alone. So, they are composed of many individuals and groups who come together to achieve goals by means of differentiated functions. In the complex and dynamic environment in which the individual has to exist and adapt while working in a group adds to stress at work. The study of teacher stress is not a new area of research (Green and Ross, 1996).

1.3.1 Stress

The term stress has been in the English language for a long time. It has earlier origins in Latin as a verb meaning ‘to injure’, ‘molest’ or ‘constrain’ (Pstonjee, 1999). During 17th century, it was used to
mean ‘hardship’, ‘strain’, ‘adversity or affliction’. During the 18th and 19th centuries the term was identified as a force or pressure exerted upon a material object or person (Pestonjee, 1999). In the beginning of the 20th century, the concept of stress appeared in medical literature and as such indicated the overloading of the human body (Handbook of Industrial Psychology, 1999). Osler (1910) referred to some of his patients as being subjected to stress and strain, which he considered a factor in many cases of angina pectoris. Cannon (1935), the physician related the concept of stress to equilibrium tendencies in the body. He expounded that when the sympathetic nervous system and endocrine systems are activated in a certain way, for example, by extreme coldness or great excitement, then an individual is said to be under stress.

After the World War II, the concept of stress was granted a place in psychological literature. Grinker and Spiegal (1945) wrote “Men under Stress”, Stouffer (1950) published a number of studies about battle fatigue, war neurosis, and demoralization in the army in “The American Soldier”. Lazarus paid attention to the stress concept. Around 1950, he started a series of research projects that are of great importance (Lazarus, 1966, 1971).

The term, stress thus enshrouded by a thick veil of varying conceptual approaches and divergence of opinion. There is a lack of consensus on even the definition of stress (Cofer and Appley, 1964; Sells, 1970; Hall and Mansfield, 1971; Lazarus 1971; Mc Michael, 1978 and Gold and Roth, 1993).

Cofer and Appley (1964, pp. 60-61) defined stress as;

“the state of an organism where he perceives that his well-being (or integrity) is endangered and that he must divert all his energies to its protection”.

Appley and Trumbull (1967, p 401) opined that : (i) stress refers to the individual differences in reactions to situations are great ;(ii)
stress measures reflecting different organismic sub-systems and different criteria are largely unrelated; (iii) responses vary from situation to situation and that variation is the greatest between laboratory and life situation; (iv) the social context is of major importance in understanding stress reactions and social and other environmental supports have often been overlooked in evaluating particular behaviors; (v) stress, as other behavior is the best understood as interaction of individual and situation; and (vi) in evaluating such interactions private or inner events should be taken into consideration.

Sells (1970, pp 134-139) described the stress as linked with two states: (i) the individual is called upon in a situation to respond to circumstances for which he has no adequate response available. The unavailability of an adequate response may be due to physical inadequacy, absences of the response in the individual’s response repertoire, lack of training, equipment or opportunity to prepare; and (ii) the consequences of failure to respond effectively. Both are important to the individual. Personal involvement in situation can be defined in terms of importance of consequences to the individual.

Hall and Mansfield (1971, p 533) stated that “Stress is an external force operating on a system, be it an organization or a person. Strain as the change in the state of the internal system which results from this external stress. Stress and strain, thus are not exactly synonymous.”

Emphasizing the concept of cognitive appraisal as an essential feature of stress experience, Lazarus (1971) defined stress as a broad class of problem areas because it deals with any demand, which taxes the system or a psychological system. He further described that the reaction depends on how the person interprets or appraises (consciously or unconsciously) the significance of a harmful, threatening or challenging event. Therefore, cognitive appraisal should be considered as an essential feature of stress experience.
According to Mason (1975) the term stress approached in at least four different ways; first, as an external force acting on the organism; second, as changes in the physiological function; third, as the interaction between an external force and the resistance opposed to it; and finally, as a comprehensive phenomenon encompassing

Modern research into stress was stimulated (1946, 1956 and 1976) noted as father of modern stress research. A key-role in the propagation of the concept. A b

Selye's paradigm indicate that life is stress, and only when life is completely devoid of stress. Problems occur for physiological reactions persist beyond the organism's resources against the stress. Selye (1976) found that the relationship exists between stress and productivity; effectiveness is influenced when an individual becomes stressed. Selye used the term 'eustress' to describe positive stress and 'distress' to describe bad stress. During both eustress and distress, the body undergoes virtually the same non-specific reactions to various positive or negative stimuli acting upon it. When the body is challenged by negative stimuli or stressors, the body's energy that is unable to use and stress is felt. Selye's reaction coined as (GAS) - "General Adaptation Syndrome" - include three distinct stages: (a) Alarm reaction (b) Stimulation (c) Stage of exhaustion (Fig 1.1). Our bodies are alert during the first stage, and stress levels are the highest. The body's defenses attempt to adapt during the second stage, and stress levels begin to reduce. The stage of exhaustion when the body's defenses towards stress become compromised.

(Fig 1.1).
Introduction

General Adaptation Syndrome

Fig 1.1 Duration of Exposure to Stress

According to McMichael (1978), stress is non-widely viewed, not merely as something exogenous, but as the product of a dynamic mismatch between the individual and his/her physical or social environment. This interactive view of stress holds that situations are not inherently stressful; rather, it is the combination of the particular situation and an individual, with his specific personality, behavioral pattern, and life situation circumstance, that results in a stress producing imbalance (p.128).

Schuler (1982) simplified the definition of stress, as “a perceived dynamic state involving uncertainty about something important.” The potential for stress exists when an individual perceives an

environmental situation as presenting demands, which threaten to exceed the individual's capabilities and resources for meeting it. It is implied that a substantial difference in outcome of rewards and costs will occur from meeting versus not meeting the demand (McGrath, 1983).

Pestonjee (1992) observed that the term stress has been used to refer to (a) *stimulus* (external force acting on the organism); (b) *response* (changes in the physiological functions); (c) *interaction* (between an external force and the resistance opposed to it, as in biology), and (d) more comprehensive *combinations* of the above factors. (pp.15-16).

Gold and Roth (1993) defined stress "a condition of disequilibrium within the intellectual, emotional and physical state of the individual; it is generated by one's perceptions of a situation, which result in physical and emotional reactions. It can be either positive or negative, depending upon one's interpretations."

Ivancevich and Matteson (1993) viewed stress, "as an adaptive response, mediated by individual characteristics and/or psychological processes, that is a consequence of any external action, situation, or event that places special physical and/or psychological demands upon a person" (pp.8-9). This definition includes following aspects which are important to the overall study of stress: (a) situational demands or stressors cause persons to adapt; (b) individuals tend to react and adapt in different ways to the stressors they are presented; and (c) some form of physical and/or psychological responses will occur.

Seaward (1997, p.5) viewed stress as, "the inability to cope with a perceived or real (or imagined) threat to one's mental, physical, emotional, and spiritual well-being which results in a series of physiological responses and adaptations". In addition to responding physiologically, people may respond cognitively and emotionally to stress. Studies indicate that 70-80% of all disease and illness are stress-related.
In the light of viewpoints as given above, it can be concluded that stress is a state of mind, which reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body. It represents some disturbance in organism, which is characterised by physiological changes.

1.3.2 Organization, Role and Organizational Role Stress

The myriad organizations exist to perform an immeasurable variety of tasks (Aiiken and Hage, 1970). Organizations are always unique and just like the society, organization possesses distinctive pattern of collective feeling, culture, tradition and method of action. Etzioni (1974) defined that “we born in organizations, educated in organizations and generally spend much of our lives working for organizations.” Stress in an organization are task and role related. An organization is a network of roles performed in interconnected positions. Role represents the fundamental unit of the organization through which individual relate to each other for organizational role. The concept of role is the key to the integration of the individual within the organization.

Role is the key to understanding how a teacher functions in the system and how teacher is integrated in system. Pareek (1987, p.14) stated, “role can be defined by the position one occupies in a social system, as defined by the functions he/she performs in response to the expectations of the significant members of the social system, and his/her own expectations from that position or office”.

The very nature of role has an in-built potential for stress. An early series of well-recognized studies founded on role theory was that of Gross, Mason and McEachern (1958) who defined and operationalized several role concepts. The formal recognition for introducing role concepts into organizational research, however, is generally given to Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, with the publication of their book entitled – Organizational stress; studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity (1964).
Kahn et al. (1964) proposed a *role episode model* in which a focal person and role senders (collectively termed as the role set) interact cyclically within a context influenced by organizational factors (e.g., size of organization, its financial base, etc.), personality factors and interpersonal relations factors (e.g., power to influence others, dependence among persons, etc.). The expectations of role senders regarding role performance take the form of role pressures. These pressures are perceived and processed by the focal person and act as role forces to influence focal person behaviour in a manner either congruent or discordant with role sender's desires. Both *role conflict* and *role ambiguity* were seen as having an objective or environmental component and a subjective or psychological component. While objective role constructs refer to actual, verifiable conditions in the work environment, subjective role conflict and role ambiguity are internal states of the focal person. Kahn et al. (1964) opined that subjective role conflict and role ambiguity may or may not correspond with their objective counterparts, depending on the mediating influences of personality and interpersonal relations factors. Conflict can appear as a result of a clash between public roles and private ideals. Conflict leads to poor performance. Reactions to role conflict are "dysfunctional for the organization... and self-defeating for the person..." (Kahn et al., 1964).

Kahn et al. (1964) distinguished *role conflict* into two main categories, viz., *sent-role conflict*, and *role conflict* due to sent pressures and internal forces (p. 20).

*Sent-role conflict* was defined as, "the simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such as that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other". (p. 19). Sent-role conflict has three specific forms (i) *Intrasender conflict* which refers to incongruent expectations from a single member of role set ; (ii) *Intersender conflicts* that consists of incompatible expectations from two or more role senders; and (iii) *Inter-role conflict* which exists when
pressures from one role conflict with those from another role.

Role conflict, which derived from a clash between sent pressures and internal forces, it has; (iv) person role conflict i.e. when focal person’s own role expectations are in disagreement with those of one or more role senders; and (v) others complex forms which include combination of the preceding four forms e.g. role overload which is a combination of intersender and person role conflicts.

Role ambiguity has been described as deficient or uncertain information about role behaviour in a specific organizational position. Role ambiguity may be created because of fragmented information, poor communication and implementing decisions which affect teachers without having consulted them, inflexible policies on staffing and leave, inadequate teacher welfare services and a general lack of support systems for teachers. Kahn et al. (1964) proposed that role ambiguity originates from both environmental and individual sources. In organizational environment, factors such as, rapid growth of more complex and new concepts, fragmented information to teachers and innovations may create role ambiguity. Therefore some organizational roles and the expectations associated with them may be inherently ambiguous because of changing environment.

Further role ambiguity may be inducted at individual level by poor communications (either intentional or unintentional) from role senders to focal person or to the focal person’s inability to interpret role-sender signals. Contradictory messages from role senders may also produce confusion and uncertainty. It can be distinguished into two types, viz., task ambiguity, and socio-emotional ambiguity.

Task ambiguity is proposed to result “from lack of information concerning the proper definition of the job, its goals and the permissible means for implementing them” (Kahn et al., 1964, p. 94). The specific forms of task ambiguity consisted of : (i) Ambiguity regarding what is required, i.e. uncertainty about one’s scope of responsibilities, (ii) Ambiguity regarding how responsibilities are to be
met i.e. uncertainty about the role behaviors necessary to fulfill one’s responsibilities. (iii) Ambiguity regarding role senders that is uncertainty about whose expectations for role behaviors should be met.

Socio-emotional aspects of role ambiguity included ambiguity regarding consequences of role behaviors which referred to uncertainty about the effect of one’s action on well-being of one self, or on the organization as a whole.

In the context of role conflicts, Pareek (1983) has given importance to two aspects of roles; (a) role set, and (b) role space. He defined role set as, “... the role system within the organization of which roles are a part and by which individual roles are defined”. Role space referred to “...the role, people occupy and perform” (Pareek, 1983, p.115). He further proposed the following role characteristics that fall under these two aspects of role stress viz, role space conflicts, and role set conflicts.

1.3.2.1 Role space conflicts

(i) Inter Role Distance-Conflict may exist between two roles a teacher attempts to play. For example, teachers face conflicts between their organizational roles and their family roles. These may be incompatible and are quite frequently a source of conflict in a society where teachers try to occupy multiple roles in various organizations.

(ii) Role Stagnation- such type of stress arise as a result of feelings of lack of career development. Individuals’ motivation is largely dependent upon the extent of their higher order need satisfaction and opportunities for advancement and growth. When there is a feeling that in spite of high level of attainment, there is no potential for growth (both horizontally and vertically) the individual feel stressed. Such stress can be observed in educational organizations where promotional opportunities are less and slow.
(iii) **Role Expectation Conflict**-Because individuals develop expectations as a result of their socialization and identification with significant others, there is usually some incompatibility between a person’s own expectations of a role and the expectations of others. For example, a professor may feel that the demands of teachings and of doing research are incompatible, whether they are or not. Others in the organization also are very likely to have expectation of the person filling the role that conflict with the person’s own expectations.

(iv) **Personal Inadequacy**- Teachers often express that they could perform better if they are provided with better skills. This feeling in them that they lack in certain skills also may often be a type of stress. For instance, a teacher who feels that he is not able to perform his role of supervising the computer section of the institution and persons working there, because of his lack of knowledge in computer, might be responsible for the stress experienced. Further, a feeling of lack of expertise in certain fields might make them view the related job demands as high and incompatible.

(v) **Self-Role Distance**-Conflicts often develops between people’s self-concepts and their expectations of themselves in their job roles. For example, an introvert teacher may have trouble in organizing exhibition in the institution. It is also fairly common for people to experience conflict between the way they treat others in everyday life and the way they are required to treat others in their organizational roles where maintaining distance from others may be necessary.

1.3.2.2 **Role Set Conflicts**

(vi) **Role Erosion**-As the organization grows, it is natural for the work that is being done by one person to be shared by other person. Viewing such organizational act as reducing the importance of one’s role might be another type of stress. This
type of stress may be viewed as the opposite of role overload. Feeling of diminished responsibility (Kay, 1974), transfer of certain duties to others etc. are also associated with this type of stress.

(vii) **Role Overload**-role overload is one of the important factors in research on organizational stress. Sales (1969) described this concept as follows, "role overload means a condition in which individual is faced with a set of obligations which, taken as a set, requires him to do more than he is able to in the time available". Beehr, Walsh, and Taber (1976) explained role overload as, "the individual's feelings of having too much of work to do in the time available." French and Caplan (1973) have differentiated overload in terms of quantitative and qualitative overload. Quantitative referred to having 'too much to do' while qualitative means work that is 'too difficult'. Miller (1960) stated that 'Overload' in most systems leads to break down, whether we dealing with a single biological cell or teachers, managers, doctors, in the organizations.

(viii) **Role Isolation**-The effectiveness of any teacher depends upon the extent to which his role is well connected with other roles in the organization. When his role does not provide opportunity for interaction with other significant roles, he may develop feelings of being left alone. This may also result in deprivation of his social need and he may experience this type of stress.

(ix) **Role Ambiguity**-Most of the teachers complain that many aspects of their jobs lack clarity. This lack of clarity in jobs can be further divided into two parts; with regard to task, and a feedback on performance of teachers. The former is termed as role ambiguity-task and the latter, role ambiguity-feedback.

Role ambiguity-task (RAT) is also known as 'task ambiguity' when teachers are not provided with adequate information about the nature of duties, organizational goals and policies, limits of
authority, decision making, etc. experience ‘task ambiguity.’

Role ambiguity-feedback (RAF) is generally experienced when there is a feeling that superior is neither responding nor reacting fully to person’s performance. During such situations an individual will be in a perplexed state since he does not know whether his performance is up to the satisfaction of his superior and is in the expected direction.

(x) Resource Inadequacy- It is legitimate for a teacher to expect certain essential facilities to be effective on his job. When he feels that he is not given enough of resources by his organization, he may experience this type of stress. Inadequacy of resources might result in feeling of being neglected, high job demands, lack of rewards, being deprived of information etc.

1.3.3 Factors Causing Stress

In the ancient Indian concepts stress is referred in terms such as ‘Dukha’ (pain, misery or suffering); ‘Klesa’ (afflictions), ‘trisna’ (desires), ‘ahamkara’ (ego), ‘adhi’ (mental aberrations) and ‘prajnaparadha’ (failure or lapse of consciousness). Concept of stress also finds its emphasis in ‘Ayurvedic’ (Indian) system of medicine. The ‘Samkhya system’ mentioned three types of stresses: ‘adyatmik’ that is personal (e.g. greed, fear, jealousy and depression), ‘adhibhotik’ is situational (which include conflicts, competitiveness, aggression, etc.) and ‘adhidevik’, that is environmental (e.g. natural calamities, temperature, storms, etc.). Thus, stresses which operate in work place affect the individual in that organization and hence productivity (Pelletier, 1984). In response to the changing economic, social, technological and environmental demands, educational institutions have witnessed great transformation in the nature of duties of teachers, the diversity of tasks assigned to them and variety of roles which they have to play. This is resulting in stressful situations in the educational institutes.
Particularly in teaching, stress may result from or be related to a variety of organizational factors, viz., supervisory, individual, and work factors (Cherniss, 1980; Schuler, 1982). Stress has been related to physical and mental health, Coronary Heart Disease (CHD), absenteeism, turnover, job dissatisfaction, work effectiveness and work withdrawal (Jamal, 1984 and 1990).

Stressed teachers may be relatively impaired in the quality of teaching and commitment, may give less information and interact less with students. Teachers have been known to experience stress because of their lack of occupational confidence in a particular work on in institutional environment. They feel incompetent and experience stress due to their instability to always remain current and up-to-date in their areas of expertise (Fimian and Santoro, 1997; Terry, 1997).

A variety of stressors related to areas of educational systems have been defined. Some of these are related to teacher internal characteristics (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1979; Pettigrew and Wolfe, 1982a; Harris et al., 1985; Kyriacou, 1987; Borg and Riding, 1991; Byrne, 1992; Hipps and Halpin, 1992; Bennett, 1997). A significant number of behavioural changes connected with stress include: lowered tolerance for frustration, increased irritability, loss of caring for others, lack of control (Eskridge and Coker, 1985) which indirectly adversely affect the intellectual climate. High level of stress leads to teachers ineffectiveness and inefficiency in their professional roles (Faber, 1984). Excessive stress can negatively influence schools, overall teaching performances, the physical and emotional well-being of teachers and student achievement (Harris et al., 1985; Kyriacou, 1987). Teacher stress tends to be related to a variety of personal, social, physical and interpersonal events and experiences occurring in the classroom and school environment (Fimian, 1982). Kyriacou (1987, p.146) defined teacher stress as “the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression, resulting from aspects of work as a teacher.”
Visualizing stress in a new perspective Pestonjee (1987) stated that stress is not always harmful. Kets DeVries (1979) opined that each individual needs a moderate amount of stress to be alert and capable of functioning effectively in an organization. It may prove as an asset so long as it is tolerable and helps in creating healthy competition as depicted in Fig.1.2 that is, upto a point, stress serves to arouse a person and increase attention to the job, thus improving performance. Beyond optimum levels, performance falls off (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1993). Stress response pattern takes the form of an upside-down U-shape.

Fig.1.2 Stress and Performance

Some stress raises level of performance, but too much stress lowers it.


Hence, Organizational excellence and individual success are achieved through well - managed stress, but unproductive levels of stress might prove harmful to teachers and can affect their teaching, personal lives, and the most important of all their students' personality and performance. Teacher stress might have a negative impact on the

teachers themselves leading for instance, to emotional and physical ill-health (Adams, 1999).

The causes of stress among teachers in educational institutions, according to Pettegrew and Wolfe (1982a) arise from three conceptually different sources namely, (i) **Tasks/events stress** - which stems from the variety of specific tasks, which teachers perform as part of their duties; (ii) **Role related stress** - which is associated with the degree of congruity between the teacher’s expectations of his/her teaching role and actual teaching experience; and (iii) **Work/events stress** - which are specific events that teachers experience while performing their duties.

According to Marshall (2003) factors contributing stress among teachers may be grouped into three categories; (i) **individual factors**; (ii) **organizational factors** (Fig.1.3); (iii) **extra-organizational factors**. The *first categories* of factors is within the individual and involve physiological, psychological and behavioural responses to stress (Sutherland and Cooper, 1998, 2000), certain personality traits and background characteristics. In the individual teacher, feelings of stress may result in both psychological and physical dysfunction and this may be reflected in feeling of exhaustion, depression and irritability and increased susceptibility to illness. The **organizational factors**, emanating from distortions in the relationship between individual and organization relate to the ways in which school/college settings. These contribute to stress and include a lack of clarity in the definition of teachers duties, vague rules and regulations, large classes, poor availability of resources, cramped working conditions and lack of privacy, inflexible policies on staffing and leave, inadequate teacher welfare services etc. ([http://eric-web.tc.columbia.edu/digest/dig75.html](http://eric-web.tc.columbia.edu/digest/dig75.html)) as presented in **Fig.1.3**. The third category of **extra-organizational factors** deal with the social environment. The nature of teachers’ involvement with students, colleagues, parents and members of the community are posited to affect self-perceptions of extreme

1.3.4 Stress Research Models

There are two basic traditions in which stress research has flourished. One has evolved from a biological perspective, based on research in physiology and endocrinology. The other is based on psychosocial tradition. Both these traditions have made their share of contribution to the stress literature by conceptualizing a multitude of complex models.

1.3.4.1 Models Based on Biological Tradition

Models based on fields of biology and medicine can be traced
back to antiquity; its modern roots began with Cannon's (1936) work on emotional stress. He considered stress and its, 'emergency responses to be adaptive in that they prepared the individuals to cope with danger. Recognition of danger was followed by adrenal gland activity and sympathetic arousal that increase heart rate, respiration, and skeletal muscle tone, while reducing blood flow to the skin and viscera. By being in a state of heightened arousal the individual could more easily fight or fly from the danger. Stress was viewed as a response to threat that was directly related to survival and adaptation.

Though Cannon's (1936) work was very important in understanding stress, Selye (1976) developed an elaborate theory of stress. He found that a common triad of physiological effects accompanied a wide range of different noxious agents (injection of hormone extracts or heat etc.) that were administered to laboratory animals. This triad consisted of shrinkage of the thymus gland, enlargement of the adrenal gland and ulceration in the gastrointestinal tract. This syndrome was non-specific. The animals appeared to respond to all forms of stress in the same way. Selye proposed three stage GAS (General Adaptation Syndrome) model to explain the stress phenomenon (Fig. 1.1).

This three stage model stated that when an organism is confronted with a threat, the general physiological response occurs in three stages (i) the alarm reaction; (ii) stage of resistance and (iii) stage of exhaustion. Our bodies are alerted are activated during the first stage, and stress levels are the highest during this stage. The body's defenses attempt to adapt during the second stage, and stress levels begin to reduce. The stage of exhaustion happens when the body's defenses towards stress became totally depleted.

Theory of stress developed by Selye (1976) have several implications; (i) first the effects of stress are cumulative. That is, the damage produced by stressors accumulates over time, (i) second, these effects are involved in serious pathology when they overwhelm
one's ability to cope, (ii) third, stress may be additive because responses to different threats are the same, an individual's reaction to a threat will be augmented by his or her reaction to the previous exposure to threats.

Others have also contributed to research on physiological aspects of stress. Mason (1975 a, 1975 b) has argued against a non-specific model of stress, showing that the endocrine system exhibits different patterns of response to different threats. His extensive research showed that reaction to uncertainty or ambiguity was associated with increased in catecholamines (nor-epinephrine, and epinephrine) and cortisol, whereas anger or fear was associated with increases in only norepinephrine and cortisol. Furthermore, Mason (1975 a, 1975 b) pointed out that all of these responses are integrated by the central nervous system and are therefore mediated by psychological recognition of danger. Mason's view, thus represented an integration of biological and psychosocial approaches to stress.

1.3.4.2 Models based on psychosocial tradition

The models based on psychosocial tradition of which has generated a stream of research that is usually independent of physiological studies. In this perspective, stress, is the reaction of an organism to demands placed upon it. The key focus is on the interaction of stressful agents and the human system of appraisal and evaluation (Lazarus, 1966).

One of these models is that of Kahn (1970) wherein the main elements of the chain are assumed to be causally connected. The objective environment has a direct causal influence on the perceived environment, which, in its turn, has a causal influence on the individual's reactions, which may lead to sickness.

On the other hand the interpretation of the situation having a key position in this model. How an individual will respond to his environment is influenced also by the conditioning variables –
personality traits, and interpersonal relations. House (1974) has identified paradigm of stress research (i) objective social conditions conducive to stress; (ii) individual perceptions of stress; (iii) individual responses (physiological, affective and behavioural) to perceived stress; (iv) more enduring outcomes of perceived stress and responses there to and (v) individual and situational conditioning variables that influence the relationships among the first four sets of factors.

A model of person-environment fit, developed over several years, by members of the Social Environment and Mental Health Research Programe at the Institute of Social Research, University of Michigan, represented a theoretical relationship between job stress and health (Caplan, 1972; French and Kahn, 1962; French, Rogers, and Cobb, 1974; Harrison, 1976; House, 1972; Pettigrew and Wolfe, 1982; Terry, 1997). Two kinds of fit between the individual and the environmental were considered. One kind of fit was the extent to which the person’s skills and abilities match the demands and requirements of the job. Another kind of fit is the extent to which the job environment provided supplies to meet the individuals needs. When misfit of either kind threatened the individual's well-being i.e. various health strains will result.

Model proposed by Ivancevich and Matteson (1982), was an excellent model that concerned with the stress process in full, i.e., from the intra-organizational and extra-organizational stressors to the specific stressors at work. It also deals with the short-term physiological and behavioural outcomes and to the longer term diseases of adaptation. Within each of these categories specific variables were identified as especially important. Enduring individuals characteristics- demographic, behavioural, cognitive, and affective, were introduced as moderators in the stress sequence. Ivancevich and Matteson (1982) distinguished stressors according to the level of analysis-individual, group and organizational. It has been a significant
aspect that the role of situational factors (e.g. social support) as potential moderators in the stress sequence. Schuler's (1982) model was similar in its specification of organizational stressors.

Reviewing the recent stress research theory, Dohrenwend, Pearlin, Clayton, Hanburg, Raley and Rose (1982) have identified paradigm of stress research which included; Stressful life events are jointly determined by (i) circumstances in the environment as some environments generate more of such events than others; (ii) by characteristics of individuals as some people are more event-prone than others; (iii) events in turn are the immediate causes of the individual's state of stress; (iv) state of stress can be reflected in undesirable changes in functioning or health, or in no change, or in psychosocial growth.

The model given by Lazarus and his colleagues (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984) has been extremely influential in the field of stress research. This model has been little concerned with causal factors that could be considered organizational. Emphasis was on the chronic external conditions, or daily hassles, as stressors and on the cognitive factors that intervene between such external events and their short term physiological, emotional, and behavioral consequences which were especially important.

The foregoing discussion highlights the fact that environmental as well as intervening conditioning variables are important sources of stress in organizations. Therefore, in the present investigation an attempt has been made to study intellectual climate in relation to Organizational role stress. For the present investigation Model based on Psychosocial tradition has been adopted to investigate the reaction of teachers in educational institutions due to stress, the way teachers respond to their environment. This reaction is conditioned by personality traits and interpersonal reactions. Personality has a significant factor in dealing with stress and ultimately affecting the intellectual climate of the educational institutions (Fontana, 1986).
1.4 PERSONALITY

Personality is a significant factor in perceiving and experiencing stress in institution. Healthy personality traits serve as models to deal with the stresses effectively due to the constant challenging interaction with their climate.

Personality refers to all those factors that describe a person’s propensities and fears, his habits and the like. It is the dynamic organization of various factors both heredity and environmental which determine one’s capacity to deal with the environment effectively. As such, it assumes a great significance as determinant of both reaction to stress, and maintaining a balance between social structure and proper adjustment (Haas, 1970). It also helps a teacher in various ways to maintain the institutional climate.

Further, a person handles the stress by way of constant interaction with the environment and ultimately also affecting the intellectual climate of the institution and vice versa. Healthy personality traits help to enrich the intellectual climate while poor personality traits adversely affected by the intellectual climate of the institutions. Hence, personality of a teacher is not only by and large responsible in creating better and stimulating intellectual climate but also in perceiving and experiencing stress levels in the institution (Gypsy et al., 2005).

The concept of personality has been recognized as central in educational research. It is considered as a unique pattern of traits which characterize the individual. Personality is not a fixed state, but a dynamic totality, which is continuously changing due to interaction with the environment. Personality of an individual may have impact on the symptoms of stress exhibited by that particular person. It may also have influence on the educational environment by way of providing more or less or reducing stress among teachers. The personality type of teachers may be indicators of the presentation of stress in various forms (Farber, 1983; Sutherland and Cooper, 1998; Leonard et al., 2000).
Institutional climate created by warm and friendly use technique that integrate the group can either achieve or pupil motivation for high ambitions best work (Cogan, 1958). Iwanicki (1983) and Dussai opined that stress among teachers is a function of personality. Role stress can also affect the persona Likewise response of stress may be different for different types are less susceptible to stress. Thus, personality role stress and intellectual climate show a cyclical relationship.

The search for an understanding of personality differences, temperamental peculiarities and other deviantly average behaviors originated long back by psychologists, etc. Greek physician, Galen in the second century enunciated the doctrine of four temperaments, viz, the choleric, the sanguine and the phlegmatic. These factors were supposed to be responsible for differences in behavior was criticized for it’s over-simplification, as people could be pigeon holed into four categories. Jung (1923) utilized extraversion and introversion. Extraversion, according to him was defined as a turning outward of libido on to people the external world, and introversion was described as introversion directedness. Later, Eysenck (1971) and his co-workers used these theoretical concepts to laboratory setting and research. With their dimensional approach to personality at a causative levels, they have ushered in a new era of personality.

Eysenck (1968) defined personality as, “a more and enduring organization of a person’s character an intellect and physique which determines his unique at environment”. Eysenck’s definition included four factors (intelligence), the conative (character), the affective and the somatic (constitution). Personality according to
sum total of actual or potential behaviour patterns of organism as determined by heredity and environment. It originates and develops through the functional interaction of the constituent sectors into which these behavior patterns are organized.

**1.4.1 Eysenck’s theory of personality**

The personality theory developed and modified by Eysenck over the years (1947, 1952, 1955, 1956, 1957, 1960 a, 1963, 1967, 1970, 1972, 1981 and 1985) after wading through various cross-currents of criticism (Fould, 1961, Hamilton, 1959 a, 1959 b, Sigal, Star, and Frank, 1958 a, 1958 b,) posits four independent major dimensions of personality, viz., extraversion/introversion (E/I) neuroticism (N), psychoticism (P), and intelligence(cognitive ability). By using the term dimension, Eysenck (1960) referred to dimension as a continuum for a type which in turn is defined, “as a group of correlated traits... in the greater inclusiveness of the concept”. These four dimensions were derived by using hypothetico-deductive techniques and elaborative factor analysis (Eysenck, 1956; Eysenck and Eysenck, 1963). His approach to personality was two-fold; the individual difference point of view, and general experimental psychology. The former provided an understanding of the structure of personality; the later yielded an insight into the dynamics of personality. Eysenck on an personality theory tried to give an analysis of each dimension at two levels, i.e. descriptive and causative.

**1.4.1.1 Extraversion**

According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1968, 1978) extraversion referred to the outgoing, uninhibited, impulsive and social inclinations of person. The typical extravert is sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves for excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment, and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes to laugh and be merry. He prefers to keep
moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and loses his temper quickly; altogether his feelings are not kept under tight control and are not always reliable persons.

1.4.1.2 Introversion

The typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, 'looks before he leaps' and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matter of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes the well-ordered mode of life. He keeps his feelings under close control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner, and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable, somewhat, pessimistic and places great values on ethical standards, (Eysenck, 1965, p. 59-60).

Eysenck (1965) in his book entitled, 'Facts and Fiction in Psychology' differentiated extraverts and introverts on the basis of their attitudes in the social and political fields. Eysenck (1965) states:

...Extraverted people tend to have tough minded attitudes, introverted people tend more towards tender minded attitudes. Introverts are conservative, and tend towards religious attitudes and beliefs whereas the extraverts will tend to show such attitudes as believing in the death penalty and in the flogging of criminals ...on the radical side, introverts tend towards pacificistic and quakes-type ideals, whereas the extraverts tend towards belief in companionate marriages, easier divorce laws...At the extreme, conservative extraverts tend to hold fascist beliefs and radical extraverts, communist beliefs, (p.60).

Eysenck has made use of certain suggestions in the work of Pavlov (1941) who explained some of the differences found in the reactions to various dogs to stress. Then he interpreted cortical events in terms of excitation and inhibition and tried to link these notions with psychiatric behaviour disorders (Gray, 1964).
Eysenck (1957) differentiated between extraverts and the introvert with the help of excitation-inhibition theory. Excitation is the brain waking itself up, getting into an alert, learning state. Inhibition is the brain calming itself down, either in the usual sense of relaxing and going to sleep or in the sense of protecting itself in the case of overwhelming stimulation. He maintained that individual in whom relative inhibition is developed quickly in whom reactive inhibition so generated is relatively strong and dissipates slowly are pre-disposed to develop extraverted pattern of behaviour and to develop hysterical, psychopathic disorders in case of neurotic breakdown; conversely in whom reaction inhibition is developed slowly in whom reactive inhibition so generated is relatively weak and dissipates quickly, are predisposed to develop introverted pattern of behaviour and to develop dysthymic disorder in case of neurotic breakdown. As regards the relation of hysteria to extraversion and dysthymia to introversion, there was much criticism from researchers (Fould, 1961; Hamilton, 1959; Sigal et al. 1958). Eysenck (1959) using hysterics and dysthymics as criterion groups, succeeded in replying to this criticism to some extent, but later on modified his standpoint (1960 a) to state, “such as hypothesis does not postulate a one-to-one correspondence, however, it preserves the distinction between personality on one hand and symptomatology on the other”.

Eysenck (1967, 1970, 1980) put forward a more explicit physiological theory to explain the differences in extraversion-introversion dimension. He maintained the Ascending Reticular Activating System (ARAS) is the structure in the nervous system that forms the basis for individual differences in extraversion/introversion. This formation is responsible for maintaining the cerebral cortex in the state of arousal in response to external stimulation. Eysenck postulated that this state of arousal is higher in introverts than extraverts; this state of arousal is mediated by low thresholds for incoming sensory stimulation in introverts while in extraverts it is mediated by high thresholds for incoming sensory stimulation. Hill
(1975), and Strelau (1980) found support for Eysenck’s theory linking differences in Extraversion/introversion to differences in cortical arousal.

Another important feature of Eysenck’s new physiological theory was the linking of physiological differences between introverts and extraverts to a distinction used by Russian researchers (Sokolov, 1963; Teplov, 1963) of the organism with strong and weak nervous system (Gray, 1964). Organisms with weak nervous system assumed to respond at lower level of stimulation and are assumed to respond with greater intensity to stimuli as compared to organisms with ‘strong’ nervous system. The weak nervous system as a result of its extreme reactivity is more subject to transmarginal inhibition than the strong nervous system. The concept of transmarginal inhibition implies that when the levels of excitation are reached which are above some optimal value, inhibition occurs which decreases such excitation. Eysenck (1967) proposed that introverts are more subject to transmarginal inhibition than extraverts. Eysenckian theory, thus, assumes some upper level of arousal which is reached at a lower level of stimulus intensity by introverts than by extraverts and once this level is reached, new inhibition processes occur which reduce excitation. Consequently, it is possible that at high levels of stimulus intensity, cortical arousal should be lower for introverts than that for extraverts. On the basis of EEG studies, Eysenck concluded that introverts typically have low alpha amplitude and high alpha-frequency. While extraverts typically have high alpha amplitude and low alpha frequency. These are EEG characteristics of high- and low arousal group, respectively (Eysenck, 1970).

1.4.1.3 Neuroticism

Neuroticism is the name Eysenck gave to a dimension from normal, fairly calm and collected people to one’s who tend to be quite nervous. Neuroticism referred to a general, emotional, over-responsiveness, emotional ability to neurotic break down under stress.
This kind of people suffer more frequently from a variety of “nervous disorders” called as neuroses, hence the name of the dimension.

A high scoring individual on neuroticism tends to be anxious, worrying, over-responsive and depressed. He reacts too strongly to all sorts of stimuli and finds it difficult to get back on an even peel after each emotionally arousing experience (Ibrahim, 1979). His strong emotional reactions interfere with his proper adjustment, making him react in irrational ways (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1978). Such individuals frequently complain of vague somatic upsets of minor kind, such as headaches, digestive troubles, insomnia, backaches etc. and also report many worries, anxieties and other disagreeable emotional feelings. Such individuals are more susceptible to neurotic problems. A person with high scores on neuroticism cannot function adequately in work place, family and social sphere (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1968,1978).

Eysenck was convinced that, since everyone in his data-pool fit somewhere on this dimension of normality to neuroticism, this was a true temperament, i.e. that this was a genetically - based, physiologically supported dimension of personality, as the sympathetic nervous system is a part of the autonomic nervous system that functions separately from the CNS (Central Nervous System) and controls much of emotional responsiveness to emergency situations. The traditional way of describing the function of the sympathetic nervous system is to say that it prepares an individual for “fight or flight”. Eysenck hypothesized that some people have a more responsive sympathetic nervous system than others, some people remain very calm during emergencies; some people feel considerable fear or other emotions; and some are terrified by even very minor incidents. The latter group had a problem of sympathetic hyperactivity, which made them prime candidates of the various neurotic disorders.

As to the relationship of Neuroticism and Extraversion Eysenck (1957) identified personality dimension of neuroticism with autonomic
drive and extraversion with the fast accumulation and slow dissipation of reactive inhibition. Accepting this theory it can be stated that: good educational attainers should have high scores on neuroticism and low on extroversion. Furneaux (1957) showed that student who do well at university score more highly on neuroticism and lower on extraversion.

The mutual independence of neuroticism and extraversion has been reviewed and supported by Corrigan (1960), in which she maintained that those analysis which produced ‘extraversion-like’ factor, also yielded an independent factor associated with some aspect of adjustment, variously known as ego- strength, general adjustment, neuroticism anxiety etc.

1.4.1.4 Psychoticism

The third dimension of personality which Eysenck came to recognize was psychoticism. High score on psychoticism may be described as being solitary, not caring for people; he is often troublesome, not fitting anywhere. He may be cruel and inhumane, lacking in feeling and empathy, and altogether insensitive. He is hostile to other, even his own kith and kin, and aggressive, even to loved ones. He has liking for odd and unusual things, and a desire for danger; he likes to make fool of other people and to upset them.

Eysenck and Eysenck (1978) found men scoring higher on psychoticism than women. Genetically psychoticism has high hereditability, which is purely additive. Environmental influences are not found to be playing major role in contributing towards individual differences in psychoticism.

1.4.1.5 Lie Scale (Social Desirability)

The Lie-scale (L) was first incorporated in the Eysenck’s personality inventory (EPI) to measure a tendency on the part of the subjects to “fake good”. It is considered as a tendency to respond in a socially desirable way; it is described as a desire to conform to social norms (Edwards, 1954); ‘Nice personality’ (Skinner et al., 1970); ‘ideal
Mosher (1965) considered that a high lie or social desirability score shows a tendency to protect self-esteem or as an ego defense mechanism. This scale thus measures some stable personality factor, which possibly denotes some degree of social naivete, unfortunately too little is known about the precise nature of this scale (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1978).

Eysenck (1982) in his stress personality theory concluded that subjects who are high on neuroticism, high on psychoticism and low on extraversion will be more stress prone. Hence, stressed teachers negatively influence the educational institutions and student achievement (Harris et al., 1985; Kyriacou, 1987; Byrne, 1992) and ultimately the intellectual climate of an educational institution.

Stressful situation of the institutions due to too complex demands of an institution. Response of stress may be different for different personality types (Fig.1.4). The teachers with more extraverted personalities are less susceptible to stress. While teachers with personality who have stronger feeling or emotional disposition are more susceptible to stress (Rajyalakshmi, 1999). Personality and stress have strong relationships, extraverted teachers experience lesser role stress as compared to teacher with neurotic traits (Fontana and Abouserie, 1993). Extraversion increases resistance to stress.

Hence, personality of teachers can have a tremendous influence in perceiving the Organizational role stress thereby contributing to the intellectual climate. Personality help in creating a congenial intellectual climate as well as perceiving and experiencing stress levels in the institutions. Thus, there is an articulated relationship exists between intellectual climate, Organizational role stress and personality. A theoretical view of the inter-relatedness of intellectual climate and personality with Organizational role stress is shown in Fig.1.4.
Fig. 1.4: Inter-relatedness of intellectual climate, Personality and Organizational role stress

Sources: Developed by the Researcher.
1.4.2 Relationship of Intellectual climate, Personality and Organizational role stress

Changing nature of work in every organization due to global competition create stressful situations. Additional responsibilities, change in job profile, constant need to remain current and updated in knowledge, poor working conditions of the institution (Terry, 1997) and poor intellectual climate cause Organizational role stress among teachers. On the other hand, stressed teachers contributes negatively to the intellectual climate of the institution because of lower performance of teachers and lack of concentration, they may not participate in the extensive thinking necessary for an effective system of institution. The stressed teachers are caught in a vicious circle and in turn lead to poor overall functioning of an institution and the intellectual climate (Adams, 2003; Meijer and Oostdam, 2004). Hence, reciprocal articulation between both the variables constitute the spinal column of an institution.

Intellectual climate and personality of teacher educators also share reciprocal relationship. Healthy personality traits like stable personality enable the person to experience lower and productive levels of Organizational role stress, which, ultimately creates a positive influence in building up the better intellectual climate. Disturbed personality like high Neuroticism, Psychoticism and Introversion traits leads to the experience of unproductive levels of Organizational role stress resulting in poor intellectual climate (Philips, 1993).

Conceptual analysis of variables viz. intellectual climate, personality and Organizational role stress and the possible type of relationships existing among them, which led to the emergence of the present problem is summarily presented in Fig.1.5.
1.5 NEED OF THE STUDY

In today's fast paced and ever changing world, things and events have started occurring faster than ever before. There is a faster growth rate for generating knowledge and also for dissemination of knowledge, which has increased the expectations of the people. Globalization has made the access to education the sine qua non for effective participation in the life of modern world at all levels (Milwaukee, 2005). Networking among different organizations facilitate
to share ideas which help to achieve certain objectives of an organization. Among the myriad organizations providing services, educational institutions are perceived as being fundamentally important.

Educational institutions are essential for development of the country, for national integration and for realizing the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society through transmission, conservation and rejuvenation of culture that lead to the progress of Indian society. These educational institutions are setup to achieve certain objectives which help in transmission of cultural values and socially approved behaviour patterns to the younger members of the society. Achievement of these objectives largely depends upon the institutional climate specially the intellectual climate prevailing in the educational institutions. Regarding educational climate Newell (1978) stated that “...a wholesome climates for students cannot be provided with an unwholesome climate for staff. Teachers need to be enabled to grow in relation to their own motivations rather than in relation to the needs of someone else.” Congenial intellectual climate ensures productivity, performance of students as well as of teachers and smooth and efficient working of an institution (Harris and Lowery, 2002). Explorations into the climate prevailing in them enables to decipher the strengths and weaknesses of these institutions, the knowledge of which can be utilized in improving upon the overall climate.

Intellectual climate or ‘Press’ of an educational institution is usually referred to as the climate or atmosphere of the institution, organization or environmental setting, which is inferred from the social, and physical characteristics of the environmental settings as perceived by the students (Stern, 1970). Press has a tremendous effect and reciprocally is affected by the educational and psychological outcomes of the students and teachers more so in the teacher education institutions. This necessitate study of the ‘press’ that is intellectual climate of various types of teacher education institution such as
government Vs Private, U.T. Chandigarh Vs in the state of Punjab, Women Vs Co-education and Rural Vs Urban Colleges of Education.

Increased demands of society and change in nature of work at whirlwind speed in every organization and educational institutions due to global competition and advancement in various fields have caused teachers to experience stress specifically the Organizational role stress (Fimian and Santoro, Terry, 1997). Teachers are to perform more roles and complete more complicated tasks. Personality of the teachers and their perception of the Organizational role stress can vitiate or improve the intellectual climate of an institution, but there is no denying the fact that under conditions of greater uncertainty and ambiguity (Adams, 2003) teachers experience negative orientation and become ineffective towards different aspects of professional role. Perception of stressful conditions in an institution is related both with conflict and standard of performance (Mogaji, 2002). Hence, in order to provide quality teacher education in colleges of education, it is important that study of intellectual climate in relation to Organizational role stress experienced by the teacher educators is taken up.

Further, poor intellectual climate by lacking in meeting the aspirations of employees and characterized by weak academic organization, absence of opportunities for vocational/ career advancement, low achievement etc. become an active agent of teachers Organizational role stress, which in turn possess a serious threat to teachers performance, productivity and physical health. Hence, there is a need to explore to what extent and in what way an educational institution contributes to the Organizational role stress as perceived by teachers. Available researches in this area primarily relate to the organizations at the school / college level or the non-educational institutions. There are very few studies concerning association of Organizational role stress as perceived by teachers and the intellectual climate of the colleges of education, which thus needs to be empirically explored.
Disturbed Personality of teachers influences significantly and tremendously to the intellectual climate, which may be vitiated by the symptoms of stress exhibited by the teachers. Organizational role stress along with personality characteristics may be indicators of the presentation of stress in a variety of forms including lowered performance, depressed mood, physical ill-health and mental ill-health (Farber, 1983; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1987; Pelletier, 1984; Sutherland and Cooper, 1998; Adams, 2003; Meijer and Oostdam, 2004).

A well-suited and healthy personality is able to handle the magnitude of stresses emanating from the three sectors of life.

Disturbed personality leads to experience unproductive levels of Organizational role stress in a poor intellectual climate.

**Fig.1.6**

**Personality, Organizational role stress and the intellectual climate**

Source: Developed by Researcher
Introduction

Their association with intellectual climate of the institution, needs to be further studied. Intellectual climate is one of the most important aspects of overall institutional climate. If it is favourable, teachers can provide better performance by experience lower levels of Organizational role stress as presented in Fig. 1.6.

The present study has been designed with a view to examine the intellectual climate of teacher education institutions in the state of Punjab and U.T. Chandigarh and to study its relationship with organizational role stress and personality type of teacher educators. It is hoped that study will submit a clear picture of the type of institutional climate in the colleges of education and the extent to which variations in intellectual climate are associated with the role stress experienced by teacher educators teaching in these colleges as also their personality types (Extraversion and Neuroticism).

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

“Study of Intellectual Climate of Teacher Education Institutions in Relation to Organizational Role Stress and Personality of Teacher Educators.”

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study is directed to the following objectives:

1) To study the inter-institutional differences in the intellectual climate of government and privately managed colleges of education.

2) To study the inter-institutional differences in intellectual climate of colleges of education situated in U.T. Chandigarh and in the state of Punjab.

3) To study the inter-institutional differences in intellectual climate of women and co-education colleges of education.

4) To study the inter-institutional differences in intellectual climate of colleges of education situated in rural and urban areas.
5) To examine if the variations in the types of intellectual climate (high, average and low) of teacher education in with the differences in the Organizational role stress experienced by teacher educators teaching in the

6) To study the differences in the personality traits (extraversion and neuroticism) of the teacher educators teaching in colleges of education with high average and low intellectual climate.

1.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

1) The study has been limited to teacher educators teaching only situated in the state of Punjab, Chandigarh.

1.9 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS USED

For the present investigation, various terms have been operationally defined as follows:

1) **Intellectual climate**

   Intellectual climate in the present study has been conceived as defined by Stern (1961) "as the complex press upon the individual and to which his behavior response".

   Accordingly, the measures of intellectual climate in the present study consist of **11-first order factors** viz., intellectual climate, student dignity, academic climate achievement, self expression, group-life, academic or form, play work and vocational climate and **four second order factors** namely, intellectual climate (CCIaI), non-intellectual climate (CCIIII), impulse control (CCIII) and area-IV (CCIV) as also cited by McClelland (1953).

2) **Organizational role stress**

   The term Organizational role stress in the present study has been defined as the complex press upon the individual and to which his behavior response." 

   Accordingly, the measures of Organizational role stress in the present study consist of **11-first order factors** viz., intellectual climate, student dignity, academic climate achievement, self expression, group-life, academic or form, play work and vocational climate and **four second order factors** namely, intellectual climate (CCIaI), non-intellectual climate (CCIIII), impulse control (CCIII) and area-IV (CCIV) as also cited by McClelland (1953).
been taken as viewed by Ivancevich and Matteson
adaptive response, mediated by individual character
psychological processes, that is a consequence of any
situation or event that places special physical and / or
demands upon a person. The measure of Organizational
the present study consists of 10-role stressors nam-
distance, role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role
overload, role isolation, personal inadequacy, self role
ambiguity and resource inadequacy obtained on ORS-
1983, pp.115). He described two aspects of roles; (a) to
"...the role system within the organization of which re
and by which individual roles are defined". and (b) role
to "...the role, people occupy and perform".

3) **Personality**

Well recognized definition of personality by Eyser
been used as an operational definition in the presen
conceives personality as: "a more or less stable
organization of a person’s character and temperament
physique which determines his unique adjustment to the
Eysenck’s two types of personality namely, extr
neuroticism have been included in the present study.

1.10 **OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS**

The main thrust of the present study is to find out t
of intellectual climate, personality and Organizational
perceived by teacher educators in colleges of educat
state of Punjab and U.T. Chandigarh. For this purpose
been divided into following chapters:

The **first chapter** of the study is introductory
mainly deals with the overview of the concepts of
intellectual climate, Organizational role stress and
teacher educators and their relationship, need of the st
of the problem, objectives of the study, delimitation of
operational definitions of the terms used in this study.

The second chapter reviews the existing relate' chapter deal with four sections viz., intellectual climate institutional variations; intellectual climate and Organizat intellectual climate and personality; intellectual climate-Organizational role stress and the hypotheses of the study.

The third chapter of study deals with the resea used, design of the study, sample for study, descriptive data collection, scoring and tabulation of data and st employed.

For the thematic organization, results and discus presented in 3-sections i.e. A, B and C in the F Normality of distribution of data on intellectual climate role stress and personality is given. Section A institutional differences in intellectual climate of te institutions across (a) government vs privately mana education (b) B.Ed. colleges situated in U.T. Chandiga Women vs Co-education B.Ed. colleges and (d) College located in rural vs urban areas. Discussion has been results under every section. Section B explains the ir across high vs low, high vs average and average vs climate groups on Organizational role stress. Simili depicts inter-comparisons across high vs low, high average vs low intellectual climate groups on e neuroticism of personality.

Chapter fifth provides Summary and Conclusion c

The study will provide enough input and food fo intellectual climate (High, average and low) in causi role stress among teacher educators and relationship climate and extraversion, neuroticism dimensions of pers