2.1 LIFE SATISFACTION

2.1.1 Life

When we think of Life, we think of so many things. We think of the Life force coursing through our veins. We think of Life Everlasting as charted for us in all the religious texts. We think of a world devoid of meaning without life. “The absence of Life is nothing, not death, but nothing.” Can we actually conceive of nothing? Of course not! That means death. And even with death, its contemplation has to occur in life. There simply is no absence of Life; that is absurd. We contemplate Life from the point of view of Life. And we have to be alive to contemplate its absence.

2.1.2 Satisfaction

Satisfaction is a Latin word that means to make or do enough.

It is the act of satisfying, or the state of being satisfied; gratification of desire; contentment in possession and enjoyment; repose of mind resulting from compliance with its desires or demands.

2.1.3 Life Satisfaction

Satisfaction with one’s life implies contentment with or acceptance of one’s life circumstances, or the fulfillment of one’s wants and needs for one’s life as a whole. In essence, life satisfaction is a subjective assessment of the quality of one’s life. Because it is inherently an evaluation, judgments of life satisfaction have a large cognitive component.

2.1.4 Distinction from Related Constructs

1. Life Satisfaction vs. Life-Domain Satisfaction

Researchers differentiate between life-domain satisfaction and life-as-a whole (or global) life satisfaction. Life-domain satisfaction refers to satisfaction with specific areas of an individual’s life, such as work, marriage, and income, whereas judgments of global life satisfaction are much more broad, consisting of an individual’s comprehensive judgment of her life.

2. Life Satisfaction vs. Subjective Well-Being
According to Ed Diener and his colleagues (1999), subjective well-being, or happiness, has both an affective (i.e., emotional) and a cognitive (i.e., judgmental) component. The affective component consists of how frequently an individual reports experiencing positive and negative affect. Life satisfaction is considered to be the cognitive component of this broader construct.

Life satisfaction is the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his total life situations. People who are more satisfied with their lives tend to experience greater physical and psychological health than people who are less satisfied with their lives. From an economic point of view, it is important to know what causes people to be satisfied with their lives. From a psychological perspective, understanding life satisfaction is an important theoretical and empirical undertaking.

Life satisfaction is not a generalised term. It is situation specific. The person who is satisfied at this moment may not be satisfied the very next moment. So life satisfaction can also be defined in terms of human needs and the environmental sources of satisfaction of these needs.

Life satisfaction could be intrinsic as well as extrinsic. The criterion of life satisfaction of a person is the amount of happiness an individual obtains through his work in life. It is accepted that the "happy person" is one who is fully satisfied with his/her life. Psychological and environmental conditions make life satisfaction a complex concept. So life satisfaction can be defined as: "the extent to which a person is pleased or satisfied by the content or environment or is displeased or frustrated by inadequate life conditions and environmental situations".

In general word satisfaction may be defined as the fulfillment or gratification of desires, feelings or expressing pleasures, contentment, happiness, optimism. Satisfaction lies not in the situation but our perception of situation. It does not encompass wishing for what we do not have but enjoying what we do have. Still it is an abstract idea & it is very difficult to define it. There is nothing specific by which we can derive satisfaction. Almost all learned and
enlightened saints in almost all religious scriptures have given prime importance to life satisfaction. “The Gita” says, “Life satisfaction brings “Viveka”, “Vairagya” and “Vichara” (Swami, 1970) and opens the doors of eternal bliss and sunshine.

Proverb 3.13 and 17 of the Holy Bible express the state of satisfied man as: “Happy is the man who finds wisdom-His ways are the ways of pleasantness and his paths are of peace”.

In Indian Philosophy satisfaction with life is thought to be a state of mind. Life satisfaction is a much broader concept. It is not same for all the relationships. It includes capacity for enjoyment. It is enjoying what we have. Money and material things are no guarantor of happiness. Life satisfaction refers to positive thinking that can help us to lead a happy life and overcome our problems and difficulties with ease.

Darwin’s theory says life is struggle for existence and survival. It is true in present context also. Everyone is struggling to achieve something. When we get achievements we feel satisfied but when we are not able to achieve, we feel dissatisfied. According to Cervantes, “All those who are contented with life pass like a shadow and dream”. Life of a satisfied man becomes smooth like his shadow. It moves along with the man. He is unmindful of its presence and the shadow not tormenting him in any way.

Shaffer’s definition lays stress on needs and their satisfaction. One feels adjusted to the extent one’s needs are gratified or are in the way of being gratified. The individual tries to change firstly his circumstances and if not possible then he tries to reduce the quantum of his need so that he may feel satisfied within the limited resources of needs.

Satisfaction wholly depends upon the individual’s environment, calibre, behaviour & proper understanding of man and nature. It is mainly concerned with mind than with material things. Thus life satisfaction means driving happiness from life as it is and not as it ought to be for the individual.

Life satisfaction is a dominant force in one’s life with two fold effect. One of them is positive and other is negative. On one side, it is necessary for a man’s life for adjustment & progress but on the other side it prevents a man from
making necessary progress in life. If he becomes too much satisfied his growth stops. So dissatisfaction can be a boon for someone & fatal for other. One should be satisfied in matters like money, power and materialistic things, so that he can retain his mental peace. A dissatisfied person is always surrounded by various troubles & is not able to perform well the duties assigned to him. Instead of becoming a good teacher and a good citizen in future, he becomes an irritable person.

Life satisfaction can be viewed in terms of “will power”. Value of life does not lie in the length of days, but in the use we make of them, a man may live long yet get very little from life. Whether you find satisfaction in life or not depends not on your tale of years but on your will. The earnestness of life is the only passport to the satisfaction of life. That means contentment can be measured by the amount of seriousness with which life is taken.

Life satisfaction is characterized by satisfaction with past, satisfaction with future, significant others views of life and desire to change life. Personal reactions to life circumstances are more important than the events themselves and personality effects our reactions.

John Schindler quotes, “It is easier to be satisfied than dissatisfied and much healthier too. It is easy and much pleasurable to find elements of satisfaction instead of dissatisfaction in the daily run of events. Every human being looks forward for a day, when he is supremely satisfied at the end.”

The scientific study of life satisfaction has shown an increasing interest in the past two decades as psychology progressed from radial behaviourism & emphasis on negative states. Psychological articles researching negative states outnumber those examining positive states by a ratio of 17 to 1. Life satisfaction researchers explore the full range of psychological well being such that focus is upon factors that lead one to becoming elated. This trend is not surprising because happiness and satisfaction are major goals for most people. Emphasis is placed on understanding the processes which underlie happiness in turn, people’s goals, coping efforts & dispositions are studied.
So a person must be satisfied from his life. Without it all luxuries & facilities will have no value. A person who is satisfied is happy & has peace of mind. He lives and lets others live. Life satisfaction has been related to job satisfaction, interpersonal relationships, socioeconomic status, education, family background, and many other variables. All these relationships indicate that life satisfaction is a multidimensional concept.

2.1.5 What Determines Life Satisfaction?

One of the principal questions that researchers are tackling is what causes life satisfaction? That is, why are some persons more satisfied than others? Most of the research in this area can be subsumed under two categories namely,

- Personality (i.e., sex, inborn traits)
- Environment (i.e., life circumstances and life events).

A great deal of work has investigated whether life satisfaction is a stable, enduring trait or whether it is a variable that is highly influenced by external events and life circumstances. Alternatively, will a person’s stable characteristic patterns of responding to events determine his or her life satisfaction, such that the individual remains satisfied (or dissatisfied) despite changes in income, social relationships, employment, or other significant life events. In support of the latter view, research has shown that individuals tend to show similar levels of satisfaction across time and across many life domains. However, this finding should not be overstated, as it is certainly possible to be dissatisfied with one’s partner but satisfied with one’s job.

In support of the alternative perspective, another study found that the proportion of positive to negative life events experienced during the previous year predicted an individual’s life satisfaction during the following year. This finding suggests that life events, such as a new marriage or a new job, may indeed significantly boost or deflate one’s overall life satisfaction. Recent life events in both men and women predict changes in well-being while distal events do not, possibly because people adapt to significant life changes over long periods of time. So “personality” or “environmental” explanations in isolation may not be
sufficient to explain the source of people's life satisfaction judgments. That is, life
satisfaction may have both stable, trait-like components (reflecting the effect of a
personality predisposition), as well as variable, state-like components (reflecting
environmental influences). However, it may be impossible to entirely discriminate
between these two sets of components because one's personality may influence
one's life events finally, as previously mentioned, satisfied individuals tend to be
satisfied across several life domains. Combined, these findings suggest that life
satisfaction is stable over time and consistent across situations.

Currently, the literature suggests that personality plays a significant role in
whether a person will judge his or her life to be satisfying. However, proximal
environmental factors (e.g., recent life events) can influence life satisfaction
judgments in the short term. In conclusion, as with many variables in the field of
psychology, both nature and nurture (i.e., personality and environment) appear to
be influential in determining life satisfaction, and to discount one explanation in
favor of the other would not be empirically or theoretically productive.

2.1.6 Predictors of Life Satisfaction

The vast majority of research on life satisfaction investigates the extent to
which various demographic variables predict life satisfaction. However, because
researchers are not able to perform true experiments by randomly assigning
participants to demographic groups (e.g., gender, income, age), all of this
research has necessarily been correlational. Research till date shows following
predictors of life satisfaction:

A. Gender

On of the interesting findings within the sex and life satisfaction literature
is that women report more negative affect and depression than men and are
more likely to seek therapy for this disorder, yet men and women report
approximately the same levels of global happiness. These conflicting findings
can be resolved by considering the range of affect that men and women typically
experience. One explanation is that women more readily admit to negative
feelings whereas men deny such feelings. Thus it is possible that both sexes
experience similar levels of negative affect and depression, but women report these feelings and seek professional help more often. Another explanation is that in the social role of nurtures, women are socialized to be more open to emotional experiences, including both positive and negative emotions, in turn they may experience more positive and more negative effect. Women report greater amounts of positive effect as well thus it may be that women experience, on average, both positive and negative emotions more strongly and frequently than men.

Hence, measures of depression and subjective well-being, which include affective components, appear to capture the extreme lows that leave women vulnerable to depression, as well as the extreme highs that allow for greater well-being. By contrast, men and women report similar rates of global life satisfaction, which is primarily a cognitive assessment.

Due to the breaking down of traditional sex roles for men and women, the trait which was formerly called “masculinity” is now called “agency” and the trait formerly called “feminity” is now called “communion”. Communion includes characteristics as warmth, concern for others, and understanding. Agency includes independence, self confidence and decisiveness. These new terms are preferred to the old terms because they recognize that men or women can possess either set of characteristics. Although men do not report higher life satisfaction than women, men & women who are agentic have higher life satisfaction and men and women who are low in agency have lower life satisfaction.

Despite similar levels of life satisfaction across gender, women and men appear to derive life satisfaction from different sources. For example, Frank Fujita and Ed Diener (1995) found that social resources (i.e., family, friends, access to social services) are predictive of life satisfaction for both men and women, but they are more predictive of life satisfaction for women. Perhaps women’s roles as the conservators of contact with friends and family -- both a blessing and a burden -- lead to their relatively greater reliance on social support. By contrast, factors that may be more relevant to men’s personal goals, such as athleticism,
influential connections, and authority, were found to be related to life satisfaction for men, but not for women.

Martin Pinquart and Silvia Sorensen (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of the predictors of life satisfaction in the elderly and found additional support for the assertion that men and women derive satisfaction from different sources. In their study, life satisfaction was more highly related to income for men than for women. They hypothesized that because men are more socialized to draw their sense of identity from work and income, they tend to look to income as a barometer of their success and satisfaction with their life.

Although most research on life satisfaction has not been directly focused on the experiences of women, a few studies have investigated the unique predictors of life satisfaction for women. For example, as stated previously, several studies have demonstrated that the greater the gender equality within a culture (i.e., freedom to make reproductive choices, equal pay, equal value under the law, equal opportunity to education and achievement), the greater reported life satisfaction. This finding spans both equality in the broader cultural sense and equality within a marriage. Women who report greater equality in their marriages tend to report greater life satisfaction than women whose marriages are relatively more traditional. That is, women seem to achieve greater satisfaction with their lives overall when they are in marriages in which their roles are not traditionally prescribed. Marital equality may manifest itself in the sharing of household chores and responsibility for childcare, as well as equal say in family decision-making. However, this ideal is not often achieved. Women carry the overwhelming burden in regard to household and parental responsibility, and report feeling relatively less appreciated by their spouse.

Regardless of the type of marriage, however, married women report greater life satisfaction than single, widowed, or divorced women. In further research, Arlene Metha and her colleagues (1989) conducted a survey investigating the major regrets and priorities of women. Overall, the least satisfied women surveyed reported that their greatest regret was having failed to take risks. Possibly because of women's childcare burdens, many cultures
discourage women from risk-taking. However, despite their many dangers, taking risks also provides access to greater opportunities. That is, without the ability to take risks, a woman would not be able to start her own business, move to a new city, pursue a graduate education, or ask for a promotion. Thus, it would not be difficult to imagine that failing to take risks might translate into missed opportunities and greater dissatisfaction.

John Haworth and his colleagues (1997) found that, among their sample of American working women, those who had an internal locus of control (i.e., who believed that control of events comes from within themselves rather than outside of themselves) were relatively more satisfied with their lives. For example, a woman who perceives her success to be due to her hard work and determination would report greater satisfaction than a woman who perceives her success to be due to luck or chance. This is not surprising, as a belief in one’s own ability to effect changes and choose the course of one’s life is undoubtedly more satisfying than believing that one has no control over life’s outcomes.

B. Culture

Satisfaction appears to be a universal term, and cross-cultural researchers have not had any difficulty translating measures of life satisfaction into many different languages. People from different cultures are able to distinguish between such terms as “happiness,” “satisfaction with life,” “best possible life,” and “worst possible life,” and there does not appear to be a linguistic bias.

As mentioned earlier, personality and environment are both important determinants of life satisfaction -- that is, that life satisfaction judgments can be fluid and subject to the changing social environment. Reinforcing the importance of the social climate in people’s life satisfaction, researchers have also found that life satisfaction is greatest among prosperous nations characterized by gender-equality, care for human rights, political freedom, and access to knowledge. Cultures that are more accepting of differences (e.g., gender, sexual orientation, age, ethnicity, religion) and those that demand equal treatment of and equal opportunity for their citizens, appear to
foster greater overall satisfaction. It is not surprising that women living in patriarchal cultures in which equal opportunities are unavailable and equal value is not afforded would experience greater dissatisfaction with their lives than women living in egalitarian cultures.

C. Experience

Another professional factor that affects life satisfaction is experience. Campbell (1981) stated that, “The literary image of the crotchety old person, dissatisfied with everything, is not a very realistic picture of older people”. (p.203). This pleasant feeling may be due to older people being healthier and staying involved in more life domains compared to past generations (Bass, 1995). Jochen Brandststaedter and Gerolf Renner (1990), believe that overcoming adversities is performed either by changing life circumstances to personal preferences (assimilative coping) or by adjusting personal preferences and goals to given situational constraints (accommodative coping). Both types of coping strategies are related to life satisfaction, but they found a gradual shift from the assimilative to the accommodative style with increasing age. This supports Campbell et al’s conclusion that gap between one’s goals and circumstances decreases with experience. Continuing with this line of thinking, in a study by Carol Ryff (1991), older participants reported smaller discrepancies between their realistic and their ideal selves than did younger participants. Perhaps, as persons age, they revise their ideals to accommodate their current circumstances (i.e., engage in “accommodative coping”). He found that older adults, compared with younger people, demonstrate a closer fit between ideal & actual self perceptions. Some researchers have suggested that these findings serve as evidence that people readjust their goals as they age. (Rapkin and Fischer, 1992).

Current studies agree that life satisfaction often increases or at least does not drop with age. International studies or representative samples from multiple countries also indicate that life satisfaction does not decline with age.

In a cross-cultural study conducted in 40 different nations and with nearly 6,000 participants, Ed Diener and Eunkook Suh (1998) found that reported life
satisfaction generally remained stable throughout the life span, showing just a slight increasing trend between the ages of 20 and 80 years.

The predominant explanation for this surprising lack of difference in life satisfaction levels across the life span is that people have an extraordinary capacity to adapt to significant life changes. Likewise Okma & Veenhoven (1996) found no evidence of decrease in life satisfaction across the life span. The lack of significant decrease in life satisfaction across the life span suggests people’s ability to adapt to their conditions. Declines in income & marriage occur across age cohorts in later adulthood yet life satisfaction is stable. Numerous studies have provided evidence that, contrary to common expectations, life satisfaction does not decline with age.

D. Education

Overall, researchers have found a small correlation between education and life satisfaction. However, the correlation appears to disappear when income and occupation are statistically controlled. That is, the relationship between education and life satisfaction is probably due to the fact that higher levels of education are associated with higher incomes.

Education also appears to be more highly related to life satisfaction for individuals with lower incomes and in poor nations. Perhaps poorer persons obtain greater satisfaction from education because the achievement surpasses their expectations of what is attainable. For example, poor women in some cultures have little access to education, so when they do gain access, they may value and appreciate the experience more than those who perceive access to education as universal and easily available. Education may also provide access to greater occupational and income opportunities, which may additionally influence life satisfaction.

- Surprisingly, average life satisfaction scores are, in general, lower for more educated individuals. It is possible that the educational elite have higher expectations or greater cynicism about their lives.
- The highest level of life satisfaction is among those with no qualifications.
- Lowest level life satisfaction – those with a degree qualification.
- There is no clear relationship between education and life satisfaction for those with intermediate educational qualifications.
- Nevertheless, for people with similar incomes and economic status, education is associated with lower life satisfaction.
- The same patterns of results are found for both men and women, the retired, and those aged less than 60.
- The (negative) effect of education upon life satisfaction is greater for men than for women.

While this review of the predictors of life satisfaction provides valuable information and raises some intriguing questions, we must be cautious in interpreting these findings because the possibility of selection effects may artificially bolster some of the results. For example, the observation that married individuals are more satisfied with their lives than unmarried ones may be confounded by the fact that more mentally healthy, extraverted, and stable individuals are able to find and sustain quality relationships with a spouse, and those factors are also correlated with life satisfaction. Similar selection effects may account for some of the findings regarding gender, income, employment, education, and age.

E. Social Relationships

Francis Bacon (1625) said that human relationships double our joys and halve our sorrows. Many studies have supported this contention. High levels of social support have been shown to be strongly associated with high levels of life satisfaction. For example, one study found that participants who could list five or more friends were happier than participants who could not list many friends. In addition to the number of social contacts, it appears that gender is a factor in the quality of intimate relationships as well. Women tend to provide greater and more meaningful support than men. That is, both women and men report that their friendships with women are more intimate, nurturing, and supportive than their friendships with men. Perhaps this is due to the finding that conversations with women involve greater self-disclosure and empathy.
In Western nations, marriage appears to be even more predictive of life satisfaction than relationships with friends and family. Ed Diener and his colleagues (1999) found that married women do not differ in their levels of life satisfaction from married men. However, married men reported greater positive affect than did married women, as well as did single people of both genders.

Thus, men appear to benefit more from marriage than do women—possibly because husbands become dependent on their wives' emotional support and household care. This study also found that cohabitating unmarried participants, especially those from collectivist cultures, reported less life satisfaction than did married participants.

Interestingly, having children does not appear to increase people's life satisfaction, although this finding is difficult to interpret given that childless individuals are different from parents in numerous ways. However, for those who have children, the quality of their relationships with their children is highly related to their level of satisfaction with their life overall. Also, several studies have suggested that parents' life satisfaction tends to correlate negatively with the number of children that they have—that is, life satisfaction decreases as the number of children increases.

F. Income

The relationship between income and life satisfaction is a complicated one. Across nations, wealthier nations show greater levels of life satisfaction than poorer nations; however, across-nation differences are smaller than within-nation differences. It seems that within nations, wealthier individuals are more satisfied than poorer individuals.

Despite significant correlations between life satisfaction and wealth, longitudinal research has shown that rises in people's incomes do not necessarily coincide with related increases in life satisfaction. Several explanations have been offered to account for these results. Perhaps once a certain level of wealth is obtained, life satisfaction is no longer anchored to increases in wealth and in material goods. In addition, social comparison may account for this effect—that is, comparing oneself with others as income and
wealth increase may produce corresponding increases in expectations such that levels of satisfaction remain stable.

G. Job satisfaction

For an employed person life satisfaction is mainly decided by the satisfaction he gets from his work i.e. job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an answer of employee’s perception of how well their job provides that thing that they view as significant. Job satisfaction is an expressive reply to a job situation. Job satisfaction is often earned by how well outcomes meet or go beyond hope. Job satisfaction represents more than a few connected attitudes. Work itself gives satisfaction to the extent to which a job provides the individual with interesting tasks, responsibility and learning. If the job is autonomous, important and satisfying it helps produce satisfaction & pay is the amount of fiscal reward that is received against the presentation done. Job satisfaction is defined as, “the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs. This definition suggests that job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. While researchers & practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction, there is also interest in measuring different facets” or “dimensions” of satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been considered to be a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what one perceives it is offering and as the degree of fit between what an organization requires of its employees and what the employees are getting from the firm. There are several approaches that are used to explain and enhance job satisfaction. These are:

* The psychological needs approach of theorists such as Maslow and Hergberg who argue that the central factor in job satisfaction is the extent to which the job satisfies personal needs for security, recognition, affiliation, self esteem and so on.

* The approach emphasizing the leadership skills of management in creating the circumstances for job satisfaction.
* The effort-reward bargaining approach emphasizing the importance of incentives such as salary and job conditions.
* The approach emphasizing the intrinsic nature of the work itself in providing job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction itself depends upon a no. of factors.

1. Promotion prospects
2. Total pay
3. Relations with supervisor
4. Job security
5. Ability to work on own initiative
6. The actual work itself
7. The hours of work

Teacher satisfaction tends to be associated with work that provides a mental challenge, is varied, allows autonomy, is not physically fatiguing, allows the person to experience success, provides a fair wage and enables personal needs to be satisfied while achieving work goals. The importance of personal goals being satisfied while achieving work goals has been strongly supported. Job satisfaction will be high when the job allows the person to feel personally responsible for a meaningful portion of the work, provides outcomes that are intrinsically meaningful or are otherwise experienced as worthwhile, and provides feedback about what is accomplished.

2.1.7 Why life satisfaction is supposed to matter

There are several reasons why this might matter. First, thinking your life is going well is one thing, and thinking it is going well enough quite another. Some people aren’t satisfied with merely good lives. Second, a mere belief lacks weight: it is too thin and intellectualized. When you give someone a gift, you don’t just want him to think it a good specimen. You want him to like it. Similarly, it seems important for us to appreciate our lives, perhaps because it is a way of being wholehearted in our assessments of our lives. Life satisfaction requires being satisfied, not just thinking things satisfactory. A third, related point: being satisfied
has motivational implications, at least tempering inclinations to seek major changes in where your life is headed.

2.2 ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING

This phrase consists of two terms
* attitude and
* teaching.

2.2.1 Attitude

Attitude is a general word with no precise meaning. Literally it means a way of thinking or feeling about someone or something. It is informal self confident or hostile behaviour. It denotes inner feelings or beliefs of a person towards particular phenomenon. Attitude guides our behaviour and affects action more than knowledge. Attitude may be favourable or unfavourable. Favourable attitudes make work easy, interesting and satisfying whereas unfavourable attitudes make life dull, boring and unsatisfying. Attitudes offer great possibility for successful achievement as well as failure in life. They are important motivators of behaviour and affect all human values. Efficiency results when a person is impelled by his attitudes to start, continue and complete a project rather than to avoid for fear of facing unpleasant outcomes. His attitude towards his work affects his work and efficiency in the activity.

Attitudes are not inborn traits. We acquire them through social interaction. Family plays a paramount role. Parents mould our attitudes. Freedom of thought ought to liberate us from the strange hold of dogmas & superstitions & urges everyone to develop a robust free will & usher in an era of peace, prosperity & plenty.

According to Freeman, “Attitude is a dispositional readiness to respond to certain situations, persons, objects or ideas in a consistent manner, which has been learned, has become one’s typical mode of response.”

Broadly viewed attitudes are reflected in behavior. Behavior has three components; the cognitive component or element consisting of knowledge & beliefs is the first one. One’s attitude depends upon knowledge. Knowledge is
logical & rational. It takes us to the 2nd component of attitude namely feeling element. Attitude always arouses one’s feelings & emotions. Both knowledge & feeling urge an individual to act. This action tendency (3rd component) in an attitude enables others to infer the feelings & understanding. It is rather difficult for an individual to act in a manner contrary to his feelings & understanding. Some believe that the action component of an attitude affects the feeling component. It is difficult to say which the cause is & which the effect is.

Technically an attitude is a tendency or predisposition towards a certain type of reaction. It has been used as catchall term for the whole body of one’s opinion, beliefs, sentiments & predispositions. An attitude may be defined as a relatively enduring but modifiable tendency or readiness on the part of a person to behave in a particular way towards some object, person or issue. These are characterized directionally and often by feelings & emotions. These involve some knowledge of emotions. Attitude results from personal desires and group stimulation. Attitude is a degree of positive and negative effect associated with some psychological object i.e. any symbol, phrase, slogan, person, ideal, idea or institute. From this it can be said that an attitude has two basic characteristics.

1. Valence: Valence can be positive or negative representing favourable or unfavourable.

2. Intensity: It is the strength & weakness depending upon variance from high to low degree.

Attitude is such a complex term that no single definition is sufficient to describe it completely. The various approaches to define the concept of attitude however differ in degree of emphasis rather than in kind or essence. According to Encyclopedia Britannica the word ‘Attitude’ does not have any precise technical meaning when used to describe human beings psychologically.

Shave (1928) defined attitude as a complex of feelings & desires, fears, connections, prejudices & other tendencies that has given a set of readiness to act to a person because of varied experiences.

According to Thurstone (1931), “It is the effect for or against a psychological object.” Sherif and Cantril (1945) have said that, “Attitudes are
among those components of psychological make up of the individual which
determine that he will react in a positive or negative way, but in a selective and
characteristic way especially in relation to certain specific structured situations”.

Munro (1952) in his encyclopedia of educational research remarks about
the historical studies of attitudes, "Historically the concept of attitude included
mental set, task set and intention as well as the relatively permanent houses of
politics, economics and religion - By customs, however, the concept has become
restricted to social”.

Wandt (1952) opines that a knowledge of teacher’s attitude towards the
various groups contacted in the schools would provide information helpful in
assessing the total teacher personality.

It is a predisposition to experience, to be motivated by and to act towards
a class of objects in a predictable manner (Smith, Brunner & White, 1956).

Attitudes are predispositions to respond, but are distinguished from other
such states of readiness in that they predispose towards an evaluative response.
(Osgood, Suci & Tannenbanm, 1957).

It is a disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to a class of objects
(Sarnoff, 1960).

Attitude refers in a general way, to inclinations presumed to be enduring,
to react in a certain way in response to certain kind of situations, to see and
interpret events according to some predisposition and to organize opinions into
coherent interrelated clusters.

An “Attitude” may be defined as a relatively enduring but modifiable
tendency or readiness on the part of a person to behave in a particular way
towards some object, person or issue. While attitudes are usually identified by
the specific objects to which they refer as attitudes towards church, nation, life or
humanity, a person may react in a relatively consistent way to broad class of
objects or issues i.e. be “liberal”, “tolerant”, “conservative”, “nationalistic” etc.

Katz (1960) defines attitude as a pre-disposition of the individual to
evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favourable or
unfavourable manner. New Comb M. Theodore says, “ Attitude gives meaning to
man's daily perception & activities, they serve in his attempted achievements of various goals."

    Attitude may be defined as a developmental state of organismic valence created by psychological process, exerting a motivational influence upon the individual’s responsive behaviour in situations directly or indirectly related to it.

    G.W. Allport after shifting so many statements gave a new statement regarding attitude. Attitude is a mental & neural state of readiness organized through experience exerting a direct or dynamic influence upon the individual's responses to all objects and situations with which it is related.

    This definition shows the following facts concerning attitude:
    - Attitude is the mental or neural state of readiness.
    - Attitude influences the reaction of the individual.
    - Attitudes change the reactions of an individual.

    Hence an attitude may be defined as learned or more or less generalized & affective tendency, a predisposition to respond in a either persistent & characteristic manner usually positively or negatively (for or against) in reference to some situation, idea, value, material, object or class of such objects or person or group of persons.

    This definition of attitude improves upon the definition by Allport in this respect that it has the following two elements omitted by Allport:
    * Attitude is generally negative or positive.
    * Attitude is a learned or acquired affective tendency.

    Kresh & Crutchfield – An attitudes can be defined as an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual & cognitive process w.r.t. some aspect of the individual’s world. This definition is a specific attempt at the analysis of attitude & an exposure of the various elements present in it.

    Besides these definitions, various other psychologists have defined attitude in their own way. Some identify it completely with the opinion that an individual holds whereas others define attitude as a complex mental set up. According to Ernest R. Hilgard, “An attitude represents an orientation towards or
away from some object, concept or situation. Both orientation and readiness to respond have emotional, motivational & intellectual aspect.

From the above it is evident that attitude is a mental or neural state of readiness, system or disposition in which the motivational, affective, perceptual & thought process are included due to which the individual's positive or negative activity is directed to the object, individual & groups.

If we analyze it further, we can say that attitude have four dimensions.

(1) Direction
(2) Intensity
(3) Extension
(4) Duration

According to Walter B. Koleshik, the direction of an attitude is either positive or negative i.e. for or against some object or value. This is the aspect of the attitude which is usually measured.

The intensity of a positive or negative attitude is the degree to which it motivates the person's behaviour towards the activity component. People who are strongly in favour or strongly opposed to a certain object naturally have more intense attitude than those closer to the centre of the continuum.

The extension of an attitude is the degree to which it is generalized or the number of cases it covers. A person might have a favorable or unfavorable attitude of high or low intensity towards an individual, a group of classes or to the whole mankind.

The duration of an attitude is length of time it endures. Some attitudes are so deeply ingrained as to appear permanent, while others are merely transitory and may change overnight. Attitudes have emerging directional properties which prompt an individual to take a certain specific stimulus. These are the great driving force in achieving the goals that an individual has set for himself in his life. The positive and proper attitude towards any task produces better results & satisfaction than a negative & improper attitude. Attitudes
are powerful sources of human motivation and are capable of arousing and sustaining concentrated efforts.

2.2.2 Teaching

Teaching is a process which usually takes place in the class room situations. It is more of a formal process. In the class room situations, we see that the teacher has something in his mind and he wants to convey it to the students. For this purpose, he takes the help of teaching. He makes all efforts to make the students understand it. His teaching is successful if the students are able to grasp it fully. Through teaching, the teacher aims at:

* giving some knowledge to the students;
* passing some information to them;
* making the students acquire some skill;
* changing the attitude of the learners;
* modifying the behaviour of the students;
* giving some experiences of life; etc.

Teaching in the class depends upon how the teacher performs his duty of teaching. A sincere and hardworking teacher always comes out all successful. He makes every effort to achieve the desired ends. He always goes well prepared in every way. In his class room teaching, there is always a very good class room interaction. He faces the class clearly and boldly. He is always face to face with the students while speaking in the class. Naturally, that type of teacher will be able to impress the students fully. Such a teaching can be called effective teaching.

By mercenary standards, teaching is poorly paid. Its riches are of another order, less tangible but more lasting- the satisfaction involved in influencing other and of personal fulfillment. There is little reward in teaching for those who worship mammon. There is much for those who worship God. Teaching is thus not everybody's cup of tea. It requires blood, sweat & tears.

Decidedly, teaching is more than standing before a class and applying a few specific techniques. Teaching is not merely presenting textbook information and then testing students' ability to repeat it. There is no magic formula for
transforming knowledge from the teacher's mind to the pupils'. Teaching is not a mechanical process. It is an intricate, exacting, challenging job. Teaching can't be boiled down to a convenient formula of "telling and testing". It is the complex art of guiding pupils through a variety of selected experiences towards the attainment of a widening field of learning.

Teaching is not a simple affair as some people say. It is very comprehensive. The more we dig out of it, the deeper it becomes. Only a small fraction of it has been understood so far.

According to Rabindra Nath Tagore, "A teacher can never truly teach unless he is still learning himself. A lamp can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn its own flame."

In the above given definition, Rabindra Nath Tagore has summed up the qualities of a good teacher. A good learner can be a good teacher. One who does not learn and acquire up to date knowledge cannot teach others. H.C. Morrison (1934) says, "Teaching is an intimate contact between a more mature personality and less mature one which is designed to further the education of the latter."

John Brubacher (1939) says "Teaching is an arrangement and manipulation of a situation in which there are gaps and obstructions which an individual will seek to overcome and from which he will learn in the course of doing so."

B.O. Smith (1961) a very leading technologist of education said, "Teaching is a system of actions intended to induce learning."

Clarke (1970) opines that teaching refers to "activities that are designed and performed to produce change in student (pupil) behaviour."

In the words of Floyd Weil, "Children are notoriously curious about everything except the things people want them to know. It then remains for us to refrain from forcing any kind of knowledge upon them and they will be curious about everything."

According to American Educational Research Association Committee on the 'Handbook of Research on Teaching', 1962 "Teaching is a form of
interpersonal influence aimed at changing the behaviour potential of another person.”

The real teacher is wedded to teaching. It is rather impossible to separate him from teaching. In the course of his teaching, the teacher mirrors himself into the child, he puts indelible stamp on the young growing plastic mind of the child. That is why every learner reflects the personality of his teacher to a considerable extent. A sincere, honest, punctual and hard working student means that his teacher has been of that type. The hard fact is that the child is what his teacher has made him. The nation needs good teachers today. Let the teachers rise to the occasion and come up to the expectations of all concerned by doing their duties towards the children right earnestly.

Teacher’s performance is the most crucial input in the field of education. However lofty the aims, however up to date and abundant the equipment, however ineffective the administration, whatever the policies may be laid down, in the ultimate analysis these have to be interpreted and implemented by the teachers as much through their personal example as through teaching-learning process.

Teaching is a noble profession and the teacher is the architect of the destiny of the nation. Good teaching considerably depends upon the qualities of the teacher. In the words of Rabindra Nath Tagore, “The basis of teaching are love, understanding and care. Freedom should be given to the students in order to express themselves. The teacher is the moving spirit in all this. He is considered a guide and friend who understand the child well. One who has lost the child in himself is totally unfit to undertake the task of educating children.”

In teaching, the teacher must pay attention to the entire complex organism. He is concerned with the all round development of the child – intellectually, emotionally, socially, spiritually and in some degree physically. Therefore, the modern teaching-learning process keeps the learner at the centre.

The child is the focal point on which the whole attention of the teacher is devoted. The teacher has to see that the subject matter is appreciated by the
learner. He takes the learner as the starting point and through the process of teaching he is to make the learner go ahead keeping himself with him all through. It may be compared to a race where the learner is the participant competing and the teacher is the referee who is running along with the learner taking care of him all through. For the faults, the teacher has to set him right and above all, he is to see that the competitor in the race wins as per his own wishes. In other words, the teacher has to modify his behaviour in terms of the goals already fixed. Teaching, thus, ensures learning in a guaranteed way.

2.2.3 ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING

Attitude towards teaching can be operationally defined as the degree of positive or negative feelings of teachers towards teaching and teacher predisposition to act favorable or unfavorable on a scale towards various dimensions of teaching. The operational definition means the use of some kind of tools for obtaining responses from the subjects. The most commonly used instruments in the studies on attitude is some kind of questionnaire or scale. These questionnaires or scales assess attitudes through self reports of opinions, beliefs, feelings, behaviour or intended actions. Statements are generally scaled to assess favourability or unfavourability towards the object and these dimensions formed the corner stones of Thurston's attitude scaling procedures. Ahluwalia's teacher attitude inventory is also such an inventory, which has been used in the present study to measure the attitude of teachers towards teaching.

2.3 ROLE CONFLICT

Role conflict is a complex term made up of two components—role and conflict.

2.3.1 ROLE

In the functionalist conception, role is one of the important ways in which individual activity is socially regulated: roles create regular patterns of behaviour and thus a measure of predictability, which not only allows individuals to function effectively because they know what to expect of others, but also makes it possible for the sociologist to make generalisations about society. Collectively, a group of interlocking roles creates a social institution: the institution of law, for
example, can be seen as the combination of many roles, including "police officer", "judge", "criminal", and "victim".

Roles, in this conception, are created by society as a whole, are relatively inflexible, are more-or-less universally agreed upon, and individuals simply take their designated roles on and attempt to fulfill them as best as they can. Although it is recognized that different roles interact ("teacher" and "student") and that roles are usually defined in relation to other roles ("doctor" and "patient", or "parent" and "child"), the functionalist approach has great difficulty in accounting for variability and flexibility of roles, and finds it difficult to account for the vast differences in the way that individuals conceive different roles. Taken to extremes, the functionalist approach results in "role" becoming a set of static, semi-global expectations laid down by a unified, amorphous society: as simply prescriptions for correct behaviour. The distinction between "role" and norm and culture thus becomes sterile.

Although the classic functionalist approach to "role" is no longer regarded as an especially useful tool in the modern sociologist's approach to understanding societies, it remains a fundamental concept which is still taught in most introductory courses and is still regarded as important, particularly so when considering relatively homogeneous, united societies like the middle-class.

More broadly, "role", in the sense created by society, is a concept that has crossed over from academic discourse into popular use. It has become commonplace to speak of particular "roles" as if they were indeed fixed, agreed on by all, and uncontroversial: "the role of the teacher" or "a parent's role", for example. This everyday usage nearly always employs "role" in a normative way, to imply that "this is the proper behaviour" for a teacher or a parent, or even for an entire institution such as the government.

Sargent says that person's role is a pattern or type of social behavior, which seems situationaly appropriate to him in terms of the demands & expectations of those in the group. A role has a meaning only in terms of interpersonal relationships, how each individual reacts to the other individuals in the given situation. Thus the demands and expectations of others play a very
important part. We learn to understand the demands and expectations and develop the appropriate lines of behavior. A further important feature of the social role is that of internalization. As Guthrie pointed out long ago, "we recognize a description of ourselves; acknowledge our attributes as our membership in a class & approximate behaviors follow the thought. When a man wears his clothes or buys his clothes he accepts those, which are appropriate to his position, & rejects the others. Role attitude can be looked upon as an intervening variable between person's roles as prescribed and the actual role behavior. We must know what we expect others to do. Most of the roles in society are reciprocal (Parent child, husband-wife, host-guest, and teacher-student). Each plays his role according to certain expectations & demands.

2.3.2 CONFLICT

No one is free from conflicts. As a matter of fact we face them everyday. It may be as silly as attending one entertainment to another or as serious as choosing a particular branch of study or vocation or even selecting a partner in life. We are torn apart quiet often. On many an occasion, our decisions may be impulsive. We do undergo conflict, unrest & disequilibrium before arriving at a final decision. Decision-making could be quite exhausting and enervating. Even after resolving a conflict, one cannot help casting a lingering glance at the discarded alternative than being happy with the chosen one. Conflicts of any degree of seriousness leave one in a state of uneasiness if not strong anxiety, until they are settled. As a result the person may feel tense, be unable to concentrate, be irritable & suffer from sleeplessness. If the conflict is between choices that will make a considerable difference in the person's life, the conflict will force on his attention at many times, when he is trying to do something else. He will think about it, worry about it & perhaps talk about it excessively often when it is really inappropriate.

A conflict represents a situation in which an individual is required to act in two or more incompatible ways to achieve two or more mutually exclusive goals. Conflicts may vary in degree & complexity. But these are inevitable at every
stage in the course of an individual life. When there are alternative goals &
courses of action, four types of mental conflicts can be there.

* Approach – Approach Conflict
* Approach - Avoidance Conflict
* Avoidance – Avoidance Conflict
* Double approach – Avoidance Conflict

**Approach- Approach Conflict**

It involves a choice between two equally alternative goals. Both are
desirable and perhaps within an individual's reach. Lewin called this as Type – I
conflict. The two positive valences exert equally attractive forces on the person. If
both objects are equally attractive, there may be a compromise called unstable
equilibrium.

**Lewin's Type II conflict or the Approach Avoidance conflict**

It arises when there are both pleasant & unpleasant feelings associated
with a single goal, creating an ambivalent attitude towards it. This type of conflict
is often difficult to resolve and tends to evoke a great deal of emotional
discomfort. It commonly results in inability to make up one's mind. The strength
of the valence to approach exactly matches the strength of the tendency to
retreat. It is best resolved by allowing the approach tendency to overcome the
avoidance tendency. This may be done by emphasizing the positive features of
the goal or by reducing the negative features.

Enduring approach avoidance conflict often forms the basis of serious
behavior problems. In contemporary society, the three major areas for such
conflict are, freedom vs. security, cooperation vs. competition, impulsive actions
vs. ethical standards.

**Avoidance – Avoidance conflict**

Avoidance – Avoidance conflict occurs when an individual is caught
between two equally undesirable or unpleasant goals. An individual is caught
between "the devil and deep blue see" or between "the frying pan & the fire."
Either way he suffers. The person is caught between two negative valences, one
of which he must endure. He is repelled by both, but must decide to endure one or suffer the consequences of the other. This is a case of "stable equilibrium" when an individual is faced with an unpleasant alternative he may attempt to run away from both by escaping the entire situation instead of making a choice.

**Double Approach Avoidance conflict**

This type of conflict arises when we face a situation with two or more alternatives each possessing both negative & positive elements. It involves two or more goals having both alternative & repulsive elements. Conflicts of this type can result in indecision, produce tensions, uncertainty & glance at the other end finding it too good, to relinquish. When such vacillation occurs, it is because each alternative has its advantages & disadvantages.

### 2.3.3 ROLE CONFLICT

Role conflict is a special form of social conflict that takes place when one is forced to take on two different and incompatible roles at the same time. Consider the example of a doctor who is himself a patient, or who must decide whether he should be present for his daughter's birthday party (in his role as "father") or attend an ailing patient (as "doctor").

Often, two or more roles collide in certain situations. Take for example a father who is the coach of his son's baseball team. The man takes on both the role of father and coach. If the boy makes a bad play in the game a father would be inclined to support and comfort his son, but a coach would be inclined to show the boy exactly what he did wrong. How does the man decide what to do? This collision represents role conflict where two roles in an individual’s role set cannot cooperate in a specific social situation.

Similarly early role theory highlights that individual are assigned roles or socially expected behavior patterns by others & act in response to their perceptions of the expectations that others especially significant others, hold for them (Biddle & Thomas 1966). For teachers then, others expect certain behaviors from them and reward & punish them (even if only symbolically) as they confirm or fail to confirm to those expectations. A fundamental premise of role theory is that people act in such a way as to maintain an excess of rewards.
over punishments. Rewards are subjectively defined and prioritized according to values of the teacher; an effort must be made to understand his or her value structure. Actions which appear illogical from the perspective of the others may be completely logical & consistent within the value system of the teacher & the inputs of his or her social systems. Unfortunately the various expectations a teacher perceives for behavior in a particular role are not always consistent with one another. The reaction to this is referred to in the literature as role conflict & has been applied to the role of the teacher in different contexts (Getzels & Guba, 1954). The potential for conflict between work & family roles is great among employed persons. Conflict arises when individuals seek to differentiate between personal and professional roles. Unresolved intrinsic & extrinsic factors lead to job dissatisfaction. From an educational perspective, this disruptive relationship between a teacher's personal & professional life is defined as role conflict.

Role conflict theory draws on early socialization theory which emphasis the need for teachers to be able to accommodate to a new social setting. An Australian study describes teacher socialization as: a move from membership in one social structure to another accompanied by a need to cope & adapt to a new social environment resulting in changes in skills & attitudes.

One of the most dramatic markers of the late 20th and early 21st centuries is the astonishingly fast pace of change in the work and family roles of women and men. Increasingly, women and men are expressing a strong commitment to both work and family domains. This can lead to both increased role strain and, conversely, decreased life satisfaction (Perrone, 2000). Individuals occupy many different roles over the course of their life span, including career, home and family, community, study, and leisure. Satisfaction in these different roles is related to overall life satisfaction. (Jackson, Z. Vance 2007)

People in modern, high-income countries juggle many responsibilities demanded by their various statuses and roles. As most mothers can testify both parenting and working outside the home are physically and emotionally draining. Sociologists thus recognize role conflict as conflict among the roles corresponding to two or more statuses. Even the roles linked to a single
status can make competing demands on us. A plant supervisor may enjoy being friendly with workers. At the same time, however distance is needed to evaluate his staff.

The New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy, Third Edition (2002) defines role conflict as a situation in which a person is expected to play two incompatible roles. Role conflict occurs when the norms that are consistent with one role we play prevent us from behaving in accordance with the norms consistent with another role.

In one report in the United States, Chu (1981) reports that teacher's identity is positioned in such way that they constantly adjust between contexts & as such becomes a useful lens through which an understanding of teacher's work may be sought. This change in roles, emergence of new roles, resurgence of old ones and transformation of existing ones, sudden upsurge in the roles seems to reflect the uncertainty produced by rapid change through communication technology, changes in the global economy and the commoditification of the culture, which together dismantle traditional patterns of social life & herald a new consciousness (Alexander & sztompka, 1990; Casey, 1995).

With this new consciousness, identity is a process of defining & redefining, not only ourselves but others throughout life & in the context of social relations; this implies a degree of reflexivity across shifting contexts. Identity is characterized by fluidity & continuous change as social interactions progress. Linked with the concept of role & identity is the concept of self. Self has been defined as individual's reflexive sense of his or her own identity constituted by others. The literature concludes that individual identity is generated in the relationship between personal self & public self. Multiple selves are constructed according to the social context. Social identities may involve multiple selves that we learn to present to others depending upon the situation. In contrast substantial identities consist of a person's most valued views of and attitudes to self, which are constantly defended & highly resistant to change. If there is a
wide divergence between the two, a great deal of negotiative work may be required to salvage the substantial identity.

Applying this to teaching & teachers, Nias (1984) suggests that many primary school teachers had entered teaching with a strong substantial identity, a firm commitment to personal values. Few had however, identified as teachers, the majority saw themselves as persons in teaching and adopted strategies to defend their substantial self. Indeed they adopted various strategies to protect themselves from situational influences. That is, once they felt technically competent, they changed schools or moved from one sector of education to another in search of a reference group, which may simultaneously promote & impede the development of the profession and of individuals in it. After 2 to 5 years of searching, some teachers decide that they cannot preserve their substantial selves as teachers and move to other occupations particularly parenthood. Thus substantial identities & reference groups by which these are strengthened and protected contribute to the partial nature of professional socialization among teachers. Woods (1984, 1993) also distinguishes the substantial from the situational self. We maintain that teachers act to preserve the values & ideals, which form the case of their selves. Yet these inner selves are seen as being dependent upon the existence of external referents. Attempts to innovate can destroy or severely disturb this congruence, and under such conditions, teachers will act to defend their substantial self. Role conflict results from conflicting expectancies associated with a job. The conflicting situations which trouble role occupants result in certain consequences. The consequences of role conflict vary with the type and intensity of conflict, the context in which it is found and the characteristics of the individual exposed to it. In some cases, conflict can be functional to the individual, the organization and the society. If role conflict acts as a stimulus to the analysis of the problems and a motive force behind a programme of change and reform, the individual, the organization & the society will definitely benefit from that role conflict. Role conflict on the other hand can have a no. of adverse effects also. It can reduce satisfaction, confidence and job performance and can increase anxiety, frustration and strain.
of individuals which in turn will reduce organizational efficiency by decreasing employee turnover.

Fig. 2.1
Role Conflict Resolution and Life Satisfaction

- Job satisfaction
- Motivation
- Performance
- Interest
- Communication
- Interpersonal relations
- Attendance
- Commitment

Increased

Resolved role conflict results in

Decreased

- Tension
- Anxiety
- Frustration
- Exhaustion
- Employee turnover
- Unrest
- Complain

Increased Life Satisfaction

Fig. 2.1
Role Conflict Resolution and Life Satisfaction

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Work-family conflict is the role conflict in which the role demands stemming from one domain (work or family) are incompatible with role demands stemming from another domain (family or work) (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964).

It refers to a condition whereby participation in one of the roles either is incompatible with participation in other role in some respect or makes participation in the other more difficult. If pressures to participate in both domains are equal, the highest degree of work-family conflict may be expected.

According to Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal (1964), roles are the result of expectations of others about appropriate behaviour in a particular position. Role conflict is described as psychological tension that is aroused by conflicting role pressures. Role theory suggests that conflict occurs when individuals engage in multiple roles that are incompatible.

Role conflict can be time based, strain based, or behaviour based (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Time based conflict occurs when role pressures stemming from the two different domains compete for individual’s time (e.g. requiring employees to work late with little notice might make it difficult for employees to meet family obligations, like picking up a child at daycare). Strain based conflicts occur when the strain experienced in one role domain interferes with effective performance of role behaviours in the other domain e.g. a parent who is anxious about his/her child’s illness might not be able to fully concentrate on his job as a teacher, causing him to make mistakes in his work. Behaviour based conflict is described as conflict stemming from incompatible behaviours demanded by competing roles e.g. a principal in a school might be expected to be very strict, dominating, and hard driving, but same behaviours in the family would most likely lead to conflict with the family members. Time based conflict, the most common type of work family conflict is of most relevance. There is not much time or energy to prepare for the next day. It is based on the scarcity
This hypothesis suggests that the sum of human energy is fixed and that multiple roles inevitably reduce the time & energy available to meet all role demands, thus creating strain & work family conflict.

As can be seen in the examples above, work-family conflict is bidirectional, i.e., work can interfere with family (work-to-family conflict) and family can interfere with work (family-to-work conflict). These dimensions of directionality have been identified as distinct, reciprocal constructs that have independent antecedents & outcomes (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992; Frone, Yandky & Market, 1997). Some research has demonstrated that the work to family conflict is primarily caused by work related stressors and characteristics and that it predicts family related affective & behavioural outcomes, while family to work conflict is caused by family related stressors & characteristics & predicts work related outcomes (e.g., Frone et al, 1997).

Research to date suggests that high levels of work family conflict are related to dysfunctional outcomes for the individual (e.g., life satisfaction, anxiety, depression, poor health), for relationships (e.g., increased interpersonal conflict, divorce), and for the organization (e.g., absenteeism, tardiness).

Lobel’s (1991) contention is that if pressures to participate in both domains are equal, the highest degree of work family conflict may be expected. From it is expected that working women who are equally committed to work and relationships will have higher levels of depression, lower self esteem, lower life satisfaction and greater levels of role conflict than women who are committed to relationships first or work first.

When workers with family responsibilities are surveyed, men and women agree that work interferes with their energy to be a good parent, the time spent with their children, their relationship with their partner, leisure activities and energy to work around the house (Edgar & Glezer 1992).

According to Australia Bureau of Statistics Survey of families (ABS 1993 b) 29 percent of employed parents with children aged 0-11 had difficulty managing work & caring for children. Around 27% of employed carers of long term ill, elderly or disabled family members had difficulty coping with both roles.
A higher proportion of employed women than men experienced difficulty balancing work with child care and caring for a long term ill, disabled or elderly family members (35% & 21% respectively).

The AIFS study of dependent care (Vanden Heuvel, 1993) found that more than two-thirds of parents missed some work during the year related to children’s needs either due to sickness or childcare particularly during school holidays. Almost one third of men and women had taken time off from work to care for other family members, usually a spouse (17%) or parents (14%). When a child was sick, mothers were more likely than fathers to take time off to care for a sick child (52% & 31% respectively). This ratio may show much wider gap in Indian scenario. Women teachers have higher stress levels than male teachers. For many women teachers job is like pouring water into already full cup. The old saying, “Man may work from sun to sun, but woman’s work is never done,” extends unfortunately well to the context of teaching and the lives of teachers, not least in the view of the gender of so many teachers. Managing work and family life affects not only family functioning but also workplace performance. Studies of employees and employers reveal that family responsibilities can affect business productivity and competitiveness (Adie & Carmody, 1991; Wolcott 1991). Child care, sick children, elderly parents, marital and family problems can increase absenteeism, coming to work late or leaving early, lack of concentration and safety on the job. Days at work may be missed not only for family caring but for attending to domestic tasks. Repair services, for example, often require someone to wait at home for the better part of a working day.

Family responsibilities can influence a worker’s willingness to take on additional tasks, training, travel or relocate (Russell, Savage and Durkin 1992; Wolcott 1993). Other employees’ efficiency can be affected, especially in teamwork situations, when colleagues and workmates are absent or preoccupied with family concerns.

Skilled employees may not be retained because inadequate child care or flexible hours are not available after maternity leave. Costs of recruitment, training and ‘down time’ before new employees are up to par can increase in
those circumstances. Felt lack of time, tiredness (caused by the extra hours that teachers put into & keep up with their workload and their sense of inefficiency), the guilt that resulted from the teacher’s felt inability to address the students’ needs and the informants concerns for their professional reputation caused many teachers to decrease their contacts with their peers and family. They sacrifice their leisure time and familial activities to their work which increased their anger and feelings of guilt towards their family. In spite of the sacrifices, they were often unable to catch up with their work and developed feeling of dissatisfaction.

Thus the interaction of one’s personality, attitude and the roles one plays in life affects life satisfaction and highlights the relative importance of these variables across the life span. Our wants and resources to accomplish goals change overtime and offer insight into the role these domains play in life satisfaction.