CHAPTER-1

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 INTRODUCTION

India is engaged today in a hectic programme of educational reform and reconstruction covering almost all aspects and agencies of education. Education is an attempt on the part of adult members of the society to shape the development of the coming generations in accordance with its own ideals of life. It is an effort to secure the conditions under which individuality is most completely developed. Therefore, education programmes found a prominent place in our national plans for the development of human resource, so that children grow up to become robust citizens who are physically fit, mentally alert, morally healthy, endowed with skills and motivations needed by the society. Education provides us knowledge and skills which make an individual to operate well in society and contribute to its efficient functioning. Education today is not merely literacy, but it is directed at the socialization of children with respect to his/her development. All round development of personality is the ultimate goal of education and therefore, the learning experiences provided in the family and the school contribute towards the achievement of this end when the parents and teachers are rational and their attitude towards the child is logical and considerable, it is sure that he will pick up a behaviour pattern which is analytical and cooperative. It has been rightly realized now that unless we have teachers of the right type all our plans of education reconstruction, all our efforts to create a sound system of national education has little chance of success. The teacher is of paramount importance in any nation’s system of education and the very progress of nation depends on the quality of the teachers. A teacher plays the pivotal role in the social reconstruction and the transmission of knowledge and the experience from one generation to another. A teacher is the custodian of the culture, critic of social weakness, interpreter of changes that are taking place, pioneer of reform and act as a guide to the efforts of the people.
Life in today’s world is not like a bunch of roses. An individual is expected to perform a variety of functions in order to survive. He has to be professionally sound, emotionally stable, economically independent and socially well adjusted. Life can be stressful. We all face different challenges and obstacles, and sometimes the pressure is hard to handle. When we feel overwhelmed, under the gun, or unsure of how to meet the demands placed on us, we experience stress. For most of us, work is the central part of our lives. It is the expression of the basic need to accomplish, to create, to feel satisfaction, and to feel meaningful. Rewarding work is an important and positive part of our lives. Moreover, how we judge ourselves and measure our self-worth is very much determined by the work we do. The status and rewards that society attaches to jobs is one of the primary ways others see us. However, when work denies people an opportunity to utilize their creativity, intelligence, and decision-making ability, it causes stress. Stress is an unavoidable characteristic of life and work. In small doses, stress can be a good thing. It can give us the push we need, motivating us to do our best and to stay focused and alert. Stress is what keeps us on our toes during a presentation at work or drives us to study for our examinations when we’d rather be watching TV. But when the going gets too tough and life’s demands exceed our ability to cope, stress becomes a threat to both physical and emotional well-being. We usually think of stressors as being negative, such as an exhausting work schedule or a rocky relationship. However, anything that forces us to adjust can prove to be a stressor. This includes positive events such as getting married or receiving a promotion. Stress is no more a hidden fact, or an act to gain the sympathy of others, but rather it has become an inseparable part of our lives and is synonymous with progress, success, achievement on one side and failure, stagnation, depression and emotional exhaustion on the other. Stress affects the mind, body, and behaviour in many ways. Stress has now become an area of concern for all types of occupations. The changing demands and pressures affect virtually every profession, with the impact being particularly obvious in the helping professions. Teaching is a prime example of changing demands and pressures. There is little doubt, however, that some professions have fared worse than others.
It has been argued that workers that are involved in high levels of personal interaction, such as teachers, are more vulnerable to occupational stress and professional ‘burnout’ than those in product-oriented organizations. The educational reform movement of the 1980s and 1990s recognized that teachers were an essential part of the revitalization of schools. Yet teachers believe that the reform movement has neglected this critical ingredient and focused on other issues such as curriculum and co-curricular activities. Grave reform of education must include support and aid to our teachers. Teaching is not only hard work; it can be full of stress. Pressure due to school reform efforts, inadequate administrative support, poor working conditions, lack of participation in school decision making, the burden of paperwork, and lack of resources have all been identified as factors that can cause stress among school staff (Hammond & Onikama, 1997).

Teachers today face change and numerous professional problems. Stress is a particularly likely outcome at such times of major changes.

1.2 STRESS

Although we all talk about stress, it often isn't clear what stress is really about. Many people consider stress to be something that happens to them, an event such as an injury or a demotion. Others think that stress is what happens to our bodies, minds and behaviours (e.g. palpitations, anxiety, or nail biting) in response to an event. While stress does involve events and our response to them, these are not the most important factors. Our thoughts about the situations in which we find ourselves are the critical factors. Stress is generally invariably defined but by common sense, it represents conditions under which individuals have demands placed upon them and those affected can hardly meet either physically or psychologically. It is rational to believe that the significance of stressful events and the impacts of them on individuals are, however, greatly dependent on an individuals’ insight and thought process. Almost every change in the environment- even a pleasant change, such as a vacation-demands some type of coping; and a little stress is useful in helping us adapt. But beyond a certain limit, ‘stress’ becomes ‘distress’. What acts to produce distress varies greatly from person to person and the person’s ability to adapt oneself.
Chief among these being injuries or infections of the body; annoying or dangerous events in our environment; major changes or transitions in life which forces us to cope in new ways; and probable or actual threats to our self-esteem. Levi (1972) has suggested that stress is one of the mechanisms suspected of leading under certain circumstances to disease. A transactional view of stress draws from response and stimulus based conceptualizations of stress. The transactional view proposed that stress arises from the existence of some relationships between the individual and his environment. The individual experiences stress, if after perceiving the objective environment, he feels that the environmental conditions will give rise to an undesirable state of affairs.

1.2.1 Phases of stress

Selye (1950), the highly acclaimed endocrinologist and the father of modern studies on Stress, while presenting the General Adaptation Syndrome, revealed that as the stress starts taking its toll there are three very evident stages through which the person goes through. These phases are: The Alarm, the Resistance, and the Exhaustion phase.

- **The Alarm Phase:**
  
  The alarm phase is characterized by the triggering on the stress alert system (the fight or flight response). There is thus an over activity of the sympathetic nervous system, and the simultaneous inhibition of the parasympathetic nervous system. Alarm is generated in the body and the whole body starts preparing for a fight. There is a flush of energy, and all activities are speeded up. The pressure is evident and could be seen in his excitement or fear.

- **The Resistance Phase:**
  
  In the resistance phase because of the permanence of the stressful circumstances there is reduction in energy, the person feels sprint down. As the demands mounts one struggle to meet the various demands expected of him. One starts getting bouts of irritation, there is over-reaction to minor issues, sleep pattern starts getting altered and he starts getting weaker both mentally & physically. Very clear physical, psychological and behavioural changes are observed in the individual. For example, when a teacher is
teaching, he/she is worried/concerned about completing the syllabus/topic in time. He/She is making full efforts to cope with the situation and his/her whole body is occupied in fighting against the condition. This is the resistance stage. In this stage, the body keeps making continuous efforts to cope with stress and therefore feels run down and fatigued. The person starts feeling irritated, over reacts to minor situations and gets mentally and physically weak. Psychological, physical and behavioural changes are also clearly visible.

- **The Exhaustion Phase:**

When the stressful condition prolongs, and even after observing distinct symptoms of resistance phase, appropriate measures are not resorted to, then the exhaustion phase takes over. The person feels fully exhausted & tired. This may go even to the extent of absence of all zeal to work or even to live. There is emotional breakdown, insomnia, heart & blood pressure complications, and host of other very painful symptoms associated with burnout. The burnout has started. For example, if a teacher is teaching in the class and in spite of every possible effort, he/she is not able to relate to his students, he/she is bound to get stressed. The stress could reach a height where he/she may feel completely exhausted and helpless to the extent of leaving the job. This is the exhaustion stage.

Therefore, stress can be defined as a state of mind which can be caused by physical burden on the body (disease conditions, exercise, extremes of temperature, etc.) or by environmental and social situations which are considered as potentially harmful, uncontrollable, or exceeding one’s resources for coping. These physical, environmental, and social causes of the stress state are termed as stressors. Once induced by stressors, the mental state of stress can then lead to various responses. On the one hand, it can affect a number of physical and bodily responses, while, on the other hand, psychological responses such as anxiety, despair, misery, irritability, and a general feeling of not being able to cope with the demands of the world can result from the stress state.
Sells (1976) aptly summarizes the role of perceived demand, perceived ability and perceived consequences in his statement that stress arises when:

- The individual is called on 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, absence of the response in the individual’s response repertoire, lack of training, equipment or opportunity to prepare.

- The consequences of failure to respond effectively are important in situations can be defined in terms of importance of consequence of the individual.

Agarwal et. al (1979) believed that the confusion in the definition of stress is primarily due to the fact that the same term is used variedly by scholars of different disciplines. Thus, in physics stress is a force which acts on a body to produce strain. In physiology, the various changes in the physiological functions in response to evocate agents denote stress (rather than strain). In psychology, stress refers to a particular kind of state of the organism resulting from some interaction between him/her and the environment. One way of unravelling this confusion is to identify the following parameters of stress:

- The discipline of the researcher and the nature of the stimuli considered as stressors: physical and humeral stimuli are primarily studied in physiology and psychology.

- The response relevant to the scientist: Physiologist are primarily concerned with physiological changes; psychologists with health and behaviour; and psychologists with deviations at the psychological (e.g. anxiety depression) and behavioural (e.g. withdrawal) levels; organizational researchers focus on work related psychological and behavioural symptoms.

According to Spielberger (1979), the term stress is used to refer to a complex psychobiological process that consist of three major ailments. The process is initiated by a situation or stimulus that is potentially harmful or dangerous stressor. If a stressor is interpreted as dangerous or threatening, an anxiety reaction will be elicited. The definition of stress has been diagrammatically represented by the investigator as follows:
According to Mcmicheal (1978), “stress is 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 a particular situation and an individual with his specific personality, behavioural pattern and life situation circumstances that result in a stress producing imbalance.

Stress consists of any events in which environmental demands, internal demands or both, tax or exceed the adaptive resources of the individual, social system or tissue system (Farmer, Monahan and Hekeler, 1984). Lazarus (1984) conceived stress as a special kind of transaction between a person and his/her environment. Stress occurs when there are demands on the person which tax or exceed his adjustive resources. A certain event being stressful depends on the perception by an individual.

According to Zimbardo (1988), stress refers to pressures on an individual that are in some way perceived as excessive or intolerable and also to the psychological and physical changes in response to those pressures i.e. the pattern of specific and non-specific responses an individual makes to the stimulus events that disturb his or her equilibrium and that exceed their ability to cope. Fontana and Abouserie (1993) note that definitions of stress range from simple, single word statements such as ‘tension’ or ‘pressure’ to complex physiological and psychological explanations that are given for responses to certain stimuli. Their own definition refers to the “demand made upon the adaptive capacities of the mind and body, a demand which, if continued beyond the ability of these capacities to respond, leads to the physical and psychological exhaustion and possibly ultimate collapse referred to by Seyle”.

According to Gold and Roth (1993) “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.”
Seaward (1997) defines stress as the inability to cope with a perceived or real (or imagined) spiritual well-being which results in a series of psychological responses and adaptations. When something happens to us, we automatically evaluate the situation emotionally and psychologically. We decide if it is threatening to us, how we need to deal with the situation, and what skills we can use. If we decide that the demands of the situation overshadow the skills we have, then we label the situation as “stressful”. Our stress may be linked to outside factors such as the state of the world, the work environment or the family environment. Stress can also come from our own irresponsible behaviour, negative attitudes and feelings, or unrealistic expectations. What one considers stressful depends on many factors, including personality, general outlook towards life, problem-solving abilities, and social support system. Something that is stressful to one may be neutral or even enjoyable to someone else. For example, our morning commute to the workplace may make us worried and tense because of the long distance that we need to travel, while others, however, may find the long distance commuting relaxing, enjoyable and a break from the daily schedule.

1.2.2 Types of stress

Stress is our body’s reaction to the steady demands of the world, and stressors are events or conditions in our surroundings which may trigger stress. There are four main types of stress (Seyle, 1956):

❖ **Eustress**

Eustress is a type of short-term positive stress that provides immediate strength. It arises at points of increased physical activity, enthusiasm, and creativity. Eustress arises when motivation and inspiration are needed. It is one of the helpful types of stress. It is the type of stress that one experiences right before one has the need to exert physical force. Eustress prepares the body organs (muscles, heart, and brain) for the power needed for whatsoever is about to occur. Eustress can also be applied to creative accomplishments. When a person needs to have some extra energy or resourcefulness, eustress pours in to bring them the encouragement they need. A player will experience the strength that arrive from eustress right before they play a big game or enter a big competition. Because of the eustress, they immediately receive the strength that they need to perform. When the body enters a conflict or getaway response, it will experience eustress.
The eustress prepares the body to fight with or flee from an imposing danger. This type of stress will cause the blood to pump to the major muscle groups, and will increase the heart rate and blood pressure to increase. If the event or danger passes, the body will eventually return to its normal state.

❖ Distress

Distress is a negative stress brought about by constant readjustments or alterations in a routine. Distress creates feelings of uneasiness and unfamiliarity. Distress is one of the negative types of stress. This is one of the types of stress that the mind and body undergoes when the normal routine is constantly adjusted and altered. The mind is not at ease with this routine, and craves the familiarity of a common routine. There are actually two types of distress: acute stress and chronic stress.

Acute stress also known as the fight-or-flight response is our body's immediate reaction to a threat, challenge or scare. The acute stress response is immediate, intense, and in certain circumstances, it can be thrilling. Acute stress is the body's way of getting a person to stand up and take account of what is going on, to make sure that everything is going on smoothly. Examples of stressors that may cause an acute stress response are a job interview, a stage performance or an exhilarating ski run. Chronic stress results from long-term exposure to acute stress. The chronic stress response is much more fine than is the acute stress response, but the effects may be long lasting and more problematic. The stressors which may lead to chronic stress are the nagging, day-to-day life situations that often seem unremitting. It includes relationship problems, work difficulties and financial woes.

❖ Hyperstress

Hyperstress occurs when an individual is pushed beyond what he or she can handle. It results from being stuffed with work. When someone is hyperstressed, even little things can trigger a strong emotional response. A trader carrying business in a share market is likely to experience hyperstress.
Hypostress

Hypostress is the opposite of hyperstress. It occurs when an individual is bored or unchallenged. People who experience hypostress are often restless and uninspired. A teacher who performs repetitive tasks or has been teaching same subjects for many years might experience hypostress.

Stress is an expressively disturbing or upsetting condition of mind which occurs in response to unfavorable external influences. Stress raises the level of adrenaline (a hormone & a neurotransmitter) and corticosterone (a 21 carbon steroid hormone) in the body, which leads to increase in the heart rate, respiration, and blood pressure and puts more physical stress on bodily organs. When some thing pleasant or unpleasant happens around us, which puts us in a state of strain or pressure, it is called stress. Whether or not the source of stress causes significant emotional and physical symptoms depends on the nature of the stressor itself. Stressors/Events that involve central aspects of our life or that persist for comprehensive periods of time are more likely to result in rigorous distress and disruption of functioning. Furthermore, the more stressful situations or life changes one is dealing with at one time, the more intense the symptoms of stress.

1.2.3 Models of stress

Some of the prominent models of stress used in educational research may be categorized as follows:

- Physiological Models such as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), Selye, 1950.
- Load of information models, for e.g. stimulus overload/underload model (Suedfeld, 1979) and optimal information flow and mood (Hamilton, 1981)
- Interactional models like cognitive model of stress (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), P-F fit model (French, Rodgers and Cobb, 1974) and systems model (Lumsden, 1975).

The emphasis according to each one of these models has been given in Table 1.1.
Table 1.1: Models of stress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODEL</th>
<th>EMPHASIS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GENERAL ADOPTION MODEL</td>
<td>• Stress is necessary for biological adaptation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Stages of stress response- alarm, resistance and exhaustion phase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVERLOAD-UNDERLOAD MODEL</td>
<td>• Events become stressful either because of under arousal or over arousal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPTIMAL INFORMATION FLOW AND MOOD MODEL</td>
<td>• Non-optimal situation produces negative moods such as depression, anger and anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COGNITIVE APPRAISAL MODEL</td>
<td>• Perception of individual determines stress.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Perception also determines how one copes with the stressor</td>
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<tr>
<td>PERSON ENVIRONMENT FIT MODEL</td>
<td>• Stress depends on the degree of non-fit between the person and the environment.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Need supplies fit</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Abilities demand fit</td>
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<tr>
<td>SYSTEMS MODEL</td>
<td>• Takes into account all the previous models.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Focuses on both endogenous and exogenous factors as determinants of stress.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Raina (1983) listed some of the important behavioural, Physiological and health effects which have been suggested to be linked to the experience of stress and have been placed in the table.
Table 1.2: Behavioural, Cognitive, Physiological and Health effects linked to the experience of stress (Raina, 1983)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EFFECTS</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BEHAVIOURAL EFFECTS</td>
<td>Accident proneness, drug taking, emotional outbursts, excitability, impulsive behaviour and restlessness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COGNITIVE EFFECTS</td>
<td>Inability to make decisions and concentrate, frequent forgetfulness and mental blocks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS</td>
<td>Increased blood and glucose level, increased heart rate and blood pressure, sweating, a lump in the throat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEALTH EFFECTS</td>
<td>Asthma, chest and back pains, coronary heart disease, diarrhoea, frequent urination, headaches, nightmares, insomnia, psychosomatic disorders, ulcers and weakness.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

Occupational stress can be defined as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources or needs of the worker. Occupational stress can lead to poor physical and mental health. The concept of occupational stress is often confused with challenge, but these concepts are altogether different. Challenge energizes us both psychologically as well as physically, and it motivates us to learn new skills and master our skills. Thus, challenge is an important ingredient for healthy and productive work. Occupational stress is that which derives specifically from situations at the work place. These may either cause stress in the beginning or intensify the stress already present from other sources. In today’s typical workplace, stress is seen as becoming increasingly more common. People appear to be working longer hours, taking on higher level of job responsibilities and exerting themselves even more vigorously to meet the growing expectations about occupational performance. Okebukola and Jegede (1989) defined occupational stress as “a condition of mental and physical exertion brought about as a result of harassing events or dissatisfying elements or general features of the working environment.”
Occupational stress describes physical, mental and emotional wear and tear brought about by incongruence between the requirement of the job and the capabilities, resources and needs of the employee to cope with job demands (Akinboye, et al., 2002). Occupational stress is pervasive as well as invasive. Stress in the workplace has assumed increased importance in recent times the world over. Akinboye, et al., (2002) describes “job stress” as the twentieth century disease. In his words over 70% of employees world-wide describe their jobs as stressful with more than one in five reporting high levels of stress at work on a daily basis.

Job stress can have a widespread and negative impact on the well-being of an individual and his or her day-to-day functioning. This is observable at a physical level (fatigue, headaches, high blood pressure), a psychological level (dejection, anxiety, low self-esteem), a cognitive level (absent-mindedness, failure of attention and memory), and a behavioural level (absenteeism, abuse, aggressive behaviour).

Pareek (1993), the pioneer of HR and OD movement in India reiterate that the performance of a role in an organization has built in potential for conflict due to which stress may start rearing its head. Such stress can contribute to various dysfunctional outcomes for the organization like job related tensions, job dissatisfaction, lower performance, etc. He said that role-based stresses not only affect the pleasantness on the job and increase general fatigue but also reduce one’s potentiality to perform effectively as they tend to immobilize the person to use the available resources effectively. Pareek (1983) pioneered work on the role stress by identifying as many as ten different types of organizational role stresses. These are:

i. Inter-Role Distance (IRD): It is experienced when there is a conflict between organisational and non-organizational roles. For example, the role of an executive versus the role of a husband / wife.

ii. Role Stagnation (RS): This kind of stress is the result of the gap between the demand to outgrow a previous role and to occupy a new role effectively. It is the feeling of being stuck in the same role. Such a type of stress results in perception that there is no opportunity for one's career progression.

iii. Role Expectation Conflict (REC): This type of stress is generated by different expectations by different significant persons about the same role; and the role occupant's ambivalence as to whom to please.
iv. Role Erosion (RE): This kind of role stress is the function of the role. Occupant's feeling that some functions which should properly belong to his / her role are transferred to / or performed by some other role. This can also happen when the functions are performed by the role occupant but the credit for them goes to someone else. Another manifestation is in the form of underutilisation in the role.

v. Role Overload (RO): When the role occupant feels that there are too many expectations from the significant roles in his/her role set, he/she experiences role overload. There are two aspects of this stress: quantitative and qualitative. The former refers to having too much to do, while latter refers to things being too difficult and the accountability in the role.

vi. Role Isolation (RI): This type of role stress refers to the psychological distance between the occupant's role and other roles in the same role set. It is also defined as role distance which is different from inter-role distance (IRD), in the sense that while IRD refers to the distance among various occupied by the same individual, role isolation (RI) is characterized by the feelings that others do not reach out easily, indicative of the absence of strong linkages of one's role with other roles. This can be geographic or systematic.

vii. Personal Inadequacy (PI): This type of stress arises when the role occupant feels that he/she does not have the necessary skills and training for effectively performing the functions expected from his/her role. This is bound to happen when the organizations do not impart periodic training to enable the employees to cope with the fast changes both within and outside the organization.

viii. Self-Role Distance (SRD): When the role a person occupies goes against his/her self-concept, then he/she feels self-role distance type of stress. This is essentially a conflict arising out of mismatch between the person and his/her job.

ix. Role Ambiguity (RA): It refers to the lack of clarity about the expectations of the role which may arise out of lack of information or understanding. It may exist in relation to activities, responsibilities, personal styles, and norms and may operate at three stages:
a) When the role sender holds his expectations about the role,
b) When he/she sends it, and
c) When the occupant receives those expectations

x. Resource Inadequacy (RIN): This type of stress is evident when the role occupant feels that he/she is not provided with adequate resources for performing the functions expected from his/her role.

The goal of every organization, whether profit or non-profit oriented, is to work towards achieving the objective for its existence. For example, the major goal of the school at any level is towards attainment of academic excellence by the students. Although there may be other peripheral objectives, emphasis is placed on the achievement of sound education. The extent to which this goal can be actualized depends principally on the workforce--most especially the teaching personnel. They constitute the oil that lubricates the factors of academic performance and educational enterprise as a whole. Teachers, like other employees in various organizations, are crucial in the actualization of the school goals and objectives.

The education industry is not invulnerable from the general phenomenon of stress. For the last some years at least, education staff in schools have been feeling the effects of the overwhelming demands being increasingly placed on them. Schools are being called upon to find the remedies for many of society's ills. They are often blamed for what goes wrong even if they do not have complete control over the matter. They are constantly called upon to incorporate new content and approaches into the curriculum; to develop new educational programs and pedagogical practices. Computing and information technology bring its own set of challenges. All these demands often have to be met in the face of cuts to education budgets and staffing schedules and calls for economies of every kind on all levels of school life. No wonder many employees working in schools claim they are working under stress.

School teachers face high amounts of stress during teaching and handling students. Classrooms in developing countries remain overcrowded and schools in rural areas consist more aged children for their class due to late education. Teachers face intensive verbal communication, prolonged standing and high volume of workload.

Borg (1990) conceptualizes teacher stress as a negative and potentially harmful to teachers' health.
The key element in the definition is the teacher’s perception of threat based on the following three aspects of his job circumstances. 1. that demands are being made on him. 2. that he is unable to meet or has difficulty in meeting these demands. 3. that failure to meet these demands threatens his mental/physical well being. Occupational stress is a feeling we experience, when we lose confidence in our capability to cope with a situation in an occupation. It is a state characterized by high levels of arousal and distress and often by feelings of not coping with the responsibilities of the job. Although the importance of individual differences cannot be ignored, scientific evidence suggests that certain working conditions are stressful to most people. The excessive workload demands and conflicting expectations argues for a greater emphasis on working conditions as the key source of occupational stress, and for occupational redesign as a primary prevention strategy.

1.3.1 Teachers Stress

Teacher stress is a universal phenomenon and researchers from many countries, including the United Kingdom, the United States, Israel and Australia, have studied various aspects of teachers’ stress. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) defined teacher’s stress in terms of ‘perception of threat’

“… a response of negative effective affect (such as anger or depression) by a teacher usually accompanied by potentially pathogenic, physiological and bio-chemical changes (such as increased heart rate or release of adrenocortophic hormones into the bloodstream) resulting from the teacher’s job…“

Teaching by its nature demands that teachers demonstrate or display emotion they may not actually feel. For instance, teachers are expected to demonstrate unusual love and kindness towards their students. They are also expected to serve as mentors and motivate students who are even unwilling to learn. All these are in themselves stressful and amount to what Hochschild (1983) called emotional labour which he defined as ‘the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labour is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value’.

These expectations lead to a kind of discrepancy between the expected and the actual emotion and thereby leading to emotional dissonance which is an aspect of emotional labour that is detrimental to one’s health and well being.
“Teaching can be a stressful occupation. The daily interactions with students and coworkers and the never-ending and fragmented demands of teaching often lead to overwhelming pressures and challenges, which may lead to stress. Where work stress is unrelenting, some negative physiological, psychological, and behavioral consequences may result.” (DeRobbio & Iwanicki, 1996)

In short, it reflects a situation where teachers perceived themselves as facing threat to their self-esteem or well-being. This causes stress and triggers an emotional response that is given the label: stress. Kyriacou (1987) defines “teacher stress as the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions such as tension, frustration, anger and depression resulting from aspects of his work as a teacher.” Galloway et al., (1981) indicated that the most useful perspective on stress is one which investigates the interaction or "fit" between teachers and their work. Stress arises when there is a "lack of fit" between the needs and capacity of the individual and the conditions existing in their environment. Stress is an individual response - what one person finds stressful another may not. Stress is a problem that is not only experienced in the early career stage of preparation, but must be addressed at this point for both current and future needs if these individuals are going to be successful or even remain in the profession. There appear to be a variety of reasons which contribute to making the beginning years most difficult in a teacher’s career. It is during this period that they acquire a true realization of the role of the teacher and the countless responsibilities that go with it, including responsibilities to students, parents, school administrators, the community at large, teacher colleagues and to themselves. Jurabi (2009) defined teachers’ stress as "the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression resulting from aspect of his or her work as a teacher".

Similarly, the workload can seem overwhelming to the beginner teacher. These include administrative and logistical matters such as attendance, state regulation paperwork, and school district record-keeping requirements. These are in addition to the major workload element of preparing for lessons, grading papers and developing long range curriculum plans.

There are a variety of factors which contribute to the stress, demoralization and dropout of teachers. These include student discipline and lack of interest in class work, lack of personal support, insufficient financial support, pressures from the
reform movement in education, lack of community support, poor image of the profession, role ambiguity etc.

The impact of our changing value system of the society and the school as a social system has a profound effect on the individual teacher and their ability to be successful and remain in the profession.

1.4 COPING STRESS

During any stressful life experience, both positive and negative affect co-occurs. There is a need to engage and access the positive side as soon as possible. This is so because positive affect has been shown to have adaptation significance. It helps to deal with stress effectively and overcome its harmful consequences quickly (Khosla, 2006). Positive affect predisposes one to appraise the stressful situation as challenging, fostering hope and belief that it may be beneficial in some way. By finding meaning in simple life events, moments, objects, induces happiness for a moment. This brief state of happiness provides immense source of energy to fight back from any life threatening situation effectively. In the midst of trauma, merely looking at a beautiful flower, or playing with a child or having any pleasant diversion in eating something deviates our attention from the stressful situation for a while. This momentary relief from extremely sad, negative, threatening, worrying thoughts helps replenish our energy resources to deal with the present crises more effectively. People differ not only in the life events they experience but also in their susceptibility to them. When problems overpower our lives, it causes extremely dire consequences for our lives, both physically as well as psychologically. Inability to resolve life problems can cause long range psychic damage (Caplan, 1964). If the problems are not resolved successfully, it can cause frustration and aggression. In this state of instability, wrath, unhappiness, frustration, one feels hopeless. This disrupts present state of existence as well as future adjustment too. Unable to think logically as to how, what is right or wrong, or what decision to make, what action to take and emotions overwhelm cognitive processes. These negative emotions disrupt various cognitive processes like thinking, memory, reasoning, decision making etc. This may also instigate behaviours which may be both physically as well as psychologically harmful. However, instead of resolving the situation, one may fall deeper into the problem.
Sometimes, overwhelming problems and life stresses build to such an extent that one feels trapped from all sides. All personal defenses break down and the vulnerability to physical and psychological problems increases. A person’s vulnerability to psychological stress is influenced by his/her temperament, coping skills and the available support from friends, family and society. This vulnerability increases the likelihood of maladaptive responses to psychological stress.

When individuals experience stress, they adopt ways of dealing with it as they cannot remain in a continual state of tension. This is called coping. The word ‘coping’ has been used with two meanings- ways of dealing with stress and the effort to master the conditions of harm, threat and challenge. Thus, when the stress on an individual tax or exceed his adjustive resources, he must resort to some form of coping in order to maintain equilibrium. Hamburg and Adam (1967) defined coping as a process of seeking and utilizing information. Pearlin and Schooler (1978) conceptualized coping as any response to stimulational life stressor that serves to prevent, avoid or control emotional distress.

Harmful effects of stress can be mitigated if we are able to cope with stress well. Coping has been defined as the process of managing external and internal demands that are perceived as taxing or exceeding a person’s resources. Gaziel (1993) asserts that cultural factors have an impact on both the perception of occupational stress and the strategies that individuals choose for coping with stress. People differ greatly in their ability to cope with stressful life events successfully, and some coping strategies are much more effective than others when faced with a particular life changing events (Folkman, 1997). Effective coping is positively associated with subjective well being (Mc Crae & Costa, 1986). Whenever there is a problem, previous means of coping and dealing with problems seem meaningless in face of new threats and challenges. It is important to know ourselves and restore the state of equilibrium in order to survive the problem situation. Facing and overcoming various life stresses enforces resilience towards extremely threatening life situations. Resilience enables one to protect oneself and bounce back from stressful circumstances more easily (Ferdrickson, 2001).

Researchers have used different terms interchangeably to describe the strategies used to cope with problems. Some of them are coping strategies, coping mechanism, coping attempts, self control methods, auto protective methods etc. Therefore, coping strategies are those responses that are effective in reducing an unwanted load (i.e. the
psychological burden). The effectiveness of coping strategy rests on its ability to reduce immediate distress as well as to contribute to more long term outcomes such as psychological well being.

1.4.1 Types of coping strategies

Folkman and Lazarus (1988) identified 8 coping strategies used by the people to combat stress:

- Confrontive coping describes aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggests some degree of hostility and risk-taking.
- Distancing describes cognitive efforts to detach oneself and to minimize the significance of the situation.
- Self-Controlling describes efforts to regulate one’s feelings and actions.
- Seeking social support describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support and emotional support.
- Accepting Responsibility acknowledges one’s own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right.
- Escape-Avoidance describes wishful thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid the problem.
- Planful problem solving describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytical approach to solving the problem.
- Positive Reappraisal describes the efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious dimension.

Rosalind Murray-Harvey (1999) identified four main categories of coping strategies: Personal, Professional, Social, and Institutional and a number of subcategories associated with these main categories:

✧ Personal Coping Strategies

Five specific strategies were identified under the category of Personal coping strategies. Personal coping was represented in:

- Cognitive strategies such as positive thinking, setting realistic expectations, pragmatism, and blocking the negative, and included comments like: “I concentrated on the positive aspects more than the
negative” and “telling myself that I am not an experienced teacher and cannot expect to perform like one”.

• Physical strategies some of which were active (recreation, sport and general exercise) while others were passive (listening to music, watching TV, reading or simply relaxing or taking “long hot baths” at the end of a day).

• Behavioural strategies included the reported practice of engaging in routines, like housework, that did not require thought. Eating and drug-taking (e.g. alcohol, tobacco, caffeine) were also behaviours that some teachers consciously or habitually used: “I coped with stress by having some snacks at recess times.”

• Emotional strategies included use of self-deprecation, a capacity of students to laugh at themselves: “If you make a mistake, like writing a word incorrectly in front of the class, it shows you are human” and trying not to be hard on themselves “I just did the best that I could.”

• Rational/Time Organization strategies were identified in the way they clearly defined their priorities for work and free time “Having a balance between work and social life” and “On weekends I spent some time not thinking about anything involved with teaching.” they commonly stressed the importance of making time for themselves during the teaching. Finding the time to relax, either passively or in a physically active way, was a widely reported strategy.

❖ Professional Coping Strategies

Being well prepared for lessons as well as for the general responsibilities associated with life as a school teacher were seen as important strategies in avoiding stress. Three specific Professional coping strategies were identified.

• Knowledge of the curriculum and what they were expected to teach and knowing the structure, organisation and culture of the school helped teachers feel comfortable in that environment.
• Use of self-management skills such as preparation, planning and organizational skills were reflected in comments like “I tried to be well organised to prevent a last minute panic. I used detailed lesson plans and programmed the day in detail. On the home front I also tried to be better organised.” Some used self-reflection “I’m here to learn to be a better teacher, so I have to face all challenges” while others reported techniques for managing school related problems “Taking deep breaths and counting to ten” and some described teaching strategies “Nuisance between students was a problem at times. I developed a few strategies to deal with these problems (role plays etc).”

• Professional qualities were classified as strategies where they were clearly adaptive “At least one lesson a week I would plan something I enjoyed as much as the kids e.g. music and drama.” They generally did not emphasise the role that a sound grasp of the curriculum or an awareness of school organization and culture might have as coping strategies. However, it might be that these are assumed elements of ‘being prepared’.

❖ Social Coping Strategies

Turning to family and friends in times of crisis or simply for conversation and reflection was widely reported as a significant coping strategy. Involvement in social events such ‘partying’ and general socialising away from their practicum school were seen as important by the teachers. Thus, Social coping included:

• Discussion with people who were identified as friends and family: “I never had any stress. I made sure of this by socialising with staff and other colleagues at a cafe after school”

• Involvement in social events: “After school socialising, general socialising and partying.”

❖ Institutional Coping Strategies

Within this category were human and system-related strategies involving both the school and the university. Considerable emphasis was given to the importance of
talking to, and learning from, supervising teachers. Having other teachers in the school with whom to share experiences was also significant.

- At the school level, the support of the supervising teacher, other teachers provided a human contact in times of stress. A system-related school strategy was exemplified by use of non-instructional time that provided ‘breathing space’ in a hectic week.
- At the University level, the University supervisor provided a human point of contact while contact with the University Teaching Experience Office was identified as a system-related coping strategy.

In coping with stress, people tend to use one of the three main coping strategies: either appraisal focused, problem focused, or emotion focused coping (Weiten, Lloyd, 2006).

❖ Appraisal-focused strategies occur when the person modifies the way they think, for example: employing denial, or distancing oneself from the problem. People may alter the way they think about a problem by altering their goals and values, such as by seeing the humor in a situation.

❖ People using problem focused strategies try to deal with the cause of their problem. They do this by finding out information on the problem, learning new skills to manage their problems and rearranging their lives around the disease.

❖ Emotion focused strategies involve releasing pent-up emotions, distracting oneself, managing hostile feelings, meditating, using systematic relaxation procedures etc.

If teachers are to survive in this environment, they must develop their own coping strategies. These self-defense mechanisms safeguard teachers’ mental health as the level of stress is regulated and adjusted to an acceptable level.

1.5 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is in regard to one's feelings or state-of-mind regarding the nature of their work. Job satisfaction is an emotional reaction to an individual’s work situation. It can be defined as an overall feeling about one’s job or career or in terms of specific
facets of the job or career (e.g., compensation, autonomy, coworkers) and it can be related to specific outcomes, such as productivity (Rice, Gentile, and McFarlin, 1991). Job satisfaction is defined as a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job situation and is linked with the characteristics and demands of one's work (Evans, 2001). Job satisfaction can be influenced by a variety of factors, e.g. the quality of one's relationship with their supervisor, the quality of the physical environment in which they work, degree of fulfillment in their work, etc. It is a relatively recent term since in previous centuries the jobs available to a particular person were often predetermined by the occupation of that person's parent. Job satisfaction can be defined as how a person "generally feels about the daily operation of the job based on cumulative experience and assessment of the work environment" (Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991). The level at which one is satisfied depends on "what the employee desires from a job and what the employee actually receives from it" (Scarpello & Vandenberg, 1992). There are a variety of factors that can influence a person's level of job satisfaction; some of these factors include the level of pay and benefits, the perceived fairness of the promotion system, the quality of the working conditions, leadership and social relationships, and the job itself (the variety of tasks involved, the interest and challenge the job generates, and the clarity of the job description/requirements). It is "the condition of contentment with one's work and environment, denoting a positive attitude" (Wood, 1973). Job satisfaction can be regarded as one aspect of life satisfaction; experiences on the job influence perceptions off the job, and vice versa (Davis and Newstrom, 1989). Job satisfaction describes how content an individual is with his or her job. The happier people are within their job, the more satisfied they are said to be. According to Lawler (1977), the extent to which people are satisfied with their jobs should be a societal concern as work experiences have profound effects on both the individual and on society as a whole. Warr (1994) viewed job satisfaction at different levels of generality. In addition to an overall feeling toward a job, there are numerous feelings reflecting different facets of the job. Weiss (2002) has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude. This definition suggests that we form attitudes towards our jobs by taking into account our feelings, our beliefs, and our behaviors. For educators the degree of their satisfaction "can be linked to their perceptions of effectiveness and competency" (Shann, 1998). The degree to which an educator is satisfied with his job has been shown "to be a predictor of teacher retention, commitment and a contributor to school
effectiveness" (Shann, 1998). Keeping teachers is an increasing problem, especially for urban school districts and therefore needs to be addressed at all levels.

A high quality teaching staff is the foundation stone of a successful educational system. Daily interaction between teachers and students is at the center of the educational process; attracting and retaining high quality teachers is, thus, a primary necessity for education in all the countries of the world. One step in developing a high quality faculty is understanding the factors associated with teaching quality and retention. One of these factors is job satisfaction, which has been studied widely by organizational researchers and has been linked to organizational commitment as well as to organizational performance (Ostroff, 1992 and Mathieu, 1991). Oftentimes it is not merely satisfaction with the job but with the career in general that is important. Job satisfaction has been described as favourable or positive feelings about work or the work environment (Furnham, 1997). Conversely, job dissatisfaction has been defined as unhappy or negative feelings about work or the work environment (Furnham, 1997). In addition to financial costs associated with turnover, an organization that fails to maintain a steady, capable workforce may suffer decline in such areas as performance, customer satisfaction, and employee morale (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). For a secondary educational institution, unfavourable working conditions can translate into damage to its academic reputation, as well as to the well being of its students and staff. Because faculty members occupy central positions in secondary institutional curricular and co-curricular activities, an institute that does not attract and retain a high-caliber faculty evokes particular concern. Satisfaction with teaching as a career is an important policy issue since it is associated with teacher effectiveness which ultimately affects student achievement (Ashton and Webb, 1986; Carnegie Task Force on Teaching, 1986). Because faculty are both the largest cost and the largest human capital resource of a school system, understanding factors that contribute to teacher satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) is essential to improving the information base needed to support a successful educational system. Satisfaction with teaching as a long-term career versus more temporary satisfaction with a particular job during a career is a broader and, in some ways, more important consideration for developing the nation’s teaching force. People's work-related satisfaction consists of achieving change and improvement, and promoting their growth, which have important implications on teachers' behaviours at work and affect

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their desire to continue their work and their involvement in the job, and relationship with other staff (Dinham & Scott, 2000; Ratlif, 1988).

With teachers, satisfaction with their career may have strong implications for student learning. Specifically, a teacher’s satisfaction with his or her career may influence the quality and stability of instruction given to students. In addition, highly satisfied teachers are less likely to change schools or to leave the teaching profession altogether than those who are dissatisfied with many areas of their work life (Choy et al., 1993). These actions disrupt the school environment and result in the shift of valuable educational resources away from actual instruction towards costly staff replacement efforts.

1.5.1 Theories of job satisfaction

Whereas job satisfaction pertains to positive feelings that individuals have relative to their job, job dissatisfaction indicates negative feelings that individuals have regarding their job or facets of their job (Spector, 1997). The theories of job satisfaction can be divided into three broad categories i.e content theories, process theories and situational theories.

❖ Content Theories

When discussing human needs, growth, and self-actualization, one cannot look far before finding Maslow and his “hierarchy of needs”. Maslow’s (1954) traditionalist views of job satisfaction were based on his five-tier model of human needs. At the lowest tier, basic life sustaining needs such as water, food, and shelter were identified. The next level consisted of physical and financial security, while the third tier included needs of social acceptance, belonging, and love. The fourth tier incorporated self-esteem needs and recognition by one’s peers, and at the top of the pyramid was reserved for self-actualization needs such as personal autonomy and self-direction. According to Maslow, the needs of an individual exist in a logical order and that the basic lower level needs must be satisfied before those at higher levels. Then, once the basic needs are fulfilled, they no longer serve as motivators for the individual. The more a job allows for growth and acquisition of higher level needs, the more likely the individual is to report satisfaction with his or her job. Furthermore, the success of motivating people
depends on recognizing the needs that are unsatisfied and helping the individual to meet those needs.

Building on the theories of Maslow, Herzburg (1974) suggested that the work itself could serve as a principal source of job satisfaction. His approach led to the aforementioned two-continuum model of job satisfaction where job satisfaction was placed on one continuum and job dissatisfaction was placed on a second. Herzberg’s theory recognized that work characteristics generated by dissatisfaction were quite different from those created by satisfaction. He identified the factors that contribute to each dimension as “motivators” and “hygienes”. The motivators are intrinsic factors that influence satisfaction based on fulfillment of higher level needs such as achievement, recognition, and opportunity for growth. The hygiene factors are extrinsic variables that such as work conditions, pay, and interpersonal relationships that must be met to prevent dissatisfaction. When hygiene factors are poor, work will be dissatisfying. However, simply removing the poor hygienes does not equate to satisfaction. Similarly, when people are satisfied with their job, motivators are present, but removing the motivators does not automatically lead to dissatisfaction. Essentially, job satisfaction depends on the extrinsic characteristics of the job, in relation to the job’s ability to fulfill ones higher level needs of self-actualization.

تطوير النظريات

تطوير النظريات تلقيح خلايا وأعمال (Gruneberg, 1979). هذه نظرية 만족 العمل تشير إلى أن العاملين يختارون تصرفاتهم تلبية احتياجاتهم. في هذا الإطار، أدى آدامز (1963) ووروم (1982) إلى أن تكون أكثرة الخريجين. آدامز أشار أن الناس ينظرون إلى عملهم كسلسلة من المدخلات والنتائج. المدخلات مثل الخبرة، القدرات والجهد، بينما النتائج تشمل الأمور مثل الدخل، التقدير، والفرص. الحالة تتم بناءً على الفرضية أن 만족 العمل هو نتيجة مباشرة لنظر الآخرين. علاوة على ذلك، يشعر الناس بسعادة في العمل عندما يكون الإدخال أو التساهم في عملهم أو النتائج المترتبة متناسبة مع ذلك من خلال العملاء. هذه التكافؤ الاجتماعي لا ينطبق على ذلك من خلال العملاء. هذا التكافؤ الاجتماعي لا ينطبق على العملاء.
limited to others within the same workplace, and the equity comparisons often reach into other organizations that are viewed as similar places of employment.

Vroom’s (1964) theory of job satisfaction was similar in that it looked at the interaction between personal and workplace variables; however, he also incorporated the element of workers’ expectations into his theory. The essence of this theory is that if workers put forth more effort and perform better at work, then they will be compensated accordingly. Discrepancies that occur between expected compensation and actual outcome lead to dissatisfaction. If employees receive less than they expect or otherwise feel as if they have been treated unfairly, then dissatisfaction may occur. Conversely, overcompensation may also lead to dissatisfaction and the employee may experience feelings of guilt. The compensation does not have to be monetary, but pay is typically the most visible and most easily modified element of outcome. Salary also has significance beyond monetary value and the potential to acquire material items. Gruneberg (1979) notes that it is also an indication of personal achievement, organizational status, and recognition. Vroom’s theory also goes one step further to incorporate an individual’s personal decision making within the workplace. Vroom (1982) explained that employees would choose to do or not do job tasks based on their perceived ability to carry out the task and earn fair compensation. To illustrate and clarify his ideas, Vroom generated a three-variable equation for scientifically determining job satisfaction. Expectancy is the first variable, and this is the individual’s perception of how well he or she can carry out the given task. Instrumentality is the second variable of the equation, and this refers to the individual’s confidence that he or she will be compensated fairly for performing the task. Valence is the third variable, which considers the value of the expected reward to the employee. In Vroom’s formula each variable is given a probability value, and when all three factors are high, workers will be more satisfied and have more motivation. If any of the factors are low, work performance and employee motivation will decline.

❖ Situational Theories

The situational occurrences theory emerged in 1992, when it was stated that job satisfaction is determined by two factors: situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Situational characteristics are things such as pay, supervision,
working conditions, promotional opportunities, and company policies that typically are considered by the employee before accepting the job. The situational occurrences are things that occur after taking a job that may be tangible or intangible, positive or negative. Positive occurrences might include extra vacation time, while negative occurrences might entail faulty equipment or strained coworker relationships. Within this theoretical framework, job satisfaction is a product of both situational factors and situational occurrences.

If an individual is stressed in his job i.e. he is facing some kind of problem in dealing with the work load or professional and personal problems, he is going to be dissatisfied with his job. Occupational stress and job satisfaction are closely related as job satisfaction in one way or the other is affected by the amount of occupational stress.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

The general impression about occupational stress is the feeling of failure due to work overload. But if this were the case, the problem would have been very simple. In that instance, merely by reducing the amount of work, occupational stress could have been done away with. However the problem is not that easy to pinpoint. For many years researches on stress and coping strategies have been confined to clinical areas. The area of teaching has been considered as the easiest and least stressed. The role of schools and contributions of our teachers to society are immense. The strength of our economy, realization of democratic principles, and quality of life depend to a large extent on our educational system and quality of teaching. Teaching is interpersonal, attitudinal, extra classroom as well as intra – classroom oriented. To be a teacher is to be a member of a special profession. A teacher has to display exceptional empathy, persistence, diligence, sincerity, research orientation, honesty and flexibility as a person. Teachers in our society have performed this role admirably and have shaped the accomplishments of whole generations of children. The nation not only expects them to continue, it depends on teachers to do so. The nation’s interest in training and maintaining the performance and fitness of our teachers continues to be high. The quality of a nation depends upon the quality of its teachers. Education is powerful instrument of the socio, political and economical development of the country. Hence, the success of the educational process to a great extent depends on the character, ability and personality of the teacher who is the foundation stone of the doorway of
education. Teachers and teaching have been subjected to unrelenting criticism over the past three decades. What this has failed to recognize is the increasing complexity and responsibility of educating the children and youth. The ecology of the school and classroom of the 1940s was significantly different from that of today. It is thus not difficult to understand why teachers are so vulnerable to stress. Teachers enter the profession with high expectations, a vision of the future, and a mission to educate our children and youth. The demands, pressures, and conditions they work under can throttle this zeal and present obstacles to achieving their mission. This leads to disappointment and eventually stress.

Teachers play the most important role in the teaching learning process. Most teachers, howsoever bright, experienced and well read, experience some amount of stress in one way or the other. Like many of their counterparts elsewhere, teachers in India have to live up to a great many expectations. Besides routine work like preparing lessons, teaching, marking assignments, they have to individualize instruction, to personalize reinforcements, to be innovative and creative, to adapt to new changes and meet new challenges. They have to attend seminars and a variety of meetings with colleagues, students, parents, etc. They have to conduct and oversee extra-curricular activities, and morning assemblies. Their heavy work load is more than the teachers can shoulder. In the last few decades, the education expected by the society and the needs of the students have changed tremendously. People, especially parents, nowadays have been subjected to the daily diet of information and news about the world through the mass media. Parents as well as school principals have become more and more critical of both course content and teaching methods. Students are no longer contented merely with acquiring factual knowledge from textbooks. They are more active and inquisitive and would be dissatisfied if teachers just read from the books when they teach. In recent years, the general public has become more vocal in its criticism of school operation. No system of education is better than its teachers. The quality of education and the standards of achievement are inseparably inter-related with the quality of teachers. In this context it is quite apt to recall the observation of the Indian education commission (1964-66), “of all the different factors which influence the quality of teacher, competency and character of teacher are undoubtedly the most significant. Nothing is more important than securing a supply of high quality recruits of the teaching profession, providing them with the best possible professional
preparation and creating satisfactory conditions of work in which they can be fully effective.”

If teachers fail to cope up with stress, their physical and emotional health may be adversely affected. Occupational stress from both inside and outside school would activate teacher’s perception of stress and satisfaction. In the modern time, teachers work under varying amounts of stress and strain. As an outcome of stress and dissatisfactions, they lose interest in their professional responsibilities and consequently students’ preparation for future life gets adversely affected. Stressful and dissatisfied teachers are likely to have less attachment with their institution and less dedication to their profession. Their low level of involvement, unfavourable work values and dissatisfaction with teaching is detrimental for the interest of teaching as well as student community. This can lead to lowering the standard of education. The problem we are faced with is not a simple one. Stress is so prevalent in teaching that they have a vast detrimental effect on the teaching-learning process. Stress may be viewed as disabilities which are manifest in teachers performing far below their maximum potential, regardless of how well prepared and committed they are. In the view of many informed observers and researchers, the problem has reached a crisis level and demands a response.

So it is necessary to understand the job satisfaction of secondary school teachers and the nature of impact that may be produced by different demographic variables and job satisfaction on the occupational stress of the teachers. In the past studies related to stress have been conducted in the area of clinical research and industrial organizations. In the area of teaching, the studies on stress have been confined to either primary school teachers or to the Principals. The present study was planned to study the occupational stress and coping strategies of secondary school teachers in relation to their job satisfaction.

1.7 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL STRESS IN RELATION TO JOB SATISFACTION AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS AND THEIR COPING STRATEGIES
1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present study was conducted:

1. To study the occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.
2. To compare the occupational stress of male and female secondary school teachers of Punjab.
3. To compare the occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab from different streams of teaching (science & mathematics stream and others).
4. To compare the occupational stress of more experienced and less experienced secondary school teachers of Punjab.
5. To compare the occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab with different levels of job satisfaction.
6. To study the coping strategies used by secondary school teachers of Punjab.
7. To study the main and interactional effects of job satisfaction on occupational stress among secondary school teachers of Punjab in relation to following demographic variables:
   a. Gender
   b. Streams of teaching (science & mathematics stream and others).
   c. Experience
8. To compare the coping strategies used by male and female secondary school teachers of Punjab.
9. To compare the coping strategies used by more experienced and less experienced secondary school teachers of Punjab.
10. To compare the coping strategies used by secondary school teachers of Punjab from different streams of teaching (science & mathematics stream and others).
11. To study the main and interactional effects of job satisfaction on occupational stress among secondary school teachers of Punjab in relation to following demographic variables:
   d. Gender
   e. Streams of teaching (science & mathematics stream and others).
   f. Experience
1.9 HYPOTHESES

H1: There will be no significant difference in occupational stress of male and female secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H2: There will be no significant difference in occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab with different streams of teaching (science & mathematics and others).

H3: There will be no significant difference in occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab with different years of experience.

H4: There will be no significant difference in occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab with different levels of job satisfaction.

H5: There will be no significant interactional effect of gender and stream of teaching on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H6: There will be no significant interactional effect of gender and different years of experience on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H7: There will be no significant interactional effect of gender and different levels of job satisfaction on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H8: There will be no significant interactional effect of stream of teaching and different years of experience on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H9: There will be no significant interactional effect of stream of teaching and different levels of job satisfaction on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H10: There will be no significant interactional effect of different years of experience and different levels of job satisfaction on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.
H11: There will be no significant interactional effect of gender, streams of teaching and different years of experience on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H12: There will be no significant interactional effect of gender, streams of teaching and different levels of job satisfaction on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H13: There will be no significant interactional effect of gender, different years of experience and different levels of job satisfaction on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H14: There will be no significant interactional effect of streams of teaching, different years of experience and different levels of job satisfaction on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H15: There will be no significant interactional effect of gender, streams of teaching, different years of experience and different levels of job satisfaction on occupational stress of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H16: There will be no significant relationship between nature of coping strategies used by male and female secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H17: There will be no significant relationship between nature of coping strategies used by less experienced and more experienced secondary school teachers of Punjab.

H18: There will be no significant relationship between nature of coping strategies used by secondary school teachers of Punjab from different streams of teaching (mathematics and science and others).

1.10 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The study was limited to the schools of four districts of Punjab namely Mohali, Patiala, Ropar and Fatehgarh sahib.
2. The study was restricted to government schools because difference in organizational climate of private and government schools may affect the variables of the study.

1.11 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF KEY WORDS

- **Occupational Stress**

  Occupational stress describes physical, mental and emotional wear and tear brought about by incongruence between the requirement of the job and the capabilities, resources and needs of the occupation to cope with job demands.

- **Job satisfaction**

  Job satisfaction describes how content an individual is with his or her job. It refers to the favourable, positive feelings about one’s profession and the work environment.

- **Demographic variables**

  The demographic variables used in the study are Gender, Streams of teaching (science & mathematics stream and others) and Teaching experience of the secondary school teachers of Punjab.

- **Coping strategies**

  Coping refers to the cognitive and behavioral efforts adopted by the teachers to manage specific external and/or internal demands appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the teachers.