Chapter-1

Introduction
1.1 Introduction

The present age has been called the age of anxiety and life is not as simple as most of us think. With the rapid changes in the world around us sometimes it seems difficult to keep in pace and adjust according to these changing situations. Likewise, individuals often feel helpless in solving their problems and thereby increase their frustrations. Variety in the nature of problems makes it difficult to maintain equilibrium of mind, and this disequilibrium ultimately leads to stress. Stress is common in the world of day to day activities, and is not something strange to our daily life anymore. Being familiar to layman and professionals both, it is still perceived as a problem to people of all walks of life. Stress produces a range of undesirable, expensive, and debilitating consequences (Ross, 2005), which affect both individuals and organizations. Too much of stress may be counterproductive and would in due course impair both an individual’s physical and mental health. When individuals experience extreme stress, all aspects of human behavior, including the work in which they are actively involved get affected. Stress holds an impact on the employee’s physical health, mental well-being, effectiveness in the workplace, reduces the efficiency in workers and has been increasing in recent years (Spielberger & Reheiser, 1995). Evidences through various researches and studies prove that nothing can isolate stress from human beings. Stress, thus, is an integral part of the natural fabric of life that affects people of all ages, socioeconomic status, occupation, and ethnic group.

The term “stress” was first introduced by Hans Selye, who characterized it as a process in which environmental forces threaten an individual’s well-being. The researcher (Selye, 1976) further defined stress as a physiological non-specific reaction to external or internal demands. Stress is a state of mental or emotional strain or suspense, and; a number of normal reactions of the body (mental, emotional, and physiological) designed for self-preservation (Princeton University, 2001). Despite its diffuse perception, most of the well-known definitions emphasize stress as any factor that threatens the health of an individual or has an adverse effect on the functioning of the body (Oxford Medical Publications, 1985). Stress is a perception phenomenon.
which exists from a comparison between the command given and ability of a person to execute the task successfully. Unbalanced situation in this mechanism leads to stress experience and ultimately into stress reaction (Cox & Brockley, 1984).

Stress, in general, and occupational stress, in particular, is a fact of modern day life that seems to have been increasing. Stress is an unavoidable characteristic of life and work. Work-related stress is defined as, “a pattern of emotional, cognitive, behavioral and physiological reactions to adverse and noxious aspects of work content, work organization and work environment” (European Commission, 2002). Stress involving work is termed as Occupational Stress. It occurs when there is discrepancy between the demands of the workplace and that of individual’s (Tsutsumi et al., 2009). Beehr and Newman (1978) defined occupational stress as a stimulus wherein the job related factors interact with the workers to change (i.e., or enhance) his/ her psychological and/ or physiological condition so that the person (i.e., mind/ body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning. 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, Akinboye, & Adeyemo, 2002).

Stress is a widespread feature of work in teaching. The teaching profession is one of the helping professions in which practitioners are normally committed to giving their best for the welfare of those entrusted in their care. Researchers (Bravo et al., 2010; Morris, 2010; Severino & Messina, 2010) believed teacher to be the most significant environment factor at student learning. The main task of a teacher comprises of imparting knowledge or skill through instruction. Simultaneously, teachers have to live up to a great many expectations besides their routine work like preparing lessons, teaching, marking assignments, etc. They also have to individualize instruction, personalize reinforcements, to be innovative and creative, to adapt to new changes and meet new challenges. Other than this, teachers have to attend seminars, a variety of meetings with colleagues, students and parents etc. They have to oversee extra-curricular activities, and to attend or conduct morning assemblies in many mission schools. Teachers hold the responsibility to guide students to learn by providing clear directions and explanations in order to educate the future generation. Moreover, they act as role models and their each action taken; reflect upon their
professional status as teachers. Their heavy workload is more than they can shoulder and they, therefore, experience stress to a great extent.

The working environment for teachers is highly stress-provoking (Sveinsdottir, Gunarsdottir, & Fridriksdottir, 2007). High stress level of a teacher causes disappointment, frustration, aggression, anxiety, avoidance of work, increased absenteeism, and/or decreased teachers and student performance levels (Kaiser & Polczynski, 1982). In addition to this, facets of teacher performance, such as creativity, classroom management, and implementation of educational techniques, may suffer when teachers experience high levels of stress (Kaiser & Polczynski, 1982; Solomon, 1960). Organizational stress affects the teacher’s psychological, physical and behavioral responses (Beard, 1990; Ferreira, 1994; Marais, 1992). Severe physical and psychological consequences for teachers include, fatigue, anxiety, depression, poor teaching performance and judgment as well as low job satisfaction (Capel, 1987; Eckles, 1987). Researchers (Riaz & Ramzan, 2013) further advocated that the main signs of stress among teachers’ include tension, pain in the neck/shoulders, and/or suffer from migraine and emotional expression. Stressed teachers, thus, have more illness (Bailey, 2013), medicine intake, anxiety, depression, and sexual passivity. In schools, teacher stress is manifested in a growing number of teacher absences per year as well as an increase in early retirement. Stress is reported as one of the biggest problems faced by teachers today, and that it is the main health and safety concern in four out of five schools (National Union of Teachers, 1999).

Teacher stress is seen as the unpleasant feelings that teachers experience as a result of their work (Boyle et al., 1995). Some teachers have defined stress as anxiety, fear, inability to cope, frustration and unhappiness (Pratt, 1979), while others associate stress with personal weakness and professional incompetence (Dunham, 1984). Teacher stress has been described as negative feeling or unpleasant emotional state resulting from work as a teacher (Kyriacou, 1989). Occupational stress of school teachers is a “response by a teacher of negative effect (such as anger, anxiety or depression) accompanied by potentially pathogenic physiological changes (such as increased heart rate, or release of adrenocorticotrophic hormone into the bloodstream) as a result of the demands made upon the teacher in his role as a teacher”, (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1977). Its most common occupational use- i.e., “under stress”-
implies a “response syndrome of negative effects resulting from the teacher’s job” (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978b).

Moreover, occupational stress has been associated with burnout, which is considered a product of long term exposure to stress (Burke & Greenglass, 1994; Mearns & Cain, 2003). Also, exposure to chronic stress can cause teachers to experience symptoms of burnout. This robs the individual of the will to achieve, and contributes to the development of a lowered sense of self-esteem, decrements in work performance, cynicism and apathy (Sarros, 1988). Freudenberger (1980) simply equated burnout with stress. In general, burnout is a function of feeling inconsequential-feeling that no matter how hard one works, the payoffs in terms of accomplishment, recognition, or appreciation are not there. Gold and Bachelor (2001) defined burnout as “a function of the many stresses felt by individuals in both their social life and their work experiences”.

Beehr and Franz (1987) argued that any study of organizational stress must focus on stressors and strains; its antecedents and its outcomes. A stressor is defined as an experience or situation within or outside the individual, which elicits a stress response. It is the individual’s unique perception, which determines whether the stress is viewed as negative or positive (Hayward, 1993). A wide range of organizational stressors has been identified across different teachers in different contexts. Typically, they include stressors in the areas of work role (e.g., workload); administration; class size; role ambiguity and conflict, (e.g., the sometimes conflicting demands of school management); the pressures of the teachers’ roles (e.g., counselor, facilitator); poor working conditions; little recognition and low remuneration; lack of involvement in decision-making; student recalcitrance; lack of effective communication, as well as the many emotional demands of teaching (Blix et al., 1994; Brown & Ralph, 1992; Cooper & Kelly, 1993; Punch & Tuetteman, 1990). Furthermore, the factors reported by teachers as being troublesome or stressful have indicated student discipline, negative student attitudes toward school, physical violence, inadequate preparation time, lack of resources, in-competent administration, lack of clear role definition, and heavy workloads (Beasley, Myette, & Serna, 1983; Chichon & Koff, 1978; Golladay & Noel, 1978; Olander & Farrell, 1970).

The nature and causes of teacher stress is complex (Borg & Riding, 1991a). Dunham (1992) advocated that three main approaches could be used to understand the
nature of stress in teaching. The first one is analogous to the "engineering" model of stress. There are external pressures exerted on teachers in schools, and teachers have limits to stress. In this approach, stress is a set of causes. The second approach is based on the "physiological" model, which focuses on the forms of reactions taken by teachers in response to these pressures. They may be emotional and bodily manifestations. The third one is the interactional approach that emphasizes the need to identify the sources of stress and the behavior that they adopt to cope with these demands. Mearns and Cain (2003) have examined the role different factors may play in relation to teacher stress such as environmental factors, contextual factors, and teacher coping and personality characteristics.

One of the frequent causes of stress in secondary schools is learners’ disrupting the process of education and low levels of motivation (Payne & Furnham, 1987; Kyriacou, 1987). The discipline and classroom control issues cause interpersonal stress for teachers at all grade levels. The other frequently stated causes of stress among teachers are large number of students in a classroom, packed timetable, uneven duties, uncomfortable working conditions, co-curriculum activities, meetings, in-house trainings, courses to attend extra classes, unnecessary amounted paperwork (Hunnur et al., 2013), incompatible and excessive demands on teachers, and frequent school reforms (Wahlund & Nerell, 1976). In addition, a study in Bahrain by Al-Khalefa (1999) found work conditions, salaries, bonuses and allowances, status of physical education, supervision, school facilities, workload and career development to be the major causes of stress for physical education teachers.

Furthermore, Farber (1984) assessed the sources of stress of suburban teachers in the United States and found that excessive paperwork, unsuccessful administrative meetings, and the lack of advancement opportunities in teaching were related to stress. Workload, lack of resources, poor professional relationships with colleagues, inadequate salary, pupil misbehavior, difficult interactions with parents and expectations of other staff have been identified as sources of stress in many studies (Borg, Riding & Falzon, 1991; Boyle et al., 1995; Pierce & Molloy, 1990; Pithers & Soden, 1998; Travers & Cooper, 1993). Other sources of occupational stress reported include poor working conditions, work overload or underload, role conflict and ambiguity, unsatisfactory career development and erratic work hours (Quick & Quick, 1984). Smilansky (1984) examined teachers' work satisfaction and reports of job-
related stress in some English elementary schools, and he found that teachers' general satisfaction and stress at work were related mostly to their reported feelings about what had happened within class (such as relations with pupils, the process of teaching, and pupil behavior in school) rather than to administrative or policy questions (such as degree of work autonomy, relations with principals).

Increase in workload, a hostile environment, large classes, delay and non-payment of salaries, poor working environment, poor condition of service, parents’ insults and assaults, and time pressure have been identified as sources of occupational stress (Jack and Punch, 2001). It is widely accepted that many identified teacher stressors appear consistently and may be classified under the general domains of environmental and personality based stressors. Environmental stressors include student discipline and attitude problems, teacher competence, and teacher-administrator relations. Additional stressors include accountability laws, large classes, low salaries, intense pupil dependence, and declining community support. Sources of personality-induced stressors relate to one’s self-perception. In addition, stressful events in the teacher’s domestic life may also influence his or her overall emotional, cognitive, and behavioral state. It is well accepted that highly stressed teachers let work dominate their lives to such an extent that instead of coping with their stress, they brought work home, cutting back on their social and family lives. According to Lasky (1995), demands associated with family and finances can be a major source of ‘extra-organizational’ stress that can complicate, or even precipitate, work-place stress. The prevalence of stress among teachers is now well documented. The lack of discipline in schools, abolishment of corporal punishment, unmotivated learners, redeployment, retrenchments and retirement packages for teachers, large pupil-teacher ratios and a new curriculum approach all contribute to raising the stress levels of teachers (Saptoe, 2000).

The teaching context (teachers’ background, sex, experience, teaching load, class composition, school, teaching subject, workload), personal factors and satisfaction have been found to all directly affect a teacher’s stress level (Hodge, 1992; Smith & Bourke, 1992; Tuetteman & Punch, 1992). Demographic factors may play a significant role in the level of occupational stress felt by teachers and other staff (Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Kyriacou, 2001). Demographic variables that are proven to relate to someone’s job stressor/health relationships include gender, age,
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marital status, job tenure, job title, and hierarchical level (Dua, 1994; Lind & Otte, 1994; Murphy, 1995), among which gender, age and hierarchical level were found to be the most significant. In particular, the literature suggests four variables that may have significant interactions with occupational stress: gender, age, experience in the job and position (Antoniou et al., 2006; Lau, Yuen & Chan, 2005; Laughlin, 1984a; Manthei & Gilmore, 1996; McCormick, 1997a; Punch & Tuetteman, 1996). On the contrary, some studies reported that teacher demographic factors like age, sex, teaching experience, and length of training did not correlate significantly with perceived teacher stress (Chichon & Koff, 1978; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978b), as further explanations reveal.

Workplace stress has emerged as a major problem, and it has been suggested that gender may be an important demographic characteristic to consider in the experience of stress (Dick & Wagner, 2001; Jick & Mitz, 1985; Laughlin, 1984a; McCormick, 1997a; Punch & Tuetteman, 1996). However, the literature is far from conclusive about the nature of the relationship gender has with occupational stress (Spielberger & Reheiser, 1995). For example, McCormick (2000) in his study of Australian Catholic school teachers reported that males experienced significantly more stress attributed to system demands than females. Crane and Iwanicki (1986) also found male special education teachers to exhibit higher levels of stress than females. Results from a study by Bhagawan (1997) on job stress among 53 male and 47 female teachers indicated that male teachers experienced more stress compared to female teachers. The findings have been echoed by many researchers (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 2001; Tumkaya, 2001).

On the other hand, Laughlin (1984a) in his study of Australian teachers reported that female teachers experienced more stress than their male colleagues. This finding has been echoed by other studies (Al-Mohannadi & Capel, 2007; Antoniou et al., 2006; McCormick & Solman, 1992b). Females employed in education and related sectors accounted for more work stress related claims than their male colleagues (Guthrie, 2006). Calabrese (1987) asserted that female teachers experienced higher levels of stress than males, and indicated that societal, personal, and that organizational factors all negatively influence the female teachers.

There is also an abundance of research suggesting no gender differences in occupational stress (Chan, 2002; Chaplain, 1995; Dick & Wagner, 2001; Jepson &

Years of experience in the profession would also contribute to stress levels. It could be that, as stress is cumulative, the longer they have been a teacher, the more stressed they will be. The study by Sari (2004) among Turkish special school teachers has been found to support this notion. Quite opposite to this, Blix et al. (1994) found that faculty having less than 10 years of experience had higher stress than faculty with more than 20 years of experience. A correlation between younger teachers and reports of higher stress levels has also been presented by the researchers (Altemaier, Russell, & Van Velzen, 1987; Maslach & Jackson, 1996). Similarly, Malcolmson, Naylor, and Schaefer (2003) indicated younger, less-experienced teachers report both more stress and lesser ability to cope with it, as compared with their older and more experienced colleagues. However, a number of studies suggest that experience has no relationship with occupational stress (Chaplain, 1995; Jepson & Forrest, 2006; Solman & Feld, 1989). Feitler and Tokar (1982) found that stress levels did not covary with years of teaching experience.

Some studies have been found to posit the relationship of occupational stress with the teachers’ qualification. A study by Lawrenson and McKinnon (1982) found that master’s level teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD) have higher attrition rates than those with bachelor’s degrees. Cooper and Kelly (1993) found that primary school teachers suffer more stress than secondary school teachers, deputy head teachers and head teachers. Similarly, New Zealand primary and secondary teachers in urban and rural areas were found to report ‘high’ or ‘extremely high’ levels of occupational stress (Manthei & Solman, 1988). Most studies of work stress in teachers have found that junior and secondary teachers experience similar levels of stress and distress, and that teachers in one place are about as stressed as their colleagues elsewhere (Finlay-Jones & Burvill, 1977; Nagy & Davis, 1985).
Stressors arising from the non-work personal domain, such as family and financial stressors, may contribute to occupational stress levels in an additive way (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987). Olivier and Venter (2003) in their research observed that respondents indicated that salaries cause a great deal of stress, especially taking into account the after-hours input their jobs demand from them and how negatively their salaries compare with those of people in the private sector and other government departments. That is perhaps the reason why some teachers embark on second jobs, mostly to the detriment of the school and the learners. Al-Qaryoti and Al-Khateeb (2006) also found a relationship between teacher’s salary satisfaction and their burnout. Teachers of some school subjects may be more stressed than teachers generally (Bergin & Solman, 1988; Friesen & Sarros, 1989; Hamann, 1990; Sarros & Friesen, 1987). There is some evidence that music teachers could be one of these more stressed groups (Malik, 1970).

The relationship between job satisfaction and occupational stress has been well established in the literature as a negative one. That is to say, higher job satisfaction is related to lower occupational stress, and vice versa (Bhatti et al., 2011; Burke & Greenglass, 1994; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Day, Bedeian & Conte, 1998; Manthei & Gilmore, 1996; McCormick, 1997b; Murphy & Schoenborn, 1989). Mishra (1987), Srivastava (1987), Penn, Romano, & Foat (1988), Parsa, Alizadeh, & Kasraie (2013) found a significant negative relation between occupational stress and job satisfaction. In addition to this, a statistically significant negative correlation between stress and job satisfaction has been observed by Ostroff (1992) in her study of job satisfaction, attitudes, and performance in schools. The findings are in corrobororation to Carr (1993), and Decker and Borgen (1993) who also noted a correlation between burnout and job satisfaction.

Studies examining the dimensions of job satisfaction and stress variables have shown that stress factors, such as role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload have differing strengths of relationships with job satisfaction, though the direction of the relationships are generally still negative (Ray & Miller, 1991; Smith & Bourke, 1992; Starnaman & Miller, 1992). For example, Currivan (2000) reported that role ambiguity was more strongly related to job satisfaction than role conflict. In another study, role ambiguity and role conflict had relationships of various strength with extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction (Summers, DeCotiis, & DeNisi, 1995). Despite
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the differences in terminology and measurement, most studies have obtained significant negative relationships between role conflict and/or role ambiguity and job satisfaction (Greene & Organ, 1973; Kahn et al., 1964; Lyons, 1971; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Tosi (1971), however, failed to find a significant relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction. Thus, a direction of causality cannot be specified for job satisfaction and occupational stress. They influence one another.

It is to be noted that Herzberg’s two-factor theory posits that job satisfaction comes from one set of job variables (called motivator needs or satisfiers) and job dissatisfaction from another set of variables (hygiene factors or dissatisfiers). Satisfiers include recognition, responsibility for one’s work, personal growth, achievement and advancement, while dissatisfiers include other aspects of work external to the self, such as pay, relationships with colleagues and supervisors, work conditions and security (Herzberg, 1968). Most interestingly, this theory considers job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as separate constructs. The absence of hygiene factors was believed to lead to job dissatisfaction, but their fulfillment did not lead to job satisfaction. Similarly, the presence of motivator needs led to job satisfaction, but their absence did not lead to dissatisfaction. Also, teachers reporting higher job satisfaction were more likely to identify stress arising from personal issues as sources of stress. Corrigan, Holmes and Luchins (1995) reported that satisfaction with collegial support was associated with diminished burnout. Teachers’ satisfaction is generally determined by school factors, community factors and the characteristics of the teacher (Appiah-Agyekum, Suapim, & Peprah, 2013); and the greatest sources of job satisfaction among teachers include healthy school environments, favorable workplace conditions, supportive school administrations and adequate parental supports, and proper salaries and fringe benefits (Adams, 1992).

Also, occupational stress can make teachers dissatisfied and weaken/ lower their work values. If an organization can provide individuals with the basic elements they value, stress is reduced (Knoop, 1994b). Besides, the meaning attached to work has been changing through the developmental stage of human society. Work is considered something that is physical in nature and included the kinds of activities one is obliged ‘to do’. Ideally, work consists of activities through which one may realize his complex values. Values are capable of being structurally organized within
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the individual and the society not only in terms of priority, but also in terms of extensiveness of adherence to any particular value and consistency (Williams, 1970).

Work related values include those motivationally relevant factors which energize and sustain human behavior at work. These work values assist in defining career paths and goals (Brown et al., 2002). Work related values, therefore, cover the broad context of motivation in organization. Responsibility theory (McCormick, 2000) that explains teacher occupational stress, posits that teachers blame their occupational stress on various aspects of the work environment (McCormick & Solman, 1992a) and that, factors of the work environment (such as students, school administration and the school system) are separate work domains to which teachers may attribute their stress (McCormick, 1997a; 1997b; 2000). In this vein, stressors such as work relationship, work-life balance, job overload, job control, job security, pay and benefits, resources and communication, as well as aspects of the job could also be the source of pressure in the workplace (Makhbul & Khairuddin, 2013).

Organizational culture embraces the values, character, attitudes, language and beliefs of an organization. Most organizational cultures consist of a dominant culture that signifies the core values shared by the majority of the organization’s members, and many subcultures that reflect common experiences and difficulties shared by smaller groups of members (Robbins et al., 1994). The climate that persists in the organization can be potential source of stressors. The freedom given to plan the work, weightage given to the views and opinions, participation in decision making, sense of belonging, free and fair communication and sympathetic approach towards personal problems were considered to measure the stressors in organizational climate.

Organizational commitment is one of the most important job-related outcomes that is attitudinal in nature and is negatively related to work stress in many studies conducted by different researchers (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Sager, 1994), which means higher the work stress, lower the level of organizational commitment. Yousef (2002) found that role ambiguity which is considered as one of the stressors, directly and negatively influenced the organizational commitment i.e. affective and continuance commitments. Interestingly, Shirotriya and Quraishi (2013) observed job work load, job work ambiguity, job work conflict, job work pressure, under job work participation, powerlessness, work job peer relations, intrinsic impoverishment, job work support, strenuous job work conditions, on job recognition, infrastructure and
equipments, on job development opportunities, and prevailing misconceptions to be the major causes of occupational stress for physical education teachers.

Merbler, Schlichte, and Yssel (2005) found that when relationships are poor, attrition is increased. This sentiment has been echoed in the finding by the researchers (Betoret, 2006; Le Blanc et al., 2001, Montgomery & Rupp, 2005; Teven, 2007) that where collegial relationships were seen as supportive and a resource, rather than as an obstacle or hindrance, burnout levels were lower. Abbey and Esposito (1985) observed that teachers who perceive greater social support from their principals’ report less stress than those who do not receive any social support. The research conducted by Shea (1990) put forth that teacher who gets support from experienced parents of students and colleagues show lighter stress reactions. Studies of teachers have produced equivocal results. Pierce and Molloy (1990) found that high burnout teachers reported lower social support than did low burnout teachers. Setting up shared decision-making processes in schools, such as governance councils, allows teachers to participate in school processes rather than feel subordinate to their principals and coerced into participating in school and teacher responsibilities (Nagel & Brown, 2003). Competition amongst colleagues and differences in personality clashes amongst fellow workers can give rise to stress (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997).

On the other hand, Sheffield, Dobbie and Carroll (1994) reported that social support did not affect the impact of teacher stress on psychological well-being. Significant indicators of job satisfaction which emerged from Mwamwenda’s study (1995) included positive relationships between teachers and principals, colleagues, learners, and parents; holidays; learner’s results and achievements. According to Sutherland and Cooper (1990), the quality of interpersonal relationships at work is important in that supportive relationships are less likely to create pressures associated with rivalry, bickering and gossip mongering. In addition, the superior-subordinate relationship can be potentially stressful when the leadership style is authoritarian, lacks understanding that feedback about performance and recognition and praise for effort are beneficial for boss-subordinate relationship. In conjunction with this, Cartwright and Cooper (1997) indicate that in situations where the relationship between supervisor and subordinate is psychologically unhealthy, problems of emotional instability may occur. Clearly, a key predictor of stress, burnout and eventually attrition is the relationships between colleagues.
Although classroom discipline is a well documented source of teacher stress (Lewis, 1999), this situation is exacerbated when teachers are faced with having to deal with pupil-teacher ratios of 1050:15 (Webb, 2005). Empirical evidence indicates that a teacher's personality influences the classroom climate, students' behaviors, and their interpersonal relationships (Shukla, 2013). Several authors (Burke, Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996; Byrne, 1993) indicated overall classroom climate and student discipline problems were cited as among the most powerful factors that contribute to teacher burnout. Because, as the quality of the classroom climate gets worse, teachers can become emotionally exhausted, develop negative attitudes toward their students and their job, and accomplish few educational goals for their students. As compared to the large body of literature that focuses on positive teacher communication behaviors, fewer studies have been done on negative teacher communication behaviors (Wanzer & McCroskey, 1998). Kyriacou (2001) suggests that few studies have examined the impact of pupil behavior problems and pupil-teacher interaction on teacher stress.

According to Abidin and Kmetz (1997), teacher-student relationships are one of the factors that influence teachers’ stress, and the stresses developed by teachers are reflected in their behavior towards students. They further added, if teachers' stress levels increase, this will decrease their positive behavior towards the students, and the teacher will avoid contact or ignore the students. The more stress induced by the students, the less engaged the teacher will be with the students, affects the teacher-student relationship (Abidin & Kmetz, 1997). Class discipline and student misbehavior has been noted as a main factor contributing to teacher burnout and discontent (Zeidner, 1988). Moreover, the research shows that behavioral problems significantly correlate with teacher stress and perceptions of control (Pullis, 1992).

The Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) has become one of the major instruments used by researchers to examine school climate and pupil control orientation (Anderson, 1982). PCI is a measure of ideology concerning pupil control rather than controlling behavior. The role of the assistant principal is characterized as custodial in nature and one that deal with discipline, coordination behavior (Reed & Hirmler, 1985). Teachers who become burned out may be less sympathetic toward students, may have a lower tolerance for frustration in the classroom, may plan for their classes less often or less carefully, may fantasize or actually plan on leaving the profession,
may feel frequent emotional or physical exhaustion, may feel anxious, irritable, depressed, and in general, may feel less committed and dedicated to their work (Farber & Miller, 1981). On the contrary, a humanistic orientation is related to low dogmatism, acceptance of others, and high teacher creativity (Brenneman, 1975; Halpin, Goldenberg, & Halpin, 1974; Lunenburg & O’ Reilly, 1974). Further, a humanistic orientation has been found to be related to positive feelings toward teachers among elementary school students (Lunenburg & Stouten, 1983) and positive attitudes toward school among secondary school students (Pritchett & Willower, 1975). Student-centered verbal behavior and the use of innovative classroom practices have also been found to be related to a humanistic ideology, as measured by the PCI, among classroom teachers (Willower, 1975).

Research has found that student misbehavior affects teacher stress, well-being, and confidence (Lewis et al., 2003; Little & Hudson, 1998; Miller, Ferguson, & Byrne, 2000; Poulou & Norwich, 2000). Significant correlations were found among teacher stress and negative relationships between teacher and student (Yoon, 2002). Teacher stress arises from being unable to discipline pupils in the way they would prefer (Lewis, 1999).

To sum up, teaching is indicated as an occupation which is always demanding and changing (Claxton, 1989), so there has been interest in teachers job stress at different schools and universities (Leung, Siu, & Spector, 2000). A third of all teachers, approximately, will find their occupation extremely stressful (Borg, 1990; Broiles, 1982; Friesen, Prokop & Sarros, 1988; Gold & Roth, 1993). It therefore, becomes necessary to get a deeper knowledge of antecedents and consequences of teachers’ stress.

Our country has put a high expectation in our school teachers. They are perceived as the architect, designer, and saver of the future generations. A teacher is seen as a counselor to students and parents both, is also sometimes a nurse, a social worker, and even to some degree a parent for the students that are under his/her tutelage. With the increasing number of roles that students and parents ask from teachers, as well as the requirements from the local Boards of education and State Departments of Education across the nation, it is no wonder that teaching is not an easy job as what other people think and perceive. However, it is equally true that teacher stress is on a steady increase. Stress among teachers’ affects the performance
of schools because teachers who are burdened by stress will not be in a position to teach students in an optimal manner due to stress which makes them to have apathy towards their work. Therefore, the study seeks to identify causes of stress in secondary schools and identify remedial measures toward the same.

Due to the insufficiency of empirical studies on the causal factors of stress in the secondary schools, this study wants to have an empirical evidence of the stress causing factors like demographic factors, job satisfaction, teachers work values and pupil control ideology among the secondary school teachers. Conceptually, they appear to influence the teachers’ occupational stress but their influence has not yet been empirically studied adequately in India, especially work values and pupil control ideology. Determination of these factors in this study will generate empirical data which could be of value to policy and decision makers, and to school administrators and other professional associations in the education sector of India. It is for this reason that the researcher deemed it necessary to investigate the relationship among the various factors associated with stress among teachers of the secondary schools in Uttar Pradesh District.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

"An investigation into the relationship among Teacher’s Occupational Stress, Job Satisfaction, Work Values and Pupil Control Ideology”.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this research study is to investigate the relationship among teacher’s occupational stress, job satisfaction, work values and pupil control ideology. Against this background the following were the aims and objectives of the present study:

1. To develop two standard tools of research, namely Teachers Occupational Stress Scale and Teachers Job Satisfaction Scale, which will prove as valuable additions to the psychometric units of Indian Universities and abroad also.

2. To study the general pattern of occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

3. To study the combined and individual effect of demographic factors on teachers’ stress toward their occupation.
4. To study the relationship between occupational stress of secondary school teachers and their demographic factors.

5. To study the combined and individual effect of job satisfaction and pupil control ideology on teachers’ stress toward their occupation.


7. To study the combined and individual effect of work values on teachers’ stress toward their occupation.

8. To explore the relationship between occupational stress of secondary school teachers and their preferences of work values.


10. To point out the main educational implications of this study.

The main purpose of this study is broadly stated to investigate the relationship among secondary school teacher’s occupational stress, demographic factors, job satisfaction, work values and pupil control ideology. In this study demographic factors and work values have been taken in the sense as:

- Demographic factors include: Gender, teaching experience, qualification, salary and subjects taught by teachers.

- Work values include: Good economic return, high status/prestige, opportunities of human/social service, friendly/cooperating colleagues, security of service, fair/sympathetic supervisions, opportunities of further progress/advancement, opportunities of intellectual stimulation, work consistent with my (teacher’s) life goals/values, opportunities of exercising power/authority, freedom in my (teacher’s) work.

1.4 Questions posed for the study

In this study of teachers occupational stress in relation to their demographic factors, job satisfaction, work values and pupil control ideology, certain pertinent questions arise which may be stated as under:

1. What is the reliability and validity of the developed tools i.e., Teachers Occupational Stress Scale and Teachers Job Satisfaction Scale?
2. What is the general pattern of secondary school teachers’ stress toward their occupation?

3. Do predictor demographic factors explain the differences in mean occupational stress score of teachers?

4. Do demographic factors explain the differences in mean occupational stress score of teachers?

5. Do predictor factors (job satisfaction and pupil control ideology) explain the differences in mean occupational stress score of teachers?

6. Does job satisfaction explain the differences in mean occupational stress score of teachers?

7. Do predictor factors of work values explain the differences in mean occupational stress score of teachers?

8. Do work values explain the differences in mean occupational stress score of teachers?

9. Does pupil control ideology explain the differences in mean occupational stress score of teachers?

1.5 Hypotheses of the study

In order to give proper direction to the investigation, it was thought necessary to formulate certain hypotheses which may be tested in this study. The investigator was guided by the results of previous researches in this area, theoretical viewpoints available in related literature and investigator’s intuitive understanding and insight. For the present study, the hypotheses have desirably to be stated in the null-form, except the first one which is stated in the statement form. The reason is obvious, when they are conceived as research hypotheses they are generally stated in the form of statements, but when they are conceived as statistical hypotheses, usually they take the form of null-hypotheses.

The following null-hypotheses have been constructed for testing throughout the study. The confidence interval set up for the purpose of accepting or rejecting the hypotheses in the study is 0.05 and 0.01 levels. The reason for fixing the rigorous limit is discussed in Chapter 3. Common practice in this regard, is to set-up a region of 0.05 and 0.01 levels. The following hypotheses were established:

1. The secondary school teachers, in general, experience more stress toward their occupation.
2. The predictor demographic factors are not the significant predictors of teachers’ stress toward their occupation.

3. There is no significant difference in occupational stress in relation to demographic factors of the teachers’.

4. The predictor factors (job satisfaction and pupil control ideology) are not the significant predictors of teachers’ stress toward their occupation.

5. There is no significant difference in occupational stress in relation to job satisfaction of the teachers’.

6. The predictor factors of work values are not the significant predictors of teachers’ stress toward their occupation.

7. There is no significant difference in occupational stress in relation to the perception of teachers’ work values.

8. There is no significant difference in occupational stress in relation to pupil control ideology of the teachers’.

1.6 Definition of the terms

Some terms and concepts have been repeatedly used in this study owing to the unfortunate situation that those terminologies in behavioral sciences have not yet attended a standardized form. It appears necessary that their definitions as accepted for this study are given so that any term may not mean different things to different readers of the thesis. It is obvious that the investigator has not coined her own definitions, but has for each term selected the one from those given in standard text books which were found to have best solved the purposes of the present study.

1.6.1 Dependent and independent variables

The terms ‘dependent variable’ and ‘independent variable’ have been borrowed from the field of math in behavioral researches. The dependent variable (DV) is defined as one about which the experimenter makes a prediction. Infact, the dependent variable is the participant’s response that is measured, and is the outcome of experiment. The independent variable (IV) is defined as one which is measured, manipulated or selected by the experimenter to determine its relationship to an observed phenomenon (or DV). In a research study, the independent variable defines a principal focus of research interest. It is the consequent variable that is presumably affected by one or more independent variables that are either manipulated by the
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researcher or observed by the researcher and regarded as antecedent conditions that determine the value of the dependent variable (Jaeger, 1990). The DV is the variable predicted to, whereas the IV is predicted from. The DV is the presumed effect, which varies with changes or variation in the independent variable. Thus, DV responds to the IV and is called ‘dependent’ as it depends on the independent variable.

In the present study, the demographic factors, job satisfaction, work values and pupil control ideology constitute the independent variables, whereas the occupational stress of teachers constitute the dependent variable.

1.6.2 Teacher

A person employed in an official capacity for the purpose of guiding and directing the learning experiences of pupils/students in an educational institution. Teacher is a person who has completed a professional curriculum in a teacher education institution and whose training has been officially recognized by the award of an appropriate teaching certificate, and has been found capable of instructing others (Good & Merkel, 1973). The word ‘teacher’ is used to describe a person who because of rich or unusual experience or education or both in a given field is able to contribute to the growth and development of other persons who come in contact with him/her.

A teacher is the central figure in the formal teaching learning set up. He is the ultimate agent who dispenses knowledge, frames the time schedule, selects reading materials and evaluates learning outcomes, helps pupils to overcome their difficulties and personal problems. A teacher is the only person responsible to set the standards, builds up desirable attitudes, and approves or disapproves pupil behaviors. The prime aim of a teacher concerns with molding the raw material (the pupils) into the refined product (the future citizens). As such, it is apt to say that the destiny of India is being shaped in her classrooms (Education Commission of India, 1966).

1.6.3 Secondary Schools

The schooling system in India is divided into three levels, i.e. primary (nursery to class V), secondary (class VI to class X), and senior secondary (class XI and XII). Some states refer to Standards (Grades) IX and X as High School, while XI and XII are termed as Intermediate. These schools may be affiliated to national boards/Councils like Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE), Council for the Indian School Certificate Examination (CISCE) or National Institute of Open Schooling.
(NIOS) or various state boards. Usually, students from ages 14 to 18 study in this section.

Secondary school which serves as a step towards preparation for higher and professional education has been described by The New International Webster’s Comprehensive Dictionary of English Language as, “high school or preparatory school beyond the elementary or primary, and below the college level”. The education at secondary level consists of subjects like mother tongue, national language, mathematics, science, social science, hindi and english together with arts and crafts for all students. There is no personal choice in the subjects and the pattern of education in general. In class X there is a public examination known as matriculation examination conducted by the School Education Board of the concerned state.

The schools, thus, imparting education till secondary level are clubbed under the head secondary schools. Hence, secondary school is the stage where education that follows the typically compulsory, comprehensive primary education is imparted. It is a school that is intermediary in level between elementary school and college, and that usually offers general, technical, vocational, or college preparatory curricula. Therefore, in this study, those teachers who were teaching 9th and 10th secondary stages were considered as secondary school teachers.

On the other hand, senior secondary school is a school where young persons prepare for employment, provision for the introduction of different types of vocational courses is made, and follows a uniform structure of 10+2 i.e. 12 years. Furthermore, a public examination is conducted at the national or state levels at the end of the higher secondary stage.

1.6.4 Stress

The word stress is derived from the Latin word “strictus”, which means “to tighten” (Jex, 1998). Stress, in general, can be defined as the reaction of individuals to demands (stressors) imposed upon them (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2006). These researchers used the term stress, to refer to situations where the well-being of individuals is detrimentally affected by their failure to cope with the demands of their environment. Stress was described by researchers in the 1950s as “response to internal or external processes which reach those thresholds levels that strains its physical and psychological integration capacities to; or beyond their limit” (Basowitz et al., 1955).
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Stress can be viewed as an “adaptive response, mediated by individual characteristics and/or psychological processes, that is the consequence of any external action, situation or event that places special physical and/or psychological demands upon a person” (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980).

Stress is defined as “a state of tension that arises from an actual or perceived demand that calls for an adjustment or adaptive behaviour” (Olson et al., 1989). Allen (2002) claimed that stress is a feeling we experience, when we lose confidence in our capability to cope with a situation. It is a state characterized by high levels of arousal and distress and often by feelings of not coping. Stress is defined as a condition of negative affects (e.g. anger) resulting from aspects of the teacher's job which are perceived by the teacher as a threat to his/her psychological or physical well-being (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978a).

Sorenson (2007) states, “Stress is a condition of twenty-first-century education that continues to increase as more accountability standards and new policy initiatives are introduced”. Further, Kruger (1992) maintains that “stress is a phenomenon that manifests in the individual person as a result of various stressors that arise from the self and the environment and affect the individual person in accordance with the way in which he or she attributes meaning to the events, stimuli or demands affecting him or her, and in accordance with the way in which he or she experiences and enters into or handles such events, stimuli or demands”. On the other hand, distress is negative or destructive stress, as it causes serious ailments or discomforts (Keiper & Buselle, 1996). It impacts negatively on the organisation and the individual’s physical and mental system. This could result in reduced performance, absenteeism, errors, job losses, accidents, unethical behaviour, dissatisfaction and illness (Schermerhorn et al., 2000).

1.6.5 Occupational Stress

Occupational Stress, also known as job stress, has been defined as the experience of negative emotional states such as frustration, worry, anxiety and depression attributed to work related factors (Kyriacou, 2001). It is a mental and physical condition which affects an individual’s productivity, effectiveness, personal health and quality of work (Comish & Swindle, 1994). Geese and Moss (2001) define the occupational stress as a mutual action between the working conditions and
individual features of a worker. It is defined as a result of imbalance between job demands and workers’ capabilities. Also, harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker, can be termed as occupational stress (NIOSH, 2008). Occupational stress is an individual experience, depending on the traits of individuals, in that not all people react to events the same way (Manthei & Gilmore, 1996; McKenna, 1987). Bendell et al. (1986) state that occupational stress is a potential tormenting reaction which the worker shows towards a stressogenic factor. Occupational role stress is considered as an unpleasant emotion, which manifests itself through tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression. All these emotions are the result of different aspects of working environment and personal lives of the universities teachers (Khurshid, 2008).

According to Okebukola and Jegede (1989), occupational stress is defined 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.” Whereas, Leka, Griffiths, and Cox (2004) refers to occupational stress as “the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope”. Occupational stress arises from a discrepancy between the teacher's work needs, values, and expectations and the failure of the work environment to provide occupational rewards, job demands and the capacity of the worker to meet these requirements (Cooper, 1981).

1.6.6 Teachers’ Occupational Stress

Teacher stress has been viewed as an interactive process which occurs between teachers and their teaching environment which leads to excessive demands being placed on them and resulting in physiological and psychological distress (Forlin, Douglas & Hattie, 1996). Teacher stress can also be demarcated as the occurrence of perceived negative situations that result in adverse teacher reactions or behaviors. The three main stressors that result in teacher stress are environmental, interpersonal and intrapersonal stress (Swick & Hanley, 1985). Also, Borg (1990) has conceptualized 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 three aspects of his job circumstances, which could be summed up as – (1) that
demands are being made on him, (2) that he is unable to meet or has difficulty in meeting these demands, and (3) that failure to meet these demands threatens his mental/physical well-being. Maslach and Jackson (1984) defined teacher stress as an uncomfortable feeling, negative emotion such as anger, anxiety and pressure which originated from their work. Teacher stress is defined by Kyriacou (1987) as “the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger, and depression, resulting from aspects of work as a teacher”. Teachers’ occupational stress for the present study will mean a multi-dimensional concept composed of factors within the individual, the institution, nature of work place and society that leads to the lowering of feelings of personal self-worth, achievement, effectiveness and coping within one’s professional role.

1.6.7 Burnout

Burnout is a distressed psychological state; a person suffering from burnout is emotionally exhausted, has low work motivation; it involves being depressed about work and having little energy and enthusiasm for the job (Spector, 2000). It has been opined that burnout is an affective reaction due to prolonged exposure to job stress (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Burnout lacked definitional clarity until the development of a widely accepted instrument for its measurement, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Burnout is discussed as a “state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, a way of life, or a relationship that failed to produce the expected reward” (Freudenberger & Richelson, 1980). The MBI conceptualized burnout as a “syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity” (Maslach & Jackson, 1996). These researchers further reported that low degree of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a high degree of personal accomplishment reflect a low level of burnout; high degree of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization coupled with low degree of personal accomplishment reflect a high level of burnout; while average degrees of all three dimensions represent a moderate level of burnout.

Thus, burnout contains three job related dimensions:

- **Emotional exhaustion**: The emotional lassitude a person experiences when they are fatigued and frustrated.
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- **Depersonalization**: A person’s tendency to isolate themselves from others, and
- **Personal accomplishments**: The person’s self-evaluation of their own work

Emotional exhaustion is often most measured; covering feelings of job-related strain, being used up; fatigued and working too hard. It is the depletion of emotional energy and a feeling that one's emotional resources are inadequate to deal with the pressures encountered (Warr, 2002). Depersonalization is the development of a cynical and callous feeling towards others (Spector, 2000). It is an excessive detachment from people with whom one works, treating individuals in the work setting (e.g. Clients or patients) as objects rather than people (O'Driscoll & Cooper, 2002). Reduced personal accomplishment is the feeling that the employee is not accomplishing anything worthwhile at work (Spector, 2000); by evaluating one's performance negatively, it leads to feelings of incompetence and inability to achieve goals (O’Driscoll & Cooper, 2002).

Some researchers (Capel, 1987; Carpel, 1992; Jenkins & Calhoun, 1991) have begun to acknowledge the difference between the two concepts (stress and burnout) and do not use the terms interchangeably. Burnout is implied to have evolved from stress, low salaries, increased teacher loads, reduction in force, lack of involvement in program planning, and a myriad of other factors (Chapman & Green, 1986; Chase, 1986).

1.6.8 Coping with Teacher Stress

Many students are taught by teachers whose competence is reduced because of high levels of stress. Being personally destructive, coping with stress successfully requires restructuring efforts, such as, increased levels of commitment to school goals (Fullan, 1993); greater sensitivity by teachers to the diverse needs of their students and an expanded and more flexible instructional repertoire (Murphy, 1991); more collaborative working relations with fellow teachers (Liberman, Saxl, & Miles, 1988) as well as with students and parents (Connors & Epstein, 1994). Kyriacou (1980a) in his study showed that the most frequently used coping actions included trying to keep things in perspective, to avoid confrontations and to relax at work.

Teachers say they become more able to manage stress, however, even in the face of organizational constraints, if they have a substantial voice in deciding and initiating stress management strategies. Stress-management research conducted by
several researchers (Bunce & West, 1996; Cahill & Feldman, 1988; Forman, 1981; Ganster et al., 1982; Higgins, 1986; Pines & Aronson, 1983; Reynolds, Taylor, & Shapiro, 1993) found that many successful intervention programs begin by building participants’ knowledge and awareness of stress and burnout. These awareness sessions presented in a non-threatening environment provide participants with updated information about the nature, signs, causes, and symptoms of stress.

In order to decrease stress among teachers it is recommended to improve their working conditions, decrease their weekly lesson loads to get them work more efficiently, promote sport activities, integrate them in social and cultural activities, and improve their financial opportunities. Conferences, seminars, workshops, etc. must be organized to inform teachers on these subjects so as to decrease the stress in them. Cognitive restructuring and positively reappraising the situation may help alleviate physical and emotional exhaustion, and enhance a sense of personal achievement. Also, the readiness to seek support from others may help teachers guard against becoming depersonalized, and the use of task-related and interpersonal problem-solving may also increase the sense of personal achievement.

1.6.9 Demographic Factors

Socio-economic characteristics of a population expressed statistically, such as age, sex, education level, income level, marital status, occupation, religion, birth rate, death rate, average size of a family, average age at marriage. The best example of demographic factors is a census, which is a collection of the demographic factors associated with very member of a population.

1.6.9.1 Gender

Gender regime is defined as “the pattern of practices that constructs various kinds of masculinity and femininity among staff and students, orders them in terms of prestige and power, and constructs a sexual division of labor within the institution” (Kessler et al., 1985). The authors further said, the school is an institution that is characterized at any given time by a particular gender regime. As Connell (2002) noted, when we look at a set of gender arrangements, whether the gender regime of an institution or the gender order of a whole society, we are basically looking at a set of relationships—ways that people, groups and organizations are connected and divided. The term gender difference is used throughout the thesis and its meaning is
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synonymous with sex difference. That is, gender here refers simply to boy or girl, male or female in the sense they are generally understood.

1.6.9.2 Teaching Experience

Teaching experience is termed as the accumulation of acquired knowledge, attitudes or skills that results from one’s own perception and direct participation in events or activities. Years of experience has also been described as tenure, number of years teaching or length of service (Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Klecker, 1997).

1.6.9.3 Qualification

Academic qualification is the standard of one’s academic background. Such qualification is asked for applying any job. Getting job as per one’s academic qualification will satisfy him/ her; on the other hand if some one’s job is inferior to his/ her academic qualification, it brings dissatisfaction to him or her. This would result into stress. Academic qualification is the prime factor of being qualified to be recruited as teachers in government/ private schools of India.

1.6.9.4 Salary

Salary is referred to the periodic wage paid to someone for work; or wages received on a regular basis, may be weekly, bi-weekly or monthly. Sometimes the term is used to include other benefits, including insurance and a retirement plan.

1.6.9.5 Subjects taught

Teachers possess command over their teaching subjects. Basically four subjects, namely, languages, arts, sciences and social sciences have been included in this study. Languages as a subject refer to a set of language whose grammar permits an independent clause to lack an explicit subject. Of the thousands of languages in the world, Hindi and English are most commonly taught by the teachers in India. Arts, usually referred to as fine arts deals with the art forms developed primarily for aesthetics and/ or concept rather than utility. Arts as a subject includes music, dance, drawing, visual arts, etc.

Science is a systematic enterprise that builds and organizes knowledge in the form of testable explanations and predictions about the universe. In general, science refers to the body of reliable knowledge itself, of the type that can be logically and
rationally explained. Science is any systematic knowledge-base or prescriptive practice that is capable of resulting in a prediction. Science is a continuing effort to discover and increase human knowledge and understanding through disciplined research. The single most important principle of science education is to instruct students to identify assumptions, use critical thinking, make logical deductions, and consider alternative explanations. Subjects like mathematics, chemistry, biology, physics, geography, computer fall under the subject Science.

*Social Sciences* is concerned with the study of society and human behaviors, and social life of human groups and individuals. Most commonly, social science is used as an umbrella term to refer to a plurality of fields outside of the natural sciences, which include anthropology, archaeology, economics, education, linguistics, political science, sociology, geography, history, law and psychology.

### 1.6.10 Attitude

An attitude is a hypothetical construct that represents an individual’s degree of like or dislike for an item. Attitudes are generally positive or negative views regarding person, place, thing or event. On this note, Le Roux (1994) termed attitude as, “a positive or negative emotional relationship with or predisposition toward an object, institution or person”. According to International Dictionary of Education, the term attitude may be defined as, “predisposition to perceive, feel or behave towards specific objects or certain people in a particular manner”. Attitudes are thought to be derived from experience rather than innate characteristics, which suggest that they can be modified.

Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) explained that by understanding an individual’s attitude towards something, one can predict with high precision the individual’s overall pattern of behavior to the object. In general, attitude may be defined as; enduring non-verbal features of social and physical world acquired through experience and exert a directive influence on behavior (Berckler & Wiggins, 1991). These definitions suggest that attitude can be understood as an emotion that has an influence on the behavior of human beings. Attitude, thus, affects people in everything they do and in fact reflects what they are, and hence a determining factor of people’s behavior.
The term ‘job satisfaction’ was first utilized by Hoppock (1935), referring to a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that make a person feel satisfied with his job. It is a general attitude towards one’s job; the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive, and the amount they believe they should receive. This attitude results from balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in connection with a job. Job satisfaction is the favourableness experienced with which employees view a job. Job satisfaction has been defined as the extent to which a staff member has favourable or positive feelings about work or the work environment (De Nobile, 2003). It refers to the positive attitudes or emotional dispositions people may gain from work or through aspects of work (Furnham, 1997; Locke, 1976). Conversely, job dissatisfaction refers to unhappy or negative feelings about work or the work environment (Furnham, 1997). Job satisfaction is defined as a positive emotional state that results from appraisal of one’s job situation and is linked to the characteristics and demands of one’s work (Arches, 1991; Butler, 1990; Dressel, 1982).

Job satisfaction results when a job fulfills or facilitates the organizational attainment of individual’s values and standards, and on the other hand dissatisfaction occurs when the job is seen blocking such attainment (Locke & Latham, 1990). On this note, Herzberg (1968) found five factors that intended to influence job satisfaction positively: (1) achievement, (2) recognition, (3) work itself, (4) responsibility, and (5) advancement. Factors, which if inadequate tended to support job dissatisfaction were: (1) salary, (2) possibility of growth, (3) interpersonal relations (subordinates), (4) status, (5) interpersonal relations (superiors), (6) interpersonal relations (peers), (7) supervision–technical, (8) company policy and administration, (9) working conditions, (10) personal life, and (11) job security. In teaching profession, distress has been linked to dissatisfaction with job and to negative affective and professional consequences (Ruma et al., 2010; Eichinger, 2000).

Job characteristics which cause stress consist of the following three dimensions:
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- **Role Conflict**: This indicates the degree to which an employee is experiencing incompatible role demands and loyalties at work.

- **Role Ambiguity**: This indicates the extent to which the priorities, expectations, and evaluation criteria are not clear to the employee.

- **Role Overload**: This indicates the degree to which job demands exceed personal and workplace resources, and the extent to which an employee is unable to complete expected work assignments.

1.6.12 Values

There is no definitive correct definition of values (Haydon, 2007), arguing it is ‘not a technical term’ being more ‘part of the experience of everyone’ (Haydon, 2007). Carr (2004) asserts they are rational dispositions or principled preferences. In contrast to this, the National College of School Leadership (Flintham, 2006) suggests values are often deeply held but they are not necessarily rational. Aspin (2000) argues that values are embedded and embodied in everything we do, as part of the warp and weft of ourself and our community’s whole form of life. Values can come with any degree of abstractness, or concreteness, generality or specificity (Haydon, 2007). An American psychologist, Milton Rokeach (1979), has written extensively on individual and organizational values, and thus, provides a useful framework within which the importance of personal values can be explored as:

The ultimate function of values is to provide us with a set of standards to guide us in all our efforts, to satisfy our needs and at the same time maintain and in so far as possible, enhance self esteem, that is to make it possible to regard ourselves to be regarded by others as having satisfied societally and institutionally originating definitions of morality and competence.

It is the stance the self takes to the environment as expressed through his behavior, ideas, body feelings and imagination. (Andres, 1980). In this study, it refers to work values.

1.6.12.1 Work Values

Work values are beliefs pertaining to desirable end-states (e.g. high pay) or behavior (e.g. working with people). Lee (1994) indicated that work values could be viewed as proportion of personal value systems; all evaluations and preferences related to work could be held as the expression of work values. Super (1980) defined work values as “an objective, either a psychological state, a relationship, or material
condition, that one seeks to attain”. The different work goals are ordered by their importance as guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings, and for choosing among different work alternatives. Likewise, Elizur (1984) defined work values as, “the importance individuals give to a certain outcome obtained at work context”. Furthermore, Zytowski (1994) noted that work values often refer to positive reinforcers of job satisfaction.

Because work values are constructs that refer only to goals in the work setting, they are more specific than basic individual values. But the work values usually studied are still quite broad. They refer to what a person wants out of work in general, rather than to the narrowly defined outcomes of particular jobs. As a final point, work values, like basic values, are verbal representations of individual, group, and interaction requirements.

The present study has identified a set of 11 work values among teachers in different schools, which could be defined as:

1. **Good Economic Return**: Describes the amount of financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable vis-à-vis that of others in the institution. Refers to the financial dimension basically, and includes pay, fringe benefits and monetary rewards.

2. **High Status/ Prestige**: Refers to a position of superior status, social status, and prestige.

3. **Opportunities of Human/ Social Service**: The human service practitioner is a professional who acts as an agent to assist and or empower individuals, groups, families and communities to prevent, alleviate or better cope with crisis, change and stress to enable them to function more effectively in all areas of life and living.

4. **Friendly/ Cooperating Colleagues**: whether the job permits chances to make friends, whether co-workers are friendly and helpful and whether one’s co-workers take a personal interest in him/her. Valuation of this dimension reflects a worker’s desire for the satisfaction of social needs from the work activity. Collegial relations include the relationships between teachers within a school as well as the relationship between teachers and administrators.

5. **Security of Service**: Work which provides one with certainty of having a job even in hard times.

6. **Fair/ Sympathetic Supervisions**: Deals with the abilities of the supervisor to provide technical assistance and behavioral support.
7. Opportunities of Further Progress/ Advancement: Describes the chances for promotional avenues in the organization. In this study, it refers to the act or fact of being raised in position or rank, and giving a privilege for professional growth.

8. Opportunities of Intellectual Stimulation: Refers to excitement, novelty and challenge in life.

9. Work consistent with my life Goals/ Values: It is the extent to which the job provides the individual with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning, and the chance to accept responsibility.

10. Opportunities of exercising Power/ Authority: Describes the control or dominance over pupil and resources.

11. Freedom in my work: Refers to the condition of being free, and the power to act, speak or think without externally imposed restraints. It is the teacher’s capacity to exercise choice, frankness or boldness, and free will without religious, political, or institutional restrictions.

Therefore, the researcher used the term “work values” to define the hierarchical organization of relatively stable needs, desires, and goals as applied to a teacher’s world of work. Work values in the present study are operationally defined as enduring beliefs and standards that influence an individual when he/she evaluate his/her job and work environment.

1.6.13 Pupil Control Ideology

Pupil control orientation can be conceptualized as a point on a continuum ranging from authoritarian to humanistic (Willower, 1975). Teachers with a custodial (authoritarian) pupil control orientation stress the maintenance of order and strict pupil control, impersonality, one-way communication, distrust of students, and a punitive, moralistic attitude; while the teachers with a humanistic orientation emphasize the psychological and sociological bases of learning and behavior, open channels of communication, an accepting and trusting view of students, and confidence in students’ ability to develop self-discipline and responsibility. An individual teacher’s pupil control orientation may fall anywhere between these two extremes.

Educators classified as humanistic are patient, congenial, and easily approached by students. They are responsive to students’ suggestions and ideas and
encourage pupil self-discipline and independence. In contrast to the humanistic orientation, the model of [authoritarian] orientation depicts a classroom atmosphere with a rigid and highly controlling setting concerned primarily with the maintenance of order (Willower, Eidell, & Hoy, 1973). In this model misbehaviour is viewed as a personal affront and students are perceived as persons who must be controlled through the application of punitive sanctions. Authoritarian educators manifest suspicion and distrust of pupils, often addressing them in an unpleasant and angry manner. They react personally and judgmentally toward students who misbehave (Lunenburg & Mankowsky, 2000).

The model for the custodial orientation is the traditional school in which behavior is rigid and tightly controlled; maintenance of order is a primary concern. Students are stereotyped in terms of their appearance, behavior, and parents’ social status. Teachers do not attempt to understand student behavior; in fact, they view misbehavior in moralistic terms and as a personal affront. Students must accept the decisions of teachers without question. The flow of power and communication is unilateral and downward, and cynicism, impersonality, and watchful mistrust imbue the custodial orientation.

On the contrary, the model for the humanistic orientation is the school as a learning community in which members learn by cooperative interaction and experience. Interpersonal relationships are close, warm, and friendly. Learning and behavior are interpreted in psychological and sociological terms, not moralistic ones. Self-discipline and self-regulation are substituted for rigid and strict teacher control. Both teachers and students are willing to act upon their own volition and then accept responsibility for their actions.

Therefore, the researcher’s operational definition of humanistic pupil control ideology refers to teachers who conceive of the school as a democratic organization with open channels of two-way communication between students and teachers and increased self-determination of students. A humanistic orientation is marked by optimism, openness, flexibility, understanding, and increased student self-determination, while custodial pupil control ideology means teachers who conceive of the school as an autocratic organization with a rigid pupil-status hierarchy. Teachers with a custodial orientation of pupil control view students as irresponsible and
undisciplined individuals who must be controlled by punitive sanctions. A secondary school teacher’s ideology may fall anywhere between these two major extremes.

1.7 Significance of the study

Stress at work has been singled out as an important area of investigation for the reasons being; most people spend a considerable amount of time at work, and work is important as a fundamental means for implementing and fulfilling personal aspirations and expectations (Yankelovich, 1979). Teachers play an extraordinarily important role in providing the support and guidance that students need as they set out to find their way in today’s world and society. Pressure, thus, has gone drastically for those engaged in the teaching profession. It is therefore, important to identify the factors which might further deplete our teaching force through early retirement or attrition in order to best support teachers. If educational systems fail to identify factors that contribute to teacher stress, the common masses would be reluctant towards teaching as a profession. Hence, demands for teachers may potentially become higher, which in turn will cause higher shortages and attrition.

Most of the educational administrators start their career as classroom teachers; therefore to have an understanding of the career-change process is important for human resource personnel and school policy makers, as well as educational researchers. Understanding this process implies an understanding of stressful factors which influence decisions and differentiate between different classes of decision-makers, particularly stayers and leavers. The conditions that create a stressful environment are present in most school systems, certainly some more than others. The long working hours, overcrowded classes, upset parents, limited resources, potentials for physical violence, and so forth go with the job of most teachers.

The tragedy is that like most formal organizations, educational systems typically tend to ignore the impact that stress has on administrators and teachers. The saddest fact is that dysfunctional stress is usually considered as a personal problem, for which those suffering must find their own way out. Thus, it is deemed important for studies be conducted on this matter in order to enrich information and to display statistical evidence for the consideration of the parties that are concerned with the educational systems.
Significance of the study lies in the notion that by examining the stress levels of secondary school teachers, one can better recognize the early signs of stress which may further lead to burnout, and take measures to prevent it, especially in “at risk” (high stress) groups. Also, the quality of education to most people is almost synonym to the quality of teaching. Accordingly, the quality of teaching depends largely on the characteristics of individuals serving as teachers, their training background, aspirations, experience, subject areas concerned; and no less important, their general state of physical and emotional well-being. Teachers play a pivotal role in the molding of the future generation envisioned by Vision 2020, so it is of paramount importance that the overall effectiveness of teachers as educators is not undermined by the stressors they encounter. Thus, it is obviously desirable for a systematic study and an inquiry into the phenomenon to be carried out.

To ensure that teachers perform to the best of their abilities, it is necessary to pay attention to their satisfaction levels. In this light, this study also sheds light on the relationship between teachers’ occupational stress and their job satisfactions. It becomes important for the management to secure information about these satisfied/dissatisfied teachers before making decisions that might affect them. This study thus, is a humble attempt to make school administrators and planners learn more about the organizational behavior as well. Therefore, they may be able to improve the job conditions and bring a direct benefit to teachers.

This research on work values and stress is significant because it will help the school administrators bring to light some of the problems and needs of the teachers of secondary schools, which are important in attracting and holding the teachers. The knowledge and awareness of their work values and stress may contribute to the creations of a harmonious relationship between teachers and personnel, thus encouraging the first to remain in the teaching profession. As a consequence, teaching will be elevated to a competitive status among other profession. They will perform better, exhibit positive attitudes and would be more enthusiastic in helping students.

Also, the need to control or direct is implicit in the job of teaching, and it seems important that teachers should learn to control their classrooms in the most humane and efficient manner possible. Another important implication of this study may be to determine if it is possible, the extent of pupil control orientations among secondary school teachers. It is well evidenced and documented that stress among
teachers, if not properly and adequately checked and diagnosed, could result in physical, psychological, social problems, hostility towards colleagues, students and family members.

Policy makers may use information on the impact of current organizational experiences on teachers’ work-related stress to modify their policies and procedures. Thus, those concerned with developing and providing pre-service and in-service education programs may also view the findings of the study as relevant. The lack of sympathy by the public towards teachers is due to the lack of understanding of the problems and grievances faced by teachers, perhaps. Thus, a systematic and an empirical inquiry into the phenomenon is obviously beneficial in view of shedding light and giving a better understanding and awareness to the educational administrators and the public as well.

Most of the work in the area of teacher stress has been done in developed countries but, not many studies are conducted in the Indian context that explores the teachers stress towards their occupation. On this note, this study would be beneficial as a few critical and interesting variables will also be included in the present study such as, whether there is any difference in the level of stress experienced by teachers with regard to the subjects taught – namely the teachers who teach languages, as compared to teachers who teach arts, science and social science; their work values and pupil control ideology.

Finally, the tools developed for the study might provide a means of assessing the work-related stress of teachers along with their job satisfactions. All the foregoing findings and discussions highlight the value of gaining insight into occupational stress factors amongst teachers so as to begin to find ways to remedy the apparent situation that prevails within the teaching profession. Causes of excessive stress must be found before appropriate solutions to it can be developed. In the present investigation, therefore, the researcher aimed to determine some of these factors amongst Indian teachers.

1.8 Organization of the study

This study has been presented in six chapters. Chapter I includes the introduction, purpose statement, research questions, hypotheses, definitions of terms, significance of the study, and organization of the study. Chapter II will provide a
review on various researches done related to the variables taken in the study. Having laid the theoretical and conceptual foundations, Chapter III will discuss a detailed description of the methodology and strategy for collecting data with a plan for analysis. Chapter IV will offer a description of the research tools employed along with their construction – the pilot study, the reliability and validity of the questionnaires, as well as the selection of teachers’ work values. Chapter V will be devoted to the presentation and analysis of the data. The present study will also conclude with a discussion of the findings in this chapter. Chapter VI will comprise of summary, conclusion, implications, recommendations for practice, with a view to suggest some possible ways for future investigations.