Chapter 2
Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

Nowadays teachers' profession is considered as one of the most stressful professions. Research carried out in USA and Europe in the last two decades has developed both the sources and symptoms of teachers' professional stress. Research in the field of teachers' stress indicates that the major aspects of teachers' stress are the result of the tremendous changes in education in 1980^{s} and 1990^{s}.

In the last two decades for many teachers it was and has been the period of survival rather than development. Due to the many changes that took place socially and economically hence new demands were created and new expectations from schools. Recently reforms have been introduced in the name of raising standards, increasing the user participation and pupil entitlement.

Stress has also been defined as a state and condition of mental and physical exertion brought about as a result of different events or dissatisfying elements in the environment. Teachers' stress has been further defined as the experience by teachers of unpleasant, negative emotions such as tension, anxiety, frustration, anger, and depression, resulting from aspects of work as teachers. Stress leads to the lowering of ones job performance and this has to be considered so that the quality of teaching in the schools can be improved. There are basically three major approaches to understanding the nature of stress in teaching. First the "engineering" model of stress, which looks at the pressures exerted on teachers in schools. The second the "physiological" model, which focuses on the teacher's reactions to these pressures, e.g., frustration and headaches. The third approach, based on the "interactive" model of stress, is concerned with the pressures, reactions, and coping resources which teachers use in their attempts to cope with stress. Perception of threat comprises two

main stages. Stage 1 is when the job demands perceived by the teacher is very difficult to meet satisfactorily. Stage 2 is when failure to meet these job demands satisfactorily is perceived by the teacher to be a threat to his or her self-esteem or general well being.

Job burnout and job dissatisfaction are not synonymous in nature. Constant exposure to stressors can be tolerated only up to a certain extent. Rest and relaxation can restore resistance and adaptation levels in the individual to a certain point, but if the stress continues, ultimate exhaustion will occur. Prolonged exposure to occupational distress was found to work in a counter productive way, setting the stage for future pathology. Burned out is a feeling of exhaustion and fatigue, the symptoms like cold, suffering from frequent headaches and gastrointestinal disturbances, sleeplessness, and shortness of breath. In short, one becomes too somatically involved with one's bodily functions and the causes being as a result of working too much, too long and too intensely.

Burnout usually takes place when people lose all their concerns, all their emotions for the persons they work with and treat them in a detached or even dehumanizing manner. Burnout usually takes place when one is forced to provide care for too many people. Mental exhaustion develops and negative self-concept and a decrease in self-esteem takes place. There is a self-preoccupation and increased negative attitude and self-talk.

2.2 Studies on Teacher Stress

There have been several studies conducted on the stress of students, teachers and on several industrial workers and executives. Here the focus is the studies on teachers though other groups are also touched.

Kyriacou and Sutcliff (1978) randomly selected a sample of around 1000 teachers from 16 schools to carry out a research on teachers stress. They found out this association between biographical characteristics and teacher reported stress. They also

found out that different sources of stress applied to different teachers. Some of the sources of stress were multi-dimensional like feeling frustrated and getting exhausted were common symptoms experienced by the teachers.

Mistry (1985) conducted a study among college and secondary teachers where need achievement, job satisfaction, job involvement were as function of role stress. The sample consisted of 202 teachers from colleges and secondary schools of Ahmedabad. Some of the major findings were: inter-role distance, role-stagnation, role ambiguity, role overload, role inadequacy and overall indices of role stress were found to be negatively associated with all but the social relations dimensions of job satisfaction.

Solomon and Feld (1989) conducted a study and used a total sample of 82 schools in Australia. Out of the 800 questionnaires that were distributed, 437 valid questionnaires ones were returned. The percentage of return rate was 55%. However, there was no difference detected between the stress of male and female teachers. The Years of Teaching Experience did not contribute significantly to the stress but age of the teachers did make a significant difference. The position held in the school contributed significantly to the variation in stress owing to the pupil misbehavior. Also the stress would vary according to the demands as well.

Ushashree and Jamuna (1990) studied the job stress among general and special teachers. No difference in stress showed between male and female teachers. Not the years of teaching but the age of teachers found to be significantly related to stress. The position held in school and the pupil misbehavior contributed significantly to the variation of stress. According to the demands at times the stress varied. 20 male and female teachers working in a special school for physically and sensory disabled pupils, and a random sample of 20 male and 20 female teachers from general high school were the sample that was selected. Both the schools were managed by the same trust. The same grade level teachers were between 35 to 40 years of age. On all four sub-scales – career satisfaction, perceived administrative support, coping with stress and attitude towards students, the special school teachers were under more job stress both men and women from special school were similar in their experience of

stress. The special school teachers had significantly negative perceptions about administrative support. Among general school teachers, men appeared to be more under stress than women were.

As per Dabrowski (1991) of the sample of 41 male and 36 female teachers from a single suburban school to study stress showed the findings didn't differ in stress level when considering the number of years of experience, level of education and content area, there was no difference in the stress of male and female teachers. The main cause of stress was due to the poorly motivated students. Excessive work, inadequate disciplinary policies as well as being uninvolved in the decision-making process were the main significant sources of stress at high school level and across all subject areas. One of the sources of stress especially for male teachers was due to the lack of promotion opportunities for them.

Okebukola (1992) conducted a survey and studied 150 science teachers and came to the decision that the most stressful factors were difficulty in obtaining equipment, teaching difficult topics, completing syllabi on time and teaching subjects that one is not trained for. The female teachers were found more stressed than the male, the inexperienced were more stressed than the experienced, and chemistry teachers were more stressed than the physics or biology teachers.

As per the study conducted by Hatta and Nishide (1992) where stress of primary school teachers (PST) was compared with that of white-collar workers (WCW). The sample of the study consisted of 97 male and 127 female teachers and 163 male and 87 female white-collar workers. The findings showed that primary school teachers were more stressed than the while collar workers.

VAZ (1994) studied and conducted the causes of stress of school teachers and suggested some methods to manage stress. The sample consisted of 1,000 teachers. Some of the findings were excessive number of students in each class and plenty of corrections to be done which led to stress among the teachers. Male teachers are more affected by stressors than female teachers. On the job stressors are perceived more by

the unmarried than the married teachers. Teachers with higher educational qualifications were found to have more stress. Temporary teachers are more stressed out than the permanent ones. Poor physical amenities as well as insufficient salary were found to lead to stress among the teachers.

Misra (1986) conducted a research on the meaning in life, stress and burnout among teachers of secondary schools in Calcutta. The sample consisted of 345 teachers from 15 secondary schools and in-service population of three teachers training institutions in Calcutta. Some of the major findings were: There was a significant difference between the relationship of stress studied through tests and stress reported by the teachers. With regards to stress age made a significant difference for the teachers and the sample teachers had a lower degree of Burnout and also gender made significant difference on the Burnout variable.

Misra (1992) analyzed BO in relation to stress in the teaching profession. The sample consisted of 200 primary teachers. The study showed that the teachers with low levels of stress in their jobs felt were more emotional exhausted and felt more competent in teaching in comparison to teachers with higher levels of stress. Teachers with more experience in their profession felt less emotional exhaustion.

Sen (1995) studied work-related mental health with respect to the job stressors and coping strategies. The study conducted the influence of coping strategies as an intervening variable on the context-free mental health of an individual. The sample of 145 was taken from the three different types of organizations, which were the public, private, and semi-government, i.e. university. The employees of the private and public sector were selected for the study. Some of the important findings were: The employees in the private sector showed more EE and DP. Only the university teachers had a significant PA and occupational satisfaction. Depression and anxiety were very common in the private sector and least in the public sector.

Shukla (1996) studied 93 secondary school teachers from 11 secondary schools of Mumbai. She used the MBI and measured both the frequency and intensity of Burnout. She found that the effectiveness of the teacher was positively related to both

the frequency and intensity of PA. There was a negative correlation of the frequency and intensity of EE and the effectiveness in teaching. The study showed no significant difference in the relationship between teacher stress and its impact on teacher's qualification, age, and subjects taught, type of institution – single sex or co-educational institution.

Fernandes and Murthy (1989) carried out a study on job-related stress and burnout among the middle and secondary school teachers. The physical and mental health of teachers was an important issue. The teaching profession by and large can be quite stressful. A negative consequence of this stress is burnout where there is a lack of enthusiasm, a feeling of physical and mental fatigue. The study was undertaken to explore the prevalence of stress and burnout in teachers teaching in Bangalore city schools. It was hypothesized that stress experienced on the job would be a cause of burnout for the higher age group. The teachers who were married and those who taught more number of grade levels showed more traces of burnout. A structured information schedule, the stress symptom questionnaire and Maslach's Burnout Inventory (MBI) were administered to a sample of 50 female middle and secondary school teachers drawn from seven schools of Bangalore. There were 41 married and 9 single teachers, belonging to the age group of 22-59 years. All teachers belonged to class II of the socio-economic status. It was found that 76 percent of the total sample faced stress on the job, though the degree to which they experienced stress differed. Discipline of the students was one of the most stressful events, the other stressors were time pressures, poor working conditions and poor school environment.

Ushasree and Jamuna (1990) examined role conflict and job stress among special and general school teachers. The sample consisted of 40 special school teachers where 20 men and 20 women of the Tirumala Tirupati Devashanam's (TTD) school for the deaf and dumb was selected, and a random sample of 60 teachers men and women were taken in equal number 30 each from TTD's high school. The teachers were in the 35-40 years age group. Bhushan's Teacher's Role Conflict Inventory and an adapted version of Seidman and Zager's Teachers' Burnout Scale (TBS) were used to assess role conflict and job stress. The analysis did not show any sex differences among

teachers from special schools on role conflict and job stress. The data however explained that the women teachers in general schools were found to experience greater role conflict and had poor attitudes towards their students and were less satisfied with their careers as compared to their male counterparts in general schools. Teachers from the special schools among the men and women were found to experience significantly greater role conflict and job stress compared to their counterparts in general schools.

Jamuna and Ushasree (1990) conducted a study to examine burnout among teachers among the private and public schools. The sample consisted of 120 women teachers of private (N = 60) and public (N=60) schools of Tirupati, 30 each in the age group of 30-40 and 40-50 years. Seidman and Zager's Teachers' Burnout Scale the adapted version was used to assess burnout. The analysis showed that women among the lower age group exhibited a higher degree of burnout. Also, there was a significant difference between the private and public school teachers in the three subscales (TBS) a) career satisfaction, b) perceived administrative support, and c) coping with job related stress.

Organizational stress among women teachers and nursing staff was conducted by Sultan Akhtar and Vadra (1990). Researchers have found out that role stress arising from social and family situations has an impact of stress for the people at work. The sample consisted of 60 women teachers and 50 nursing staff. Vadra and Akhtar (1989) scale for Social Family Role Stress (SFRS) was used for measuring extra organizational role stress. The findings were that for women teachers, job tenure emerged as the significant predictor of social and family stress while for nurses, the number of dependents contributed significantly to the prediction of social and family role stress.

Vadra and Sultan Akhtar (1989) conducted a study on university teachers (N=120) to determine the stressors emanating from home and family situations. They used the SFRS Scale, which was developed by them. The results indicated that the male teachers experienced more social and family role stress in comparison to the female teachers and the married were under more stress than the unmarried teachers.

Biswas and De (1993) studied and conducted impact of organizational climate on professional stress for 34 male teachers working in an open climate (OCT) and 34 male teachers working in a paternal climate (PCT). The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire and the Teachers' Professional Stress Scale were used for the respondents. The data analysis revealed that the teachers working in an open climate experienced less stress, powerlessness and social isolation than the teachers working in a paternal climate. It was also revealed that the teachers had less negative orientation and affection towards different aspects of their job and professional lives in an open climate.

P.C. Mishra (1995) conducted a study to find out among the male teachers of higher educational institutions their relationship between jobs related stress and depressed mood at work. Job– Related Stress Index was used which was developed and standardized by Koch (1982) helped to measure the Job-related stress, and the depressed mood at work was measured with the help of Depressed Mood at Work Scale developed and standardized by Quinn and Shepard (1974). These two scales were used for a sample of 70 male teachers employed in higher educational institutions in Lucknow. The results revealed a highly significant and positive relationship of over-all job-related stress like the role based stress, task based stress, boundary mediating stress and conflict mediating stress, with depressed mood at work among male teachers of higher educational institutions.

Sultana (1995) conducted a study to investigate the level of organizational role stress among male and female teachers of professional and non-professional courses. A group of 50 teachers each from professional courses and non-professional courses were compared on role stress. The ORS Scale (Pareek,1983c) was administered to the respondents to assess 10 role stress variables as well as total role stress. The following conclusions of the study were obtained:

a. There was a significant difference between professional male and female teachers where the inter-role distance, role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role erosion, role overload and role ambiguity was concerned.

b. Non-professional male and female teachers on the dimensions of role expectation conflict, role isolation, personal inadequacy, self-role distance and role ambiguity also showed significant difference.
c. There were significant differences between professional and non-professional male teachers on the role stress dimensions of role stagnation, role expectation conflict and role isolation.
d. And lastly, there were also significant differences between professional and non-professional female teachers on the role stress dimensions of inter-role distance, role stagnation and role overload.

P.K. Mishra (1996) conducted a study related to teachers and the main objective of the study was to compare the levels of occupational stress and job satisfaction among male and female teachers of higher educational institutions. The study was based on a sample of 80 degree college teachers which comprised of 40 males and 40 females. Two psychometric instruments, namely, the Stress Scale and the Job Satisfaction Scale were administered to the sample population for the purpose of the study. To analyze the data the critical ratio test and coefficients of correlation were used. The following conclusions and findings were obtained:

a. There were significant differences observed between male and female teachers in the areas of private life, work overload, under-load, role conflict, and interpersonal stress. However, the female teachers experienced more stress in these areas as compared to male teachers.
b. There were no significant differences found between the two groups in environment, structure of institution, and personal areas.
c. However, significant differences were also observed between male and female teachers on overall stress and overall job satisfaction scores.
d. In both the groups stress was found to be correlated negatively and significantly with job satisfaction.
e. Female teachers obtained maximum scores on overload area whereas male teachers obtained maximum scores on under-load area

Job dissatisfaction, absenteeism and work turnover are the results of high levels of occupational stress. Response correlates of teacher stress may be psychological e.g. anxiety, depression, physiological e.g. headaches, hypertension, increased blood pressure or behavioral e.g. alcohol consumption, smoking, lifestyle, sleeping problems. Poor career structure and low wages are to be linked with those responses from the sources of stress. In brief, it is the prevailing conditions of work and not the experience of teaching, which are the causes of the stress factors, which most strongly contribute to job dissatisfaction and intention to leave teaching (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979).

Numerous and various studies exist in the relevant literature identifying the main job that stressors facing teachers. The major aspects reveals the specific factors that are responsible for high levels of psychological pressure for teachers, such as: high ratio between teacher-pupils, limited progress of pupils, heavy workload, role overload and role conflict, relationships with colleagues, the poor working environment, insufficient salary, status, time, resource difficulties, professional recognition needs (Borg et al. 1991; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979; Kyriacou, 1987; Manthei & Solman, 1988; Laughlin, 1984; Travers & Cooper, 1996; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998) .

There are quite a few studies focusing on specialist samples of teachers such as teachers in special schools, teachers of primary or secondary schools (Chaplain, 1995; Manthei & Solman, 1996), newly qualified teachers, heads of department or head teachers (Cooper & Kelly, 1993; Friedman, 1995). Children with special educational needs have been recognized as creating additional pressures for teachers (Galloway, 1985, Upton, & Varma, 1996). The stressful effects of teaching pupils with various different special needs have been examined including the hearing impaired (Luckner, 1989; Fraser, 1996) children with severe difficulties (Sutton & Huberty, 1984; Ware, 1996) and reading difficulties (Carlile, 1985). The Special Educational Needs (SEN) of the teachers, the additional sources of stress refers to the individual learning, emotional and other needs of the children that may be the cause of mental, physical or sensory impairments. Research showed that work related variables were better predictors of commitment and job satisfaction. Examples include excessive

paperwork requirements, increasing caseloads, low salaries, lack of administrative support, challenging student behaviors and lack of visible student progress (Cooley & Yovanoff, 1996).

Job satisfaction, absenteeism and intention to leave (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1979) are the three measures that have been widely employed as response correlates or indices of occupational stress. Medium or low levels of job satisfaction and high levels of turnover are the teachers' stress and especially the SEN teachers' stress. It has been found that 80% of the head teachers of special schools of the sample, believed that the teaching profession was a very stressful occupation and more than 50% of the sample did not plan to continue this occupation in the future (Male & May, 1997), a study carried out in 1996. (Cooley & Yovanoff, 1996) American studies have explained the critical staff shortages in special education, due to declining enrollments in special education teacher preparation programs in effect reducing the available supply of new teachers. The problems on the other hand are the growing demand for special educators owing to the increasing population of children who require special educational needs and services.

Studies conducted in mainstream schools namely the primary and secondary schools showed that for secondary school teachers the negative feelings, the area of school, the teachers' goals - occupational and financial and women appeared more vulnerable than men, seemed to be associated with increased stress levels and psychosomatic symptoms (Papastylianou, 1998). Primary and secondary school teachers' burnout were compared with that of other professional groups like doctors, nurses and social workers. The findings were that secondary school teachers demonstrated quite high levels of emotional exhaustion but showed low levels of depersonalization and on the other hand high levels of personal accomplishment. The author concluded that in general, the burnout ratings were lower than those reported in the US norms. The primary school teachers were moreover a group with the lowest levels of professional burnout mainly due to the less demanding work at hand and the long holiday periods (Kantas, 1996).

The National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT) in a survey of head teachers May 2000, in the previous year 40% of respondents reported having visited their doctor with a stress-related problem. 15% believed they were alcoholics and 20% considered that they drank too much. Hypertension, depression, insomnia and gastrointestinal disorders were the health problems that almost 25% suffered, which were stress related.

Stress has a lot of impact on teacher retention. From the studies conducted for the Times Educational Supplement in 1997 found that 19% of primary vacancies were due to ill health and 37% of secondary vacancies, as compared to 9% of nursing vacancies and 5% in banking and the pharmaceutical industry. Stress has also an effect on recruitment. A MORI poll of 2017 British adults conducted in April 2001 proved that teaching is seen as poorly paid, hard and held in low public esteem. Non-graduates were better off as graduates had more negative thoughts.

2.3 Causal factors in teacher stress

Stress is a consequence of interaction between the individual and the environment either professional or social. However, where teacher stress is concerned there are three main factors a) inherent to the profession itself by virtue of being a teacher b) factors as a consequence of system in which the teacher operates, and c) institutional and political factors.

Travers & Cooper (1997) surveyed 800 teachers in England and France about stress and found considerably different responses. 22% of sick leave in England, as opposed to 1% in France, was attributed to stress. 55% of the English teachers as opposed to 20% of the French sample reported recently considering leaving teaching. Interestingly, there was substantial agreement between the English and French teachers as to the sources of pressure, both groups citing classroom discipline, low social status and lack of parental support. However, English teachers reported more problems with long hours, overwork and political interference.

Factors intrinsic to teaching: Research has recommended that a number of stressors are built in or intrinsic to teaching. Travers & Cooper (1997) studies showed that excess workload and long working hours emerged as particular issues for English teachers as opposed to colleagues in France. When Travers & Cooper (1997) questioned British teachers across all educational sectors high workload, poor status and poor pay emerged as three out of the seven major sources of stress - the others being systemic in origin. Another study by Male & May (1998) of learning support coordinators in Further Education colleges further illustrates the importance of these factors. 35 coordinators were assessed for burnout, stress and health and that work overload, long working hours, and exhaustion were the evidences of stress.

Workload may take place when an employee has to cope with a number of competing roles within their job. Pithers & Soden (1998) studies has highlighted role overload as a significant stressor in teachers. They assessed levels of strain, organizational roles and stress in 322 Australian and Scottish vocational and FE lecturers. Strain was found to be common in both national groups, but there were high levels of stress, with role overload emerging as the major cause.

Another interesting factor was classroom discipline which is also a significant source of stress class room management was the second largest source of anxiety followed by apprehension about evaluation. Lewis (1999) examined teachers' estimations of stress arising from being unable to discipline pupils in the way they would prefer. However, it must be noted that despite continuous teaching practice there was no decline in class room management anxiety. This was a result of a study of 1000 student teachers (Morton et al, 1997).

Evaluation apprehension is an issue of increasing importance. The phenomenon is currently under-researched in qualified teachers, although there is a modest body of research on student teachers. Capel (1997) questioned student PE teachers following first and second teaching practices on their levels and sources of anxiety. Evaluation apprehension emerged as the stressor in both practices. Similarly, the Morton et al

study (above) found that of all the sources of stress for student teachers, evaluation apprehension was the greatest, although it declined following teaching practice, suggesting that it is reduced by exposure and positive experiences of observation feedback. The moderating effects of exposure to lesson observation are an area requiring further research.

Cognitive vulnerability to stress: contemporary research, which looked at cognitive factors affecting individual vulnerability to stress amongst teachers was investigated. Chorney (1998) self-defeating beliefs by asking 41 teachers to identify what they must do to be a good teacher. Interestingly 92% of responses were at absolute terms, such as 'must', 'need' etc.

Another study by Bibou-Nakou et al (1999) showed that there was significant co-relation between internal attributes and symptoms of burnout. 200 primary school teachers were presented with four hypothetical class management situations and they were questioned as to their attributions in each case. There was a significant association between internal attributions and symptoms of burnout, suggesting that teachers who blame themselves for difficulties are more vulnerable to stress.

Self-efficacy i.e not being able to live up according to their ideal performance has been shown in a study by Friedman (2000) as a cognitive vulnerability factor. The same was also endorsed in another study by Brouwers & Tomic (2000) where structural equation modeling was used to analyze the relationships between self-efficacy and burnout in 243 secondary school teachers. It emerged that self-efficacy had a synchronous effect on personal accomplishment and a longitudinal effect on depersonalization.

Individual difference in coping style a research by Griffith et al (1999) where high levels of stress were directly associated with low social support, the use of disengagement and suppression of competitive activities as coping devices. Interestingly coping style also influenced the teacher's perception of being stressful. In his study Griffith et al (1999) questioned 780 primary and secondary school

teachers with the aim of finding the different stressors. In a different approach by Admiraal et al (2000), a strong relationship emerged between coping style involving active behavioral interaction and teacher satisfaction and a weaker relationship with pupil time on task was also evident. 27 student teachers gave a total of 300 responses to indicate their coping responses to everyday stressful classroom situations.

Given the sound base of evidence for cognitive factors underlying individual vulnerability to teacher stress and the strong empirical base of cognitive-behavioral therapy it is theoretically likely that CBT-based interventions may be effective in teacher stress. However electronic searches of PSYCH-INFO, ERIC and the British Education Index revealed no outcome studies for CBT in the context of teacher stress.

Systemic factors: these are mainly factors, which are consequence of the wider context of education including political domain. Travers & Cooper (1997) found that most teachers blame paucity of government support, insufficient information about changes, constant change and the demands of the National Curriculum as the biggest contribution of stress. These 'trickle-down' systemic factors act in addition to and feed into the dynamics of individual organizations (Jennings & Kennedy, 1996).

Dussault et al (1999) assessed isolation and stress in 1110 Canadian teachers and found a strong co-relation between institutional factors such as social support among colleagues and leadership styles in affecting levels of stress. In another study Van Dick et al (1999) questioned 424 teachers from across all German sectors about their work stress, social support and physical illnesses. It was found that social support had both a direct positive effect on health and a buffering effect in respect of work stress.

Harris (1999) assessed teacher stress and leadership style in three American primary schools, using the Wilson Stress Profile for Teachers. It was found teachers had low stress in schools, whereas the principal was rated high in both task and relationship focus i.e strategic vision and close personal relationship with staff. Therefore, leadership style seems to be partly responsible for "trickle- down" stressors. Hoel et al (1999) surveyed English teachers and found that 35% reported having been bullied by

a manager in the last five years, as opposed to an average of 24% across all occupational sectors. Cooper interpreted this in terms of managers failing to cope with workloads and resorting to bullying as a maladaptive coping strategy.

2.4 Interventions in teacher stress

Despite the vast literature of generic stress management the quantum of research into solutions and interventions to deal with teachers stress is negligible. PSYCH-INFO, ERIC and British Education Index searches revealed only two studies in the last five years. In one of these, Hall et al (1997) studied the effect of human relations training on teacher stress. 32 participants took part in a 2-year humanistic-experiential Masters Degree program and were interviewed at the end of the course. As a result of the course stress was reported as having been reduced. The other published study, by Anderson et al (1999) concerned the effectiveness and impact of meditation as a stress-management strategy. 91 teachers took part in a five-week course of meditation. The levels of stress were compared before and after. As hypothesized, levels of stress were lower following the course.

A qualitative study on occupational stress was conducted by Dickie (1995) to examine and analyze stress situations and stress programs for faculty members in one community college in Ontario. The study was conducted and some of the issues that were examined from the teachers were that the results revealed that among 11 teachers that were interviewed only 1 proved to be in a very extreme stressful condition and the others were low and moderately stressed teachers. However, it has to be considered that the participation rate was quite poor, particularly for those who needed the services most. The same study was strictly qualitative in nature, it did not investigate the statistical significance between the perception of stress and demographic variables, and examining only one college further limits the generalizabilty of the results.

A survey was conducted by Grant (1991) to find stress factors affecting college educators in Ontario. Results showed 53% (66 out of 125) who returned the questionnaire rated stress level from moderate to quite stressful. The areas that

showed maximum stress were: student literacy, numeric skills, indoor air quality, lack of student motivation and available supplies and resources. The main aspects of this study were to enhance both corporate and personal wellness. Other colleges in Ontario were not taken for the study and only one college was considered however, for the researchers in future it would be appropriate to examine the educators in other locations as well was suggested.

Woolley (1983) investigated and conducted a research in the field of occupational stress among the college administrators in Ontario with the help of a survey and found that both type A behavior which was aggressive and the quality of interpersonal relationships at work had significant influence on the intensity of perceived occupational stress. However, the study was not successful to identify the relationship between stress perceived by administrators and college educators. It has been recommended that future research to be conducted to elucidate the correlation between occupational stress perceived by college administrators and college educators.

"Administrative structure is the salient force in the establishment and maintenance of a positive emotional climate" (Whiteman et al, 1985, p.301). Eustress is associated with educators positive working environment which are considered to be a positive and a desirable stress, and when compared to distress is a result of poor working climate which are very negative and undesirable and which ultimately leads to occupational stress. "Management must accept responsibility for the role they have in the remediation of teacher burnout" (Gold, 1985, p.212). "A supportive administration, and particularly direct support from the chairperson, has surfaced as an important factor in stress reduction in the workplace (Dickie, 1995). "The element of 'buffers' has been identified as the needed administrative support" (Conorolly and Saunders, 1988, p.11).

It was reported by Kaikai (1990) that college administration can help their faculty to overcome and minimize burnout by recognizing, realizing and rewarding teaching excellence, nominating excellent teachers for external teaching awards, and attending

seminars, workshops, and conferences. Promoting faculty for performance, and giving extra merit salary increments to educators of recognized excellence are ways of rewarding faculty, and reducing their occupational stress. The future research to examine and consider the relationship on the role of management and educators in reducing the occupational stress. Future studies and research in the literature on the role of management in reducing the occupational stress experienced by educators is highly recommended to examine in detail this relationship.

The factors that are responsible for occupational stress are: social, political, cultural, organizational settings, psychological, biological, physical and environmental. Occupational stresses, which are influenced by political and sociological factors, are more complex in nature compared to the sources of stress derived from work. A positive work environment which leads to occupational eustress is a cause of good team spirit, respect, acceptance and friendly social interactions and occupational distress is a cause of hostile work environment that fosters racism, sexism and office politics. Workers' participation in the decision-making process on issues affecting the organization have proven to be related to job satisfaction, and enhanced self-esteem. Management styles to be very constructive will help establish vision, mission and strategic planning of any organization are the current trends to ensure a healthy working environment and socio political work environment as well.

There fore from this review it is that more research in the area of occupational stress perceived by college educators is needed to elucidate the nature and extent of occupational distress/eustress as well as possible coping strategies in this age of rapid change.

The environment, in which teaching and learning takes place may be at school or at a class room level, will influence the attitude of teachers to work, teacher productivity, and students' learning. The findings at a school level will reveal the interactions among teachers and will have an influence on the on school climate (Borg, Riding, & Falzon, 1991).

The past decade has witnessed a marked increase in concern about issues dealing with interpersonal relations among teachers (see International Labor Organization (ILO) reports summarized by Johansson, 1989; Richter, 1989). Within this domain of interest, occupational stress among teachers is a subject that is receiving increasing attention. This increasing level of concern may be linked with declining achievement levels of students as reported by national and international studies such as the National Assessment of Education Progress in the U.S. (Doran, 1990), the 1985 British Assessment of Performance Unit (Doran, 1990), and the First and Second International Studies in Science (Helgeson, 1988) and Mathematics (Phillips, 1983; Purves, 1989).

Kyriacou (1987) describes the situation that teachers are being subjected to a great deal of stress than before and this has an impact on productivity. Declining in the teacher productivity has resulted into declining students' achievement (Anderson, 1989; Helgeson, 1988). Selye (1956), one of the early workers in the area of stress, defines stress as a non-specific response of the body to any demand made on it to adapt (what he called the General Adaptation Syndrome). Some stress is seen as being essential to promote growth: what Selye (1974) called "one of the spices of life."

Some of the most common sources of stress for teachers were: poor working conditions (Okebukola & Jegede, 1989), misbehavior of students (Dunham, 1984), lack of resources for teaching (Smilansky, 1984), overload with non-teaching duties (Payne & Furnham, 1987), and students' poor attitude toward work (Kyriacou, 1987). Cox and Brockley (1984) conducted that 67% of the teachers in their sample indicated that their work was the main source of stress as opposed to 35% of the non-teachers in the sample. Cox and Brockley (1984) concluded that "work appears as a major source of stress for working people, with teachers appearing to experience more stress through work than non-teachers" (p. 84). Adding to this growing literature, Coldicott (1985) showed that "difficult individual pupils" and "trying to maintain and raise standards" were the most stressful for teachers in his sample, among a list of 21 possible sources of stress. In Wilkinson's (1988) survey, it was found that the major sources of stress for teachers were "difficulty achieving desired standards in lessons",

"lack of facilities," "daily workload being too great," and "class sizes too large for facilities." The survey of 296 primary school teachers conducted by Spooner (1984) also provided a list of factors, which stress teachers. Top on the list were "lack of time with individual pupils," "little time to relax," "visits by inspectors," "insufficient time to complete work," and "dealing with uncooperative pupils."

Dunham (1984) conducted research that "feelings of exhaustion," "irritability," and "tension headaches" were the most frequent causes of stress by teachers. Wilkinson's (1988) conducted a research and study of 60 teachers also showed that the respondents reacted to stress and the indications were "irritability," "frustration," "tension," "anxiety," and "disturbed sleep." In his study of stress, Spooner (1984) used five physiological stress indicators --the diastolic blood pressure, pulse rate, palmer sweat index, galvanic skin resistance, and urinary cortisol output. Results showed that these measures displayed an overall increased response to stress during the school term, with periods of reduced stress reaction during the holidays. Spooner (1984) concluded that stress experience increased as the school term progressed.

Handy (1988) sees stress more of an individual level which are caused by subjectively perceived stressors. Teacher stress, on the other hand, has been defined as the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger, and depression resulting from events or situations within the teaching work environment (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978).

Stress has been identified as one of the factors related to teacher attrition and is believed to be a cause of high teacher turnover and absenteeism in parts of the Pacific (Hammond & Onikama, 1997). The Retention and Attrition of Pacific School Teachers and Administrators (RAPSTA) studies (1998), conducted by PREL's Research and Development (R&D) Cadre in the ten U.S.-affiliated Pacific island groups, addressed these factors among Pacific educators. Teachers in American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (CNMI), the Federated States of Micronesia (FSM)—Chuuk, Kosrae, Pohnpei, and Yap—Guam, Hawaii, the Republic of Palau, and the Republic of the Marshall Islands answered questionnaires

regarding their days away from school, their desire to leave teaching, and their reasons for leaving the profession. They also rated themselves on workplace stress using a modified version of the 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)—Educators Survey (Maslach, Jackson, & Schwab, 1986).

The consequences of stress may lead to problems in the workplace, such as poor morale, job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, lowered productivity, and high medical care costs (Kedjidjian, 1995). Job satisfaction is negatively related to teacher absenteeism (Pellicer, 1984; Scott & Winbush, 1991). "At the school level the increase in stress is reflected in a growing average annual days of teacher absences and a rise in the number of early retirements" (Gaziel, 1993, p. 77).

Teachers in particular represent a large proportion of work-related stress claims (WorkCover Western Australia, 1998). These claims cost the schools in billions of dollars in terms of medical costs, substitute teachers, and disability payments. Work-related stress accounts for many workers' compensation and disability claims.

In many of the Pacific islands it has been noted that high teacher absenteeism are a cause of primary concern. Many parents and students feel that student academic difficulties are due, in part, to frequent teacher absenteeism (Pacific Region Educational Laboratory R&D Cadre, 1995a; 1995b; 1995c). Research on the continental U.S. indicates that higher teacher absenteeism is related to lower student outcomes (Madden, Flanigan, & Richardson, 1991; Pitkoff, 1993; Ballou, 1996; Woods & Montagno, 1997). Citing analyses from the 1990 Schools and Staffing Survey, Ballou (1996) reports that "...absenteeism increases with higher percentages of poor and minority students. Thus, absenteeism is worst in precisely those schools that can least afford the loss of services of regular teachers" (p.6).

Lower student achievement can result from substitute teachers who are "significantly less effective in classrooms than the regular teachers" this is the cause of Pacific islands where substitute teachers are available (Manlove & Elliott, 1979). In entities where substitutes are not available (e.g., Federated States of Micronesia, Republic of

Palau, and Republic of the Marshall Islands), students might not attend school because a teacher is not present to teach them. Thus, valuable instructional opportunities and learning time are lost.

Landsbergis and Vivona-Vaughn (1995) evaluated an intervention designed to reduce work-related stress in a large and growing public health agency. During a series of meetings with a facilitator, participants discussed their stressors; developed proposals and action plans to reduce the stressors; provided feedback to the other employees; and encouraged and assisted management in implementing change to decrease stressful work-based situations.

Work environment is also a causal factor that contributes to teachers' stress was conveyed by the action research of Milstein and Golaszewski (1985). They identified an effective, three-phase organizational intervention for reducing stress: i) teachers and administrators to explain the stress related issues at school; ii) to establish specific goals co- operatively; and iii) develop and implement strategies to modify structures, processes, and behaviors.

Bruning and Frew (1987) explored work ethics and personal values. They examined the importance of setting strategic and tactical goals, seeking collaboration of co-workers, and identifying barriers. This was a longitudinal field experiment which was designed to examine the relative effectiveness of three stress intervention strategies,

Golembiewski, Hilles, and Daly (1987) studied an organizational intervention for human resources staff who became involved in their own stress diagnosis and treatment. The program features included were: (a) listing three things that staff like about their department; (b) listing three "concerns" that they want to change; and (c) discussing the concerns. These steps then resulted in confronting their supervisor with the concerns, and developing—through consensus—a career progression plan for the company.

2.5 Concluding Remarks :

Whilst the total volume of research into teachers stress is substantial, there are notable limitations and demerits. There are substantial factors concluding towards stress among teachers, in particular excessive working hours, apprehensions about evaluation and discipline in particular have been citied as the main stressors. Any research or study may not adequately be the same to generalize for the different states and provinces of a place. In other words it is not homogenous in nature as the educational patterns and systems differ.

The current research involves a small number of studies, involving small numbers of participants and inadequate long – term follow up. Interventions requiring research include some sort of stress management training, increased social support, social events etc and the experiments on reduction of work load. It is also important to understand and study the impact of the current education policies for example the relationship between classroom management, evaluation apprehensions and stress.

Travers & Cooper (1977) study that teachers view stress in environmental terms. This is in contrast with the view of most stress – management trainers who operate at the level of individual. Clearly, there is a difference whether we see stress in the individual or the environment.

Studies have shown quite conclusively Teachers Stress is related to a number of variable factors such as recruitment, health and retention of teachers, individual vulnerability and problems inherited in the system. The current research is not adequate to come up with definite programs to reduce Teachers Stress.