CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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Review of literature gives us the relevant material published in the problem area under study. The studies conducted during the last few decades in the field of Job satisfaction that are relevant and pertain to the present investigation are discussed in this chapter.

It is very essential for every investigator to be up-to-date with regard to information about the literature related to his own problem area already dealt with others. It is considered the most important pre-requisite to actual planning and conducting the study. A summary of the writings of recognized authorities and of previous research provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known and what is still unknown and untested. Since effective research is based upon past knowledge, this step helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provides useful hypothesis and helpful suggestions for significant investigation.

The related literature forms the foundation upon which all the future work will be built. It enables the researcher to know the means of getting to the frontier in the field of his research. It provides ideas, theories, explanations, hypothesis or methods of research in immolating and studying the problems. It furnishes the investigator with indispensable suggestions about the comparative data, good procedure likely methods, procedure, tried techniques etc. The information about the activities of previous investigators stimulates the researcher to use each bit of knowledge as a starting point for a new and further progress. Buds of thought will burst out along the stem of reflection. The art of research reading includes all the same skills that are involved in the art of discovery. Keenness of observation, readily available memory, range of imagination and, of course, a reason trained in analysis of reflection.
2.1 Need of the Review of Literature

Research in any field will be fruitful only when the researcher is aware of the past studies. Research is, and should be, a continuous process in any field of study. Research in education, in particular, has to be developed and supported by an accumulation of previous studies, so as to help the virgin field of education to be professional on the scientific lines. A review of related research is necessary for every research study. The required insight into the problem can be developed as a result of previous research.

Review of the previous literature is not only simply locating, reading and evaluating reports of research as well as reports of causal observations and opinions that are related to the individual’s planned research project. Obviously in order to find the adjustment problems and the stress factors and coping with those factors of student-teachers, the research worker and the investigator should become familiar with the location and use of source of that information.

The review of literature gives the researcher the insight he needs to convert his tentative problem to a specific and concise one. The researcher becomes alert of the possibilities that have been overlooked. Best (1959) rightly pointed out that “A familiarity with the literature in any problem area helps the student to discover what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods of problem solving are promising or disappointing and what problems remain to be solved.

Availability of adequate information about educational thought and research does not, by itself, result in possession of such knowledge by the researcher. The researcher must apply it keenly to the task. On the other hand, a research worker may be very keen to possess up-to-date information regarding his field and may try hard to be posted up-to-date and yet fail to get enough information due to the non-existence of sources of such information.
Study of the related literature, besides allowing the researcher to acquaint himself with current knowledge in the field or area in which he is going to conduct research, serves the following purposes—

Good, Barr and Scates (1941) analysed these purposes as given under

- To show whether the available evidence material solves the problem adequately without further investigation.
- To suggest the research methods to be adopted with regard to the problem.
- To locate comparative data useful in the interpretation of the results.
- To contribute the general scholarship of the investigator.

The review of related literature in the present chapter includes a critical study and appraisal of the reports of different report projects planned and pursued by them which are helpful to the present investigator in the interpretation of his own result. This review also helped the research worker to know what has been done and what have been overlooked or left unexplored. This investigation derived its motivation and direction from the studies of the related previous literature enabling the investigator to develop the right procedure to deal with the problem in its proper prospective.

In the present study an attempt is made to review the related literature in the area of Job satisfaction of teacher educators related to teacher effectiveness, job involvement, home climate and personality characteristics. The related literature is reviewed under the following heads.

i. Job Satisfaction – meaning and importance

ii. Studies on Job Satisfaction of Teaching Professionals

iii. Studies on Job Satisfaction of Teacher Educators

iv. Teaching Effectiveness

v. Studies on Teaching Effectiveness

vi. Studies on Self-concept of teachers and Job Satisfaction

vii. Studies on Job Involvement and Job Satisfaction

viii. Studies on Home Environment and Job Satisfaction

ix. Studies on Personality Characteristics and Job Satisfaction
2.2 Job Satisfaction – meaning and importance

Job Satisfaction is generally defined as affective responses to discriminate characteristics or facets of the task and work environment. These affective responses vary along a like/dislike continuum and reflect a complex process of comparisons between what is experienced on the job, frames of reference which workers have for evaluating what they experience, their expectations regarding what is a fair and equitable return for their efforts; and alternatives available to workers. In agreement with this, Wolman (1977) says Job Satisfaction as “workers satisfactions with different characteristics of their jobs are considered specific instances of the more general class of affective responses labelled attitudes.”

Job Satisfaction as defined by Dictionary.Com is an act of satisfying, fulfilment, gratification. It is the state of being satisfied or contended. It is the cause or means of being satisfied. In the Dictionary of Education Job Satisfaction is defined as the quality, state and level of satisfaction which is result of various interests and attitudes of a person towards his/her job. It is the desire or un-desire with which employees view their work. It expresses the extent of match between the employer’s expectations of the job and rewards that the job provides.

Bullock (1952) has defined ‘Job Satisfaction’ as – an attitude which results from a balance and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in connection with the job.

Job Satisfaction is considered by Kirkpatrick (1960) as having five major factors viz., formal relations with the administration, quality of leadership, job situation, work situation attributes and salary satisfaction. Vroom (1964) has done good progressive work on Job Satisfaction and listed the following dimensions: attitude of the individual towards the company and company management, attitude towards promotion chances, attitude towards job content, attitude towards supervision, attitude towards financial rewards, attitudes towards working conditions, attitude towards workers etc.
Sinha and Agarwal (1971) defined Job Satisfaction as "a persistent effective state which has arisen in the individual as a function of the perceived characteristics of his job in relation to his frame of reference".

Pestonjee and Smith (1973) explained Job Satisfaction in the light of Herzberg's two factor theory and concluded that Job Satisfaction can be taken as a summation of employee's feelings in four important areas. Two of these (job and management) encompass factors directly concerned with the job (intrinsic factors) and the remaining two (Social relations and personal adjustment) include factors not directly connected with the job (extrinsic factors) but which are presumed to have a bearing on job satisfaction. Crosse (1973) discussed the multifaced approach to the measurement of Job Satisfaction and developed a scale with separate sub scales of 6 items each on 1) firm as a whole, 2) pay, 3) promotion, 4) job itself, 5) immediate supervision and 6) co-workers.

Rowntreuil (1981) explained Job Satisfaction as the extent to which each person in an organization obtains satisfaction from the process and context of his work. Maximizing Job Satisfaction and also minimizing frustrations and dissatisfaction is widely recognized as one of the important goals in modern management.

Malone (1993) regarded that 'responsibility, interpersonal relations with student's achievement, interpersonal relations with other teachers and job security to be the primary contributors to Job Satisfaction.

2.2.1 Theories of Job Satisfaction

Several theories exist concerning the dynamics of Job Satisfaction and its general impact upon worker behaviour. A brief mention of the prominent among these seems appropriate. Brophy (1959) classified theories of Job Satisfaction into four types-needs, explanation, role and self.
The need theory was proposed by Morse (1953). According to this, a worker's satisfaction depends upon the function of two factors: 'how much his needs are fulfilled by being in a particular situation' and 'how much his needs remain unfulfilled'. Thus, for calculating the amount of satisfaction the following equation may be used: $S = f(T_1 - T_2)$, where 'S' is satisfaction, 'T_1' is worker's initial tension level and 'T_2' is the tension level after exposure to the vocation.

The second type of theory is based upon the hypothesis that an individual's degree of satisfaction with an activity leading towards a goal is an inverse function of the level of his perceived probability of attaining the goal both in a situation when the goal is attained and in a situation when it is not attained. Katzell's (1964) theory is also based on this model.

The characteristics of the sociological role theory are 1) it involves an evaluation of the environment from a viewpoint external to the individual's rather than from his own phenomenological frame of reference; 2) it considers an aggregate of the individual positions as a single position, and 3) it focuses on people, rather than upon a single person and his interaction with the environment.

According to the self theory, vocational satisfaction is a function of agreement among the worker's self-concept, both real and ideal, and the occupational roles he perceives or plays in the world of work.

a) Need satisfaction Theory (Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs)

Apart from the above classification of theories of Job Satisfaction, there are a few more individual theories, of course, with a little bit overlap from the above mentioned theories. Maslow (1943) has proposed an interesting theory concerning human needs and their effect upon human behaviour. He suggests that human needs may be classified into five different groups as 1) Physio-psychological needs, 2) Safety needs, 3) love needs, 4) Esteem needs, and 5) Self-actualization needs. His basic premises are that 1) the behaviour of any person is dominated and determined by the most basic groups of needs which are unfulfilled; 2) the
individual will systematically satisfy his needs, starting with the most basic and moving up the hierarchy; and 3) more basic needs groups are said to be prominent in that they will take precedence over all those higher in the hierarchy. Maslow enumerated five needs which he arranged in a rank order. The extent to which the total job environment or the various segments of the job environment contribute to the satisfaction of these needs determines the Job Satisfaction of workers.

Following this theory of Job Satisfaction, many psychologists and researchers in the field of personnel management have proposed slightly varied hypothesis that overall satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job. The stronger the need, the more closely will Job Satisfaction depend on its fulfillment. Similarly, Pestonjee (1973) observed that Job Satisfaction is generated by the individual’s perception of how well his job, on the whole, is satisfying his various needs.

Porter (1961) developed a questionnaire containing 15 items designed to provide information about five different motivational need classes which were derived from Maslow. Porter defined need fulfillment as the difference between ‘how much there should be’ and ‘how much is now’ connected with each of the fifteen items. Blai (1982) hypothesized that, in the work environment, degrees of self assessed job satisfactions vary with the strength of the psychological needs satisfied.

b) Two Factor Theory

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) proposed a model of Job Satisfaction called ‘two factor theory’. No theory of Job Satisfaction has received as much attention or has been subjected to as much criticism as has this model. The original study was concerned with an investigation into the causes of Job Satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Each worker was asked to describe, in detail, times when he felt exceptionally ‘good’ or exceptionally ‘bad’ about his job. The responses were then content analysed. Thus, the theory was derived from research using semi structured, critical incident interviews. The results of their study did indicate that things which were associated with high satisfaction (satisfiers) were
somewhat different from the things which were associated with situations of low satisfaction (dissatisfies). They found that the descriptions of good periods included such things as achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility, etc. All of these things seemed to relate to the actual content of the job and, therefore, they were called 'intrinsic' or 'content' factors or motivators. Descriptions of bad work periods seemed to be filled with items dealing with company policy, supervision, salary, and working conditions. These items seemed to relate to the context in which a person performed his task and were, therefore, referred to as 'intrinsic' or 'context' or 'hygiene' factors. Because the model postulates two general classes of variables—one class which can satisfy but not dissatisfy and one which causes dissatisfaction but not satisfaction—the model has been designated as 'Herzberg's two factor theory'.

Studies using these techniques consistently yielded results in which motivators were cited primarily as sources of satisfaction and hygiene primarily as sources of dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966) and provided the primary evidence in support of the theory. Holdaway (1978) found substantial positive relationships between overall satisfaction and achievement, career orientation, recognition, and stimulation. These latter variables were described by Herzberg as 'motivators'. Facets receiving the highest percentages of 'satisfied' mainly involved interpersonal relationships, and freedom in the teaching assignment. Facets receiving the highest percentages of 'dissatisfied' mainly involved social and parental attitudes, preparation time and decision-making procedures. Myers (1964) found that satisfaction was related to intrinsic work factors and dissatisfaction to extrinsic factors. Similar results were obtained by Schwartz, Jenuaitis and Stark (1963) in favour of the two factor theory.

Blum and Naylor (1968) while reviewing the literature pointed out that the factors involved in feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not appear to divide as neatly as assumed by Herzberg's original studies. Ewen et al., (1966) tested a number of hypotheses by using the data provided by 793 employees from various jobs. They found that the results supported neither the Herzberg's two factor theory nor the traditional theory. Instead, results indicated that intrinsic
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Factors were more strongly related to both overall satisfaction and overall dissatisfaction than the extrinsic factors. Armstrong (1971) also concluded that the Herzberg's dichotomy was not supported. Sarveswara Rao (1972) found that both motivators and hygiene contributed to satisfaction and also to dissatisfaction. Limited support for the hypotheses that the dimensional independence of satisfaction and dissatisfaction was found and hence, the assumption underlying the 2-factors theory was questioned. Locke and Whiting (1974) also tested Herzberg's 2-factor theory and concluded that it was not supported.

c) Valence Theory of Job Satisfaction

Vroom (1964) proposed a theory of human motivation which took as its context the individual in the world of work. He used the basic concept of 'valence' as a key notion. He defined valence as "the attractiveness of a goal or outcome." Another definition was "the anticipated satisfaction from an outcome." Vroom suggested that job satisfaction was a reflection of how desirable a person found his job – thus, it was a measure of a person's valence for his work situation. His model predicted the direct relationship between the valence of his job and turnover and absenteeism. Vroom equated job satisfaction with the valence of the job or work role. The overall valence of work role is useful in predicting behaviour in relation to the total work role.

d) Other Theories

The other theories of Job Satisfaction are not so popular as the above theories. But a few researches were undertaken applying these theories. They are very briefly described one by one. Scott (1966) suggested that 'activation theory' was a very appropriate model for understanding the behaviour in work environment. Briefly, activation theory states that the human organism needs stimulation and variety in its environment. Without this, motivation will suffer and frustration may result. Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) defined Job Satisfaction as feelings of affective responses to the work situation. In addition, they posited that these responses are best explained by a discrepancy between the work
motivation attitudes and the incentives offered by the organizations. Similar conceptualizations are the inducement-contributions theory (March and Siman, 1958), the cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) and the inequity theory (Adams, 1963). The basic postulate of these positions is that Job Satisfaction levels are related to the perceived difference between what is expected or desired as a fair and reasonable return (individual motivation) and what is actually experienced in the job situation (organizational incentives).

2.2.2 Models of Job Satisfaction

(i) *Affect Theory:* Edwin Locke’s Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most popular Job Satisfaction model. The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. The degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied / dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren’t met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted positively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn’t value that facet. To illustrate, if Employee A values autonomy in the workplace and Employee B is indifferent about autonomy, then employee A would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy compared to Employee B.

(ii) *Dispositional Model:* It is a very general theory that suggests that people have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction, regardless of one’s job. This approach is a notable explanation of how Job Satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Research also indicates that identical twins have similar levels of Job Satisfaction.

A significant model that narrated the scope of the Dispositional Theory was the Core Self-evaluations Model, proposed by Timothy
Judge in 1998. Judge argued that there are four Core Self-evaluations that determine one’s dispositions towards Job Satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control and neuroticism. This model states that higher levels of self-esteem (the value one places on his/her 'self') and general self-efficacy (the belief in one's own competence) lead to higher work satisfaction. Having an internal locus of control, (believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to outside forces having control) leads to higher Job Satisfaction. Finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher Job Satisfaction.

(iii) **Job Characteristics Model**: Hackman and Oldham proposed the Job characteristics Model, which is widely used as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including Job Satisfaction. The Model states that there are FIVE core job characteristics viz., Skill variety, Task identity, Task significance, Autonomy and Feedback, which impact three critical psychological state) experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes and knowledge of the actual results) in turn influencing work outcomes (Job Satisfaction, Absenteeism, Work Motivation etc.). The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivational potential score for a job, which can be used as an index of how a job is likely to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviours – A meta-analysis of studies that assesses the framework of the model provides some support for the validity of the Job Characteristics Model.

2.2.3 **Job Satisfaction and Emotions**

Moods and Emotions while working are the raw materials which accumulate to form the effective element of Job Satisfaction. Moods tend to be longer lasting but often weaker states of uncertain origin, while emotions are often more intense, short-lived and have a clear object or cause.
There is some evidence in the literature that states that moods are related to overall Job Satisfaction. Positive and negative emotions were also found to be significantly related to overall Job Satisfaction. Frequently experiencing net positive emotion will be a better predictor of overall Job Satisfaction than intensity of positive emotion when it is experienced.

Emotions regulation and emotion labour are also related to Job Satisfaction. Emotion works (or emotion management) refers to various efforts to manage emotional states and displays. Emotion regulation includes all of the conscious and unconscious efforts to increase, maintain or decrease one or more components of an emotion. Although early studies of the consequences of emotional labour emphasised its harmful effects on workers, studies of workers in a variety of occupations suggest that the consequences of emotional labour are not uniformly negative.

It was found that suppression of unpleasant emotions decrease Job Satisfaction and the amplification of pleasant emotions increases Job Satisfaction. The understanding of how emotion regulation relates to Job Satisfaction concerns two models:

(i) Emotional Dissonance: Emotional Dissonance is a state of discrepancy between public displays of emotions and internal experiences of emotion that often follows the process of emotional regulation. Emotional Dissonance is associated with high emotional exhaustion, low organisational commitment and low Job Satisfaction.

(ii) Social Interaction: Taking the social interaction perspective, worker's emotion regulation might beget responses from others during interpersonal encounters that subsequently impact their own Job Satisfaction. For example: the accumulation of favourable responses to displays of pleasant emotions might positively affect Job Satisfaction. Performance of emotional labour that produces desired outcomes could increase Job Satisfaction.
Thus, Job Satisfaction is a strong motivator in work endeavours. Research has shown that Job Satisfaction can lead to high job performance especially for professionals and high-level employees. As jobs and work in the new economy shift to professionalized, knowledge-based, info-tech, info-com and bioscience characteristics, Job Satisfaction will increasingly become a key driver of individual motivation and effort. Research has also shown that there exists a relationship between individual performance measured at a certain time and later, Job Satisfaction. However, this relation is conditional in appropriate form as perceived by the recipient.

2.2.4 Causes for Job Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction

From the above review it is observed that the percent of dissatisfied workers in general and teachers in particular is increasing. The reasons for their dissatisfaction or satisfaction may be many. The review of past studies is necessary to identify the most common factors causing either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Hoppock (1935) explained a dissatisfied person as one who has indicated a distinct and conscious discontent with his job as a whole, according to certain criteria. Horzberg et al. (1957) concluded after their review of research on job attitudes that ‘sustained job-interest’ was very much important for professional people. Harrell (1958) reported that 95% of a group of teachers expressed satisfaction with their job, whereas 98% of a group of textile operatives expressed dissatisfaction with their jobs.

Parassiva Murthy (1966) studied 44 out of 176 employees in an organization and found that 43.18% of the workers were satisfied and 4.55% of them were dissatisfied with their job. Becavar (1969) found that elementary teachers experienced greater satisfaction than they anticipated in teaching while secondary teachers experienced less satisfaction level among the primary and secondary school teachers.

Sud (1972) observed that need for motivating workers arises because of the following reasons:
The employee's usual remuneration (pay or salary) might be insufficient for his paramount needs.

The remuneration might not be commensurate with the work effort required by the employee.

The employee might be expected to perform his tasks in a way which prevented him from deriving adequate satisfaction from other activities.

National Education Association (1981) found "teachers today have more education and experience than they did five years ago, but they consider themselves underpaid and are less sure that they would have chosen teaching as a profession if they have the chance to choose again."

Gartner (1981) further clarified that teachers were quite dissatisfied with a number of things: salaries, stress, the amount of positive reinforcement they receive from parents, their self-concept, etc. Porter (1962) reported that all the respondents felt that there should be more opportunity for their different needs to be fulfilled than actually existed.

Sheppard and Herick (1972) reported that the reason for widespread dissatisfaction among nationwide sample of workers was dehumanizing aspects of technology. Colstello and Lee (1974) found that most subjects were satisfied with their social and security needs and their greatest deficiency was among higher order needs. It was concluded that management should provide incentives to satisfy self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualization needs in order to motivate professional employees.

In a study by Marr and Mathur (1973) it was observed that the large number of Teacher Educators found their work interesting and hence, they were satisfied. Converdale (1973) reported high dissatisfaction among teachers due to bad conditions of service, namely, the inspectorial and transfer system, promotion structure, status, class size, demands on teachers and curriculum, rather than material benefits.
Becvar (1969) found that elementary teachers experienced much satisfaction with the opportunity to be busy in teaching. On the other hand Kalanidhi (1973) concluded that those with personal, financial and/or family strain had less job satisfaction or were more dissatisfied than others without any strain. The factors contributing to satisfaction were moral values, social service and activity, and the factors contributing to dissatisfaction were university policies and practices, advancement and compensation (Benoit, 1977). Rajagopalan and Rajaraman (1977) also concluded that the factors for postgraduate teachers' unhappiness were their management and unsatisfactory student composition.

Ramakrishnaiah (1990), in a study of Job Satisfaction of college teachers, concluded that the factors: head of the institution, physical facilities, self esteem, fringe benefits, entertainment, prestige, academic policies and co-teachers had played a significant role in providing the Job Satisfaction.

Maheswar Panda (2002) conducted a study on Job Satisfaction of teachers in the context of types of management. He found that there is no significant difference between government teachers and private teachers in respect of their Job Satisfaction. And the college teachers, in general as well as both categories were satisfied with their job.

Vijayalakshmi (2005) conducted a study and the findings showed, low and positive correlation between Teacher Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction only the management of the school has significant impact both on Teacher Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction. The other variables included in the study viz., locality, subjects of teaching has no significant impact on both Teacher Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction.

Rajesh Kumar (2008) in his study showed that Teaching Effectiveness had a high and positive correlation with the level of Job Satisfaction of college teachers. He also showed a significant correlation of Job Involvement and self-concept with their level of Job Satisfaction and Teacher Effectiveness.
2.3 Studies on Job Satisfaction of Teaching Professionals

Studies of community college instructors' Job Satisfaction have been conducted since the early 1900's, using a variety of theoretical constructs and measuring widely different dimensions of satisfaction. One group of studies has looked at the effects of personality variables and personal characteristics on Job Satisfaction, while another group has investigated working conditions and specific work activities as causes of teacher burnout and job dissatisfaction.

The reviews of Job Satisfaction are presented hereunder duly classified into two criterion categories that influence Job Satisfaction.

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2.3.1 Head of the Institution / Principal and Job Satisfaction

According to an early survey conducted by Silverman (1957), the teachers have dissatisfaction with their head of the institution / principal. According to Browing (1963), one of the most frequently cited reasons given by former teachers for having left the profession was dissatisfaction with their heads.

One of the most frequently cited reasons for the teachers to leave the profession is dissatisfaction with their principal / boss / head of the institution according to Yuskiewicz and Donaldson (1972).
Engelhardt (1973) found that satisfaction is directly linked to relation of the head of the institution with the teaching staff. According to Ahuja (1976) dissatisfaction develops, when one has to work under an incapable, inefficient and indifferent boss.

Daly (1981) concluded that teacher satisfaction may also be influenced by the perceived ability of the principal to provide rewards for high quality teaching performance. Holder (1985) observed a positive association to exist between the level of teacher job satisfaction and the principal’s perceived level of aloofness.

Ara Nasreen (1986) found that principals’ leadership behaviour was positively related to job satisfaction. High desirable leadership behaviours of the principals generated a higher degree of conformity and normalcy in the teachers and vice versa. Teachers in more open climate schools enjoyed more Job Satisfaction with respect to the principal than the teachers in less open climate schools (Abdul Samad, 1986).

Padmanabhaiah (1984) observed that the factor, head of the institution, is one of the significant factors in deciding the job satisfaction/dissatisfaction of the secondary school teachers.

Ramakrishnaiah (1990) studied the influence of principal on the level of Job Satisfaction of college teachers. He found that the authoritative nature of the principal is highly influencing the level of Job Satisfaction among the college teachers.

Venkateswara Rao (2002) observed in his study on Job Satisfaction of primary school teachers and revealed that the head of the institution (Mandal Education Officer) is significantly influencing in either Job Satisfaction or dissatisfaction among the teachers.

Ramatulasamma (2003) in her study on teacher educators found that the teacher educators expressed that they are having moderate relations with the principal and also stated that even with some reservations, principals play some recognisable role in promoting job satisfaction.
Ramana Raj (2007) observed that the head of the school is positively and significantly influencing the level of Job Satisfaction in higher secondary school teachers.

Sudha Panda (2009) found in her study stated that the residential school teachers were greatly influenced in their level of Job Satisfaction by their principals' behaviour. It is also found that the higher the influence of the principal in academic matters, the lesser is the level of Job Satisfaction of the teachers.

2.3.2 Management and Job Satisfaction

There are different types of managements under which the teacher training institutes are being maintained. Teacher educators may have varied problems and have variation in their level of job satisfaction, working under different management institutions.

Stagner, Flabee and Wood (1952) found that Job Satisfaction was related to better employee–employer relationship. When the behaviour of administrators conformed to teachers' expectations of the former's role, satisfaction was high; non-conformity produced high dissatisfaction (Bidwell, 1959).

Butler (1961) observed that degree of satisfaction was related to feeling of freedom or lack of it that was allowed by the management, in the classroom. Suehr (1962) found that communication was one of the most vital areas in the whole moral process. It was most conspicuous by its absence, and consequently, intended to be a major source of dissatisfaction.

Anjaneulu (1968) in his study on Job Satisfaction of secondary school teachers, educationists, inspecting officers, headmasters and retired teachers, found that in committee schools, the teachers were dissatisfied because of lack of job security, rigid and orthodox service conditions and too much of domination by the management. In mission schools, the factors were low standards of pupils, lack of parental co-operation and lack of right prospects in
the job. In local board schools, the factors were too much interference by politicians, lack of social status, non-availability of suitable accommodation, equipment and furniture. In government schools, rigid and orthodox service conditions, lack of parental co-operation and frequent transfers to distant place were the factors, producing dissatisfaction. Sommers (1969) also observed that most of the teachers felt that there was a lack of communication between teachers and administrators.

Bernard and Kulandaivel (1976) studied Job Satisfaction of high school teachers working under different managements and found that the teachers of aided schools appeared to be better satisfied than the teachers from municipal and government schools. It was also found that teachers working under different managements had different problems. Smith (1977) found the satisfying elements in the principalship to be directly controlled by the principals themselves while control of the dissatisfying elements rested with the upper level school district management. Babjan (1977) found that the teachers employed under private managements were the most satisfied whereas from the government schools were less satisfied. Also the teachers from private and zilla parishad schools were significantly more satisfied than those in government schools. Venkatarami Reddy and Krishan Reddy (1978) observed that the teachers employed under private managements were the most satisfied while those in the government managements were the least satisfied. Similar results were obtained by Venkatarami Reddy and Babjan (1980); and Venkatarami Reddy and Ramakrishnaiah (1981). In a comparative study of Job Satisfaction Tabatabai (1981) revealed that private sector employees were more satisfied with their job than public sector employees.

Results of Dodge’s (1983) study revealed that proclamation factors accounted for 33 per cent of the variance in Job Satisfaction while the personal variables accounted for 2 per cent of the variance. Srivastava (1985) stated that private sector employees scored high Job Satisfaction when compared to the public sector employees. Anitha (1986) reported that teachers from technical and non-technical organizations do not differ significantly in terms of
expressed Job Satisfaction. Saxena (1989) found that the teachers in schools with open climate are likely to show higher overall Job Satisfaction than their counterparts in closed climate schools.

Basha (1994) found that Job Satisfaction was significantly more among the public sector employees than those in private and co-operation management. Further, subjects from the private and co-operative sector did not differ in their Job Satisfaction. Zaffane (1994) found that satisfaction increases when greater certainty about future directions or outcomes of the organizations is experienced. Rana (1994) found that communication was one of the critical areas in the whole process. It was most prominent by its absence, and consequently, intended to be a major source of dissatisfaction.

Maheswar Panda (2002) conducted a study on Job Satisfaction of teachers in the context of types of management. He found that there is no significant difference between government teachers and private teachers in respect of their Job Satisfaction. And the college teachers, in general were satisfied with their job. Venkateswara Rao (2002) found in his study on Job Satisfaction of primary school teachers that primary school teachers working under different managements did not differ significantly in the level of their Job Satisfaction.

Sabarwal (2003) also observed that most of the dissatisfied teachers felt that there was a lack of communication between teachers and administrators.

Vijayalakshmi (2005) conducted a study and the findings showed, low and positive correlation between teacher effectiveness and Job Satisfaction. Only management of the school has significant impact both on teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction. The other variables included in the study viz., locality, subjects of teaching has no significant impact on both teacher effectiveness and Job Satisfaction.
Pradhumna (2008) concluded from a study that the teachers expressed higher level of Job Satisfaction with level of physical facilities available in the schools of Kadalur District, Tamilnadu.

2.3.4 Job Security and Job Satisfaction

Blum and Naylor (1968) made an observation that security contributes Job Satisfaction, but continued that ‘secure’ is social as well as economic. Hence, it is believed that social security and economic security are essential to be happy in any job. Kalanidhi (1973) reported that the women teachers treated security as the most important job factor. Similar results were obtained by the Fortune Survey (1947). It is stated that security for old age was one of the five factors significantly related to Job Satisfaction.

Siva Sankara Reddy and Rahasekhar (1991) found that permanent and temporary job holders differ in their level of Job Satisfaction.

Basappa (2004) observed from his study that the job security of the teachers is one of the significant influencing factors of their level of Job Satisfaction.

Prabhudass (2008) investigated the Job Satisfaction of the technical teachers in Karnataka and reported that the regular faculty had higher Job Satisfaction compared with the part-time instructors.

2.3.5 Colleagues/Co-teachers and Job Satisfaction

Many investigations reported the importance of the cooperation of co-workers with their Job Satisfaction.

Vanjeist (1951) stated that persons who were rated high in interpersonal desirability by their fellow employees were the most satisfied with their jobs.

Schultz (1958) postulated that interpersonal relations involve three fundamental values or need orientations among interactive persons: inclusion, affection and control. Depending on the pattern of the values among group
members, they may be described as compatible or incompatible. Eckert (1959) found that college teacher’s main reason for existing Job Satisfaction stemmed from relationships with the fellow teachers.

Rudd and Wiseman (1962) reported that poor human relations among the staff were noted to be one of the important factors leading to dissatisfaction of teachers.

Harrell (1964) asserts that ‘fellow workers’ is of intermediate importance in estimating the Job Satisfaction. Ganguli (1964) also indicated that ‘good’ personal relations with colleagues were ranked ninth by the respondents among the different factors of Job Satisfaction.

Pestonjee (1967) believes that interaction between members of a work group can lead satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction. Savage, (1967) in his of the teachers noted that good interpersonal relations, especially with students and colleagues, was the motivating factor in Job Satisfaction.

Robert (1977) found that teachers ranked good interpersonal relations as one of the most important job motivation factors.

Bloland and Selby (1980) concluded that the satisfaction derived from interactions with colleagues was disassociated with Job Satisfaction and occupational stability. Ramakrishnaiah (1980) also found that 93% of the college teachers, who are highly satisfied with their job, stated that they have cordial relationships with their colleagues. Davis (1981) found that 80% of the teacher’s problems were emanating only from teacher-colleague relationships. Krisnhamurthy (2006) found in his study that the peer relations among the teachers are an important influencing factor of Job Satisfaction among the teachers working in high schools.

2.3.6 Students and Job Satisfaction

Mukerji (1947) observed that the relationship between the teacher and the student was not intimate, that one was giving shelter to the other whenever there was a need.
Roger (1953), in a study on primary school teachers, found that a majority of them were very much satisfied with their teaching particularly in the area of teacher-pupil relationships.

Lindgren and Patton (1958) reported that attitudes of high school teachers were less favourable towards children and toward current education theory and practice than were the attitudes of teachers in the lower grades.

Dass (1959) studied some of the problems of the pupils of the present day. They are: lack of interest in the subject, lack of original thinking, lack of necessary preparation at home, irregular attendance, being inattentive, indiscipline and disrespect for teachers.

Anjaneyulu (1968) made an observation that satisfied teachers rated a large number of their students as excellent, good and average on pupils’ qualities and behaviour, than dissatisfied teachers. Dissatisfied teachers noted a large number of their students as poor and below average. Hansen and Stanley (1969) found interpersonal relations with students as one of the motivating factors for teachers’ Job Satisfaction.

According to Anand (1971) student’s liking for teachers and teacher’s liking for students was positively correlated to teacher’s Job Satisfaction. Smith (1978) found that working with children was cited most often by teachers as a source of satisfaction with their jobs.

Davis (1981) found that students’ irresponsibility, apathy, and poor attendance made teaching difficult for secondary school teachers.

Parelius (1982) studied on 32 members of different faculties and found that the majority of respondents were displeased with a large number of poorly prepared and unmotivated students.

Brumback (1987) revealed from a study, that the general Job Satisfaction of the teachers was not significantly related to student academic performance.
Edwards (2001) in a study found that the students' code of conduct and accepting the level of education contributed positively to the Job Satisfaction of teachers.

Tuq (2008) observed in his study that the teachers' relationship with the students showed a significant influence on the level of Job Satisfaction. There was a significant and positive relation between the relationship and Job Satisfaction.

### 2.3.7 Rewards, Recognition & Emoluments and Job Satisfaction

Robinson (1960) concluded that the teachers appear to be more interested in public recognition than in recognition from other professionals.

Kay (1963) showed that most subordinates feel that they observed more favourable appraisals than they received. Maier (1965) believed that praise was a form of ego satisfaction.

Clarke (1976) revealed that internal factors include job factors such as recognition, achievement, advancement and responsibility. They are more satisfying for every satisfied teacher. Glicken (1977) concluded from a study on teachers, that their lowest satisfaction was with the promotional opportunities, while their highest satisfaction was with the co-workers.

Supe (1985) found from a study on primary school teachers that out of 78 teachers, 18 marked advancement as one of the determinants of Job Satisfaction.

Johnson (1986) concluded that individual career progress, career opportunities and personal growth and development opportunities significantly influenced Job Satisfaction and commitment.

Kumaran (1994) observed that recognition and appraisal had shown a significant influence on the level of Job Satisfaction of High School Teachers. He also found that the emoluments and prizes received garse a high level of Job Satisfaction in their profession.
Teacher’s work satisfaction decreased to the extent that his aspirations excluded his own expected degree of recognition. Thus, recognition is one of the most significant factors that influences the satisfaction of the teachers.

2.3.8 Occupational Level and Job Satisfaction

Thakur (1954) observed that occupational status was the most significant factor in creating differences in Job Satisfaction. Porter (1962) stated that higher levels of employment offer more ego satisfaction, more status, pay and self direction.

According to Chu (1964) teachers’ prestige is the image of respect in the eyes of the people or the position of authority in the minds of their fellowmen.

Shingwekar (1966) also found that in the present times educational reconstruction can be brought about only when we raise the position and status of the teachers.

Nayyar (1967) said it is difficult to have a disciplined society as long as our teachers are frustrated. We have to put a full stop to the entry of third rate persons in the teaching profession. Such persons neither have a happy life for themselves nor do they work to make successful citizens out of their pupils.

Anjaneyulu (1968) found that post-graduate teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the job as they found their jobs lacking in social status.

Sudha Devi (1991) observed a significant difference in the level of Job Satisfaction between the Undergraduate and Post graduate teachers in the residential schools of Madurai city. Undergraduate teachers experienced higher level of Job Satisfaction compared to the postgraduate teachers.

Pushpavalli (2002) investigated on the teachers of elementary school and reported that the occupational level of the incumbents has shown a significant influence on their level of job Satisfaction.
Raja (2008) found that the level of occupational level of the college
teachers had shown no significant influence on their level of Job Satisfaction.

2.3.9 Gender and Job Satisfaction

Many investigators considered ‘sex’ as one of the variables which
would contribute to Job Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction.

Bange (1944) and Stockford and Kunze (1950) found that women
workers were more satisfied than men. Morse (1953) observed that a higher
overall level of Job Satisfaction has been reported in various studies for
women than for men. According to him there is a less consuming element in
the lives of women and hence of somewhat lesser importance to their status in
the community.

Hollen and Gemmill (1977) reported that women teaching
professionals experienced less perceived participation in decision making, less
overall Job Satisfaction, and more job related tension than their men
counterparts.

Studies on elementary and secondary school teachers (Chase, 1951; and
Belesco and Alutto. 1972) have reported that women teachers tended to be
more satisfied with their job than men teachers. Bernard and Kulandaivel
(1976) also found that women teachers expressed greater Job Satisfaction
compared to their men counterparts.

Englhardt (1973) and Weaver (1977) however, did not find any
significant difference between men and women workers with regard to their
Job Satisfaction. Cohen’s (1977) study also showed that men and women
teachers are remarkably similar. Sex was found to be unrelated to
organizational affiliation, job consciousness, degree of participation in the
local association and degree of participation in the job actions.

Similarly, Atteberry (1977) reported no significant relationship
between sex and Job Satisfaction of elementary school principals.
Gobel (1977) also found that women workers evidenced more dissatisfaction with work than did their men counterparts but they expressed more satisfaction with pay. Similarly, Chen (1977) observed that men teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than were women teachers.

In a study on 240 secondary school teachers, Venkatarami Reddy and Krishna Reddy (1978) found that women teachers were more satisfied than men teachers. Venkatarami Reddy and Babjan (1980); and Venkatarami Reddy and Ramakrishnaiah (1981) and Padmanabhaiah (1984) also obtained similar results.

Female teachers tend to be more satisfied with their current teaching profession and they perceive a more favourable professional environment than male teachers (Smith, 1982). Lewis (1982) and Birmingham (1985) also found that women teachers were more satisfied with their job than men teachers.

Among the university professors it was found that either no significant sex differences in Job Satisfaction exist or that, if found, the differences are not psychologically meaningful (Smith and Lewis, 1982). Surbida (1984) found that there was no significant relationship between principals' sex and their ratings of their overall Job Satisfaction.

Fumham and Goddard (1986) reported no gender difference in overall Job Satisfaction, although women were generally more satisfied with their working conditions than the men. Pratap and Gupta (1986), in a study of 25 male and 25 female employees of similar age, working various in banks found that females were more satisfied with their jobs than males.

Pares Biswas (1994) found that the female secondary school teachers had greater total Job Satisfaction than their male counterparts.

Jalaja (2004) in her study on the Job Satisfaction of the Teacher Educators found that there is no significant relationship between Teacher Educators sex and Job Satisfaction.
Srenivasan (2007) found that all the Teachers irrespective of sex were satisfied with their jobs.

Rajesh (2009) found that sex has no significant influence on the Job Satisfaction of Teachers working in residential and non-residential schools.

2.3.10 Age and Job Satisfaction

Age of an individual is one of the most important demographic variables which influence Job Satisfaction. There is a widespread belief that productivity declines with age.

Hull and Kolstad (1942) observed the results of several investigations and concluded that Job Satisfaction was relatively high at the start, dropped slowly during the fifth or eighth year, then rose again with more time on the job. The highest morale was reached after the twentieth year.

Herzberg et al. (1957) in their review of research and opinion, also reported that, in general Job Satisfaction was high among young workers, low among middle aged employees and that it would increase again after the middle age.

Sinha and Sharma (1962), and Anand (1972) observed a significant relationship between age and Job Satisfaction. Altimus and Tersine (1973) found that younger workers were significantly better in satisfaction with work, self esteem, self-actualization and total work satisfaction.

Saleh and Otis (1964) reported that Job Satisfaction increased up to 60 years of age and then declined in the terminal period of 60-65 years among the managers in different companies.

Age is also one of the most important variables in exercising its influence on Job Satisfaction. But the relationship between them is again complex as pointed out by Hulin (1977) since it is connected with job level, income, personal and family needs and expectations.
Belasco and Alutto's (1972) study indicated the most satisfied teachers to be older and teaching in the elementary school. Similar results were obtained by Smith (1982) and Al-Khaldi (1983). Birmingham (1985) also observed that teachers over 55 years of age and under 25 were the most satisfied.

But three studies conducted by Rao (1970), Pestonjee and Singh (1973), Anand (1977) reported that there was no significant relationship between age and Job Satisfaction of workers. Surbida (1984) also observed that there was no significant relationship between principals' ages and their ratings of their overall Job Satisfaction.

Neeraja Dwivedi and Pestonjee (1975) also reported that age was the important factor which played a significant role in the determination of Job Satisfaction. Holdaway (1978) reported that both facets and overall satisfaction were related to age of the teacher. Kentle (1985) also found that age was significantly related to Job Satisfaction.

Richard and Dewhirst (1979) disclosed that age demonstrated a significant positive relationship with extrinsic satisfaction and there was no such relationship between age and intrinsic satisfaction.

Mokry (1981) in a study, found that the young female teachers begin their job with enthusiasm, hope and satisfaction and older female teachers end up with a feeling of frustration, disappointment and dissatisfaction, whereas young male teachers begin their job with low or average feelings of satisfaction and end up with a somewhat better level of satisfaction. Godkin (1982) also found a positive correlation between the age of respondents and the level of expected satisfaction on their job.

Surbida (1984) observes that there was no significant relationship between principals' age and their ratings of their overall Job Satisfaction. Kentle (1985) found that age was significantly related to Job Satisfaction.
The study conducted by Rana (1990) too reported that there was no significant relationship between age and Job Satisfaction of workers. Das (1994) too observed that there was no significant relationship between the ages of principals’ working in Degree College’s and their ratings of their overall Job Satisfaction. Sajili (1995) reported that the satisfaction increased up to 45 years of age and then declined in the terminal period of 45-65 years among the lectures in different institutions in Uttar Pradesh. Tripri’s (1999) study revealed that the most satisfied teachers tended to be older and teaching in the middle school. Similar results were obtained by Shekah (2003). Aajana (2005) in her study observed that teachers over 55 years of age and under 25 were the most satisfied.

Srenivasan (2007) observed that high age groups have more job satisfaction than low age groups. Ramana (2008) found that as the age increases, the level of Job Satisfaction also increased. He also reported that the aged teachers had higher Job Satisfaction compared to the young teachers.

Promod (2010) examined the influence of age on the level of Job Satisfaction of ITI instructors in Orissa and found that the age of the instructor does not have significant influence on his level of Job Satisfaction.

2.3.11 Teaching Experience and Job Satisfaction

According to Siegel (1969), job experience is related to satisfaction in a rather interesting fashion. As one might expect, new employees tend to be relatively well satisfied with their jobs.

Neeraja Dwivedi and Pestonjee (1975) found that Job Satisfaction increased with increasing experience for a period of 10 years and after that it starts going down. Hodge (1977) observed that the level of Job Satisfaction increased for both Negro and White professors as years of employment at the institutions increase in number.

Weinroth (1977) indicated that experienced teachers, over 55 years of age, with older children, had lower motivation and higher Job Satisfaction in the intrinsic area compared to (1) the young, childless inexperienced teachers.
and (2) older, experienced teachers with school-aged children. Young inexperienced teachers with pre-school children wanted less work pressure and were less satisfied with the amount of pressure on the job than older, experienced teachers with school aged children:

**Lewis (1982)** also found that teachers who had continuous experience in the current school were more satisfied than others. But **Rao (1970)** found that there was no association between Job Satisfaction and experience.

**Anand (1977), Ramakrishnaiah (1980) and Padmanabhaiah (1984)** in their studies pointed out that the years of experience possessed by teachers had no role to play in the determination of Job Satisfaction. No significant relationship existed between the number of years served as a principal and ratings of subjects and their overall Job Satisfaction (**Surbida, 1984**).

**Srenivasan (2007)** stated that teachers with low experience have low Job Satisfaction than teachers with high experience.

**Neelakandan and Rajendran (2007)** indicated that highly experienced employees have higher Job Satisfaction than employees with low experience. **Gandharva and Joshi (1999)** also agreed with this statement.

**Ramana (2008)** found that the level of Job Satisfaction increases along with the experience. He also reported that the highly experienced teachers had higher Job Satisfaction compared to the less experienced.

**Rajesh (2009)** found that experience has no significant influence on the Job Satisfaction of Teachers working in residential and non-residential schools.

**Promod (2010)** examined the influence of experience on the level of Job Satisfaction of ITI instructors and found that the experience does not have significant influence on their level of Job Satisfaction.
2.3.12 Salary and Fringe benefits and Job Satisfaction

Salary has an important influence on the satisfaction of the employees. With increasing complexity and industrialization of society, for many people work is turning out, day by day, as a means of earning a living.

Anjaneyulu (1968) found that inadequate salary was one of the most common causes for dissatisfaction among school teachers. Those who were working under financial incentives had better Job Satisfaction than those who had no such incentives (Pestonjee, 1971). These findings laid support to Ganguli's (1964) prediction that for the present and in the foreseeable future, money will remain an important incentive for Indian workers.

It is very unfortunate that the scales of pay of teachers are lower than those of other categories of employees who possess similar or even lower qualifications, experience and responsibilities. This is the finding of Perumal (1969). He added that such a disparity promotes an unhealthy and undesirable competition and as a result, teachers become a disgusted and dissatisfied lot.

According to Mishra (1972) in this age of materialism and run-away inflation, man's worth is judged by the size of his bank balance. Thus economic factors tend to overshadow all others. A radical improvement in the economic status will do much to attract retain good teachers.

Neeraja Dwivedi and Pestonjee (1975) conducted a study on 'socio-personal correlates of Job Satisfaction' in which 240 blue-collar workers who were working under a financial incentive scheme were studied. The workers belonging to the high income group were found to be satisfied with their job. Income generally affected Job Satisfaction. However age and tenure of service were more effective correlates of Job Satisfaction than income and marital status.

In Robert's (1977) study, teachers ranked good wages as one of the most important job motivation factors. Similarly, Shaver (1977) observed that the biggest contribution among journalism graduates to job dissatisfaction was low salary.
In the same line, Schmidt (1976) concluded that salary was highly
dissatisfying to the administrators when it was not effectively present.

According to Brown (1973) "An incentive is an objective goal which is
capable of satisfying what we are aware of subjectively as a need, drive or
desire". So monetary incentive or financial need or drive is one of the most
primary motives of work. Blum (1956) and Blum and Naylor (1968) state that
in most of the studies financial incentives were found to be the most effective
determinants of Job Satisfaction.

Counts (1978) conducted a study on public school teachers and found
that inadequate salaries and the narrow salary range between beginning and
retiring teachers were among the principal reasons for leaving the teaching
profession.

Surbida (1984) indicated that overall, principals reported that they
were satisfied with their jobs and their salaries. In Kentle’s (1985) study
income was rated highly important by 54 percent of the respondents; however,
only 33 percent were satisfied with their income.

Uma’s (1986) study noted that significant relationships existed between
income and sense of competence and Job Satisfaction. Moore (1986)
concluded that 83 percent of teachers were satisfied with their work on daily
basis. They were satisfied with every job facet except salary.

A study conducted by Cobb (1986) on teachers indicated that
elementary and secondary school teachers perceived basically the same level of
Job Satisfaction when comparisons were made concerning factors like reports
with principal, satisfaction with teaching, salary, work load and community
pressures.

Sharma (2005) conducted a study of Job Satisfaction among the
physical education teachers working in Himachal Pradesh schools and found
that majority of teachers satisfied with their salary drawn.
2.3.13 Educational Qualifications and Job Satisfaction

Educational qualification brings changes in the Job Satisfaction and Job Involvement among the teaching personal.

Hoppock (1935), Sinha and Sarma (1962), Anand (1972), Weaver (1974) and Bernard and Kulandaivel (1976) concluded that there was no relationship between level of education and Job Satisfaction among employees of various occupations.

Rao (1970) found that there was significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and education level of individuals. Carrell and Elbert (1974) in a study on postal clerks, found that the educational qualification of the employees was one of the significant determinants of Job Satisfaction.

The teachers with Bachelor degrees were more satisfied with their work situation than those who had master degrees, particularly in the areas of supervision and co-workers (Weiner, 1981).

Teachers with master or higher degrees were more critical of the professional environment (Smith, 1982). Al-Khaledi (1983) found that employees with higher educational levels were less satisfied with their salary than those with lower education levels.

Ogbemeu (1986), in a study, found that more educated teachers were dissatisfied with their jobs than the less educated teachers, because of their inadequate salaries.

Alanjamas (1987) concluded from a study on teachers' Job Satisfaction and their level of education, that there were significant differences between Job Satisfaction of teachers with different levels of education.

Smith (1987) found that the teachers with high academic ability leave the profession because of dissatisfaction with the motivators while teachers with low academic ability leave because of hygiene factors.
Anirudh and Mandal (1990) found that education had negative association with Job Satisfaction.

Grau et al. (1991) with investigated institutional loyalty and Job Satisfaction among nurse maids in nursing homes and found that the subjects with low education were significantly more satisfied with all dimensions of work except social environment.

Shajan (1998) identified that Teachers with master or higher degrees were not satisfied with job than simple graduates.

Anjana (2000) too found that employees with higher educational levels were less satisfied with their salary than those with lower education levels.

Tanjoth (2004) found that there is no difference between teachers with Bachelor degrees and those with master’s degree.

Srenivasan (2007) identified that post graduates were satisfied with their job as compared with graduate teachers.

Ramana (2008) found that the level of Job Satisfaction increases along with their educational qualification. He also reported that the suitably qualified teachers exhibited higher Job Satisfaction compared to the higher qualified teachers.

Rajesh (2009) found that educational qualification has no significant influence on the Job Satisfaction of Teachers working in residential and non-residential schools.

Promod (2010) examined the influence of educational qualification on the level of Job Satisfaction of ITI instructors and found that the educational qualification does not have significant influence on their level of Job Satisfaction.

Work satisfaction is very much related to the qualifications in any area and there is a need to identify this factor among the Teacher Educators.
2.3.14 Marital Status and Job Satisfaction

Butler (1961) reported the results of Job Satisfaction survey that showed the differences in satisfaction did not appear to be based on salary, size of family or effectives of teaching, but married teachers were more likely to be dissatisfied than the unmarried teachers.

Neeraja Dwivedi and Pestonjee (1975) conducted a study on a group of 240 blue-collar workers who were working under a financial incentive scheme in a leading locomotive works and found that, as far as marital status was concerned married workers showed higher Job Satisfaction than unmarried workers.

It was concluded by Weinroth (1977) that age, teaching experience, and age of children in the home affect the motivational needs, Job Satisfaction, and career aspirations of married women teachers. Smith (1977) found that husband's marital adjustment was correlated with women's Job Satisfaction. Those who were generally happy and satisfied tended to reflect that feeling in both the major areas of their lives - work and family.

Generally, married adults are better adjusted than their unmarried counterparts (Srole, et al., 1962; Orden and Bradburn, 1968; Bradburn, 1969). As adjustment is positively related to Job Satisfaction (Kates, 1950; Herzberg et al., 1957; Anand, 1977; Balasubramanyam and Narayanan, 1977; Venkatarami Reddy and Krishna Reddy, 1978) one may expect that married teachers would be more satisfied with their jobs.

However, the few studies that were carried out in this area obtained contradictory results. AVA (1948), Redfer (1964), Venkatarami Reddy and Krishna Reddy (1978), Ramakrishnaiah (1980) and Padmanabhaiah (1984) reported no relationship between the two variables, while Butler (1961) found that unmarried beginning teachers were more satisfied than their married counterparts. However, Inlow (1951), NEA (1957) and Venkatarami Reddy and Babjan (1980) found that married teachers were more satisfied. Sinha and Nair (1965) and Chen (1977) also obtained similar results in a study of factory workers.
Jalaja (2004) found again that Married teachers seem to be more satisfied with their teaching positions than unmarried teachers.

Neelakandan and Rajendran (2007) found that married employees will have higher Job Satisfaction than unmarried employees.

Ramana (2008) found that there is a difference in the level of Job Satisfaction between married and unmarried teachers. He also reported that the married teachers exhibited higher Job Satisfaction compared to the unmarried.

Tuq (2008) observed in his study that the teachers’ marital status showed a significant influence on the level of the Job Satisfaction. There was a significant and positive relation found between the marital status and their level of Job Satisfaction.

Rajesh (2009) found that marital status has no significant influence on the Job Satisfaction of Teachers working in residential and non-residential schools.

Promod (2010) examined the influence of marital status on the level of Job Satisfaction of ITI instructors and found that the marital status does not have significant influence on their level of Job Satisfaction.

2.3.15 Size / Type of Family and Job Satisfaction

The size of the family i.e. the number of dependents influences the level of Job Satisfaction. Very few studies were conducted in this regard. It is believed that the number of dependents of the family directly influences his family satisfaction, and thereby influencing Job Satisfaction. As the head of the family and as an earning member of the family, the individual may have different problems which may reflect his attitude towards his job.

Pestonjee and Singh (1973) found in a study on supervisors that morale was significantly related to the number of dependents.
Bryson, Bryson and Johnson (1978) observed that the large family was one of the causes of Job Dissatisfaction of an individual as more time was needed for domestic work.

Singh and Singh (1980) in a study of teaching staff on Job Satisfaction, found respondents with four or less number of dependents to be more satisfied with their job. However, in a study on college teachers, Ramakrishnaiah (1980) found that the size of the family did not have any bearing on their level of Job Satisfaction.

Saiyadain (1985) has examined the impact of some personal variables on Job Satisfaction in a sample of 778 Indian sample of teachers found that the number of dependents was positively related to Job Satisfaction.

Jalaja (2004) found that the teachers with small family (less than 4 members) seem to be more satisfied with their teaching positions than teachers with large family (members above 7).

Tuq (2008) found in his study that the size of the family of teachers' showed no significant influence on the level of their Job Satisfaction.

Rajesh (2009) found that size of the family of the teachers had no significant influence on the Job Satisfaction of Teachers working in residential and non-residential school.

Promod (2010) examined the influence of family size on the level of Job Satisfaction of ITI instructors and found that the size of the family does not have significant influence on their level of Job Satisfaction.

2.4 Studies on Job Satisfaction of Teacher Educators

Marr and Mathur (1973) studied the job satisfaction of teacher educators with respect to different work values. It was found that the largest number of teacher educators were satisfied with the fact that they found their work interesting.
Thakkar (1977) conducted a study of potential Teacher’s Effectiveness – their educational attitude – in relation to their rapport with the students and their survival and Job Satisfaction in the profession. It was found that the Job Satisfaction was positively and significantly correlated with rapport of student-teachers.

Goyal (1980), in his study of the relationship among attitudes, Job Satisfaction, adjustment and professional interest of teacher educators in India, found that a large majority of teacher educators were favourably inclined towards their profession and were satisfied with the job. They were not well adjusted and had low professional interest. Emotional stability increased with age. Professional interest among teacher educators increased with teaching experience in the institution.

Goyal (1985) found that a large majority of teacher educators were either satisfied or very satisfied with the job. Further, he found no difference in the Job Satisfaction of men and women teacher educators. The effects of teaching experience were not found on Job Satisfaction.

In a study Biswas (1994) found that rural and urban teacher educators did not differ significantly in total professional relation. He also found that female teacher educators had greater Job Satisfaction than their male counterparts.

Ramatulasamma (2003) found in a study that the teacher educators expressed dissatisfaction with the management in different aspects, namely, the emoluments, professional advancement, appreciation of good work, participation in decision making, freedom to express ideas and opinions and sympathetic and impartial interactions. It is also concluded that managements were not conducive to Job Satisfaction. The managements were not offering in-service education programme which had negative influence on their Job Satisfaction.

Kishore (2006) in his study of the teacher educators, found that – (i) a large majority of teacher educators are better satisfied with their job, (ii) gender and region had no significant influence on their level of Job satisfaction and (iii) the 16-personality factors had no significant influence on the level of Job Satisfaction.
2.5 Teaching Effectiveness

Teaching is more than standing before a class and applying a few specific techniques. It is not merely presenting textbook information and then testing the student's ability to repeat it; there is no magic formula for transforming knowledge the teacher's mind to align with the pupils'. Teaching is not a mechanical process. It is an intricate exacting, challenging job. According to Mann (1953) 'teaching is the most difficult of all arts and profound of all sciences'.

Teaching is not a monologue but a dialogue; a dialogue in which one partner is vocal, but the other partner may, by simple expressions on the face, by some gesture of exclamation or by brief participation in the form of query, take part in the dialogue.

Teaching is purposeful behaviour. To quote Smith (1955) - 'teaching is a system of actions that intends to include learning. There is no teaching where there is no learning'. It is a system that is primarily verbal in nature even though several types of teaching acts may be performed by the teacher.

A theory of effective teaching is perspective. It is perspective in the sense it sets forth rules concerning the most effective ways of helping learners to acquire knowledge and skills.

2.5.1 Methods of identifying an Effective teacher

Classroom teaching may be conceptualized as dynamic communication process between a teacher and the student. Researchers have provoked voluminous works and variables and vantage points concerning student evaluations of teaching effectiveness are varied. But the attributes that determine effective teaching and appropriate methods for identifying effective teacher still lack clarity. Further, the possible relationships between students' self-perception and their perceptions of their teachers have been virtually ignored in empirical studies of student evaluations of teaching effectiveness.
Out of class interaction is often considered to be an important aspect of teacher effectiveness. The process of interaction may not depend solely upon a classroom setting, but in visiting student to participate in developing class plans, by discussing points of view other than their own and so forth. These teachers derive greater intrinsic rewards from teaching than other faculty members do and are more likely to be cited by students as having the most influence on the students' personal and educational development (Wilson, et al., 1975).

It was concluded by Verbile (1979) that the public agreement upon the quality of teaching is ultimately the test by which teachers in schools stand for all. Efficient teachers are those whom the students can consider good.

Koerin (1980) pointed out that out of class interaction is often considered to be an important aspect of Teacher Effectiveness by both students and colleagues.

Vyas (1987) revealed that there was a positive relationship between teaching success and the academic achievement. He concludes that the Teaching Effectiveness of the teacher may be measured based on the results of the students in their examinations.

Noerrlinger (1988) opined that the students have the potential to provide teachers with valuable feedback as they view their teachers in a variety of situations and circumstances throughout the school year.

It was still evident that from the study of Jenkins (1990) that the areas of inter-personal relations and classroom management appeared to be relatively more important than other performance areas as perceived by the students. It was also determined that students could differentiate between meritorious and non-meritorious teachers using a questionnaire designed specially for that purpose.

Killen (1992) observed that the level of Teaching Effectiveness of the teachers is dependent on the socio-cultural activities of the society and social values. The home culture had a great influence over the Teaching Effectiveness.
The criteria of determining Teaching Effectiveness have been, for the most past, measures of students' satisfaction and measures of student achievement. **Hildbrand (2001)** reported that the effective teachers were characterised by exhibiting intellectual breadth, having good relationships with students and having an interest in teaching.

**Arora (2003)** in his study on difference between effective and ineffective teachers found that more effective teachers had favourable attitude to teacher-pupil relationship that is they were for closer contacts, understanding and friendly relationships between students and teachers. In other words, effective teachers should have better relationship with students.

**Zammire (2003)** studied the influence of different variables on the level of teaching effectiveness of the Teachers and concluded that the level of Attitude towards teaching had significant influence on the level of Teaching Effectiveness.

The profile of effective and ineffective teachers was depicted by **Gupta and Kapur (2004)** in their book 'Teacher education Current and Prospects'. The contents of effectiveness scale are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effective Teachers</th>
<th>Ineffective Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear understanding of concepts, making the best use of time, adept in motivation, planning of lesson, use of illustrative aids, involving pupils in the lesson, aware of source material of knowledge and new techniques of teaching.</td>
<td>Lacking in understanding of concepts, wastage of time in gossip, poor motivation, poor lesson planning, neglect of teaching aids, ignorant of source materials and new techniques of teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management of classroom in a democratic and free atmosphere, rare chance of class-conflicts, pupil seeks maximum help from teacher.</td>
<td>Control over class with the help of rod, more chances of class-conflict, pupil reluctant to seek help from the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERSONAL DISPOSITION, TEMPERAMENT AND TENDENCIES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotionally stable, cheerful, energetic; accept work willingly, not perturbed by criticism, faces odd situation boldly.</td>
<td>Emotionally unstable, gloomy, lethargic, accept work grudgingly, easily disturbed by criticism, unable and incapable of solving problems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EVALUATION AND FEED-BACK</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Checks home tasks seriously, maintains students’ records, takes tests periodically, meets the needs of poor, meritorious and exceptional children after proper diagnosing of the problems and finds their solutions.</td>
<td>Home tasks checked irregularly and haphazardly, students’ records not maintained, never bothered to take tasks, individual attention not considered, and difficulty in finding solution to problems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTER-PERSONAL RELATIONS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No jealousy for other members of the staff, deep understanding with authority, cordial relations with the head, staff and students, helpful to others.</td>
<td>Jealous of other members of the staff, lack of understanding with the authority, strained relations with head, staff and students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JOB INVOLVEMENT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punctual, more serious and busy in profession, high participation in curricular activities and co-curricular activities, aptitude for teaching, derives satisfaction from the profession.</td>
<td>Irregular, carefree with least aptitudes for his profession, reluctant to participate in curricular and co-curricular activities, dissatisfied with the profession.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INITIATIVE AND ENTHUSIASM</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Encourages, boosts and prepares pupils for competition, accept challenges, urges students to read, write and experiment and participate in group discussions.</td>
<td>Suggests shortcut methods for success, unwillingly, no urge for reading and writing, shirks from taking part in group discussions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROFESSIONAL VALUES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective, sincere, honest, impartial in his behaviour, strives hard to raise professional standards, feels contented and satisfied with the profession, takes enjoyment in teaching.</td>
<td>Subjective, insincere, partial in his behaviour, least interested in raising professional standards, feels dissatisfied with the profession, always in search of seeking other profession.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### INNOVATIVENESS

| Most interested in finding novel things, techniques and always in search of finding solution to problems, suggests new changes and helps in their introduction. | Least interested in the new changes, takes no initiative to bring about change in techniques of teaching, lays stress on conventional methods and practices. |

In an investigation Bellguard (2006) assumed that when knowledge in child development, cognitive psychology and theory of instruction exists, the effective teachers would demonstrate in a variety of pedagogical practices.

Check (2006) founded from a study on the teachers that the following traits to be essential for effective teaching: proper dress and grooming, extensive use of examples, employment of humour, effective communication in teaching, valid testing techniques and availability for extra help. The lecture discussion approach was most preferred. Some of the most negative teacher qualities were inability, being uninformed in the subject, being disorganised, aloofness and insensitivity to student needs.

Thus, it is evident that the identification of effective teachers is also estimated by way of self-rating, observations, interviews and classroom behaviour of the teachers.

### 2.6 Studies on Teaching Effectiveness

Quite a lot of research work was carried out on the topic of Teaching Effectiveness. It is pertinent to mention here that investigations will fall within the basic frame works of context – process – outcomes. In spite of the abundant work carried out in this field, it was not possible to identify on a wide range of outcomes across a wide range of contexts, stated Kyriacou and Newson (1982). They discussed the problems facing researchers on Teaching Effectiveness within the framework of context – process – outcomes.
Investigations in the area of teaching effectiveness vary in context, methodology and criteria of teaching success. They may broadly be categorized into four types viz., (i) studies exploring traits and characteristics, (ii) studies based on criteria of teaching success, (iii) competency, based on Teaching Effectiveness studies and (iv) investigations based on factors associated with Teaching Effectiveness.

From the point of view of the present investigation, description of Teaching Effectiveness is considered more appropriate. Studies exploring factors associated with Teaching effectiveness, teacher competence and Teacher effectiveness and personality factors and Teaching Effectiveness are taken into consideration.

The subject matter of Teaching Effectiveness has long been a topic of popular and academic interest. A number of studies have been carried out to study Teaching Effectiveness. Studies of Teaching Effectiveness focussed on classroom processes have adopted one or more of three main approaches to examine the behaviour of the teacher in the classroom: systematic observation, participant observation and questionnaire surveys.

Pattu (1962) reviewed the research on predictor criteria and teacher effectiveness and concluded that such research had failed to substantiate links for such characteristics as intelligence, age experience, cultural background, sex, marital status, job interests, voice quality and special aptitudes. There were slight positive correlations shown between scholarship and Teaching Effectiveness, although no course or group of courses has been shown to be a predictor. Professional knowledge has proceeded to be a more successful prediction particularly of teaching performance.

Ryans (1963) discussed the need for a conceptual frame work for understanding the research findings on teacher effectiveness. Ryans utilizes a system analysis approach and discusses the general implications of the studies undertaken. This review includes an extensive listing of items used to describe teachers' behaviour patterns as compared with terms used by the researchers.
Gangappa (1969) study located two factors, viz., external and internal, that make teachers mutually ill and maladjusted and thereby, have a negative effect on their teaching efficiency. The external factors include poor salary, heavy workload and lack of professional freedom. The internal factors include inferiority complex, self-centeredness and over-ambitiousness. The study pointed out that for promoting the mental health of teachers, it is necessary to develop in them a whole some attitude, professional competence, social efficiency, democratic outlook and good living habits.

Samantharoy (1971) studied the relationship of teachers’ attitude with Teaching Efficiency. He studied the nature of relationship among teacher attitude, teacher adjustment and Teaching Efficiency. The hypothesis laid down for testing was: teacher attitude and teacher adjustment are positively correlated; teacher attitude influence teaching efficiency, teacher adjustment influence teaching efficiency.

Mc Keachie et al. (1980) investigated the effect upon teaching of feedback from the student ratings. It was compared with the effect produced when such feedback was supplemented by consultation from a more experienced teacher. Consultation enhanced the positive effect of feedback in terms of later student ratings.

Chandrasekhar Reddy (1980) observed that male teachers were more effective than their female counterparts. He also found that there was no significant difference between the means of different categories whose family size were different. On the opposite side Padmanabaiah (1984) found that the size of the family of a teacher is a significant factor which influences the Teaching Effectiveness.

Rauth (1981) posits that given appropriate training and conditions, teachers can be expected to help all children in their class to learn and to grow. It is contended that it would be best to develop realistic legislation to fulfil the current intent of public law.
Dalgaard (1982) assessed 22 inexperienced university teaching assistants. They were assigned to a training or control group. Teaching expertise rated two video tapes of each TAS class – one tape made before training and another following training. The training group received, significantly higher final ratings than the control group. Teaching experience alone did not result in significantly higher ratings for control group. TAS subjects in training evaluated most topics and the overall programme favourably both immediately after training and one semester later.

Elair (1984) investigated seven teacher characteristics that have been associated with student achievement. Fundamentals of effective instruction include useful time, diagnosis, direct instruction, transfer of skills, flexible grouping, positive mindset and management. Reasons as to why these characteristics are effective focus on their temperament and inter-related nature, the multitude of ways in which each fundamental can be achieved and teachers' direct control over the fundamentals. It is asserted that the classroom teacher is the key variable in the learning of the child.

Padmanabiah (1984) reported that marital status of the teachers has no bearing on their Teacher Effectiveness. Similar results were obtained by Ramamohan Babu (1992) stating that there was no significant difference between the Teacher Effectiveness of married and unmarried teachers.

Patel and Dass (1984) found that teachers from rural and urban areas are more or less equal with respect to Teacher Effectiveness. Similarly Padmanabaiah's study (1984) revealed no significant differences between rural and urban teachers on their Teacher Effectiveness.

Dembo and Gibson (1985) emphasised the concept of teacher efficiency and its influence on teacher in classroom behaviour and student achievement. Results indicated that high and low efficiency teachers differ in instructional practices, classroom organisation and the provision of feedback to the students experiencing difficulty. The development of teaching efficiency is discussed in relation to teacher education particularly the social context in which practice
teaching takes place, socialization and teaching experience, personality variables such as attribution style and parent teacher relations.

Aubrecht et al., (1986) studied two classes of each of four hundred high school teachers who were rated for Teaching Effectiveness by the teachers and their students. Results indicate the similarity in factor self-ratings. Summary of factor scores for multitrait-multimethod analysis were established. Convergent validity co-efficient was significant for all factors. These findings provide support for the validity of high school student ratings of instruction. Catherine et al., (1986) emphasized the effectiveness of teaching for non-handicapped students in special education. They found that exceptional students learn more slowly, with greater difficulty or in different ways from normal learners. There is almost no instruction that involves high level cognitive levels.

Virgil (1989) reported that the primary school women teachers were more efficacious, both personally and professionally, than intermediate graduate women teachers.

Sundara Rao et al., (1990) investigated Teaching Effectiveness as an observational study by using 90 teaching staff through the observational technique. They found that sex has no significant affiliation with Teacher Effectiveness scores. However, in the case of patience and sympathy, women teachers are better than men teachers. In all other aspects men teachers are better than women teachers. Less experienced teachers appear to be pupil oriented showing more effective social and classroom skills. Positive and strong association is found between Teacher Effectiveness and the attainment of the B.Ed level.

Sundara Rajan and Srinivasan (1991) investigated on teachers’ ranking of the components of effective teacher behaviour. The results indicated that the teacher presenting the lesson in an interesting way gets the first rank. Somehow, classroom questioning gets the last rank (15th). Teacher coming to the class with adequate preparation was accorded the second rank. Teacher showing sympathy towards the slow learners is given the third rank. Thus, different ranks have been given to the fifteen behaviour components.
Krishnan and Raja Singh (1994) found that teacher’s locality does not have any individual impact on Teaching Effectiveness.

Jayamma (2002) reported that training did not influence professional success of teachers, but experience could add to the professional success at primary level though qualifications could add to professional success. But Padmanabaiah (1984) and Rama Mohan Babu (1992) found no significant difference between suitably qualified and over qualified teachers with regard to their Teaching Effectiveness.

A review by Askew et al., (2001) of effective teachers also found no impact for whether they had attended the additional form of short in-service course. Possessing higher qualifications, such as teacher having taken an ‘A’ level seemed to actually be associated with lower class gain scores. One possible interpretation of this is that training teachers is ineffective unless it is related to ongoing practical classroom techniques and related specifically to the content level which pupils are involved in. High level academic studies in a subject might, therefore, distinct teachers from the level and process, which their pupils are involved in.

According to Ball (2004) fully certified teachers were more effective when pupil achievement scores were used as Effectiveness criterion. Similar results were obtained by Berry (2002) and Collins (2004).

In a study on effective and ineffective teachers Gupta (2005) observed that in the case of effective teachers, women showed better teaching efficiency than men. But in the case of ineffective teachers, male teachers showed better teaching efficiency than the females.

A study by Jones (2005) of trained and untrained teachers in Barbados found that their direct teaching skills did not differ in any significant way. Both groups made the same use of effective technique such as the use of questions, positive feedback to students, student orientation and the emphasizing of important points.
Ajay Kumar (2006) conducted a study on ‘evaluation of teacher effectiveness through student rating’. Dwelling on the importance of quality education, the investigator claims that though a number of policy efforts have been indicated to improve different aspects of education like curriculum, teaching training, recruitment, guidance, teacher-pupil ratio, physical environment and evaluation, there is a need for implementing student rating as a policy indicator for evaluation of teacher effectiveness.

Vijaya Lakshmi (2005) conducted a study on ‘teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction of women teachers’. This study was carried out with the main objective of the relationship between teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction. Besides these, the effect of locality, management and subject of teaching on teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction were also studied. The findings showed low and positive correlation between teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction. Only the management of school has significant impact on both teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction. The other variables included in the study viz., locality and subject of teaching have no significant impact on both teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction among the women teachers.

Arockia Doss (2007) conducted a study on ‘Teacher Effectiveness of College Teachers’. Findings of the study were – (i) majority of college teachers are effective only at moderate level, (ii) Personal factors viz., age, sex, subject of teaching, designation, academic qualification, management of the institution, nature of institution, locality and courses offered, have significant influence on various dimensions of teacher effectiveness.

Sharadha and Paremeswaram (2008) in their study on ‘Teacher characteristics and Learning in the classroom, make an attempt to examine the role of some behavioural variations among teachers and their possible implications for effective classroom teaching and learning. The findings were - gender, locality and management of the institutions had significant impact on the behaviour variations in the level of their teaching effectiveness.
Sundara Rao (2009) investigated teacher effectiveness as an observational study by using 90 teaching staff through the observational techniques. He found that sex had no significant affiliation with teacher effectiveness scores. However, in the case of patience and sympathy, women teachers are better than men teachers. In all other aspects men teachers were better than women teachers. Language and Humanities teachers were less friendly, Science teachers were stereotyped and humanities teachers were more communicative. A positive and strong association was found between teacher effectiveness and attainment of the B.Ed level.

2.7 Self-concept

2.7.1 Meaning

Self-concept is an idea of the self-constructed beliefs one holds about one self and the responses of others. It is the mental and conceptual understanding and persistent regard that sentient beings hold for their own existence. In other words, it is the sum total of a being’s knowledge and understanding of his or her self. The self-concept is different from self-consciousness, which is an awareness or preoccupation with one’s self. Components of self-concept include physical, psychological and social attributes, which can be influenced by the individuals’ attitudes, habits, beliefs and ideas. These components and attributes cannot be condensed to the general concepts of self-image and the self-esteem.

2.7.2 Definitions of Self-Concept

An individual’s perception of himself, as a person, which includes his abilities, appearance, performance in his job, and phases of daily living (Good, 1973).

Self-concept refers to the picture or image a person has of himself (Taneja, 1991)

Judge and Bono (2001) presented a meta-analysis showing that components of a positive self-concept construct were among the best predictors of job performance and job satisfaction.
Durbann (2004) explained that the individuals' view of himself as a whole of his/her daily activities and their performance and success or failures are to be treated as self-concept.

2.7.3 Studies of Self-concept on Job Satisfaction

Uma (1986) found that self-concept and sense of competence significantly moderated the work variables-Job Satisfaction relationship. It was also found that Job involvement was significantly moderated by Self-concept.

Sharma (1999) investigated the relationship between type of personality based on Guna and Self-concept and Job Satisfaction. A sample of 74 males and females of varying ages and jobs and with at least 3 years of experience were administered; the Self-concept Inventory, Job Satisfaction scale and a shorter version of the Personality Inventory. Results revealed that Sāthva Personality was positively correlated with self-concept but not satisfaction. Rajas Personality was positively correlated with self-concept but negatively Job Satisfaction. Guna's Self-concept and Job Satisfaction showed a positive significant relationship.

Johnson, Craven and Marsh (2003) found that the Self-concept of Nurses has a stronger association with nurses' retention plans (B=0.45) than Job Satisfaction (B =0.28). Aspects of pay and task were not significantly related to retention plans. However, professional status (r =0.51), and to a lesser extent, organizational policies (r =0.27) were significant factors. Nurses' general self-concept was strongly related (r =0.57) to retention plans.

Natarajan (2005), in a study on the higher secondary school teachers, showed that the level of Self-concept was negatively related with their Job Involvement and type of personality. He also stated that men had low level of Self-concept compared to their women counterparts. The urban teachers expressed higher level of Self-concept than the urban area teachers.
2.8 Job Involvement

2.8.1 Meaning of Job involvement:

Job Involvement may influence one's satisfaction with his job. The emphasis placed on Job Satisfaction variables has resulted in a relative neglect of the Job Involvement variable. This is perhaps due to a lack of conceptual differentiation between Job Satisfaction and Job Involvement and to an apparent failure to realize that it was possible for some persons to be highly satisfied, but not involved and for others to be highly involved, but not satisfied. Some sources of Job Satisfaction are probably more likely to be related to Job Involvement than others.

Allport (1947) defined involvement as 'the situation in which the person engages the status seeking motive'. Hearn (1962) found that Job Involvement was greater in team operators than in people working alone. Lodehl (1964) explained Job Involvement as 'the importance of work to a person's self esteem or sense of worth'. The job-involved person is one for whom work is a very important part of life. Harding (1964) observed that those who had more opportunities of participation in the job are more receptive to organizational change.

Bass (1965) views it as representatives of the employee's ego involvement in his job and thus relates it to performance. Bass finds that the following conditions lead to the strengthening of Job Involvement: (1) opportunity to make more of the job decisions, (2) the feeling that one is making an important contribution to company success, (3) recognition, (4) achievement, (5) self-determination and (6) freedom to set one's own work place.

Lodehl and Kejner (1965) found that persons characterized by high Job Involvement tended to be organizationally involved also. They also defined Job Involvement at two places in their article. In the first context they defined it as 'the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image'. In the second context they defined it as 'as the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem'.
White (1966) found that those who had left the profession reported that they were significantly less job involved, while employed, than those who remained within the profession. Wissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) considered Job Involvement to be a quasi-indicator of motivation. They also hypothesized that job satisfaction was one of the determinants of job involvement. The result showed that job involvement was related to satisfaction with recognition, achievement, and responsibility and with interpersonal relations with the supervisor.

Lawler and Hall (1970) found that Job Satisfaction and Job Involvement were factorially independent and relatively distinct variables. Marr and Marthur (1973) observed that teacher educators have key role in the involvement of the education. Gannon and Hendrickson (1973) also found that ‘Career Orientation Job Involvement’ was positively and significantly related to Job Satisfaction. Wood (1974) supported the hypothesis that significant relationship occurs more frequently between Job Satisfaction and Job Involvement. Gechman and Wiener (1975) indicated that there was a positive association between Job Involvement and time devoted to work related activities, but time and Job Satisfaction were unrelated.

The relationship between job characteristics and Job Involvement was explored by Castro (1986) he found that women working in jobs rated high on job characteristics showed limited Job Involvement than those women working in jobs rated low on those characteristics. Blan (1986) found that Job Involvement and organizational commitment as interactive predictors of absenteeism and tardiness behaviours in nurses. Wagner, Ferris, Fandt and Wayne (1987) found that organizational tenure did not explain a significant proportion of variance in Job Involvement after removal of exogenous effects.

Job involved individuals differ from their lesser-involved colleagues in several significant ways. They are more likely to describe their jobs as more stimulating or higher in range of job characteristics, including variety, autonomy, task identity and feedback (Elloy et al., 1991).
2.8.2 Causes of Job Involvement:

Researchers who have defined Job Involvement as a form of the performance - self-esteem contingency argue that intrinsic need satisfaction is a necessary condition for Job Involvement. Vroom (1962) proposed that a person’s attempt to satisfy the need for self-esteem through work on the job leads to Job Involvement. In this study Vroom found that the degree of Job Involvement, by his choice of ego rather than extrinsic factors help in describing the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the job.

Lawler and Hall (1970) are in favour of defining Job Involvement as the psychological identification with the work. They believe that Job Involvement is partly caused by an individual’s personal background and situations.

Researchers who are also in favour of defining Job Involvement as a central component of self-image consider job involvement to be caused by early socialization of the individual. However, they still maintain that intrinsic-need satisfaction is an important precondition for Job Involvement.

Lawler and Hall (1970) are also in favour of defining Job Involvement as the psychological identification with the work. They believe that Job Involvement is partly caused by an individual’s personal background and situations.

The above review of the causes of Job Involvement shows that almost all researchers consider intrinsic need satisfaction as the necessary condition for job involvement. The satisfaction of intrinsic needs of workers can be achieved only through appropriate changes in the job and the organizational environment.

Such changes like job variety, autonomy and opportunity for participation have also been viewed as situational factors causing Job Involvement. Besides the situational variables at the workplace that affect intrinsic motivation, researchers have also identified the protestant - work - ethic attitude as a cause of Job Involvement.
The protestant-work-ethic attitude is largely determined by post socialization process experienced by individuals in specific socio-economic and cultural milieu in which they live. Thus, the rural/urban, blue collar/white collar and ethno cultural backgrounds of individuals have been considered as causes of job involvement. Thus, Roibinwitz and Hall (1977) consider the protestant – work ethic attitude as a personal factor or individual – difference variable causing Job Involvement.

2.9 Studies on Job Involvement

It is important to know what characteristics of the job are related to Job Involvement. Herzberg (1966) has divided job characteristics into two groups i.e. job content factors and job context factors. Although job involvement can be related to changes in both sets of factors, most researchers have advocated changes only in the job content factors. Herzberg proposed job-enrichment programmes as a means to increase job involvement, based on the belief that Job Involvement results from those job changes that satisfy workers' intrinsic needs.

Hackman and Oldharm (1976) identified five core job characteristics (variety, autonomy, task identity, task significance and feed back) that need to be introduced in a job-enrichment programme.

Tannenbaum (1966) argued that workers holding higher – level jobs in an organization should show more Job Involvement than workers holding lower – level jobs.

This expectation is based on the assumption that higher – level jobs can satisfy intrinsic needs to a greater extent by offering more variety, autonomy and challenge to the workers than the lower level jobs. However, studies performed on this issue provided mixed results.

(i) Age Vs Job Involvement:

Some researchers argue that older workers should show greater involvement than younger workers.
Cherrington (1977) has advanced three possible reasons for the positive relationship between age and Job Involvement. Firstly, with increasing age, a worker is bound to get exposed to greater number and different kinds of work experiences. These experiences may form the basis for involvement. Secondly, the early experiences of older workers may have strengthened their work values. Finally, the younger workers of today’s society receive training and socialization pressures that make work less important in their lives. Hence, the younger workers show less involvement.

The empirical evidence on the relationship between age and Job Involvement is both weak and conflicting. The findings reported a correlation of 0.25 (low correlation) between age and Job Involvement.

(ii) Education Vs Job Involvement:

The relationship between education and involvement is weak as in the case of age. Empirical evidence on the direction of the relationship is mixed.

Baba (1979) reports that among the sixteen studies investigating relationship between education and Job Involvement, six reported a positive relationship, four found a negative relationship and five showed no relationship.

(iii) Marital Status Vs Job Involvement:

Some people speculate that married workers have many family obligations that can divert their attention. On the other hand, in order to meet the family obligations, the married workers may have to work harder and, thereby, becomes more involved. Kanungo, Misra and Dayal (1975) found that married workers involved more in job activities. But several other studies have found no relationship.

(iv) Experience Vs Job Involvement:

Seven of fifteen studies reported a positive relationship between length of service (Experience) and Job Involvement, one reported a negative relationship and seven reported insignificant relationships. It is assumed that a longer stay with an organization may develop organizational loyalty in a worker, but not involvement.
(v) Socio-cultural factors Vs Job Involvement:

Variables such as rural/urban background, ethnic – cultural background and religious background are thought to be related to Job Involvement. The reasons for such a relationship lie in the fact that the socialization process to which these socio-cultural factors contribute acts as a pre-disposing cause of Job Involvement. But the results of the studies exploring the relationship between Job Involvement and the socio-cultural factors are quite ambiguous.

2.10 Home Environment and Job Satisfaction

Chakrabarthy (1999) conducted a critical study of family problems faced by the learners, socio-economic status and physical facilities available in the home and found that family problems showed a great influence on their working situations.

Rajasekhar (2001) observed that the poor home climate has a negative relation with the working conditions and resulted in the factory workers quitting jobs.

Mahadevaiah (2004) found in a study that the teachers with Good family relations experienced higher Job Satisfaction than the teachers with poor and average home climate. Similarly, high family risk group teachers exhibited high Job Satisfaction than the less family risk teacher.

Krishnamurthy (2006) conducted a study on the influence of home environment on the working situations at the schools among teachers and concluded that the level of home environment had a significant influence over the level of working situations. He also concluded that the higher home environment conditions showed a positive correlation with the working situations in the teachers.
2.11 Personality Characteristics

The study of personality seeks to discover the reasons for a wide range of human behaviours, to account for their occurrence and assess their roles in the total person. The study of personality covers a varied and complex domain. When the demographic and situational factors are capable of influencing the individual’s satisfaction in either way, one’s personality will certainly play a vital role in determining the attitude towards his teaching profession.

One of the dimensions of personality is emotional stability or neurotic tendency. An individual’s emotional stability is likely to manifest itself in his/her attitudes towards job/profession.

2.11.1 Meaning and Definitions of Personality

There are so many definitions of personality as it covers a varied and complex domain. In order to know the nature of personality some important definitions are discussed hereunder:

In general: Some define personality as, ‘one’s social stimulus value’. Others define it as, ‘the sum total of innate dispositions, impulses, appetites, instincts, tendencies and habits’. Another type of definition says that ‘personality is more than the sum of its parts and that more than its pattern of organization’. Some people define personality as ‘an individual’s characteristic pattern of adjustment’.

In specific: According to Cattell (1950), “Personality is that which permits a prediction of what person will do in a given situation”.

Guilford (1954) says that an individual’s personality is “an integrated pattern of traits”. He defined personality, as “an individual’s personality is unique pattern of traits. A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another”.

Koul’s (1972) definition of personality is that “it is an organization and integration of a large number of habits”. Crowne (1979) defined - personality as the organized system of potentialities for behaviour.
2.11.2 Studies on the Personality Factors of the teachers

Ryans (1964) in his work; 'The teachers' characteristics study', which was a massive research work involving approximately one hundred separate studies and over 6000 teachers in 1700 schools participated in various phases of investigation. One of the major objectives of the study is to compare findings related to the present study of the investigator. Hence, the investigator highlights some major findings of Ryans on the comparative aspect of the study – 'High' teachers compared to the 'Low' teachers.

There was a tendency for 'High' teachers (teachers related high with respect to overall classroom behaviour) to be extremely generous in appraisals of the behaviour and motives of other persons; to possess strong interest in reading and literacy affairs. to be interested in music, painting and the arts in general; to participate in social groups; to enjoy pupils relationships, to prefer non-directive classroom procedures; to manifest superior verbal intelligence; and to superior with respect to emotional adjustment. On the other hand 'Low' teachers (teachers rated low with respect to overall classroom behaviour) tended to be restrictive and critical in their appraisals of other persons; to prefer activities which did not involve close personal contacts; to express less favourable opinion of pupils, to manifest less high verbal intelligence; to show less satisfactory emotional adjustment and to represent older age groups.

Quraishi (1972) studied the personality, attitude and classroom behaviour of teachers. The sample of the study consisted of 200 teachers drawn from twenty-one secondary schools. Flanders Interaction Analyses category system was used for observing and recording teachers' classroom verbal behaviour. Thurston temperament schedule was employed to assess the personality traits and attitude scale constructed by Wandt, Glassey and Patel were adopted to measure attitude; Pearson's product moment correlation technique, step wise regression analysis and 't' technique were used for analyzing the data. Findings: (i) Teacher's verbal behaviour in the classroom was related in a small measure to their personality and attitude. (ii) Teacher's attitude towards democratic classroom procedures correlated significantly.
Kaul (1972) studied the differentiating personality traits and values of 124 'popular' teachers and 100 'not popular' teachers. The main findings of the study were:

a) The popular teachers distinguished themselves as more outgoing, intelligent, emotionally more stable, sober, conscientious, venturesome, tough minded, shrewd, placid, controlled and relaxed.

b) They were significantly high on theoretical, social, political and religious values and were significantly low on economic and aesthetic values.

c) They had favourable attitude towards teaching and they were effective in their work as teachers.

Singh (1976) examined the relationship between some personality variable and teaching effectiveness. The major findings of the study were as follows:

a) The needs of superior, average and inferior teachers were clearly distinct from one another and superior teachers were distinct from the other two in cognition, dominance, autonomy and construction.

b) The inferior teachers were distinct from the other two by their need of acquisition.

c) The inferior teachers did not seem to possess the need of exhibition, which was most prominent in the average teachers. The other more prominent needs of the average teachers were exposition and play.

d) Prominent needs of inferior teachers were succourance, difference and play.

e) The most prominent needs of superior teachers were nurturance, achievement and counteraction.

f) The organization pattern of superior teachers was generally logical and that of inferior teachers was emotional.

g) The interpersonal relations as regards social behaviour were high in superior teachers but very low in inferior teachers.

h) The inferior teachers lacked self-consciousness in teaching and in solving problems; the average teachers had self-confidence but had adjustment problems.
i) The superior teachers had more of imagination, while the inferior ones were weak in it.

j) The superior teachers used literary language more than the average and inferior teachers.

Gupta (1977) investigated personality characteristics, adjustment level, academic achievement and professional attitude of successful teachers. The data was collected with the following tools: Cattell 16 PF Questionnaire, Bell's adjustment inventory, Minnesota teacher attitude scale and a tool to measure teaching success. It was found that successful teaching was significantly related to personality factors: A, B, C, F, G, H, I, L, N, O, Q1 and Q4. adjustment in various fields of life, like home, health, social, emotional and total adjustment and professional attitude. The personality characteristics, adjustment- home, social, emotional professional and total adjustment, attitude towards teaching and sex were found to be the determinants of success in teaching. Also it was concluded that the factors as a group were better indicators of teaching success than individual factors.

Geol (1978) studied the behaviour of extrovert and introvert teachers. The study reveals that extrovert teachers seemed to have greater interchange of classroom events than introvert teachers. The extrovert teachers had larger transition from pupil response to the categories of teacher praise, encouragement, acceptance and 'questions' as compared to introvert teachers. Introvert teachers seemed to have greater content emphasis whereas extrovert teacher seemed to provide more opportunity for pupil response and pupil direction. The extrovert teachers' tendency was to break the silence or confusion by asking questions more frequently whereas introvert teachers' tendency was to give direction in the same state of situation. It appeared that extrovert teacher had all the seven interaction models of teaching.
Dileep Kumar (1979) studied the personality characteristics of innovative and non-innovative teachers and concluded that innovative teachers were young, active and outgoing individuals and less descriptive.

Lawrence et al. (1982) conducted the two attitude types, extroversion and introversion and describes how an individual prefers to engage the environment and use the four basic mental functions. Extroversion and introversion are seen as complementary orientations toward life. Extroversion defines the actions of individuals who prefer an orientation to the outer world of people, places and things. Introversion describes a preferred orientation toward the inner world of thoughts, concepts and ideas.

2.11.3 Studies on the Personality Characteristics of the teachers and Job Satisfaction

Blum and Naylor (1968) observed that security must be considered as an important dimension of personality as it affects job satisfaction. An insecure person will remain insecure even though his job is secure. Family background and many similar factors contribute to the individual's security.

McCanaughy and Palmer (1969) found that personality traits of federal field executives in South California were significantly related to their job satisfaction.

Gupta (1977) made an attempt to see the personality structure of the primary school teachers. It was found that on factors E, F and Q3 of 16 personality factors of Cattell, the subjects were slightly deviant on factor 'N' they were strongly deviant and on the rest of the factors, they took average positions.

Heckert (1977) found that personal ideology influences behaviour and job satisfaction more than do the perceived peer group or organization. Hence, it was conjectured that external influences upon behaviour are mediated by the isolation of the classroom. Within the classroom teachers behave more consistently with personal beliefs than they do in areas of high visibility.
Anand (1977) observed that it is the personality of a person which determines job satisfaction in the profession of school teaching.

Porwal (1980) studied the personality correlates of job satisfaction of higher secondary school teachers. He identified the (i) personality characteristics of satisfied teachers as follows: Reserved, detached, critical, cool, emotionally mature, stable, faced reality, humble, mild, accommodating, confirming and giving way to others, shy, timid, restrained, different, withdrawing, cautious, retiring, trustworthy, adoptable, free from jealousy, easy to get on with, practical, careful, conventional, regulated by external realities, proper, placid, self assured, confident, sincere, controlled, socially precise having strong control over emotions and general behaviour, relaxed, tranquil, unfrustrated and calm. (ii) Personality characteristics of dissatisfied teachers were: warm hearted, easy going, participating, less afraid of criticism, emotionally less stable, assertive independent, stubborn, venturesome, socially bold, uninhibited, spontaneous, self opinionated, hard to fool, imaginative, rapt in urges, careless of particular matter and frustrated.

Gupta (1980) observed the job satisfaction of three levels of teaching and found that needs of achievement, affiliation and endurance were positively related, while needs of autonomy, dominance and aggression were negatively related to the job satisfaction of primary school teachers. Attitudes towards teaching as a career and personality maturity were positively related to job satisfaction of primary and secondary school teachers and also that of college teachers.

Tiwana's (1982) study of personality, self perception, values and alienation of creative writers indicated that extroversion was positively related to aggressiveness, social intelligence, health, personal, social and total adjustment. Psychoticism was positively related to neuroticism and negatively related to social desirability, positive values, health, personal, social and total adjustment. Neuroticism was found to be positively related to aesthetic values and negatively related to social desirability, political value, health, personal, family, social and total adjustment.
Kakkar (1983) studied the four categories of women employees—teaching, clerical, mechanical and medical—on their level of job satisfaction. Women teachers of the four vocations differed significantly on their job satisfaction. Women employees of the four vocations were found to have different patterns of interests and they also differed in their attitudes towards work.

Kuhn's (1982) study on teacher personality type and job satisfaction indicated that extroverts tended to be more satisfied with their careers than introvert teachers. There tended to be higher mean satisfaction indicated by teachers having extrovert, sensing and judging characteristics.

Malik (1984) made a comparative study of personality factors and teaching environments of successful and unsuccessful teachers in selected schools of Rajasthan. The main objective of this study is to find out the interrelationship between personality and factors of teachers and their attitude towards teaching profession. The findings reveal that personality, learning environment, concomitants, teaching success, attitude towards teaching, age and experience were some of the factor patterns associated with teaching.

Sukhia (1984) studied the personality characteristics of innovative and non-innovative teachers and found that innovative teachers were found to be emotionally stable, calm, mature, assertive, independent, self-assured, happy-go-lucky, impulsive, lively, gay, enthusiastic, more venturesome, socially bold, spontaneous, trusting, imaginative, shrewd, calculating, placid, experimenting, analytical, free thinking, inclined towards relaxation and composure.

Sathyagirirajan (1985) observed that teacher competency was related to intelligence, emotional stability, conscientiousness, tender mindedness, trusting nature, placid nature, self-sufficiency and relaxedness.
Amar Singth (1985) found that high scores on extroversion affected the job satisfaction of teachers, engineers, advocates and doctors negatively. Self-esteem was related positively to job satisfaction. On neuroticism negative correlates of job satisfaction among all the professionals was found.

Smart, Elton and Mc Langhim (1986) found that person environment congruence was positively related to the intrinsic job satisfaction of men and women.

Padmanabhaiah (1986) found that neuroticism of teachers could significantly influence their level of job satisfaction.

Balakrishna Reddy (1990) from his study on school teachers concluded that difference in the scores on personality factors does not affect the job satisfaction of the teachers, but the factors-I, M and Q3 of the 16-personality factors were influencing the job involvement of the subjects.

Ramakrishnaiah and Manjuvani (1999) from the study on college teachers’ job satisfaction identified a significant relationship between some of the personality characteristics viz., C, L and O of the 16 personality factors.

Carroll Bryan Shannon (2001) conducted a study on the effects of differential personality traits on student teacher performance and satisfaction. The results of this study indicated that based upon the criterion measures employed, differences in personality traits between student teachers and cooperating teachers were not effective predictors of student teacher performance or satisfaction. Upon further analyses of the data, it appeared that student teacher personality traits themselves were more predictive of their performance and satisfaction than were cooperating teacher personality traits or differences between personalities.

Rajaran (2004) found from a study on the influence of personality on the teachers that out of the 16 personality traits SIX (Factor – A, C, G, H, I and Q3) had significant influence on the level of their Job Satisfaction.
Kishan (2007) in a study on personality of Student-teachers of Orissa found that the personality traits showed a significant influence on their level of teaching attitude and teaching competence.

Ramana (2009) in a study concluded that the Elementary school teachers observed that changes in the level of Job Satisfaction, Job Involvement and Values in Teaching by the changes of importance of the personality traits.

2.12 Appraisal

It may be seen from the brief review of literature presented in the foregoing pages that a number of studies have been carried out on the Job Satisfaction and Teaching Effectiveness and its relation to different variables on different categories of teachers. The studies yielded contradictory results on the relation between different personal and demographic variables and Job Satisfaction and Teaching Effectiveness. Therefore, it is difficult to summarise the conclusions of these studies as they have concerned themselves about a wide variety of aspects of Job Satisfaction, Teaching Effectiveness, Job Involvement, Self-concept, Home Environment and Personality factors.

Although Job Satisfaction and Teaching Effectiveness are also important from the educational point of view, these areas are not much explored in relation with Teacher Educators. The results of even the few studies present a confusing picture with contradictory results. It is needless to say that very few studies have been conducted to study the Job Satisfaction and Teaching Effectiveness of Teacher Educators. Whatever studies exist, none of them is comprehensive enough so as to enable one to draw any conclusive result.
Under these circumstances, it is quite reasonable to say that there is a great need to conduct more and more similar studies. Hence, the investigator was made to move in this direction and conduct the investigation to study the Job Satisfaction and Teaching Effectiveness of Teacher Educafors working in various institutions. This resulted, finally in the statement of the present problem whose procedure of investigation is described in the following chapter.