CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

“Educators should be chosen not merely for their qualifications, but more for their personality and character, because we teach more by what we are than by what we teach.”

-Will Durant

Education has been increasingly advocated as the birth right of the child. It is basic to the overall development i.e. physical, material, spiritual, social and intellectual of the child. It is the investment in the present for creating well educated workforce of the future. It is the mean of attaining self reliance and helps in contributing to the goals of values enshrined in the constitution. It helps to determine the prosperity, welfare and security of the society. Thus, the societies are increasingly focusing on the development of the human resource through the means of education. With the implementation of proper, sincere and well directed efforts, it will help in ensuring economic prosperity of the nation.

M’ Bow had rightly pointed out, “Education should be regarded as a prime factor in development not only because it provides the means of training the national leaders and specialists who are essential in the conditions of present day technology, but also because it is an essential element in enabling a nation’s pride to arrive at a better appreciation of their situation and of constraints to which they are subject so that they may more successfully take charge of their own destiny”.

It has been rightly said that no people can rise above the level of its teachers. With the increasing focus on the universalisation of education, the requirement of teachers has become an important issue. The Indian Education Commission (1966) keeping this in consideration to enjoin education with growth, in its report titled ‘Education and National Development’ gave importance to the concept. The report says, “In a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of the people. On the quality and number of people passing out of our schools and colleges will depend on our success in the great
enterprise of national reconstruction whose principle objective is to raise the standard of living of our people”.

A well organized and goal oriented education system is needed to help the learner to realize his potentialities, capabilities and capacities. It has been revealed that in 1993 there were about 900,000 schools and about 4.6 million teachers in the country and about 2000 teacher education institutions are churning out teachers for different school stages in the present times (The 6th All India Educational Survey, National Council of Teacher Education). With the increasing integration of IT in education the task of the teachers and administrators has become easier, but the dedicated efforts are required from them.

Despite serious initiatives in the form of various programmes like Operation Blackboard, Sarv Shiksha Abhiyan etc and large fundings, the goal has not been achieved to date. To improve the situation in terms of student enrolment and achievement in the schools, teachers and administrators are encouraged to incorporate methodologically proven research into the decision making for programs and practices. Their task becomes more difficult in the era, when there is shortage of supply of quality teachers due to the deteriorating status of teachers, lesser salaries, and no promotions, outdated teacher education programmes, higher attrition rate among beginners’ teachers and moreover, because the demand from parents and the community has been increasing in the changing world. The students’ achievement is dependent on the quality of teachers. Thus, the teachers’ role has been emphasized with more stress in the achievement of the aims of education for all. The literature is filled with suggestions of what should not be done in the classroom. Similarly, there are lots of researches which suggest the ways in which content and skills can be presented for developing opportunities for students to become skilled and effective.

Moreover, the teacher’s ability to improve the efficiency of understanding of the child also has become the point of discussion and research in the present century. More and more works are being done in this direction. A teacher is thought as a pivot in the education system. His success as a teacher in the classroom is detrimental to the education system’s total responsibility to the society. Well equipped teachers with teaching competencies and commitments in the field of education are supremely
important. A teacher should have dynamic personality with deep understanding of the socio economic conditions. They need to equip with competencies and skills of the self learning which would help them to keep pace with the rapidly changing environment in terms of classroom situations, techniques of teaching, instructional methodologies etc. They must be made conscious of their role as role models for the future generations.

In the developed nations the research in the area of the improving educational settings has been done satisfactorily with emphasis on making the teaching as a lucrative profession to encourage talented individuals to join this profession. In comparison to this in developing countries to find suitable solution for the problems of education sector many things needed to be done.

There are different roles the teachers have to play in and outside the school. His functioning in the school depends on a lot of factors i.e. support from the staff, faculty, principal and the management. In a school functioning under a systematic structure and leadership, the role of teacher becomes easier and vice versa. Thus, the management’s role as facilitator in the teachers’ day to day duties need to be taken into consideration.

1.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional Intelligence, as evident from the constituent words, is the combination of two words i.e. Emotional and Intelligence. Emotional Intelligence in layman’s language means Intelligence which is concerned with Emotional aspect of one’s behavior. Emotional Intelligence is Intelligence but it is very much different from general Intelligence.

It is well known fact from the studies of behavioral sciences that intelligence is an innate capacity as well as it can be acquired. All children are born with intellectual capacities that grow and develop with age and experience. Along with intelligence, every child comes with an innate Emotional Intelligence which helps him to react in different scenarios. This capability can be developed or marred as a result of the experiences one gets in life. General Intelligence is not subject to decline or damage with life experiences, but emotional intelligence is affected by the environment and experiences a man gets in his life. It can be destroyed or developed focusing on the experiences one gets in life. Emotional intelligence is the use of emotions in different
inter or intra personal situations, either to help oneself from others or to help others by understanding their perspective. Emotional intelligence shapes the behaviour, as it is intentional and it helps to exhibit a kind of behaviour which improves one’s performance in individual to individual and group to group situation.

Emotional Intelligence became a popular phrase in recent times. The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has gained importance in the early 1990’s. Emotional Intelligence starts its journey to prominence in 1920, when Thorndike (1920), formulated the concept of Social Intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey (1995) had introduced the term emotional intelligence in their attempt to develop a scientific measure for understanding the basis of difference in people’s ability in the area of emotions. They defined emotional intelligence as the capacity to perceive emotions; to integrate them in thoughts, to understand them and to manage them. However, the credit of popularizing the notion of Emotional Intelligence goes to Goleman (1995). According to him emotional intelligence encompasses the following five characteristics and abilities i.e. self awareness, mood management, self motivation, empathy and managing relationship. Since then, the emotional intelligence is recognized as a construct which is thought as essential to individual’s social and organisational success and as an outcome of organizations (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Ryback, 1998).

Salovey, Bar-On, Pert and Orioli (2002) emotional intelligence is the unique intersection of both head and heart and is not the opposite of intelligence. Likewise, Bar-on (1997) stated that emotional intelligence reflects one’s capacity to deal with environment challenges in daily life and help predict one’s success in professional and personal pursuits.

Cherniss (1999) said that emotional intelligence is different from reasoning of cognitive intelligence and focuses only on feelings and their reflection in terms of behaviour. Emotional intelligence includes personal and social competencies like self – awareness and self control, motivation and persistence, empathy, and the ability to form mutually satisfying relationships. It encompasses the capability to identify personal feelings and emotions and recognize the feelings and emotions of others. It helps to use
that information to resolve conflicts, solve problems, and improve interactions with others.

Thorndike (1920) pointed towards emotional intelligence as a predictor of leadership ability as it helps to understand and manage people and to act prudently in human relations. Similarly, Goleman (1998) highlighted that strong self management and social skills achieved a 390% incremental profit annually among partners, in comparison to mere 50% incremental profit through significant analytical reasoning skills. He further outlines that in leadership roles, emotional intelligence plays an increasingly significant role where technical skills differ negligibly. At higher ranks, persons with high emotional intelligence are found to be effective than others.

Moreover, it is also concluded that emotional intelligence competencies can be learnt and can be made part of leadership training modules (Weisinger, 1998). Weisinger’s model includes three competencies i.e. Self-Awareness, Managing Emotions and Self-Motivation relating to the intrapersonal dimension and two competencies i.e. Relating Well and Emotional Mentoring relating to the interpersonal dimension.

Thus, it can be generalized that emotional intelligence is the ability to keep an eye on one’s own and others emotions, to differentiate among them and to supply information to guide one’s thinking and action. Emotional intelligence is not smiling all the time but it is about: celebrating success, recognizing the joys and pains of others, being angry at right person, at right time, in right manner and for the right reason.

All definitions and research based models stated above show that emotional Intelligence plays a crucial role in an individual’s life. It set him apart from his colleagues and leads him to success at the work place. Different professions entail different intensity of emotional intelligence. As a teacher educator, we are concerned with the teaching profession. Teachers need a high level of emotional intelligence to be successful in their different profiles of job.

Individuals and organizations with high emotional intelligence are noticeable separately as they are more productive and they endorse productivity in others. Students and teachers with high EI perform better in schools and uphold safe and comfortable
environment to learn. Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002) concluded from their research that people with high emotional intelligence tend to prefer social work and teaching rather than enterprising occupations i.e. salesman.

If proper efforts are made since childhood for the training of the emotions and developing the emotional intelligence potential, the results that will come in the form of mutual emotional understanding, empathy accompanied with right action and behavior on the part of individuals and groups would help in leading a better life in peace and harmony.

To sum up, emotional intelligence is that capacity which enables individual to respond appropriately to a diversity of environmental stimuli; and present a critical edge in different spheres of work, family, social, romantic and even spiritual settings. Emotional intelligence helps to understand emotions, which are instrumental for self-awareness and self preservation that deeply connects us to ourselves and others. Further, emotional intelligence prescribe preventive measures against bad behavior, anxiety, frustration, boredom and depression etc.

In a fierce global competition, a productive, efficient and healthy learning organization is vital for success. Making employees to raise their level of work performance, the organizations are trying to become more productive and competitive. An individual’s productivity, effectiveness, and creativity combines to evolve organizational productivity. Further, the employees are driven to perform better by the kind of leadership, environment, EI, and motivation (Ferdowsian, 2002)

Esmond – Kiger, Tucker and Yost (2006) in a study on emotional intelligence among accounting and non-accounting business school students reported that accounting students have a significantly higher GPA (Grade Point Average) than their non-accounting business school counterparts but self-reported significantly lower levels of emotional intelligence. No significant correlation between GPA and emotional intelligence were reported, which supports the belief that emotional intelligence is not the opposite of intelligence as measured by GPA. Also prior exposure to the concept of emotional intelligence affects students’ emotional intelligence levels. The study highlighted the role of emotional intelligence in life situations. Contrarily in a study by La Civita (2003) it has been found that several factors of Emotional Intelligence
predicts the ability to achieve academically in a better way reflected in the form of students GPA.

It has been reported that individuals with High EI can better perceive emotions, use them in thought, understand their meanings, and manage emotions better than others. They are able to solve emotional problems without much cognitive effort and they happen to be high on verbal, social and other intelligences (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2004b).

Human functioning is determined by emotions and emotions themselves are considered as higher order Intelligence. A growing concern on vital role of the emotions in education is evident from the works of academics as diverse as Claxton (1989), Day and Leitch (2001), Hargreaves (1998), Taylor (2001), Weare (2000) and York and Kasl (2002). In the book Descarte’s Error for example, Damasio (1994) articulated how emotions and feelings are interwoven with the reasoning network as opposed to the ideology that cognition is completely separate entity from emotion. This concept may have some bearing on the most recent findings from the field of neuroscience – the interconnectedness between emotion and cognition (LeDoux, 1996).

These scientific studies of emotions in last two decades seem to begin to recognize the essential role of feeling in thinking (Goleman, 1995). Experts in the field of emotions concede to the Emotional / rational dichotomy (Damasio, 1994; Le Doux, 1996) and yet their findings lead to the conclusion that feelings are indispensable for making rational decisions (Damasio, 1994). This paved the way for more scientific studies to examine the relationship between emotion and cognition and to deepen understanding concerning rationality in emotion as well as Emotionality in rational behavior. Finally, a resolution was made through the researches of (Damasio, 1994; Goleman 1995; Parkin, 2002) that two brains, two minds and two different kinds of Intelligence simultaneously operate and that both thinking brain and Emotional brain are involved in reasoning (Damasio, 1994; Gardner 1993).

Taking into account, this new finding from neuroscience also poses a strong challenge in education. Thus, if cognition is indeed intertwine with emotions, and then there may be some value in studying the role of emotions in the educational setting. Acceptance of this stance seems to have consequential implications in the field of
education. It highlights the argument that the quality of teaching and learning can be enhanced through the improvement of the quality of the teachers (Day and Leitch, 2001).

Goleman (1995) asserts that people who are emotionally proficient i.e. are able to know and manage their own feelings well, and have the skill to read and deal effectively with other people’s feelings benefit more than others in any domain of life. They are more likely to be content and effective in day to day functioning in their lives. They had mastery on their mind and they foster their own productivity and cannot be marshaled by some control over the emotional life. They can fight their inner battles that sabotage their ability for focused effort and clear thought.

In a study on the impact of service provider’s emotional intelligence on customer satisfaction Kernbach and Schutte (2005) pointed out that the customers are more satisfied when they dealt by a service provider with high emotional intelligence. It is further concluded that level of difficulty of the service transaction is found significantly interacting with the service providers’ emotional intelligence.

Nagpal and Taneja (2005) considered EI or EQ as a basic requirement for the effective use of IQ. It is an affective adaptive capacity for smooth adjustment in our social life. EI means empathy, compassion, motivation and ability to respond appropriately to external pain and pleasure.

It is evident from the above research studies (Rosenthal, 1977; Elias, Ubrico, Reese, Gara, Rothbaum and Haviland, 1992; Goleman, 1996) that Emotional Intelligence is vital to success in an individual’s life. Researchers have investigated the relationship of EI to variables like, leadership behavior, group performance, individual performance, interpersonal/social exchange, managing change, and conducting performance evaluations, stress, burnout and occupational stress. Many studies have been conducted in health and corporate sector. The studies had summed up that emotional intelligence is the skills that enable to manage their lives in a harmonious manner. It has become a valued trait in the workplaces of different nature. Emotional intelligence is viewed by owners as prized quality of employees and its importance is subsequently becoming an asset for the organizations and individuals. This has also come to fore that professions with more social interactions require more emotional
intelligence, highlighting the concept that different professions require different level of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1995) further pointed out that emotional aptitudes may well be the predictor of cognitive abilities. Those with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to choose social occupations such as counseling, social work, and teaching to enterprising occupations (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004b) interpreted and measured emotional intelligence as the ability that predicts academic performance and the ability to communicate motivating messages as well as problem behaviors, deviance and drug use. Furthermore, the high Emotionally Intelligent individual can better perceive emotions, use them in thought, understand their meanings and manage emotions better than others.

Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (2003) states that emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for intelligence. It can be broken down into a set of intercorrelated mental abilities; which relate positively with traditional intelligence. It can be developed with age and experience. Emotional Intelligence is the ability to regulate one’s feelings, and the concept is two sided. One side involves the intellect understanding emotion and the other side involves emotion reaching into the intellectual system and generating creative ideas.

The idea of correlation with reasoning is reflected by many researches. For example, Malek (2000) concluded that Emotional Intelligence scores and scores on collaborative conflict management style are significantly correlated to each other. Similarly, Chipain (2003) finds that Emotional Intelligence is contributes positively to sales performance. Also, when sound process practices are coupled with analytical skills and Emotional Intelligence, line managers started contributing through improved productivity, quality, and cost that bettered the bottom line.

Highlighting the role of emotional intelligence Linn (2004), concluded that training in emotional intelligence could be a potent instrument in accomplishing planned business goals in the areas of hiring, training, and performance development. Likewise, Drago (2004) concluded that academic achievement is strongly correlated with the students’ ability to recognize, use, and deal with their emotions. Wilkins (2004) further suggested that the emotional intelligence skills are linked with the retention rates
among learners, thus highlighting the importance of Emotional Intelligence towards enhancing learner success through designed methods.

Haskett (2003) revealed a statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness in a study on award winning teachers and non-award winning teachers. In a study among students, it has been found that Academic performance is strongly correlated to Emotional Intelligence (Jaeger, 2001). Abdullah, et al. (2004) found positive relationship between students’ level of emotional intelligence and their academic achievement. It is reported lower levels of negative academic affect associated with academic tasks are exhibited by the students with high Emotional Intelligence. This indicated that students who are able to regulate their negative affects related to academic tasks are more likely to do well during examinations and achieve academically overall. Inability to regulate anxiety interferes with test performance by distracting students’ attention from the tasks they are involved in.

Hatzes (1996) concluded that Emotional Intelligence (including the ability to handle emotions under constraints, interpersonal abilities, and positive reframing) was a contributing attribute in the academic outcomes of students with disabilities in the university.

Elias, Ubrico, Reese, Gara, Rothbaum and Haviland (1992) and Goleman (1996) reported that students who are emotionally competent will have good control over their feeling, they will recognize and reply efficiently to the feeling of others, and bear disappointment better. Rosenthal (1977) concluded that people who were best at identifying other’s emotions and are able to empathize were more successful in their work as well as their social lives.

Furnham (2000) reported females scored higher than males on social skills factor of measured trait, emotional intelligence. Females are more vulnerable to depression in their lives due to stress (Rudoff and Hammen, 1999).

Singh (2003) reported that different professions require different emotional quotient. There are professions, which require high level of emotional quotient. Teaching is found to be a profession that requires emotional competencies such as good
relationship, harmony and comfort while dealing with groups. A teacher with high intelligence may not necessarily be high on these emotional competencies. The teachers with high emotional quotient commands respect in the society.

Teehan (2006) conducted study to understand the nature and strength of the correlation between sense of humor, emotional intelligence and their impact on overall job satisfaction. The study was non-experimental, quantitative, correlation research using survey method. The survey was administered via Internet using four tools i.e. Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale, the Multidimensional Sense of Humor Scale, and a demographic questionnaire. The results indicated no significant relationships between sense of humor, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction.

Thilam and Kirby (2002) conducted a research to study the impact of emotional and general intelligence on individual performance. They concluded that overall emotional intelligence (emotional perception and emotional regulation) explained individual cognitive-based performance. The impact is greater in comparison to the level that can be factored to general intelligence.

Yaghoubi, Mashinchi and Hadi (2011) reported from a study on a sample of 57 dyads of managers and their supervisors (i.e., 114 respondents) that emotional intelligence was significantly correlated to conscientiousness, civic virtue, and altruistic behaviors of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) of followers. Nothing significant was found between organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence using the Barron and Kenny (1986) method to test mediation.

Faye et al (2011) conducted study with the objectives to (a) assess emotional intelligence focusing specifically on empathy; (b) to study the level of anger; and (c) correlating level of anger with EI and empathy in medical postgraduates. Sales used in the study were Emotional Quotient Self-Assessment Checklist, Multi-Dimensional Emotional Empathy Scale, and Clinical Anger Scale. Subjects were assessed randomly through semi-structured proforma. Multivariate analysis with analysis of covariance test was used to analyze the data. Results indicated that more than 70% postgraduates had poor emotional intelligence; married males were more confident and empathizing; those with some major problem at home were more aware of their own emotions and
other’s feelings; residents who had voluntarily chosen their specialty postgraduation training course (eg, medicine, surgery, and others), those who had less work load, those who had time for recreational activities, and exercise had scored high on emotional intelligence. Good control of emotions in self was associated with good relationship with superiors and colleagues. Emotional intelligence and clinical anger correlated negatively.

Cole and Rozell (2011) concluded that workplace environment posits different types of situations for individuals to choose and react wherein, the perceptions and interpretations of those situations can make him or her successful in choosing right behaviour or leads to wrong perception. Persons with high emotional intelligence can interpret well and those with low emotional intelligence can misinterpret situation to become ineffective at last. Thus, emotional intelligence helps in making better sense of the perception of a situation. Thus choice of impression management strategies lead ultimately to a positive situational outcome.

On the effects of emotional intelligence on the correlation between job stress and job performance Yu-Chi Wu (2011) on a sample of employees in the Taiwanese finance sector concluded that emotional intelligence had a positive impact on job performance and moderated this relationship. He outlined that highly emotionally intelligent employees are more capable of reducing or transforming the potential negative effects of job stress on job performance than the employees with low emotional intelligence.

Similarly, Batool and Khalid (2009) assessed the relationship between emotional intelligence and depression and concluded that emotional intelligence is a potential predictive factor as 64% of variance in depression was accounted for by total emotional intelligence. Two out of ten components of emotional intelligence appeared as salient predictors of depression as 77 % of the variance in depression was accounted for by self regard and problem solving in a stepwise regression analysis.

Heavy episodic drinking (binge drinking) and alcohol-related problems are also linked to emotional intelligence. Schutte, Malouff and Hine (2011) investigated and concluded that both are related to emotional intelligence. On a sample of 100 hundred Australian participants using measures of ability and trait emotional intelligence, heavy
episodic drinking, and experience of alcohol-related problems, it was concluded that both lower ability and lower trait emotional intelligence were associated with more heavy episodic drinking and more alcohol-related problems. Trait emotional intelligence mediated significantly between ability emotional intelligence and both alcohol problems and heavy episodic drinking.

Coban et al (2010) studied the influence of socio-demographic variables on the emotional intelligence in young people. The sample included 170 university staff who were sitting a special-ability examination in order to gain a place in the physical education and sports teaching department. The results indicated significant differences in emotional intelligence levels due to age, hometown, participation in social and sports activities, self-description, and description of family, as well as in the behaviors of the families towards the adolescent. Although, gender, alma mater, or the income level of the family were not found to influence emotional intelligence levels.

Hassan, Sulaiman, and Ishak (2009) conducted study to establish relationships between emotional intelligence and anxiety, and relationships between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. 223 form 1 and form 4 students became part of the sample. Schutte Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence (SSRI) and Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) were used to collect the data. T-test analysis was used to find out significant differences. The results showed no significant differences for the emotional intelligence level within all students between ages 13 and 16. However, girls were found to differ significantly for the emotional intelligence level according to age. Gender wise, females scored higher for emotional intelligence than male students. Emotional intelligence levels of all students were significant negatively correlated to anxiety level. Lastly, the relationship between emotional intelligence with academic achievement of all variables including students’ age and gender was found to be positive.

Ilkay and Omeroglu (2007) researched 120 6-year-old children attending preschool classes for the effect of emotional intelligence education on the emotional intelligence of young children. 40 students were made to attend a 12-week emotional intelligence program and others were not. The results indicated that emotional
intelligence education program is able to improve significantly the children’s emotional intelligence levels.

Similarly, on a co relational study by Augusto Landa et al (2010) for emotional intelligence (EI), personality traits, and psychological well-being in undergraduates, it was found that low scores in neuroticism and high scores in extraversion are the dimensions of personality most related to all the psychological well-being scales, and also the best predictors of psychological well-being. Furthermore, high scores in clarity and emotional repair were found to be two consistent predictors for all the scales of psychological well-being, after controlling for personality factors. These results confirm the prognostic significance for EI on psychological well-being.

Allen, Ploeg and Kaasalainen (2012) investigated nursing faculty in an undergraduate nursing program to establish the correlation between emotional intelligence and clinical teaching effectiveness and found that significant positive relationship exist between the intelligence and clinical teaching effectiveness total scores and between many subscales of these tools.

Holeyannavar and Itagi (2012) conducted an ex-post-facto study on stress and emotional competence of 105 primary school teachers in Dharwad during 2008-09 and concluded that most of the teachers (64.7%) indicated average to high levels of stress and 35.2% with low stress. Majority of them (89.5%) showed average to competent levels of emotional competence, followed by 6.7% and 3.8% in incompetent and highly competent levels respectively. The stress of teachers showed negative and highly significant relationship with age and work experience whereas positive and highly significant relationship with education. Thus, the study concluded that increase in the emotional competence reduced the stress levels of the primary teachers significantly.

Jude (2011) studied the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on occupational stress among teachers working in secondary schools. Using an ex-post facto design was used to collect data from 392 teachers working in secondary schools of Ondo state. Stratified random sampling technique was used to choose the sample. The results indicated that teachers differ in terms of occupational stress with respect to low and high emotional intelligence. It is found that school teachers with low emotional
intelligence had scored higher than teachers with high emotional intelligence. Gender wise differences are not found significant on occupational stress.

Kakkar and Ahuja (2013) conducted study on women lecturers to compare stress in Government and private colleges. Descriptive survey method was used to collect the data and t-test was used to find out the significant differences. The results indicate that both private and government women lecturers experience same levels of stress.

Yahaya et al. (2010) conducted study the effect of various modes of occupational stress, job satisfaction, intention to leave and absenteeism. The sample comprised 100 employees in Companies Commission of Malaysia. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was employed to find out correlations and Multiple Linear Regression Technique was used to find out effect between variables. The findings of the study suggest that external environment add to the occupational stress and it is beyond the control of the organizations. Regression analysis suggested that occupational stress does not have direct effect on intention to leave and absenteeism, however, have a direct negative effect on job satisfaction. Similarly, job satisfaction has a negative effect on intention to leave and absenteeism.

Occupational stress hampers the effectiveness of employees at work and can lead to low performance, low job satisfaction, poor motivation, more absenteeism, and less turnover (Cooper, 1997).

Chona and Roxas (2009) conducted study on stress among the public elementary school teachers in Baguio City, Philippines on a sample of 320 teachers. Using descriptive-survey method, the results showed that the stress felt by the teachers is at normal level. Moreover, it has been discovered that gender, age, teaching experience and civil status do not influence significantly on the stress levels experienced by the teachers.

Okoza, Imhonde and Aluede (2010) examined the sources of stress among 150 prison staff drawn from the Oko and Benin Prisons in Edo state Nigeria. Survey method was used and on a questionnaire constructed by the current researchers. The main effect results revealed that gender and length of service have effect on stress experienced by prison workers, however, age do not affect the stress levels among prison staff.
interaction effect as a result of gender, age and length of service effect significantly on stress levels experienced by prison workers.

Chan et al. (2010) investigated the occupational health problems among 1,710 teachers working in primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong. The results found by comparision of perceived stress levels one year and five years ago, 91.6% and 97.3% of the responding teachers reported an increase of perceived stress level, respectively. Sources of stress levels have been accounted for were heavy workload, time pressure, education reforms, external school review, pursuing further education, and managing students’ behaviour and learning. But no significant difference was found on perceived stress level between teachers having different years of teaching experience. Also, teachers without a degree were found to perceive a higher stress level as compared to those holding a degree.

From the research literature enough evidence has been generated in support of the importance of emotional intelligence in succeeding in life irrespective of the career choice. Present times have made the idea much more relevant and emotional intelligence is being regarded as a major predictor of one’s success in any walk of life. Educational institutes are not merely for teaching but a medium through which an individual is polished, nourished and chiseled into an all round developed personality. It is this fact which makes it important from the aspects from which the emotional intelligence may be studied. The present study following the mixed model of emotional intelligence pioneered by Goleman (1995) considered emotional intelligence from five dimensions i.e. Self-Awareness, Managing Emotions, Motivating oneself, Empathy and Handling relationships. By Self-Awareness it is understood as the ability to know and feel about yourself and knowledge of strengths and weaknesses. Secondly, Managing Emotions mean that how we are able to handle and manage our emotions in different types of situations. Motivating oneself mean that one is able to set target and also work to achieve those goals through continuous effort. Empathy is one’s ability to read and understand other emotions and act accordingly and lastly, handling relationships is to get along with others and interact with environment according to the needs.
1.2 TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Teacher effectiveness is determined by a number of factors like certification, students’ ratings, experience, teacher preparation programs and degrees, teacher coursework and teacher’s own test scores.

Riches (1993) summarized that the successful and effective teams are value driven; has effective communications; collaborative in dealings; maximize the use of the abilities of its members; has the ability to listen to others in an effective way; has the keenness to solve problems; offers satisfaction of membership; has well motivated people in the team; has enthusiasm and flexibility; has the ability to cope with confrontation and conflict; relates to other teams; and, of course has effective quality leadership.

Corbett and Wilson (2002) conducted a study on school-reform efforts and the qualities of a good teacher using interview as a tool among inner-city adolescents. The results of the interviews outlined following six qualities of good teachers by students: Push students, maintain order, willing to help, explain until everyone understands, vary classroom activities, and try to understand students. Effective teachers shared similar beliefs about learning, had empathy with the needs of able children, and created a secure classroom environment, held high expectations, used encouragement and praise, and stressed humor and fun (Eyre, Coates, Fitzpatrick, Higgins, McClure, Wilson and Chamberlin, 2002).

Students’ ratings have always remained in the midst of controversy and there will be no complete agreement at any time for evaluating teaching effectiveness through student ratings. The application of students’ ratings for evaluating teacher effectiveness is not the only way or the best way to evaluate instruction. Further, it is unlikely to guarantee that how much the variables that may influence students’ assessment of teaching effectiveness can be controlled completely.

Research on student evaluation of teaching generally concludes that student ratings tend to be reliable, valid, relatively unbiased and useful a) evaluations are generally consistent across raters, rating forms, courses and time periods for a given semester; b) they correlate moderately to highly with evaluations made of the same
instructor by independent observers; c) they correlate significantly with various objective indicators of student performance, such as performance on standardized exams; and there are low correlations with extraneous factors such as class size, severity of grading etc (Murray, 1994).

There is evidence of effect of teacher factors on students rating of their teachers. Students want their teachers to have quality of “hardness of head but softness at heart”. Students want teachers who were aware of what they are talking about but also care about them. The various teacher factors that affect student ratings are personality traits, Ratings in elective course, level of the course, new courses, different disciplines, gender and experience.

Another area is the improvement through increase in the content knowledge of the teachers. Cross and Rigden (2002) describes the essentials which can improve the teacher quality i.e. by deepening teachers’ content knowledge and increasing candidates’ experiences in schools, hiring qualified teachers, and supporting teacher learning.

Teacher effectiveness has been a hot topic of interest among the practitioners. The educationists (Brandenburg, Slinde and Batista, 1977; Centra and Creech, 1976; Ory, 2002; Murray, 1994; Theall and Franklin, 1990) are not in consensus on the exact definition of the concept and have defined differently to measure on different occasions.

More important in the teacher evaluation is that the evaluation system should provide teachers with valuable feedback on classroom needs, the prospect to learn new teaching techniques, and counsel from principals and other teachers on how to make changes in their classrooms. It should allow the teacher to peep into his competencies and the goals he wanted to achieve as an effective teacher in the near future.

Laczko-Kerr and Berliner (2002) made comparison for 300 new teachers, the academic achievements of students taught by under certified primary school teachers, including teachers from the “Teach for America” program, to those of students taught by regularly certified teachers. The findings showed that students of under-certified teachers make about 20% less academic growth than do students of regularly certified teachers.
Leader may motivate group through perceived charisma and procedural fairness which has a positive effect on cooperation and that group belongingness mediates the interactive effect of leaders’ procedural fairness and perceived charisma on cooperation (DeCremer and Van Knippenberg, 2002; Isherwood, 1973).

Personality traits of teachers affect the student ratings and it may be further caused by what instructors do in their classroom teaching than who they are as a person (Erdle, Murray, and Rushton, 1985). Elective courses are generally given more ratings in than in required courses. Based on this observation, Ory (2002) had suggested that separate criterias shall be there for elective courses, required courses and courses that are having a mixture of students taking both. The difficulty level of the course has a very less impact on ratings of students’. As it is found that higher level courses tends to have better course ratings than lower level courses (Aleamoni and Graham, 1974; Kulik and McKeachie, 1975; Feldman, 1978; Bausell and Bausell, 1979). There is also some evidence that ratings are slightly higher for teachers and students’ of same gender in higher and larger classes (Feldman, 1993). Teachers in their First-year are likely to get lower ratings than do experienced teachers. Evenmore, professors with various ranks receive higher ratings than teaching assistants (Centra and Creech, 1976; Brandenburg, Slinde and Batista, 1977). Similarly, the courses with prior interest are also given higher ratings irrespective of instructor (Perry, Abrami, Leventhal and Check, 1979; Marsh and Cooper, 1981). Student ratings are found to have little or no relationship with academic ability of students as measured by their GPA (Theall and Franklin, 1990).

Accountability system in the teaching improves the effectiveness of teachers. Rosenblatt and Shimoni (2001) studied the impact of accountability on effectiveness in the teaching of physical education on a sample of 50 Israeli teachers. Results show that the institution of a accountability system that included reporting and feedback between teachers and the supervisors improved teacher effectiveness as substantiated by student achievement.

Similarly teachers’ effectiveness can be improved by keeping the size of the classroom small. There is more individualized teacher support and care for learning in smaller classes. The opinion of teachers with respect to class size concluded that class size matters in effectiveness and reduced class size enhances student learning and
simultaneously enhances their teaching effectiveness, whereas large classes had the opposite effect (Blatchford, Moriarty, Edmonds and Martin, 2002; Reynolds, Reagin, and Reinshuttle, 2001).

GoldHaber and Anthony (2003) examined the research on indicators of teacher quality and found out those teachers having degrees in subjects different from the subject they teach are less effective in class and have little impact on learning of students. It is found that in certain settings, teachers with advanced degrees in specific subjects like mathematics and science can have better impact on student. But, the findings contrasts widely regarding the relationship between student outcomes and years of teaching experience.

Ivie, Roebuck and Short (2001) conducted study on 241 experienced teachers to find out their views and concluded that the 76% of the time, teachers overwhelmingly selected quotations describing teaching as an art rather than teaching is science.

Gupta (1988) studied that science teachers were found significantly more intelligent than arts. Effective art teachers were significantly better adjusted socially, psychologically and physically than effective science teacher. Teacher effectiveness was found to be related to the age of the teachers they were found most effective in the 30-39 years; after that their effectiveness went on diminishing.

Johnson, Kahle and Fargo (2007) conducted study on teacher effectiveness and student achievement in science. They used a general linear mixed model to assess change in student scores on the Discovery Inquiry Test as a function of time, race, teacher effectiveness, gender, and impact of teacher effectiveness in prior years, over a 3-year period. The results concluded that effective teaching increases student achievement.

Davis and Higdon (2008) examined the effects of a school/university induction partnership on the instructional practices of beginning teachers. The findings indicate greater growth in classroom practices for the participants of the program. Also it is found that program participants received more regular help from mentors than non-participants. Overall, the results concluded that school/university induction partnerships
may contribute fruitfully to the development of teacher effectiveness during the first year of teaching.

Using the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study data, Palardy and Rumberger (2008) investigated the importance of Teacher background qualifications, attitudes, and instructional practices on the reading and math achievement gains in first grade. The results of the study suggest that compared with instructional practices, background qualifications have less vigorous associations with achievement gains.

Goldhaber (2007) concluded that there is positive relationship between Teacher licensure tests and student achievement. He also suggested that states may face significant tradeoffs when they require particular performance levels as a precondition to becoming a teacher. As a result some teachers who were not eligible to teach became eligible as a result of performance on the tests and those who were effective became ineligible.

Chan (2008) studied emotional intelligence and general teacher self-efficacy to assess their role in facilitating active and passive coping in a sample of 273 Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong. Active coping strategy was found to be predicted by both Intrapersonal and interpersonal emotional intelligence. However, active coping strategy was not found to be predicted by teacher self-efficacy.

Field experiences and tutoring play a very effective role in the pre-service teacher efficacy. The results of a study indicated that both help in getting experience for effective after training career. The field experiences have varying effects on efficacy; however, tutoring field experiences in particular have been found to have a positive impact on pre-service teachers’ abilities to teach a particular content to the individual student and to put theory into practice (Haverback and Parault, 2008).

Students’ perception of teacher effectiveness in terms of technology use is investigated by Frye and Dornisch (2008) and concluded that teachers within the disciplines of math and science who are more technology savvy are perceived as more competent. In other disciplines, the association between technology use and teacher evaluations is not significant.
In order to find out the specific teacher qualities associated with exemplary teachers, Mowrer-Reynolds (2008) conducted study on pre-service educators seeking teacher certification. The results of the study indicated that pre-service educators perceive that defining personality attributes are demonstrated by the exemplary teachers and the importance of professional skills has been outweighed by personality aspects. Enthusiasm was ranked as the most important quality of personality of all teachers. On gender differences it has been found that subject knowledge as professional skill has been given much importance by male teachers however, same was not selected by females as quality descriptor. Student achievement and pre-service educators’ decisions is influenced by the exemplary teachers.

Papanastasiou (2008) comparing effective and ineffective schools concluded that effective school is one where the school achievement score is higher than the score that would be predicted from the student characteristics. The research was conducted 3116 students, which represented about 31.8% of the entire population (9786). The performance of the schools is identified based on the differences between the predicted and achieved scores. He further outlined that major points accounted for difference among more effective and less effective schools relate to transmissional teaching, active learning, self-perception, student attitudes toward mathematics, family incentives and class climate.

Park and Oliver (2008) conducted study on the conceptualization of pedagogical content knowledge to understand teachers as professionals. Using multiple case studies in a social constructivist framework, data were collected from multiple sources and analysed using three approaches: constant comparative method, enumerative approach and in-depth analysis of explicit pedagogical content knowledge. The results indicated that (a) pedagogical content knowledge was developed through reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action within given instructional contexts, (b) teacher efficacy emerged as an affective affiliate of pedagogical content knowledge, (c) students had an important impact on pedagogical content knowledge development, (d) students’ misconceptions played a significant role in shaping pedagogical content knowledge, and (e) pedagogical content knowledge was idiosyncratic in some aspects of its enactment.
Stronge et al. (2007) compared National Board certified teachers (NBCTs) with their non-Board certified colleagues on teacher effectiveness and student achievement. The sample of the study was selected from four North Carolina school districts. The results indicated that NBCTs scored higher on selected pre-instructional and dispositional variables than non-Board certified colleagues. However, NBCTs were indistinguishable from non-Board certified teachers on a variety of in-classroom variables.

Teacher effectiveness is also determined by the positive climate and workforce. McGinty, Justice and Rimm-Kaufman (2008) investigated preschool teachers’ perceptions of a positive workplace climate; predictors of these perceptions (teacher qualifications and organizational features); and relationships among teachers’ sense of community, classroom teaching quality, and attitudes toward teaching in a sample of 68 preschool teachers serving at-risk 4-year-olds. The results indicated that teachers provided high ratings for their sense of school community, although moderate interprogram variability and moderately large to large intraprogram variability existed. Teacher qualifications and preschool affiliation did not predict teachers’ sense of community, but preschool size predicted perceptions of collegial support. Perception of collegial support and program influence was significantly related to positive attitudes toward teaching; only perceptions of program influence were related to classroom quality.

Grieve (2010) explored on a sample of primary school teachers in one local authority area in Scotland about the teacher characteristics connected with excellence. On a questionnaire teachers were asked to respond to rate in importance 44 characteristics of excellence. Based on findings, it is concluded that teachers have a clear view of excellence. They consistently described excellence in terms of personal qualities and interpersonal skills. Positive classroom ethos and positive relationships with students are given higher ratings by them. Also, the teachers consistently rated characteristics related to classroom ‘relationships in action’ as essential attribute for excellent teachers.

Clunies-Ross, Little and Kienhuis (2008) investigated the relationship between self-reported and actual use of classroom management strategies among primary school
teachers, and also examined how the use of proactive and reactive strategies influence teacher stress and student behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 97 primary schools teachers from within Melbourne. Four questionnaires on demographics, disruptive student behaviour, and teacher self-reported stress and teacher management strategies are used for collecting data. 20 of the 97 teachers were also observed in their classrooms while teaching, for recording their teacher behaviour management strategies and student on-task behaviour. The findings indicated that teacher self-reports are accurately depicting their actual practice. Minor forms of student misbehaviours are a common concern for teachers, and that teachers are spending a considerable amount of time on behaviour management issues. The findings also concluded that use of predominantly reactive management strategies has a significant relationship with increased teacher stress and decreased student on-task behaviour.

Kimball (2011) discussed the use of human capital management in education and argued that school principals should address teacher recruitment, professional development, and teacher retention from the human capital management perspective and, further, that teacher management strategies must be closely tied to school improvement programs in place. He emphasizes the role of principals’ management practices in the improvement of student learning.

Onderi and Croll (2009) discussed the perceptions of teachers in secondary schools in the Gucha district of Kenya. Data was collected from 109 English and mathematics teachers from a random sample of 30 schools. Pupil examination results were also collected from the schools. The perceptions of teachers were about their own effectiveness, the structure of their self-perceptions, variations in self-perceived effectiveness and the relationship between self-perceptions of effectiveness and the examination performance of their students. The factor analysis suggests that pedagogic process, personal and affective aspects of teaching and effectiveness with regard to pupil performance emerged of self-perceived effectiveness. It shows that teachers tended to rate themselves relatively highly with regard to the first two, process-oriented, dimensions but less highly on the third, outcome-oriented, dimension. Self-ratings for pupil outcomes correlated with pupil examination performance at school level.
Antoniou and Kyriakides (2011) conducted an experimental study to see the impact of the DIA and the Holistic Approach (HA) to teacher professional development. The sample comprised 130 teachers and 2356 students. Teaching skills of teachers and achievement of their students were studied at the start and at the end of the intervention.

One group was employed DIA and the other group was administered the HA. The results showed that the teachers employing the DIA managed to improve their teaching skills more than teachers employing the HA. The use of the DIA also had a significant impact on student achievement. Similarly a longitudinal study by Duckworth, Quinn and Seligman (2009) on novice teachers to find out positive predictors of teacher effectiveness concluded that all three positive traits of optimistic explanatory style, grit, and life satisfaction individually predicted teacher performance. Together, however, only grit and life satisfaction remained significant predictors. The findings suggest that positive traits should be considered in the recruitment and training of teachers.

Konstantopoulos (2011) highlighted through the study the role of teachers and how do they matter and significantly affect reading and mathematics achievement not only in the current or the following year, but in subsequent years as well. Using multilevel modeling he concluded that the results suggest that overall teacher effects in early grades are evident through third grade in reading and mathematics achievement. However, the results also show that teacher effects estimates in previous grades are smaller than estimates in later grades. The teacher effects are more pronounced in reading. These effects are considerable and comparable to achievement increases caused by cumulative effects of small classes in early grades.

Following the career paths of a cohort of almost 25,000 classroom teachers during the 2001–2002 school year for seven subsequent years, Chingos and West (2011) confirm that effective teachers are more likely to become assistant principals or principals and less likely to be reassigned to a low-stakes teaching position. The tendency of highly effective teachers to go on with teaching in high-stakes grades and subjects is strongest in schools receiving low ratings from the state’s school accountability system.
Saville et al. (2010) conducted study to test the syllabi details role in affecting students’ perceptions of teaching effectiveness. A hypothetical course syllabus, a brief version and a detailed version were used to conduct the study. These were distributed to students and were asked students to rate the teacher of the course on qualities associated with master teaching. Students distributed detailed syllabus rated their teachers’ as possessing more of these qualities; they were also likely to report that they would recommend the course to others and take another course from the teacher. Thus, the syllabus details also signal to students that their teacher is competent and wants them to do well.

Riley et al. (2011) conducted an experimental study on 2 students to examine the effectiveness of fixed-time delivery of attention to increase their on-task behavior. A 5-min fixed-time schedule attention was presented by the teacher and students responded in her typical manner between cued intervals. An ABAB withdrawal design was used to test the effects of the intervention. The results indicated that a fixed-time schedule of attention was effective in increasing students’ on-task behavior and lessening their off-task behavior.

The role of school level factors was measured by Creemers and Kyriakides (2010) using multidimensional approach. Most of the school level factors were found to be associated with student achievement in different learning outcomes. The multidimensional approach included five measurement dimensions to define each factor: frequency, stage, focus, quality and differentiation. Emphasis was given to the two main aspects of policy, evaluation, and improvement in schools which influence quality of teaching and learning at both the level of teachers and students: teaching and school learning environment.

Lancaster and Bain (2010) compared field-based placement and the other a course design approach of a 13-week mandatory undergraduate inclusive education course to determine their effects on the self-efficacy of pre-service elementary education teachers. Both have been derived from complex adaptive systems. Though no significant differences were found as result of 2 versions of the course, but there are significant gains statistically in self-efficacy for both approaches.
Teddlie and Liu (2008) conducted study to progress on the understanding of educational effectiveness processes within rural and urban areas in China. The data was collected through classroom observation. Multivariate analyses of variance was employed and found that teachers working in more effective schools showed more effective teaching practices than those working in less effective schools. The effect was also found significant for all the nine teaching effectiveness dimensions. Also, teachers working in urban schools showed more effective teaching practices than those working in rural schools overall and on six of the nine teaching effectiveness dimensions. The reason for differences in teaching performance in rural and urban areas might be due to teachers’ teaching abilities, educational resources, opportunities for in-service learning, and so on. Also, another reason for this is that most urban teachers have graduated from formal colleges, while most rural teachers have graduated from community colleges. Thus, rural teachers are found to have lower teaching skills. Rural teachers are also found to be availing fewer opportunities for in-service learning (e.g. technology). This is in part because of economic conditions, but it might also be related to rural principals’ and teachers’ failure to realize the importance of computers. Meanwhile, urban classrooms have more educational resources than rural schools.

Jumani et al (2010) compared the professional competencies of mathematics teachers trained through conventional and distance system of education in Pakistan. 600 randomly selected teachers, out of which 300 were trained through conventional and 300 trained through distance system became part of the sample. The study focused on the (1) Teaching Skills, (2) Management of Learning Environment, (3) Teaching Attitude, and (4) Teaching Techniques etc professional competencies of mathematics teachers. The finding of the study were: (a) the teachers educated through distance system were competent in the area of “Teaching Skills”, (b) the teachers trained through distance system of education were proficient in the “Management of Learning Environment” (c) the “Teaching Attitude” of distance teachers was significantly better than the teachers trained through conventional system of education, and (d) the “Teaching Techniques” of teachers trained through distance system of education were better than the teachers trained through conventional system. Based on findings, following recommendations were drawn: (1) the duration of teacher training workshops/
courses/program, especially designed for the secondary school mathematics teachers, should be increased to eight to ten weeks, (2) the school heads should closely monitor the in-service training workshops and necessary guidelines should be provided to the trainers and trainees, (3) the basic qualification for the post of secondary school teachers should at least be enhanced by two years, (4) all secondary schools should be provided with a teaching kit and modern facilities, so that teachers may improve their classroom instructions, and (5) the duration of the B.Ed. program may be increased from three to four semesters, and the fourth semester might focus on the teaching skills and teaching competencies of various subjects.

Popoola and Haliso (2009) investigated the predictive relationships between teaching effectiveness and use of library information resources and services on a random sample of 570 academic social scientists in thirteen federal government-funded Nigerian universities. The findings of the study concluded relationship between the utilisation of library information resources and services with perceived teaching effectiveness of the respondents is found significant. It was also concluded that the utilisation of library information resources and library services contributed 49.8 per cent and 38.5 per cent respectively to the prediction of teaching effectiveness of the respondents.

Kyriakides et al. (2006) conducted study to find out teachers’ and students’ reactions toward a mathematics reform introduced in Cypriot primary schools, and to investigate the factors influencing the effectiveness of the reform. The investigators concluded that factors related to teachers’ and students’ personal characteristics and to teachers’ reactions towards the reform were instrumental in determining students’ progress.

Graham (2007) investigated the relationship between professional learning community (PLC) activities and teacher improvement in a first-year middle school. He concluded that professional learning community activities-that comprised same-subject, same-grade teacher teams-had the potential to achieve significant improvements in teaching effectiveness, but this effectiveness depended on a number of factors i.e. leadership and organizational practices, the substantive details of PLC activity.
meetings, the nature of conversations in PLC activities, and the development of community among PLC teams.

Aypan (2009) conducted study to assess pre-service teacher training of faculty of education based on graduates’ responses. The study was conducted on 228 teachers who graduated from Faculty of Education in Marmara Region and were teaching in elementary and secondary schools around Turkey. The results indicated that the pre-service training received by teachers in the faculty of education prepared them relatively well on supporting different learning styles. Secondly, they rated equally on program and teaching and learning competencies. They rated professional development as the third whereas they rated their preparation as the lowest on creating a productive classroom.

Yariv (2009) examined the mutual discrete emotions among superiors and their above- and below-average workers within a hierarchical organisation (school). The findings indicate that there is mutually positive feelings among superiors and their above- average workers. However, the below-average teachers perceived their own performance as very good. Unlike the teachers’ mainly positive feelings, the principals experienced mixed emotions and the relationships had gone worse due to non action against them by the principals.

Selcuk, Karabey and Caliskan (2011) examined how candidate teachers use learning strategies when learning physics and the effects of gender and department variables on the use of learning strategies. Data was collected from 212 candidate teachers from Dokuz Eylul University, Buca Education Faculty, Departments of Secondary Science and Mathematics Education and Elementary Education. Revised “Learning Strategies Scale for Physics Learning (R-LSSPL)” was used for collection of data. R-LSSPL consists of 39 items and they are divided into four dimensions as “elaboration”, “organization”, “rehearsal”, and “monitoring comprehension”. The results indicated that on candidate teachers’ frequency of use of learning strategies, it was found out that they “sometimes” use these strategies. Further, results indicated that there are statistically significant differences among students’ averages according to gender and department variables of R-LSSPL factors.
Rani (2013) conducted study on degree and B.Ed. college teachers of Rajasthan and conclude that there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness.

Kyriakides and Creemers (2008) conducted longitudinal study to investigate the long-term effect of schools and teachers to modelling educational effectiveness. Results of the study revealed that traditional approaches of measuring educational effectiveness tend to overestimate the short-term effects of teachers and student background factors and underestimate the long-term effects of teachers and schools.

Jha and Singh (2012) conducted study to understand the relationship between emotional intelligence and teaching performance among medical and engineering colleges’ faculty members. It was conducted on 250 faculty members from three medical and four private engineering colleges of Uttar Pradesh, India. Emotional intelligence scale, Teacher Effectiveness Scale and Teacher Rating Scale were administered to collect data related to variables respectively. The findings showed positive correlation between all the dimensions and total emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness, both self-reported and students rated. Emotional stability, self-motivation, managing relations, self-awareness and integrity components of emotional intelligence were found to be best predictors of teacher effectiveness.

Hwang (2007) conducted another study to find out the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Teaching Effectiveness. Using the Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) and the Teaching Effectiveness Evaluation (TEE) instruments the data was collected from teachers at an Institute of Technology in Taiwan. The investigator collected data on emotional intelligence, three potential problems, were acquired from the faculty through self-report on the Emotional Skills Assessment Process. The results revealed the following: a) there was no significant relationship between Interpersonal emotional intelligence skills and overall teaching effectiveness. b) There was a significant relationship between overall Leadership emotional intelligence skills and its dimensions (Comfort, Empathy, and Leadership) with overall teaching effectiveness. c) No significant relationship was found between Self-Management emotional intelligence skills and its dimensions (Drive Strength,
Time Management, and Commitment Ethic) with overall teaching effectiveness. d) There was a significant relationship between Self Esteem dimension of Intrapersonal emotional intelligence skills and overall teaching effectiveness. e) There was a significant relationship between overall 10 emotional intelligence skills and overall teaching effectiveness.

Kauts and Saroj (2010) conducted research on the role of emotional intelligence in increasing teacher effectiveness and reducing occupational stress among teachers working at secondary school stage. The data was collected from the 600 teachers working in secondary schools. After the analysis of data, the results revealed that teachers with high emotional intelligence exhibit less occupational stress and more effective as teachers, whereas, teachers with low emotional intelligence experience more occupational stress and are less effective as teachers. Thus, the study highlighted the importance of emotional intelligence in reducing occupational stress of teachers and enhancing their effectiveness in teaching.

Teacher effectiveness has always remained a hot topic of debate and there is never a consensus among researchers’ towards the ways to measure the teacher effectiveness. The outcomes of the use of different tools have also been discussed in detail. Even then, the researchers are following the ways in order to improve the effectiveness of teachers. In the present study the holistic viewpoint has been taken of teacher effectiveness. It is not just confined to one aspect of teacher’s job profile, but taken into consideration different dimensions of teacher effectiveness. The dimensions used to define teacher effectiveness include the Academic, Professional, Social, Emotional, Moral and Personality areas. The academic area understands the functions in terms of source of information, as a motivator, and teaching skills. The professional area included the competence for cocurricular activities, knowledge and classroom management. Social area means the skill of teachers’ towards handling relationship pupils, teachers and senior authorities. Emotional competence, discipline is also studied along with personality characteristics.
1.3 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

Stress carries a negative connotation by some people as it is thought to be something which shall be avoided. This is regrettable, because stress is a great asset to an individual as well as to an organization in managing legitimate emergencies and achieving peak performance (Nelson and Quick, 1994).

Earnshaw and Cooper (1996) defined stress as any force that puts a psychological or physical factor beyond its range of stability, producing strain within an individual.

Stress is also defined as the psychological and physical reaction to certain events or situations (called stressors) in your life. However, stress may take the form of good stress as well as bad stress (Aamodt, 1999). Similarly, Greenberg and Baron (2000) defined stress as a complex pattern of emotional states, physiological reactions, and related thoughts in response to external demands. These external demands are referred to as stressors.

Stress also depends on the person’s evaluation of his ability to cope with whatever is threatening him. Researchers have reported that period of long anticipation or suspense, leads to greater stress as measured by heart rate and sweat gland activity. Most of the stress reactions were found to occur during the moments of anticipation, rather than while the actual accidents were on the screen. The signs of stress can include sleeplessness, aches and pains and sometimes physical symptoms of anxiety about going to work. What is more, people who are chronically stresses are no fun to work with. They may be irritable, miserable, lacking in energy and commitment, self-absorbed. They may find it hard to concentrate on any one task and cannot be relied on to do their share.

There is increasing concern among educators about teacher’s mental health. Job related stress is an important cause in teacher’s motivation and retention. Teaching once considered a routine job, became a complex profession for regular as well as special education teachers in the last decade (Fimian and Blanton, 1987). Issues such as litigation, liability, accountability to students’ parents and managements, tenure, unions, along with increasingly diverse responsibilities and fast changing ideas have made
teaching more stressful. In fact, as many as 20% of all new teachers leave education sector during the first few years due to the complexity of the job (Duke, 1984).

Teacher stress may be defined as a “response of negative effect (such as anger or depression) by a teacher usually accompanied by potentially pathogenic and biochemical changes (such as increased heart rate on release of adrenocorticotropic hormones into the blood stream) resulting from aspects of teacher constitute a threat to his self esteem and well being and by coping mechanism activated to reduce the perceived threat” (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978).

Stress is an experience that can produce both positive and negative results in teachers. Teachers tend to be affected by burnout more than any other public service professional. It has been cited as most stressful jobs in the list preferred profiles. The extreme or unproductive levels of stress can affect teachers to have negative attitudes towards students and to lose their idealism, energy and purpose. Stress can make teachers become unproductive and incompetent in their roles (Eskridge and Coker, 1985; Farber, 1984; Schamer and Jackson, 1996). It can have a negative influence on school, overall teaching performances of teachers, the physical and emotional well being of teachers and consequently on students (Kyriacou, 1984; Philips, 1993). The effects of stress can lead burnout among teachers and a sense that norms are unenforceable, which creates feeling of powerlessness and isolation (Dunham, 1992). To be a teacher requires good coping skills and support from family and workplace, if they are not to succumb to the physiological and psychological problems associated with stress (Schamer and Jackson, 1996).

Stress has become very critical as well as prominent problem of the present times. Some researcher opine that stress create and promote employees inclination toward the job, therefore, may enhance the capacity of a person in organization. However, it is generally assumed that stress is a harmful condition resulting in decrement in employees performance and psychological.

From the review of existing literature, it has been concluded that stress that there are essentially three different, but overlapping approaches to the definition and study of stress (Lazarus, 1966; Appley and Trumbull, 1967; Cox, 1978, 1990, 1993; Cox and Mackay, 1981 and Fletcher, 1988). The first approach conceptualizes occupational stress
as an aversive or harmful characteristic of the work environment, wherein, it is treated as an independent variable- the environmental cause of ill health. This has been termed as the ‘engineering approach’. The second approach, on the other hand, defines stress in terms of the common psychological effects of a wide range of aversive or noxious stimuli. It treats stress as dependent variable- as particular physiological response to a threatening or damaging environment. This has been termed the ‘physiological approach’. The third approach conceptualizes work stress in terms of the dynamic interaction between the person and their work environment. When studied, stress is either inferred from the existence of problematic person-environment interactions or measured in terms of the cognitive processes and emotional reactions which underpin those interactions. This final approach has been termed the ‘psychological approach’.

The development of psychological models has been to some extent, an attempt to overcome the empirical and conceptual criticisms of the earlier two approaches. There is now consensus among the researchers around this approach to define the stress. For example, psychological approaches to the definition of stress are largely consistent with the International Labour Organization’s definition psycho social hazards (International Labour Organization, 1986) and with the definition of well being recommended by the World Health Organization (1986). The psychological approach of stress is also in line with the developing literature on personal risk assessment (Cox and Cox, 1993; Cox, 1993; Cox and Griffith, 1994, 1995). These consensus, consistencies and overlaps suggest coherence in current thinking with respect to occupational health and safety.

The contemporary stress theory is dominated by two variants of this psychological theory i.e. the interactional and the transactional. The interactional model of stress theory focuses on the structural features of the person’s interaction with their work environment. However, the transactional approach to stress theory is more concerned with the psychological mechanisms underpinning that interaction. Transactional models focuses on cognitive appraisal and coping.

Focussing more on interactional model of stress, Cherniss (1980), concluded that work-related stress can be defined as the inability to cope with the demands of a job. Work-related stresses are reflected in terms of physical or psychological tensions
that are the result of job demands when exceed available resources at disposal of an individual. Similarly, Lazarus and Launier (1978) defined stress as any internal or environmental demand that go beyond the normal adaptive resources of an individual. It is more or less understood that work-related stress is a causal agent of physical and mental disorders.

Highlighting the importance of transactional model, Dewe (2000) opined that the experience of stress is partly dependent on the individual’s ability to cope with the demands placed on them by their work, and on the way in which they subsequently cope with those demands, and relates issues of control and support. More information is required on the nature, structure and effectiveness of individual’s abilities to meet work demands and to cope with any subsequent stress.

Occupational stress has been increasing in the field of education and cited by researcher (Blix and Others, 1994; Chen and Miller, 1997; Chaplain, 2001; Gersch and Teuma, 2005 and Plash and Piotrowski, 2006) with reasons given from work load to demands of the administrator and parents. This lead to attrition from the job and wastage of trained manpower at a time when there is acute shortage of staff at elementary and secondary level and it was estimated that in spite of so number of institutions in the teacher training, there is shortage of about 1.5 million teachers are required in the country at the elementary level. Thus, it becomes an imperative to find and recruit trainees with specific emotional intelligence abilities that are required to adapt and handle stress demands of the teaching profession. Teaching has been described as one of stressful profession and teacher stress is becoming an increasing problem for the administrators or principals (Laughlin, 1984; Chaplain, 1995; Punch & Tuettman, 1996; Manthei & Gilmore, 1996; Kyriacou, 2001; Munt, 2004; Antoniou et al., 2006; Guthrie, 2006). Borg and Riding (1991) conducted study on the job stress among secondary school teachers in Malta. They reported that of the 545 respondents, one-third perceived and rated teaching as very stressful or stressful. The factors recognized by them as possible contributors to stress were identified as poor working conditions, poor staff relations, pupil misbehavior, and time pressures.

The impact of prolonged work-related stress can often be extensive at the individual level and may result in organizational effects such as absenteeism, anxiety,
depression and decreased productivity (Weiss, 1983; Blazer et al., 1987; Faravelli and Pallanti, 1989; Guimaraes and Igbaria, 1992; Cartwright and Cooper, 1997).

The sources of work related stress for teachers ranged differently from one end to another and summarize the extent to which the sources are in the different aspects of responsibility a teacher undertakes in day to day routine. Hodge and Marker (1978) identified workplace related sources of stress for teachers as poor relationships with students, colleagues, and administrative staff; multifarious communication needs; inattentive students; and issues of discipline in and out of classrooms. Other factors that are mentioned are daily abuse from teachers and parents and high community standards for teacher conformity to social values (Grossnickle, 1980; Swick and Hanley, 1980; Kyriacou, 1984). Chen and Miller (1997) reported organizational characteristics and individual characteristics as the factors contributing to stress among teachers. The organizational characteristics i.e. time constraints, excessive workloads and low salaries, Insufficient classroom resources, large classes, administrative bureaucracy, little involvement in decision making, absence of collegiality and a sense of school community, problems with student discipline and classroom management, and very less opportunities for promotions or advancement. Similarly, individual characteristics include, for instance, feeling of alienation and powerlessness among younger and less experienced teachers. Pullis (1992) conducted a survey on 244 teachers of the behaviorally disordered. Based on the analysis it is found that perceived sources of stress among school/setting factors by the teachers include career issues, and workload variables as more stressful than direct contact with students. The teachers reported that emotional exhaustion, frustration, and negative carryover of stressful events to life outside the classroom were frequent effects of stress. Schonfeld (1991) conducted a study to examine the link between occupational conditions and depressive symptoms in newly appointed teachers. On the basis of investigation, he is able to conclude that teachers in the most difficult schools showed an increase in depressive symptoms and that the relationship between working conditions and depressive symptoms is strong. Teachers in the most adverse school environments exhibited the most depressive symptoms although there were no pre employment differences in the summer questionnaire.
The job of principals or administrators in the school sector are also of too much pressure and an analysis of job factors which caused administrative stress in different studies were ‘people-related responsibility areas’ rather than routine issues related. Zimbabwean school administrators had reported that most sources of stress for them is people related i.e. supervising teachers, evaluating teachers, supervising extra curricular activities, poor students’ results, inadequate resources, overcrowded classes, lack of parental interest in students’ work, dealing with parents, and limited chances for promotion (Nhundu, 1999). Similarly, Wilson and Otto (1988) concluded that primary school administrators identify lack of autonomy and recognition, increasing workload, responsibility for others and improper resources for use are significant sources of occupational stress. Likewise, role overload and poor human resources or lack of expertise to fulfill curriculum demands are reported as sources of stress by primary head teachers (Downton, 1987). Borg and Riding (1993) also surveyed 150 Maltese public school administrators and found that about 20% viewed their job as very stressful. They concluded that those who reported greater stress levels were least satisfied with their administrator role. Four major stress factors were lack of support and conflict resolution problems, inadequate resources, workload, and work conditions and responsibilities. Another study conducted on 575 college deans, associate deans, and chairpersons and by Blix and Lee (1991) discovered that misfit between the administrator’s motivational style and job demands were found to be factor of perceived work stress and the perception of poor coping ability. The perception of poor coping ability was found to be correlated with stress-related illnesses, and misfit was correlated with consideration to change jobs.

Also, on the similar profile of family literacy administrators, Sandlin and Chen (2007) examined stress levels and source for stress. The study revealed that family literacy program directors experience moderately high levels of general stress. The main cause of general stress recognized by the directors is occupational stress. Finally, findings reveal that directors most frequently experience occupational stress in the form of boundary-spanning and conflict-mediating.

June et al. (2006) had concluded for minority nurses faculty (African–Americans, Latinos, and multi-racial respondents) that less control and less support
from fellow employees to a greater extent are cause of stress for them. Likewise Gersch and Teuma (2005) concluded for educational psychologists that amount of work is the most important contributors of stress for them. They (58%) of them also identified that their work as educational psychologists is at least moderately stressful or more stressful. Suggested solution for reducing the stress by educational psychologists is increase in administration time.

Likewise educational psychologists, Elfert and Mirenda (2006) studied 65 behavior interventionists for their least and most rewarding job aspects. It was found that two most stressful work roles for behavior interventionists were role overload and role boundary aspects of occupational stress. This indicated that lack of personal and workplace resources with them to handle stress and secondly not able to balance the demands from different set of higher authorities. Though as expected, coping is found to reduce the occupational stress and strain but they are not able to moderate the effects of stress and strain. These points out the inherent stress in the job profile of handling sensory-related behaviors and social unrelatedness in children with autism.

Job security has also been recognized as one of the important source of stress in some of the studies conducted. For example Rugulies et al. (2006) reported that job insecurity for males and low influence at work and low social support from supervisors for females has been major contributor to symptoms of stress in the form depression as factor in psychosocial work environment. Also, all higher education staff in UK universities and colleges reported job insecurity as the most significant contributor of stress (Tytherleigh et al., 2005). These results support the growing evidence that universities no longer provide the low stress working environments they once did.

In new entrants to the profession, Grebner et al (2004) using an event-sampling approach conducted study on 80 young workers and these young workers reported stressful events over 7 days (409 work-related and 127 private events). The analysis showed that social stressors, quantitative overload, problems of cooperation are significant contributors of stress. Among these social stressors were dominant in work place and in private life. In terms of coping resources used in different chronic conditions and situational variables, Palliation, job controls were found effective in calming down or buffering the effect of stressful situations.
Consequently of experiencing stress at workplace the individuals are found to go for coping mechanism or sometimes falling prey to the situations of occupational stress. The resultant effects of severe stress at workplace were found in different groups are i.e. prone to drug abuse (Krueger, 1981), sexual difficulties (Malatesta and Adams, 1984), insomnia (Hartmann, 1985), nightmares (Cernosvsky, 1989), relationship problems (Daus and Joplin, 1999) and alcoholism (Grunberg et al., 1999).

Related to reduction of stress measures, special education teachers in Alabama recognized relocation or attrition in job as ways to reduce stress in their lives. Most of the times the reasons of attrition or relocation were attributed to job conditions, occupational stress, demands of IDEA compliance, and increased caseload and class size. Sometimes other factors for attrition and relocation were identified as relocation of spouse’s job and threat of litigation (Plash and Piotrowski, 2006). Layne, Hohenshil and Singh (2004) also reported that turnover intentions of counselors in the field of rehabilitation are attributed to the inherent occupational stress in the job functions of rehabilitation centres. The not individual coping resources or demographic variables do not account for the turnover intentions among them.

Comparing different professional for occupational stress, Huarng (2001) has revealed that IT professionals have higher levels of emotional exhaustion, which are the feelings of frustration and tension, than police and nurses, though lower than that of teachers, welfare managers and hospitality employees.

Similarly, Lease (1999) conducted study of occupational stress and personal-strain levels among new and experienced male and female college faculty found no differences in stress or strain between male and female faculty or between new and experienced faculty. Role overload and avoidant coping were significant predictors of strain, with hardiness and responsibility for home-centered tasks accounting for variance in some measures. Comparing occupational stress between groups i.e. executive and classroom teachers, elementary and secondary teachers, and teachers at different career stages and geographical locations of public school in New South Wales, Australia, McCormick (1997) reported that elementary teachers were found reporting greater stress attributable to student misbehavior than secondary teachers. Therefore, the plans shall be planned keeping their concern for occupational stress. Likewise, in a
study on beginning special education teachers in Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee, Minner and Lepich (1993) concluded that Occupational Stress among teachers posted in rural areas are experiencing more stress than their counterparts in urban areas. Also, female as compared to male teachers are experiencing more stress at work place. Another study in terms of race for occupational stress by Smith and Witt (1993) discovered that African-American faculty reported higher levels of occupational stress than white counterpart in the universities on grounds of research and service activities. The sample of study was 1,000 college faculties.

Richard and Krieshok (1989) conducted study on occupational stress, strain, and coping in University Faculty at the rank of assistant, associate, and full professor. Data was collected from male and female university faculty (N=83). Results indicated that no significant differences based on gender or occupational ranks on measures of coping and role stressors. Similarly, significant interaction between gender and rank on predicted strain scores was found.

Torelli and Gmelch (1993) surveyed 1,000 Washington principals and superintendents to ascertain the nature and extent of their occupational stress and burnout and the association with sex role orientation. Superintendents perceive less task-based and conflict-mediating stress than do principals, but report more externally caused stress. Task-based stress is the best indicator of emotional exhaustion burnout.

Gaziel (1993) surveyed 373 Jewish and Arab elementary teachers in Jerusalem to find out coping with occupational stress among teachers. He concluded that Jewish teachers reported higher occupational stress overall and in relation to community and parental expectations, whereas Arab teachers found themselves stressed due to the working conditions and professional image requirements. Both the groups also differ in the use coping strategies for managing job stress.

Johnstone (1993) conducted study on a sample of 570 Scottish classroom teachers, promoted staff, and senior management to find out Teachers’ Workload and Associated Stress. Teachers, promoted staff, and senior management were asked to record the work they were doing for a full week, in 15-minute blocks of time. Respondents also recorded whether or not they felt stressed on that day and described the cause and symptoms of the stress. Results revealed that the mean working day was
7.89 hours, with 3 hours on the weekend. Over the whole week, teachers found themselves busy for a mean of 42.5 hours work excluding the break time. A fifth of senior management time is consumed in the administration of paperwork in secondary schools, however, it is found to be far less in primary schools. Meetings took up almost another fifth. Majority of faculty (93%) reported that during the week there is at least one occasion of severe stress. The chances of experiencing stress increasing a week is directly linked to the hours stay in the week, the longer the hours worked, the more stress occasions reported. Coping strategies included seeking support from family, friends, or colleagues or various hobbies/relaxation. On the Occupational Stress Indicator, teachers scored higher on the job-specific stress scale than any other group for which norms were available.

Russell and Wiley (1993) conducted a survey of 154 rural special educators in the areas of mental retardation, learning disabilities, and emotional conflict and found no significant differences in stress levels experienced by the three groups of rural special educators working in the areas of mental retardation, learning disabilities, and emotional conflict. An ad-hoc analysis found no significant differences among groups in supervisor support, room type, or job satisfaction.

Portman (1985) conducted study to find out the problem of occupational stress among psychological consultants. He reported that consultants found their job to be stressful. The most frequent cause of occupational stress by psychological consultants is uncertainty as to parameters of problems; contractual uncertainties; overload of information; and marginality of consultant role. Stress coping strategies used by the consultants include reading and listening to music.

Shamir and Drory (1982) conducted study to find out the sources of occupational stress among the prison officer’s job and also examined the correlation of job stress with tedium (defined as a general experience of physical, emotional, and attitudinal exhaustion). From the results they concluded that the prison officers reported that role overload, management support, and societal support are important contributors to tedium (general experience of physical, emotional, and attitudinal exhaustion).

Subburaj et al. (2012) conducted study to clarify the roles of different factors play in increasing police stress. The data was collected from 600 police constables from
the state of Tamilnadu, India. The results showed that there exists strong relationship between occupational stress and personality traits (neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness and agreeableness). Regression analysis also showed that personality traits predict the occupational stress. Chi square test used showed that there is significant association of demographic variables (age, gender, marital status, years of service and monthly income) with occupational stress and personality traits.

In a longitudinal study on sixty-six teachers representing different school levels in Finland, Salo (1995) reported that there is a clear accumulation of stress among teachers. Coping resources, ways of coping and potential stressors were found associated with the different levels of stress experienced by four different teachers’ stress groups.

In the Indian sub continent also teaching job is no longer considered as an easy job and is looked as a challenging one. Reddy and Poornima (2012) conducted study to investigate the occupational stress and the professional burnout of university teachers Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh States of South India and reported that majority (74%) of the university teachers are experiencing moderate to high levels of occupational stress.

Similarly, in another study by Ravichandran and Rajendran (2007) various sources of stress experienced by 200 higher secondary teachers were investigated. The result revealed that the significant difference in the perception of various sources of stress related to the teaching profession are found on account of personal variables i.e. sex, age, teaching experience, educational levels, and types of school.

Reddy and Anuradha (2013) examined the occupational stress of higher secondary school teachers and concluded that government school teachers are more stressed than the private school teachers; the variation in the educational qualification of higher secondary teachers is not showing any influence on their occupational stress; the variance in the years of experience of higher secondary teachers is not showing any influence on occupational stress of teachers; and the variable age is also not influencing the occupational stress of higher secondary teachers.
Suri (2013) conducted study to find out about occupational stress among teachers of Jammu district in Jammu and Kashmir. The conclusions include a) There exists a significant difference in qualification among women teachers on occupational stress index scores. However, the significance may have been caused by women teachers belonging to low levels of qualification; b) No significant variance is accounted for due to various levels of age among women teachers on occupational stress index scores and c) There was no significant interaction between various levels of qualification and age of women teachers on occupational stress index scores.

Aftab and Khatoon (2012) conducted study to examine the influence of a set of independent variables i.e. teaching experience, salary, gender, qualification, subjects taught and marital status on the occupational stress of 608 secondary school teachers working in 42 schools of Uttar Pradesh (India). The Teachers Occupational Stress Scale was used for data collection. For analyzing the data t-test and ANOVA were used. Results of the study indicated that nearly half of the secondary school teachers experience less stress towards their job. Gender wise males reported more occupational stress towards job than the females. From the qualification point of view, the trained graduate teachers exhibited higher occupational stress than post-graduate teachers and untrained teachers. With respect to teaching experience, occupational stress was found highest among teachers with 6-10 years of experience and least experienced by teachers with 0-5 years of experience. Monthly salaries, marital status, subjects taught are not found to make any significant influence on the occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

Lath (2012) concluded that teachers from different types of schools suffer stress in different ways. The analysis revealed that teachers working in Government school particularly males’ experience a little more stress as compared to their counterparts working in privately managed schools. Variables like age, gender and experience are found to make an influence on the occupational stress of teachers. In case of role overload for Teachers working in government schools, it is found that teachers with more age show more stress as compared to counterparts of young age. The teachers working in private schools were found having no significant difference in their stress. With references to gender differences in government schools, male teachers were found
to experience greater stress as compared to female teachers. This was specially indicated on role overload and physical environment scales. No differences were found in case of teachers of different genders working in private schools. The young teachers of government school reported of having being held in conflicts and doubts about their reporting as compared to their counterparts having more experiences. Teachers of government schools were found to experience greater stress role overload, role ambiguity, role boundaries and physical environment dimensions of occupational stress. With respect to type of institution, teachers working in government schools are found more stressed as compared to teachers working in private schools on occupational stress total.

Khurshid, Butt and Malik (2011) conducted to discover occupational role stress among the 500 teachers working in public and private sector universities. On the basis of results they concluded that university teachers experience moderate to high level of occupational role stress. In terms of sector comparison, it is found that teachers working in the public sector universities experience greater stress than their counterparts in private sector universities. Gender differences showed that males experienced more occupational stress than females in both types of universities.

LiuYan (2007) conducted research to investigate the internal structure of middle school teacher’s occupational stress, the distinction of different teachers as well as the correlation between their occupational stress and personality traits. The conclusions drawn by this research are as follows: Firstly, As far as the occupational stress is concerned, there is no marked difference between the teachers who got different degrees; Secondly, the personality trait of middle school teachers is markedly related to the occupational stress, the five factors of personality trait can predict the degree of occupational stress, while the effect of neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness is the bigger than other two factors.

Gandhi and Sharda (2013) conducted study on occupational stress among senior secondary School teachers in relation to their effectiveness. The sample consisted of 60 senior secondary school teachers out of two blocks of Gurgaon district, from six schools (03 private & 03 government schools). The findings include a) less effective teachers (both male & female) are more stressed than the highly effective teachers; b) female
teachers are more stressed than their male counterparts; c) 75% of the male senior secondary school teachers were found to be under stress; d) 90% of the female senior secondary school teachers were found to be stressed; occupational stress affected the teacher’s efficiency. With the increase in occupational stress, effectiveness was reduced; e) private senior secondary school teachers were more effective than the Govt. Senior Secondary school teachers; four main aspects of occupational stress are role conflict, role ambiguity, frail interpersonal relationship and work load.

Jeyaraj (2013) studied the Occupational Stress level of Higher Secondary School Teachers working in government and aided schools with different socio-cultural and economic situations. He concluded that occupational stress levels were found more among Aided school teachers than Government school teachers. Stress level points of Government and Aided Higher Secondary Teachers were quite different from each other. Stress among teachers increased with age meaning thereby that aged teachers have reported more occupational stress than younger teachers. Also it is noticed that teachers with greater stress experience were less satisfied with their profession, were found more absent from duty and has tendency to leave teaching career and less likely to take up a teaching career again.

Khurshid and Anjum (2012) explored the relationship between occupational stress and perceived organizational support among teachers working in higher secondary institutions of public and private sector. Results revealed that younger teachers express more occupational stress and low perceived organizational support than experienced teachers. Similarly, it has been found that female teachers experiences more occupational stress and low perceived organizational support than male teachers; married teachers are found less stressed and high on perceived organizational support than unmarried ones; teachers earning low monthly income exhibit more occupational stress and low perceived organizational support than the teachers earning more monthly incomes; contract based teachers showed high occupational stress and low perceived organizational support than the permanent teachers; teachers working in private sector experience less stress and high perceived organizational support.

Mokdad (2005) in a study on occupational stress among Algerian Teachers concluded that the teaching, the teaching environment, pupils, parents, society, the
curriculum, colleagues, supervision, and administration are the major sources of stress among teachers’.

Though, the stress has been found to be making impact in a negative way. Even then there are instances which report that it has a positive impact also. Blix and Others (1994) found that 40% of 400 university teachers felt a good fit between motivational style (altruistic-nurturing, assertive-directive, analytic-autonomizing) and job rewards. Females had higher misfit scores in comparison to males. Two-thirds of teachers perceived occupational stress at least half the time. Hefty workload in teaching departments was cited by them as the most significant reason for job change. Similarly, Chaplain (2001) explored perceived stress and job satisfaction among 36 primary British head teachers and found that half were satisfied with their work and around half are dissatisfied and experiencing high levels of occupational stress. The reasons cited for highest satisfaction levels came from personal and organizational factors. For dissatisfied head teachers school organization was a source of stress. Social support was perceived as inadequate.

Flett and Biggs (1992) conducted a study on 16 vocational rehabilitation placement officers in New Zealand. They concluded that job stress and life satisfaction are highly negatively correlated to each other. Further, the role conflict is experienced greatly by them indicating lack of clarity of command and control among them. Strategies for stress reduction focused on improving communication and decision-making processes.

McCormick and Solman (1992) conducted study on teachers in Australia examining how they attribute responsibility for their job stress and satisfaction. Results concluded that elementary and secondary level teachers perceive that stress exist differently at different levels. Also teachers attribute responsibility for stress to themselves in relation to their perception of their performance in dealing with student misbehavior.

To find out the various factors which are instrumental in buffering the occupational stress different researchers has conducted studies. For example, Manlove (1994) examined the relation of occupational stress in the child care workplace to three facets of staff burnout: emotional exhaustion; depersonalization; and personal
accomplishment. Results showed that work role conflict and ambiguity predicted a significant portion of variance in the three aspects of staff burnout, and that social support buffered the effects of role conflict and ambiguity. Similarly, Pithers and Soden (2002) found that personal resources (recreation, self-care, social support, rational/cognitive) help in reducing or buffering the negative effects of occupational stress. Though, the relationships differ from age to age, gender and type of stress i.e. vocational, psychological, interpersonal, and physical. He further concluded that personal resources are better utilized by women and older teachers to reduce or buffer strain.

In order to find out the ways through which clergy is able to keep burnout, conflict management style, and tenure at a low for better prospects of handling such situations, Beebe (2007) surveyed a sample of 343 clergy to see the impact of differentiation of self and role on their burnout, conflict management style, and tenure. As is evident that the clergy functions at higher levels of differentiation of self and role experienced lower levels of perceived burnout and prefer a collaborative conflict management style. This analysis offered potential ways of response for professionals who interact with clergy regarding burnout and conflict.

Among the different ways which are helpful to cover up or remove the ill effects of occupational stress various researchers experimented with techniques which are expected to be helpful in reducing the occupational stress among different types of work force in different walks of life. Kamarzarin (1999) examined the role of biofeedback and relaxation training in reducing occupational stress in a study of 50 individuals employed in various occupations in Iran. The sample of study consisted of 15 workers (5 females, 10 males); 15 managers (5 females, 10 males); 9 guardians (3 females, 6 males); 5 dentists (2 females, 3 males); and 6 teachers (3 females, 3 males). All subjects were trained to control their occupational stress through relaxation and biofeedback techniques. Each of the 10 training sessions lasted 30 minutes. After the training sessions had been completed, the subjects were asked to continue training in their own work environment. All subjects were evaluated by the following methods before and after the training: clinical interviews; Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, short form;
and C-TEMP and GSR (Galvanic Skin Response) biofeedback. A chi-square analysis of the interview, questionnaire, and biofeedback findings failed to establish any relationship between sex of subject and effectiveness of treatment. However, effectiveness of training was significantly related to occupation. Specifically, the biofeedback and relaxation training was more effective in reducing the occupational stress experienced by dentists, teachers, and managers than it was in reducing the occupational stress experienced by guardians and workers. Similar to this, Anderson et al (1999) conducted study to check the effectiveness of standardized meditation (SM) class on the perceived occupational stress of full-time teachers. They employed a pretest/posttest control-group design. The tools used to measure different variables included State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), Teacher’s Stress Inventory (TSI), and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The duration of treatment was five-weeks. Results after comparison of control and experimental groups suggest that standardized meditation SM significantly reduces teachers’ perceived stress. The effects were also found positive even in case when used only two to five times per week.

Hamilton and Kella (1995) assessed the psychological aspects of different art forms as a way to reduce the occupational stress through two groups of professionals in dance and music. Dancers were members of two national ballet companies and had achieved either soloist or principal status. Musicians were violinists and violists who performed in a variety of solo positions. Performers (N=48) completed demographic information and were then administered measures of personality and occupational stress, strain, and coping. The results revealed that the dancers were less educated than the musicians, a fact that can lead to problems with career transitions. Dancers also experienced greater occupational stress due to conflicting demands from their dance supervisors and unclear professional evaluations. Musicians, who are subjected to an enforced equality between the sexes, reported more interpersonal strain. Negative personality traits (e.g., hostility) were present in both professions, but were highlighted in male performers. The men used fewer rational/cognitive coping skills, had less social support, and reported more symptoms associated with poor health.
Kagan (1989) explored the relationship among teachers’ cognitive styles, their preference of leadership styles, and their susceptibility to stress. Data from the self-reports of elementary teachers suggested that nonanalytic teachers prefer principals who stress process rather than task and appear less susceptible to occupational stress than the more analytic and realistic teachers.

Watts and Short (1990) examined relationship of work-related stress in 277 teachers with intentions to leave the teaching profession and habit of drug use. They concluded that use of lifetime alcohol, amphetamine, and tranquilizer use and higher rates of alcohol use are the possible effects of work related stress.

Revicki and May (1985) explored the relationships between occupational stress, social support, locus of control, and depression among a group of 210 family physicians. The results indicated that occupational stress exerted a direct effect on depression. This relationship was moderated directly by family social and emotional support and indirectly by the influence of locus of control on family social support. Support from peers was not significantly related to depression.

Zabel and Zabel (1982) analysed 601 special education teachers’ responses to questionnaires about burnout. They found that teachers at the junior high level were at greatest risk for burnout; teachers of emotionally disturbed children reported greatest occupational stress. Lastly, the support ratings from fellow teachers, administrators, and parents were significantly correlated with burnout.

Friesen and Richards (1984) examined the work-related stress experienced by 270 principals and 300 teachers in public schools in the Alberta, Canada, province. The result of the findings indicated that background variables did not contribute significantly to overall work stress; personal life stress, failed to account for variance in overall work stress. Teachers and principals differ significantly on their stress experience. Teachers experience more number of high stress encounters in comparison to principals.

Yang et al. (2009) found age as a significant predictor of stress among teachers. Similarly, Sun, Wu & Wang (2011) conducted study to assess the occupational stress among university teachers in China and clarify its risk factors. Eight universities (2
multidiscipline and 6 specialized) and 10% of academic staff each were randomly sampled. Chinese Version Personal Strain Questionnaire and demographic characteristics, health status, work situations, and personal and social resources were used for collection of data from 827 effective respondents. The average raw score on Personal Strain Questionnaire was 91.0 among the university teachers. General linear model analysis showed that the factors significantly associated with the Personal Strain score were, in standardized estimate (β) sequence, mental health, role overload, role insufficiency, social support, monthly income, role limitations due to physical problems, research finance and self-rated disease with adjustment for age and sex.

The review of related literature had pointed towards different ways of explain the occupational stress by the researchers. Present piece of research defined occupational research from the point of view of six dimension scales as per occupational role questionnaire i.e. Role Overload, Role Insufficiency, Role Ambiguity, Role Boundary, Responsibility and Physical Environment. The Role Overload dimension underscore the extent to which job demands exceed personal and workplace resources. Role Insufficiency is defined as the extent to which individual’s training, education, skills and experiences are appropriate to job requirements. Role Ambiguity is understood as the extent to which priorities, expectations, and evaluation criteria are clear to the individual. Role Boundary is defined as the extent to which the individual is experiencing conflicting role demands and loyalties. Responsibility is understood as the ability to take responsibility for the performance and welfare of others and lastly, Physical Environment measures the intolerable condition which amounts to extreme physical conditions to work in.

1.4 PERSONALITY TRAITS

Every individual is said to have personality of his own, which is unique and distinct from every other personality. In a popular sense, by personality we mean that an individual has some striking qualities or traits in which he differs from others that is in appearance, in aggressiveness or pleasant manners etc. But, these are not only points that make up the person. Every individual has a typical and distinctive style of
behaving. The unique quality of his behavior constitutes shape to his personality that is feelings; values; reactions; prejudices; attitudes; perceptions are the basis of one’s behavior. Thus personality includes physique, habits, temperaments, sentiments, will and intelligence etc.

Personality pervades every aspect of human life and influences every behavior. It is one of this ground that Woodworth calls personality as the quality of one’s behavior. The personality of an individual is much more complex and goes deeper. Personality is meant as the individual’s characteristics and reaction to social situations and his adaptation to his social features of his environment. Hence, personality is not only what we do in relation to others, but something more than that. Psychologically, personality is all that a person is. It is the totality of his being and includes physical, mental, emotional and temperamental make-up.

Ordinary the personality is taken as the external appearance of the individual. In philosophy the meaning of personality has been interpreted in the sense of self. But in psychology neither is the personality the external appearance nor it is the self, but it includes both and much more.

The term ‘personality’ has been derived from Latin word ‘persona’ that means mask. Persona is that mask which Greek actors used to wear on their faces when they worked on the stage.

Personality means what we are and what we hope. The personality is not fixed state but a dynamic totality, which is continuously changing due to interaction with environment. It is the total integration of physical, intellectual, social, emotional and character make up of the individual, who is expressed in term of behavior attitudes, temperaments and traits. In this way the term personality signifies something deeper than mere appearance or outward behavior. Personality is known by the conduct, behavior activities, movements and everything else concerning the individual.

Personality is sum total of traits or abilities that distinguishes people or the stability of a person’s behavior in different circumstances. Personality is the entire mental makeup of person at the different stages of his development. It encompasses every aspect of life which has contributed the development of character, intellect, skill,
morality, temperament, and attitude which are going to decide the course of life with time.

Different authors have defined personality traits defined differently but howsoever, the important underlying theme or current and essence are similar in almost all the definitions. The salient points of definitions are similar. An aspect or dimension of personality is described as a trait as it has been found with consistency in a particular adjustment in the person in different situations.

Jung (1923) developed the concept of collective unconsciousness; which proposed that we inherit certain personality characteristics from our ancestors and the human race as a whole. He categorized and explained individual in terms of type of personality based on the different function and attitudes.

Allport (1937) defined personality as the dynamic organization of psycho-physical systems within the individual, which determine his unique adjustment to his environment.

Eysenck (1971) said that personality is the person’s character, temperament, intellect and physique which are generally stable and the enduring organization of which determines his distinct adjustment to his environment.

As personality traits never exists in two persons in exactly the same way because of the unique heterogeneous organization of personality. It is therefore, it has become a belief that every individual is characterized by a matchless combination of personality traits, which distinguish him as an individual. A child may be said to be sober, trustworthy while other may be characterized as being honest, compassionate and devoted. Similarly, one child may have well balanced and harmoniously developed personality-showing minimum of conflicts, another may be observed repressed and mal-adjusted. This difference in individual traits is due to various factors like physique, learning and home or social environment.

The development of personality is the result of various factors, which can be broadly divided into two groups: Biological and Social.
DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

Biological Determinants                      Social Determinants
- Genetic Influences                           - Family Influences
- Physique                                      - The School/College and Peer groups
- Endocrine Glands                              - Social and Cultural Influences
- Diet and Nutrition                            -
- Drugs                                       
- Blood Sugar                                  
- Illness and Disease                           
- Brain Injury                                 

The new paradigm in the research of personality is the five factor model of personality. The BIG five factor model also called as OCEAN in parlance is based on normality assumption and it emphasizes on the individual personality characteristics; the preferences of traits is indicated by the strength of the score in a particular trait; and it is a model based on experience and not theory.

As per the new researches on personality traits, the personality of an individual goes on changing with time and different professions require persons with different personality traits. Teaching profession is no different from others. It requires persons who can adapt to situation demands in teaching learning situations in and outside classroom.

For a dynamic personality, a balanced value preference must be inculcated in the individual through the value education programme and rich curriculum. This process should be started from the initial stage of the child so that it can be developed gradually in a very balanced way, which is essential for his purposeful and happy life, and he can serve the society with his highest qualities in the most preferable manner.
Bowling, Beehr and Swader (2005) from a study on giving and receiving social support concluded that the amount of social support one gives, and receives at work are reciprocal and positively associated to each other and the factors responsible for this are extraversion, neuroticism, and agreeableness personality traits. Giving and receiving non-job support and positive work-related support is predicted by extraversion and agreeableness personality traits. The relationship between personality and social support received was, in many cases, mediated by social support given.

Chamorro-Premuzic, Bennett, and Furnham (2007) found that happiness and trait Emotional Intelligence were positively correlated with four of the Big Five factors, namely neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness.

McGrath and Zimet (1977) studied gender differences in specialty choices, specialty beliefs, and personality characteristics of medical students. They reported that significant difference exists between male and female students and personality characteristics have changed to less traditional and stereotypic positions.

Meit, Borges, Cubic and Seibel (2004) concluded that female medical students are more affectionate and outgoing; more compliant; more responsive; more self-doubting and worried; more planned and self-disciplined; and more tense and driven than their male counterparts. However, males are found to be more adaptive and mature; more assertive; more suspicious and skeptical; more imaginative and idea-oriented; more private and discreet; and more solitary and individualistic as compared to female medical students.

McCreary and Gershen (1982) studied two dental classes for personality change in the freshman year and after graduation. Significant test/retest increases were found on orderliness and conformity scales and decreases on the activity/energy scale. Sex differences occurred on activity/energy, emotional stability, and masculinity/femininity scales. In one class, females decreased in empathy.

Madhosh (1989) found the Kashmiri popular personality appeared to possess strong emotional stability, spontaneity and high mental ability and they were generally not frustrated and relaxed, the neglected tended to be hard obstructions, dull and timid. The isolates were cool, generally tensed and relaxed.
Zonash and Naqvi (2011) conducted research to explore the relationship between personality traits and the learning styles among students of mathematic, architecture, and fine arts. They concluded that positive relationship existed between mastery learners and conscientiousness, understanding learners and openness, interpersonal learners and agreeableness and self expressive learners and extroversion. However, negative relationships were found between neuroticism and mastery, interpersonal, understanding, and self -expressive learners. Girls scored higher on interpersonal and understanding learners as compared to boys. Also girls scored more on neuroticism and openness than boys.

In a relationship study between subjective well-being and personality, Denghao and Hailong (2010) on a sample of 682 Chinese public servants employed by a local authority concluded that extraversion among the Big five traits, was the strongest predictor of subjective well-being.

Croy et al. (2011) conducted study to establish relationships between personality traits and sensory thresholds among Agreeable Smellers and Sensitive Neurotic. The results showed significantly enhanced odor sensitivity in socially agreeable people, significantly enhanced trigeminal sensitivity in neurotic subjects, and a tendency for enhanced pain tolerance in highly conscientious participants.

Jivanescu, Crisan and Lazarescu (2011) conducted study on Romanian population, to examine the prevalence and correlates of certain psychological characteristics and personality traits regarding the Adonis Complex, a debilitating and chronic condition characterized by one’s preoccupation with thoughts concerning muscle size and shape, as well as the specific behaviour that derives from this. The study used the Hamilton Anxiety Scale, Beck Depression Inventory, the Altered Personality Questionnaire, and the Adonis Complex Questionnaire. 30 males who work out in fitness gyms at least 3 times a week were used as sample of the study. Results showed that significant correlations were found between depression and anxiety symptoms and certain characteristics related to muscle dysmorphia. Thus, muscle dysmorphia characteristics were linked to the presence of depression and anxiety symptoms.
Tok (2011) conducted study to examine differences between risky sport participants and nonparticipants using the Big Five personality traits Inventory by McCrae & Costa, 1997. The results showed that risky sport participants are more extrovert and open to get different experiences and possess less stability and less planned and organized.

Fayombo (2010) investigated the relationships between the big five personality traits and psychological resilience in a cross-sectional research design among 397 Caribbean secondary school adolescents. The results of Product Moment Correlation and Stepwise Multiple Regressions showed significant positive relationships between the extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness personality traits and psychological resilience. However, a negative relationship was established between neuroticism personality trait and psychological resilience. Similarly, Ahadi and Narimani (2010) concluded that educational performance is positively correlated to extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness, personality traits however it is negatively correlated to neuroticism factor.

Chen, Wu and Chen (2010) conducted study to understand the relationship between personality traits, work motivation and innovative behavior. The sample of the study was 215 marine tourism employees. The results concluded that intrinsic work motivation id positively correlated to innovative behavior. Similarly, the compensation in extrinsic work motivation has a positive effect on employee’s innovative behavior.

Similarly work holism is also reflected in the type of personality traits one possess. For example, Aziz and Tronzo (2011) concluded that Conscientiousness and agreeableness were positively correlated to work involvement dimension of work holism, conscientiousness and openness to experience were positively correlated to work drive dimension of work holism. Agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were positively related to work enjoyment dimension of work holism. Lastly, the neuroticism dimension was negatively correlated to work enjoyment dimension of work holism.

Augusto Landa, Martos and Lopez-Zafra (2010) also reported that in undergraduates low neuroticism score and high extraversion scores are correlated to all
the dimensions of psychological well-being. Furthermore, high scores in clarity and emotional repair were found to be two consistent predictors for all the scales of psychological well-being, after controlling for personality factors.

Morgan and de Bruin (2010) in his study on South African university students concluded that personality traits accounts for much variance in burn out for students. Also, Neuroticism, Extroversion and Conscientiousness are found correlated to all emotional exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy dimensions of burn out.

Henson and Chambers (2003) conducted study on emergency certification teachers for their personality types as predictors of classroom management and self-efficacy beliefs. Results indicated limited relationship between personality and management and efficacy beliefs.

Chambers et al. (2003) conducted study on 200 Emergency Permit teachers to examine the impact of certain personality types and secondary education teachers’ inclination to use technology. One-way ANOVA test was used to find significant differences. Results indicated that intuitive/thinking types of personalities were more likely to use technology in teaching, however, sensory/feeling types of personalities were the least likely to use technology in teaching.

Zhang (2007) conducted study on 157 teachers from two senior-high schools in the People’s Republic of China to investigate the predictive power of personality traits for teachers’ teaching styles. The tools used for study were NEO Five-Factor Inventory by Costa and McCrae (1992) and Thinking Styles in Teaching Inventory by Grigorenko and Sternberg, 1993. The findings indicated that teachers’ personality traits are contribute significantly to teachers’ teaching styles over and above their educational level, gender, and perceptions of the quality of the students they were teaching.

Reed-Victor (2004) conducted study on 176 children with special needs, ages 3-9 years. They concluded that overall, temperament dimensions of Negative Emotionality, Task Persistence, Inhibition, and Activity explained 58% of the variance in children’s school adjustment ratings. The broader personality dimensions of Extraversion, Manageability, and Openness/Conscientiousness accounted for 71% of school adjustment ratings.
Kokkinos (2007) conducted study on burnout, personality characteristics and job stressors and investigated the association between variables and also how the personality characteristics and job stressors contribute to burnout dimensions i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Representative samples of 447 primary school teachers were part of the study. The results indicated that personality and work-related stressors were associated with burnout dimensions. Neuroticism was found to predict all the 3 facets of burnout.

Ngidi and Sibaya (2002) conducted study to investigate the relationship between black teachers’ personalities and their stress levels on work-related factors. The tools used for the collection of data were Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and Occupational Stress Inventory for 444 black teachers. The results indicated personality of teachers is predicted by time pressures, pupil misbehaviour and administrative problems. The extraversion personality trait is negatively correlated to educational changes. Further positive relationship existed of neuroticism with time pressures, administrative problems and pupil misbehaviour.

Perkmen and Cevik (2010) undertook study on 83 pre-service music teachers to examine the relationship between pre-service music teachers’ personalities and their motivation for computer-assisted music instruction (CAI) in Turkey. The correlation analysis revealed that Extraversion, Openness and Conscientiousness personality traits of music teachers were positively related to their participants’ motivation for CAI.

There is also study to find the influence of personality of kindergarten teacher. Cugmas (2011) examined the associations between child’s attachment to his/her kindergarten teacher; child’s contacts with his/her peers; cognitive and social play behavior; and teacher during free play session in kindergarten; and child’s personality characteristics. The results coming from 101 (57.4% male) participants exposed significant correlations for child attachment, to teacher, his contact with peers, the contacts with their peers and teachers and their personality characteristics.

De Haan, Prinzie and Dekovic (2010) conducted study to investigate whether child personality characteristics, parenting, and interactions between aggression and delinquency predict the development of aggression/delinquency among children during the age 6 to 15 years. A cohort-sequential design was employed. Data was collected
from 586 children aged 6-9 years at first and then at the second and third assessment using the Child Behavior Checklist. Results showed that Aggression and delinquency showed differential, though interrelated development. Less extraversion, benevolent and conscientious children, and more imaginative children were more susceptible to overreactivity.

Landa et al. (2010) concluded that positive relationships were found between emotional attention and neuroticism, and negative relationships with openness and autonomy. Emotional clarity was related negatively to neuroticism and positively to extraversion. Finally, emotional repair was correlated negatively to neuroticism and positively to extraversion.

Kappagoda (2013) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and five factor model of personality among 470 English teachers 58 from North Central province, 250 Western province and 162 Southern province in Sri Lanka. The results of the study indicated that the teachers’ emotional intelligence is significantly and positively correlated with extraversion, agreeableness and openness to experience personality types. However, the emotional intelligence is not found significantly correlated with conscientiousness and neuroticism.

Othman (2009) made an attempt to study the relationship between personality and teaching effectiveness on a sample of 391 respondents of permanent teachers working in secondary schools in Northern Region of Malaysia, Perlis, Kedah, Pulau Pinang and Perak. The results highlighted the personality factors responsible for teaching effectiveness. It has been found that teaching effectiveness is positively correlated to extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness. However, neuroticism and openness were found to have no relationship with teaching effectiveness.

Barrick and Mount (1991) investigated the relationship between Extraversion, neuroticism, Agreeableness, Openness to Experience and Conscientiousness, personality dimensions to job proficiency, training proficiency, and personnel data among five occupational groups i.e. professionals, police, managers, sales, and skilled/semi-skilled. Results indicated that one dimension of personality, Conscientiousness, showed consistent relations with all job performance criteria for all occupational groups. Extraversion was a valid predictor for two occupations involving
social interaction, managers and sales. Also, both Openness to Experience and Extraversion were valid predictors of the training proficiency criterion in all types of occupations.

Singh and Buddhisagar (2009) investigated the role of personality dimensions of a teacher with reference to morale and found that there is significant relationship between extroversion dimension of personality and teacher’s morale. However, it is negatively correlated to neuroticism dimension. The gender is not found to make any influence on the relationship between teacher’s morale and extroversion/neuroticism. Similarly, academic disciplines also were not found to have any influence on the relationship between teacher’s morale and extroversion or neuroticism.

Khodadady and Mirjalili (2012) concluded that Rapport, Qualification, Fairness and Facilitation correlated significantly with the four dimensions of teachers’ personality, i.e. Neuroticism, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience. The fifth factor i.e. Examination of effective EFL teaching correlated negatively with Extraversion.

Kaur et al. (2013) and Fontana et al. (1993) showed a positive correlation of stress with neuroticism and psychoticism and also a negative correlation between stress and extroversion traits.

Bharti (2013) concluded that student-teachers with high emotional intelligence tend to be quick to grasp ideas, are fast learners and intelligent; emotionally mature, stable, unruffled, possessing ego strength, realistic about life, better able to maintain solid group morale; are talkative, frank, cheerful, active, effervescent, expressive, and carefree; tend to be exacting in character, dominated by sense of duty, responsible, preserving, and planful. They are usually conscientious and moralistic, and prefer hard-working people to witty companions; are bold, sociable, spontaneous, tender-minded, ready to try new things, and abundant in emotional response. They tend to be artistically fastidious, daydreamers, emotionally sensitive, and fanciful. Contrary to this, student-teachers possessing low emotional intelligence have a strong sense of obligation and high expectations of themselves. They tend to worry and feel anxious and guiltstricken over difficulties. Often they do not feel accepted in groups; are temperamentally independent, accustomed to making decisions and taking action on their own. They
discount public opinion, but are not necessarily dominant in their relations with others; are restless, impatient, and hard driving. They are often fatigued, but unable to remain inactive. Their frustration represents an excess of stimulated, but undischarged, drive.

Though much research has been done on OCEAN model of personality, but little research has been done in this part of the region keeping into consideration the model. The present research understands personality from this viewpoint. According to the BIG five model of personality based on trait approach, the five major traits are Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. Neuroticism contrasts adjustment or emotional stability with maladjustment. Extraversion is sociability and characterized as assertive, active and talkative. Openness to experience means active imagination, aesthetic sensitivity, and attentiveness to inner feelings. Agreeableness is a dimension of interpersonal tendencies. Lastly, Conscientiousness refers to a more active process of planning, organizing, and carrying out tasks.

The review on the different variables under consideration had justified their importance individually for variation studies and also relationship studies for different sets of population. There is quite likely evident from the review that enough research has not been conducted in this part of the world specifically the teachers who are vital for bringing change in the society.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The twenty first century has witnessed change at a very fast pace. The world has evolved to a unique identity which is reflected by the emergence of multiculturalism which in itself is result of many processes going on simultaneously i.e. industrialization, urbanization, globalization and disintegration in the family system. The advancement in science and technology needs an individual to develop skills and competence to cope with external demands. Since ages, education is viewed as an instrument of change and a tool to develop the cognitive qualities, tolerance and understanding of people. It power to change the destiny of nations is understood well. Thus all over the world its role for human resource development for fast growth is catching up. However, the education shall prepare the younger generation to understand and face the realities of
globalization. The success and the chances of a productive life of a student are directly dependent on how much the educators enhance the Emotional quotient. Researches demonstrate that the affective competencies of teachers have direct impact on Student’s learning. In this context, the schools and the teachers have more responsibilities to deliver and their task as change agents in this fast changing landscape of development and ideas becomes difficult. In the event of their failure, a generation may be lost in terms of character and so is the development. Thus, the role of the teacher in the society is complex in present times and keeps on changing.

In the absence of a strong, robust and deep body of research evidence, the debate on this topic is largely ideological. Developing an approach to policy based on research evidence may prove to be helpful in removing the statistics of data on educational achievement and improvement of teaching environment in our region. Considering the very importance of teacher effectiveness, personality traits and occupational stress, the researcher intends to undertake to study how emotional intelligence of individuals affect them. This study ought to be very much helpful to the educational policy-makers, planners, administrators and teachers in identifying some policy goals on the type of personalities that should enter teaching profession. They can enhance teacher effectiveness through increasing the emotional intelligence of the teachers and further to realize the educational objectives and national goals.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study is entitled as Teacher Effectiveness, Occupational Stress and Personality Traits in Relation to Emotional Intelligence among Secondary School Teachers. It explores the significant difference for occupational stress, teacher effectiveness and personality traits among high and low emotionally intelligent secondary school teachers of different age groups, teaching experience, qualifications working in various PSEB and CBSE affiliated government and private secondary schools in the state of Punjab. It also explored relationships among teacher effectiveness, occupational stress, personality traits and emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers.
1.7 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The study is delimited to the following areas:

1. It is delimited to secondary school teachers working in PSEB and CBSE affiliated government and private secondary schools.
2. It is delimited to secondary school teachers working in Jalandhar and Ludhiana districts of Punjab.

1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The present study has been designed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To study the relationship between teacher effectiveness and emotional intelligence of teachers working in secondary schools.
2. To study the relationship between teacher effectiveness and occupational stress of teachers working in secondary schools.
3. To study the relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational stress of teachers working in secondary schools.
4. To study the relationship between emotional intelligence and personality traits of teachers working in secondary schools.
5. To study the relationship between teacher effectiveness and personality traits of teachers working in secondary schools.
6. To study the relationship between occupational stress and personality traits of teachers working in secondary schools.
7. To study occupational stress in relation to school type, teaching experience and emotional intelligence of teachers working in secondary schools.
8. To study occupational stress in relation to age, emotional intelligence and qualification of teachers working in secondary schools.
9. To study personality traits in relation to school type, teaching experience and emotional intelligence of teachers working in secondary schools.
10. To study personality traits in relation to age, emotional intelligence and qualification of teachers working in secondary schools.
11. To study teacher effectiveness in relation to school type, teaching experience and emotional intelligence of teachers working in secondary schools.

12. To study teacher effectiveness in relation to age, emotional intelligence and qualification of teachers working in secondary schools.

1.9 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses have been framed keeping in view the above objectives:

1. There exists no significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Effectiveness scores of secondary school teachers.

2. There exists no significant relationship between Occupational Stress and Teacher Effectiveness scores of secondary school teachers.

3. There exists no significant relationship between Occupational Stress and Emotional Intelligence scores of secondary school teachers.

4. There exists no significant relationship between Personality traits and Emotional Intelligence scores of secondary school teachers.

5. There exists no significant relationship between Personality traits and Teacher Effectiveness scores of secondary school teachers.

6. There exists no significant relationship between personality traits and occupational stress scores of secondary school teachers.

7. There is no significant difference between occupational stress of teachers serving in government and private secondary schools.

8. There is no significant difference between occupational stress of secondary school teachers with high and low emotional intelligence.

9. There is no significant difference between occupational stress of more experienced and less experienced secondary school teachers.

10. There is no interaction effect of school type and emotional intelligence on the scores of occupational stress of secondary school teachers.
11. There is no interaction effect of school type and teaching experience on the scores of occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

12. There is no interaction effect of emotional intelligence and teaching experience on the scores of occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

13. There is no interaction effect of school type, emotional intelligence and teaching experience on the occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

14. There is no significant difference between occupational stress of teachers belonging to different age groups.

15. There is no significant difference between occupational stress of secondary school teachers with different qualifications.

16. There is no interaction effect of age and qualification on the occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

17. There is no interaction effect of age and emotional intelligence on the occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

18. There is no interaction effect of emotional intelligence and qualification on the occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

19. There is no interaction effect of age, emotional intelligence and qualification on the occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

20. There is no significant difference between personality traits of teachers serving in government and private secondary schools.

21. There is no significant difference between personality traits of secondary school teachers with high and low emotional intelligence.

22. There is no significant difference between personality traits of more experienced and less experienced school teachers.

23. There is no interaction effect of school type and emotional intelligence on the scores of personality traits of secondary school teachers.

24. There is no interaction effect of school type and teaching experience on the scores of Personality traits of secondary school teachers.
25. There is no interaction effect of emotional intelligence and teaching experience on the scores of Personality traits of secondary school teachers.

26. There is no interaction effect of school type, emotional intelligence and teaching experience on the scores of Personality traits of secondary school teachers.

27. There is no significant difference between personality traits of teachers belonging to different age groups.

28. There is no significant difference between Personality traits of secondary school teachers with different qualifications.

29. There is no interaction effect of age and qualification on the personality traits of secondary school teachers.

30. There is no interaction effect of age and emotional intelligence on the personality traits of secondary school teachers.

31. There is no interaction effect of emotional intelligence and qualification on the Personality traits of secondary school teachers.

32. There is no interaction effect of age, emotional intelligence and qualification on the Personality traits of secondary school teachers.

33. There is no significant difference between teacher effectiveness of teachers serving in government and private secondary schools.

34. There is no significant difference between teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers with high and low emotional intelligence.

35. There is no significant difference between teacher effectiveness of more experienced and less experienced secondary school teachers.

36. There is no interaction effect of school type and emotional intelligence on the scores of teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.

37. There is no interaction effect of school type and teaching experience on the scores of teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.

38. There is no interaction effect of emotional intelligence and teaching experience on the scores of Teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.
39. There is no interaction effect of school type, emotional intelligence and teaching experience on the scores of Teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.

40. There is no significant difference between teacher effectiveness of teachers belonging to different age groups.

41. There is no significant difference between teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers with different qualifications.

42. There is no interaction effect of age and qualification on the teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.

43. There is no interaction effect of age and emotional intelligence on the teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.

44. There is no interaction effect of emotional intelligence and qualification on the teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.

45. There is no interaction effect of age, emotional intelligence and qualification on the teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers.