CHAPTER-I
INTRODUCTION

Education is that light which expels darkness from life and focuses attention in all round development of the child. It is a tripolar process. It involves interaction between the pupil, the teacher and the social environment. These three components are equally responsible for the success and failure of the educational programme. Educationists generally agree that the goodness of an educational programme is determined to a large extent by the quality of learning process. Whenever the learner failed to attain the prespecified goals, something was wrong with the teacher, either with the plans he made or with the ways in which he carried them out. The success of the learner mainly depends on the ability of the teacher. Dr. Radhakrishnan (1949) has aptly observed in this context, “The teacher’s place in the society is of vital importance. He acts as the pivot for the transmission of intellectual traditions and technical skills from generation to generation and helps to keep the lamp of civilization burning.” It is the quality of teachers, which creates excellence in all walks of life. Thus the teachers are the real architects of a nation. Therefore, teacher’s performance is crucial factor in the field of education. It is rightly said, “If a doctor commits a mistake, it is buried, if an engineer commits a mistake, it is cemented, if a lawyer commits a mistake it is filed; but when a teacher commits a mistake, it is reflected by the nation”.

In fact, the teacher is the top most academic and professional person in the educational pyramid under whose charge, the destiny of our children is placed by the parents and society. The success of any educational system depends much on the requisite qualities of teacher. Laying the emphasis on teachers’ qualities the report of Kothari Commission (1964-66) mentioned that “Of all the factors which determine the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the teacher is undoubtedly the most important. It is on his personal qualities and character, his educational qualifications and professional competence that the success of all educational endeavours must ultimately depend.” The National Policy on Education (1986) placed immense trust in the teacher and his role in nation building. In the
NPE, 1986 and its Revised Version 1992, it has been repeatedly remarked that ‘No system of Education can rise above the level of its teachers.’ Teachers are the heart and soul of education. In the process of education teacher is a pivotal point, the heart of the matter. Education takes place through the interaction between the teacher and the taught. The teacher influences the personality of the child and instills in him a thoughtful awakening, a new life and belief. A good teacher with his proper behaviour and personality traits can motivate, inspire and make the students almost lost in the teaching. Teacher can only make the nation strong, they are future pillars of the nation. Home, school and society play a great role in indicating attitude and interest in teacher towards their pupils. It is true that the nation is built by its citizens, citizens are moulded by teachers. Teacher plays an inevitable role not as a mere transmitter of knowledge and culture but as a changing agent. They prepare the next generation and it is the level of their commitment, devotion and dedication that determines the future society. At this juncture of time when unprecedented changes of knowledge and action manifest in all the diversion of worldly life, the teacher is most important component of education system whose role is changing in the current times. The teacher is a key figure in the life of nation. Since ages, the teacher’s role is regarded as an important one not only in moulding the personality of the children but also in shaping the society. They develop societies, indicate the path of progress to the nation, and sustain the human aspects of existence. They nurture and cultivate humanistic, ethical and moral aspects among students. Children are the potential wealth of nation, they depends upon the information provided by the teacher for their all round development.

The role of teacher is assuming new dimensions due to technological progress and new vistas of knowledge resulting from scientific innovations. The teacher in today society is very important in social reconstruction and transmission of wisdom, knowledge and experiences of one generation to another. The role and responsibilities of a teacher are infinite and limitless. Since he is an instructor, organizer of educational activities, a therapist, a guarantor of happiness, an engineer of warm personal relationships in which none shall feel the draught of his
disapproval. But with new goals, demands and responsibilities, it is necessitated for reaching changes in the system of education.

1.1 OCCUPATIONAL SELF EFFICACY

“Self efficacy is the belief in one’s capabilities
To organize and execute the sources of action
Required to manage prospective situations.”

(Bandura, 1986)

Occupational self efficacy is the extent to which one judges oneself able to do the tasks inherent in a given career or vocational pursuit. Three decades have now passed since Bandura (1977) first introduced the construct of self efficacy. The concept of self efficacy developed within the studies of human social cognition theories. Bandura’s early research focused on the ‘extra ordinary symbolizing capacity of human beings’. It is theorized that people draw on these symbolic capabilities to understand their environments by purposeful actions, cognitively solve problems, develop reflective thoughts and effectively communicate with others. When people symbolize their experiences, it gives structure, meaning and continuity to their lives. Another distinctive quality of social cognitive theory, and an important point in this theory is the capacity for self directedness and forethought (that people plan a course of action and set challenges and goals that guide their future activities). It is said that after we adopt some personal standard, our subsequent actions, behaviour motivation are regulated by the positive and negative consequences of those standards. We all engage in things that provide some form of satisfaction and self worth, and tend to shy away from actions that devalue the self (Pajares, 2002).

Behaviour can be predicted by predicting perceived self efficacy (a person’s beliefs about the capabilities) over actual accomplishments, as self efficacy determines what people will do with their knowledge and skills. Behaviour can some times differ widely from actual capabilities because of the importance of perceived self efficacy. For instance, talented individuals may suffer from extreme self doubt, although they are quite capable of performing and exceeding the assigned task,
while on the other hand, some individuals are extremely confident about what they can accomplish despite their credentials and limited skills. There is much confusion centering around self efficacy and self concept (or self esteem) beliefs. But the two constructs represent entirely different self beliefs that refer to quite different things. Self efficacy is concerned with beliefs of personal capability, they are judgements of one’s abilities to perform given actions. In other words, self efficacy is a context specific assessment of competence to perform a specific task or a range of tasks in a given domain. The typical examples of self efficacy statements are: I am confident that I can write an essay without spelling errors. I am confident that I can solve that maths problem. On the other hand self concept is a cognitive appraisal, integrated across various dimensions that individuals attribute to themselves, typically accompanied by self-evaluative judgement of self worth. Self concept is measured at a more general level of specificity. The typical examples of self concept statements are: My friends come to me for help with their essays. Mathematics makes me feel inadequate.

There is no fixed relationship between one’s beliefs about what one can or cannot do and whether one likes or dislikes one self e.g. a student may feel highly effacious in his academic pursuits but without the corresponding positive feelings of self-worth, in part because he may take no pride in accomplishments in this area. Similarly, skilled bomber pilots during war time possess strong efficacy beliefs about their professional capabilities but may take no pride in performing them well. Marsh, Walker and Debus (1991) saw the distinction between the two constructs as a difference in the source of an individual’s judgement. Self concept judgements, they argued, are based on social and self comparisons, which they described as “frame of reference effects”. Individuals use external and internal comparisons to determine their self worth. By comparing one’s own performance with those of others (“I am a better math student than most of my friends”) and also one’s own performance in related areas (“I am better at Maths than at English”) an individual develops a judgement of self worth – a self concept. Self efficacy judgments, on the other hand, focus on the specific ability to accomplish the criterial task; hence, frame of reference effects do not play a prominent role.
Self Efficacy Beliefs

“People’s levels of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively the case.” -- Bandura

According to Bandura’s social cognitive theory, individuals possess a self system that enables them to exercise a measure of control over their thoughts, feelings, motivation and actions. As such, this self system serves a self-regulatory function by providing individuals with the capability to influence their own cognitive processes and actions and thus alter their environments. Bandura argued that self reflection is the most unique characteristic of human beings. Through self reflection, individuals evaluate their own experiences and thought processes. Self reflective judgments include perceptions of self efficacy beliefs. Potent, affective, episodic and evaluative nature of beliefs makes them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted. Our knowledge, skills and outcomes may have created our self efficacy beliefs but the filtering effect ultimately screens, redefines, distorts or reshapes subsequent efforts and new information. Individuals create and develop self perceptions of capability that become instrumental to the goals they pursue and to the control they are able to exercise over the environment. Higher self efficacy means higher persistence. People with high self efficacy attribute failure to effort and with low self efficacy attribute to ability. Collins (1982) found sense of efficacy shapes casual thinking. Initial success increases and failure lowers self efficacy beliefs but later filter begins to work.

People with a strong sense of competence approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided, have greater intrinsic interests and deep engrossment in activities, set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them, heighten and sustain their effort in the face of failure, quickly recover their self efficacy in the face of failure and setback and attribute failure to insufficient efforts or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. Self efficacy beliefs are correlated with other self beliefs and with academic performances (Pajares, 1996). These perceptions help the people to determine what to do with the skills they have. Self efficacy beliefs also determine how well knowledge and skills are acquired in the first place. Self efficacy affects
performance and self regulated learning variables such as perceived control, outcome expectation, perceived value of outcome, attribution goals and self concept may provide a type of cue used by individuals to assess their self efficacy beliefs.

Beliefs differ in level, generality and strength. Self efficacy is a powerful motivation construct that can predict self belief and performance (Pajares, 1996). As per Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985), an expectation that one can accomplish a desired result is a necessary condition for formation of non defective intentions. Locke (1984) found that higher self efficacy affected the specifically of self set goals which may indicate greater commitment and more reality based intention formation. Bandura (1986) stated that perceived self inefficacies that lead people to shun enriching environments and activities retard development of potentialities and shield negative percepts from corrective actions. Self perceptions of competence are considered integral components of an individual’s self concept (Schavelson and Bolus, 1982) and self efficacy beliefs are often viewed as requisite judgments necessary for self concept.

Self efficacy beliefs generalize across the self system and can perform the novel tasks. In fact, most experimental tests of self efficacy’s causality employ novel tasks. Researchers have induced high or low self efficacy in college students by providing positive or negative feedback and found out that students whose self efficacy had been raised used more efficient problem solving strategies on a novel tasks than the students whose self efficacy had been lowered. Bandura (1986) observed that there are a number of conditions under which self efficacy beliefs do not perform their influential, predictive or mediational role in human functioning. Bandura suggested that when social constraints and inadequate resources impede academic performances, self efficacy may exceed actual performance because it is not so much a matter that students do not know what to do but rather that they are unable to do what they know. Results of various studies have demonstrated the mediational role of self efficacy beliefs in the selection of career choice (Lent and Hackett 1987. In general, findings indicate that self efficacy beliefs influence the choice of specialization and career decisions of college students.
Zimmerman et al (1992) have been instrumental in tracing the relationships among self efficacy perceptions, self efficacy for self regulation, academic self regulatory processes, adolescent’s academic achievement. Pajares (1995) examined the interplay between self efficacy judgments and mathematical problem solving of middle school students. Math self efficacy made an independent contribution to the problem solving performance of regular education students (=0.387) and of gifted students (= 0.455) in a path model that controlled for the effects on math anxiety, cognitive ability, mathematics grades, and self efficacy for self regulatory learning. The mediational role of self efficacy in human behaviour can be made by exploring the four sources from which these beliefs are developed.

**Mastery Experience (Performance Accomplishments)**

The most influential source of these beliefs is the interpreted result of one’s purposive performance. Individuals gauge the effects of their actions and their interpretations of these effects help to create their efficacy beliefs. Successful outcomes raise self efficacy; those interpreted as failures lower it. Once established,
enhanced self efficacy tends to generalise to other situations and activities that are similar to those in which self efficacy was enhanced.

**Vicarious Experience**

This indicates the experience of the effects produced by the actions of others. This source of information is weaker than the interpreted results of mastery experiences, but when people are uncertain about their own abilities or have limited prior experience. They become more sensitive to it. For example, a significant model in one’s life can help to instill self beliefs that will influence the course and direction that life will take. A model’s failure has a more negative effect on the self efficacy of observers when observers judge themselves as having comparable ability to the model. If, on the other hand, observers judge their capability as superior to the model’s capability, failure of the model does not have a negative effect (Brown & Inouye, 1978). Thus the more closely the observer identifies with the model, the stronger will be the impact on efficacy.

**Verbal Persuasions**

Individuals also create and develop self efficacy beliefs as a result of the verbal persuasions they receive from others. These persuasions involve exposure to the verbal judgments that others provide and is a weaker source of efficacy information than mastery or vicarious experiences, but persuaders can play an important part in the development of an individual’s self beliefs. Persuaders must cultivate people’s beliefs in their capabilities while at the same time ensuring that the envisioned success is attainable. And, just as positive persuasions may work to encourage and empower, negative persuasions can work to defeat and weaken self beliefs. In fact, it is usually easier to weaken self efficacy beliefs through negative appraisals than to strengthen such beliefs through positive encouragement.

**Physiological States**

Physiological states such as anxiety, stress, arousal, fatigue, and mood states also provide information about efficacy beliefs. Because individuals have the capability to alter their own thinking, self efficacy beliefs, in turn, also powerfully influence the physiological states themselves.
Bandura (1997) has observed that people live with psychic environments that are primarily of their own making. It is often said that people can read themselves, and so this reading comes to be a realization of the thoughts and emotional states that individuals have themselves created. Often, they can gauge their confidence by the emotional state they experience as they contemplate an action. Moreover, when people experience aversive thoughts and fears about their capabilities, those negative reactions can themselves further lower perceptions of capability and trigger the stress and agitation that help ensure the inadequate performance they fear. This is not to say that the typical anxiety experienced before an important endeavour is a guide to self efficacy. Strong emotional reactions to a task, however, provide cues about the anticipated success or failure of the outcome.
Beliefs and realities are not a perfect match, yet individuals are usually guided by their beliefs. Remembering all of this, self efficacy is said to predict a person’s accomplishment’s than their previous attainments, credentials or knowledge. Here, it is important to remember that large amounts of self efficacy (high confidence) can counteract limited skills and knowledge. Self efficacy beliefs affect human beings in diverse ways:

1. **Choice Behaviour**

People tend to avoid engaging in a task where their efficacy is low and generally undertake those tasks where their efficacy is high. Hence, accurate self efficacy appraisals are important. The consequences are aversive for high efficacy /low skill (irreparable harm) and restrictive (no growth) for low efficacy/high skill.

2. **Persistence & Effort Expenditure**

The stronger is the perceived self efficacy, the more vigorous and persistent are people in their efforts. Self doubt hinders the use of previously established skills. In other words, high self efficacy can be a double-edged sword, because individuals with high self efficacy may feel little need to invest much preparatory effort. It is when one is applying skills that high efficacy intensifies and sustains the effort needed to realize a difficult performance, which is hard to attain if one is doubt-ridden.

3. **Thought Patterns and Emotional Reactions**

Individuals with low self efficacy tend to believe that things are tougher than they really are. This creates stress and narrow vision of how best to go about the problem. On the contrast, persons who have a strong sense of efficacy deploy their attention and effort to the demands of the situation and are spurred by obstacles to greater effort. Perceived self efficacy also shapes causal thinking.

4. **Humans as Producers Rather Than Simply Foreteller of Behaviour**

Research shows that people who regard themselves as highly effacious act, think and feel differently from those who perceive themselves as ineffacious. They produce their own future, rather than simply foretell it.
Occupational self efficacy is specific in affecting the belief systems of different areas of occupation to a different extent. As we know, teacher holds the most crucial position in the education system. A teacher is responsible for the destiny of our children. He should possess certain qualities, capacities, competencies, capabilities in order to modify and shape the behaviour of the students in a certain specific direction. He should also have beliefs in his capabilities. This will enhance his efficacy in the classroom situations. In fact, teacher efficacy is the teacher’s belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context. This construct has been defined by various researchers as: “The extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance (Berman et al, 1977).” According to Guskey and Passaro (1994) “Teacher efficacy is the teacher’s belief or conviction that they can influence how well students learn even those who may be difficult or unmotivated.” Teacher efficacy can be described as beliefs about whether teachers can make a difference with students.” (Lin, Gorrell & Taylor, 2002). In fact, teacher efficacy was first conceived by the Rand researchers (of Rand Corporation) as the extent to which teachers believed that they could control the reinforcement of their actions, that is whether control of reinforcement lay within themselves or in the environment. Student motivation and performance were assumed to be significant reinforces for teaching behaviours. Thus, teachers with a high level of efficacy believed that they could control, or at least strongly influence, student achievement and motivation. The studies of Rand researchers (Armor et al., 1976) to study teacher efficacy actually corresponded to Baundura’s self efficacy and outcome expectancy dimensions of social cognitive theory. These dimensions have been subsequently labelled personal teaching efficacy (PTE) and general teaching efficacy (GTE) respectively.

Researches have reported that teachers’ beliefs of personal efficacy affect their instructional activities and their orientation toward the educational process Woolfolk, Rosoff and Hoy (1990). Teachers with a low sense of efficacy tend to hold a custodial orientation that takes a pessimistic view of students’ motivation
emphasizes rigid control of classroom behaviour and relies on extrinsic inducements and negative sanctions to get students to study. Teachers with high sense of efficacy create mastery experiences for their students whereas teachers with low instructional self efficacy undermine students cognitive development as well as students’ judgment of their own capabilities (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). Teacher self efficacy also predicts student achievement and students’ achievement beliefs across various areas and levels. Ashton and Webb (1986) showed that students learn much more from teachers who feel efficacious to manage educational demands than from those beset with self doubts.

Raudenbush et al. (1992) studied contextual effects on the self perceived efficacy of high school teachers. The study explored that teachers tend to feel most efficacious when teaching high track students, partially in the areas of mathematics and science. Bandura (1993) revealed that teachers’ beliefs in their personal efficacy to motivate and promote learning affected the types of learning environments they created and the level of academic progress their students achieved. Sandu and Anand (2003) concluded that there was no significant difference in the experience of role diversity in the high-low teacher self efficacy groups. Garcia (2004) investigated the predictive value of self efficacy beliefs for determining specific family involvement practices exhibited by teachers and revealed that teacher efficacy was significantly correlated to and was a predictor of five different types of family involvement practices.

Anderson and Maninger (2007) highlighted the importance of relationships between preservice teachers' self efficacy beliefs about technology integration and their potential use of technology in their future classrooms. Bakar et al. (2008) showed that teaching efficacy and perception toward teachers education program were significantly correlated with each other. Chan (2008) concluded that the experienced teachers reported the highest level of global and domain-specific teacher self efficacy. Sridhar and Razavi (2008) reported that teachers with more experience, teachers teaching science and female teachers had higher personal efficacy and also higher general teaching efficacy than their counterparts in respective groups. Rathi and Rastogi (2008) revealed that emotional intelligence had
a positive relationship with occupational self efficacy and was found to be one of its significant predictors.

Nilgun (2009) found that teacher efficacy of science teachers were not changing according to gender, age, seniority, weekly lesson load, receiving in-service training and job satisfaction. Rao and Haseena (2009) reported that locality of residence had significant impact on the self efficacy of primary school teachers and gender had no significant impact on self efficacy of the primary school teachers. Hameed and Manjusha (2010) found a significant difference in mean teacher efficacy scores between male and female teachers, but in case of mean teacher efficacy scores based on locale and type of management, no significant difference was found.

Robert and Ming (2010) found that female teachers had greater workload stress, greater classroom stress from student behaviours, and lower classroom management self efficacy. Corkett et al. (2011) concluded that teachers' perceptions of the students' self efficacy was significantly correlated with students' abilities and the teachers' self efficacy was significantly correlated with their perception of the students' self efficacy. Tuchman and Isaacs (2011) found that formal pre-service training has been shown to be effective in building teacher self efficacy beliefs.

1.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is a widely accepted psychological aspect of functioning in any profession. The credit of bringing this term in to currency goes to Hoppock (1935). The term ‘job satisfaction’ refers to a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job (Locke, 1976); an affective reaction to one’s job and an attitude towards one’s job (Weiss, 2002).

One of the most pivotal variables in any organization is the job satisfaction. A man is congenital worker and never works in a vacuum. A large number of factors determine his satisfaction and these influence to a great extent the quality and quantity of the output. An individual’s functioning in an organization is affected by the totality of his/her situation. Job satisfaction is, therefore, the ‘Zest’ displayed by
an employee on his adjustment in personal, social and work life. It is the result of employees’ perception of what organizations provide. Job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job as well as by the dispositional characteristics of the individual (Sharma and Ghosh, 2006)

Various dimensions have been proposed to explain the components of job satisfaction. Some of the more relevant and important ones are discussed in this section. There are mainly three dimensions: First, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. It cannot be seen, only inferred. Second, it is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. For example, if organisational members feel that they are working harder than others in the department but are receiving fewer rewards, they will probably have a negative attitude toward the work, the boss, and co-workers. They will be dissatisfied. On the other hand, if they feel they are being treated well and being paid well, they are likely to have a positive attitude towards the job. They will be satisfied. Third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes.

Purohit (2007) mentioned that there are six job dimensions that represent the most important characteristics of a job about which people have effective responses. They are:

**The Work** - Itself is a major source of satisfaction. This means the extent to which the job provides the individual with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning and the chance to accept responsibility. Some of the most important ingredients of job satisfaction include interesting and challenging work and a job that provides status.

**Compensation** - Wages and salaries are significant, but a complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. Money not only helps people to attain their basic needs, but also is instrumental in providing upper level need satisfaction.

**Career growth** - Promotional opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because promotions take different forms and include a variety of rewards. For example, individuals who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction but not as much as those who are promoted based on their performance.
Supervision - Supervision is another moderately important source of job satisfaction. There are two dimensions of supervisory style that affects job satisfaction. One is employee – centeredness, which is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes personal interest in the welfare of employees. The other dimension is participation, as “illustrated by managers who allow their people to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs.” This approach, generally leads to higher job satisfaction. It is proved that a participative environment created by the supervisor has a more substantial effect on worker’s satisfaction than participation in a specific decision.
**Co-Workers** - Friendly, cooperative co-workers are a modest source of job satisfaction. The work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice, and assistance to the individual. A ‘good’ work group makes the job more enjoyable.

**Work Environment** - Work environment and working conditions are factors that have a modest effect on job satisfaction. If working conditions are good and clean, attractive surroundings, employees find it easier to carry out their job.

Job satisfaction has been the centre of attraction for researches over three decades. The reasons for this are manifold:

**Job satisfaction affects the mental health of the people:** Dissatisfaction with one’s job may have volatile spill over effects on many other things such as a family life, leisure activities etc. Many unresolved personality problems and maladjustments arise out of a person’s inability to find satisfaction in his work. Both scientific study and casual observation provide ample evidence that job satisfaction is important for the psychological adjustment and happy living of an individual. One common research finding is that job satisfaction is correlated with Life satisfaction. (Rain, Lane & Steiner, 1991) This correlation is reciprocal, meaning people who are satisfied with life tend to be satisfied with their job and people who are satisfied with their job tend to be satisfied with life. In fact, job satisfaction and life satisfaction are inextricably bound.

**Job satisfaction has positive correlation with physical health of individuals:** Recent studies have shown that people who like work, are likely to live longer. Here the logic behind such result is that people with greater satisfaction tend to have greater incomes and more education and thus coincidently enjoy greater benefits, which promote longevity. On the other hand, it was found that chronic dissatisfaction with work represents stress, which, in turn, eventually takes its toll on the organization. Emotional stress, as physicians contend has been implicated as a contributory factor in the genesis of hypertension, coronary artery disease, digestive ailments and even some kinds of a cancer. Therefore, job satisfaction is essential to maintain physical health also.

**Job satisfaction spreads goodwill about the organization:** People who feel positively about their work life are more apt to voice ‘favourable sentiments’ about
the organization to the community at large. When the goodwill of the organization / Institution goes up, new, qualified and dynamic entrants show their interest in joining the organization. The organization thus will be in a position to enjoy the talents of people as job satisfaction fosters a pervasive residue of public goodwill towards the organization.

**Individual can ‘live with’ the organization:** A happy and satisfied individual can find it easy to live with inside the organization as well as outside it. On the contrary, a chronically upset individual makes organization’s life vexatious for others with whom he interacts.

**Job Satisfaction reduces absenteeism:** The calculable costs employee turnover and absenteeism are sufficient to accept the importance of job satisfaction. Higher job satisfaction reduces labour turn over and absenteeism and the managers are compelled to give priority and adequate weightage to job satisfaction. A serious consequence of job satisfaction can be the employee turnover.

**Improved Job Satisfaction in the Workplace reduces Social Problems:** The creative aspects of achieving satisfaction will reduce if not overcome boredom and monotony in work, physical strain and mental stress. This will have a lower absenteeism rate and lower staff turn-over, which translated into lower losses, less late-coming, fewer grievances and more effective cost control. Satisfied team member are generally more committed to the work place success than those non job satisfactors. A satisfied team member is more likely to perform well cheerfully than other employees.

**Job satisfaction often works as a strong motivator in work endeavours:** Research has shown that job satisfaction can lead to high job performance especially for professionals and high-level employees, commonly known as talent. Research has also shown that there exists a relationship between individual performance measured at a certain time and later job satisfaction. However, this relation is conditional to performance being finally rewarded in appropriate form as perceived by the recipient.
**Job satisfaction improves job performance**: The study of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has a controversial history. The Hawthorne studies, conducted in the 1930s, are often credited with making researchers aware of the effects of employee attitudes on performance. Shortly after the Hawthorne studies, researchers began taking a critical look at the notion that a "happy worker is a productive worker." Most of the earlier reviews of the literature suggested a weak and somewhat inconsistent relationship between job satisfaction and performance.

**Job satisfaction reduces withdrawal behaviours**: Numerous studies have shown that dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs or be absent than satisfied employees. Job satisfaction shows correlations with turnover and absenteeism and also appears to be related to other withdrawal behaviours, including lateness, unionization, grievances, drug abuse, and decision to retire. Hulin et al. (1985) have argued that these individual withdrawal behaviours are all manifestations of "job adaptation" and have proposed that these individual behaviours be grouped together. Because the occurrence of most single withdrawal behaviours is quite low, looking at a variety of these behaviours improves the ability for showing the relationship between job attitudes and withdrawal behaviours (Hulin, 1991).

**Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction**

Researchers, policymakers, and education leaders agree that teacher satisfaction is a vital factor that affects student achievement. Teachers' job satisfaction is one of the key factors in institutional dynamics and is generally considered to be primary dependent variable in terms of which effectiveness of an organisation's human resource is evaluated. Thus, the understanding of factors affecting teachers' satisfaction at the workplace is of paramount importance for a successful educational system. The factors that are associated with teachers' job satisfaction can be clubbed into intrinsic, extrinsic and demographic factors.

**Intrinsic Factors** - Intrinsic satisfaction to the teachers can come from classroom activities. Daily interactions with students inform teachers' feelings about whether or not students have learned something as a result of their teaching. Student
characteristics and perceptions of teacher control over the classroom environment also are intrinsic factors affecting teacher satisfaction (Lee, Dedrick and Smith, 1991). Several studies have found that these factors are related to both attrition and satisfaction in teaching. Intrinsic factors play a significant role in motivating individuals to enter the teaching profession because they enjoy teaching and want to work with young people. Very few teachers enter the profession because of external rewards such as salary, benefits, or prestige (Choy et al., 1993).

**Extrinsic Factors** – A variety of extrinsic factors have been associated with teacher satisfaction, including salary, perceived support from administrators, school safety, and availability of school resources, among others. These and other characteristics of a teacher's work environment have been targeted by several commissions, researchers, and educators who claim that "poor working conditions have demoralised the teaching profession". According to Dwivedi (1977) friends, co-workers exercise their influence on an individual and affect his Job Satisfaction. Ramakrishanaiah (1998) found that 93 percent of college teachers who were highly satisfied with their job expressed cordial relations with their colleagues. Proper physical environment makes the job comfortable. Poor working conditions like poor building design and maintenance create situations for teachers that affect not only academic outcome but health too. Poor lighting, dirty and in-operational windows and dirty rest rooms are the source of teacher dissatisfaction. Researchers and educators believe that when teachers perceive a lack of support for their ‘York’, they are not motivated to do their best in the classroom, and when teachers are not satisfied with their working conditions, they are more likely to change schools or to leave the profession altogether (Choy et al, 1993). Advocates of professional autonomy claim that conferring professional autonomy will enhance the attractiveness of the (teaching) profession as a career choice, and will improve the quality of classroom teaching and practice (Boe and Gilford, 1992).

**Demographic Factors** – Similar to professionals in other occupations, job satisfaction among teachers has been related to demographic variables including age, education, marital status and gender etc.
Job Satisfaction

Intrinsic Factors
- Autonomy
- Recognition
- Co-worker Relation
- Promotional Opportunity
- Task Significance
- Pay
- Working Conditions
- Supervision
- Stress
- Job Security

Extrinsic Factors
- Age
- Gender
- Marital Status
- Education

Demographic Factors

Fig. 1.3 Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction
Perie and Baker (1997) in a study conducted on job satisfaction among more than 36,000 elementary and secondary public school teachers reported that female teachers reported higher levels of job satisfaction than male teachers and that teachers' job satisfaction showed weak correlations with salary and benefits. It has been consistently established that job satisfaction varies with age for men as well as women in various occupations.

Majority of studies afterwards observed a 'U' shaped relationship (Clark, Oswald & Warr 1996), while still others reflected a linear relationship (Haque 2004). Generally married adults are better adjusted than unmarried counterparts. As adjustment is positively related to job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1957) one may expect married teachers feeling more satisfied with their jobs. Park (1992) has asserted that women traditionally perceive themselves as teachers and nurturers of pupils and that, owing to social expectations as well as informal gender stereotypes, they are more likely to desire job satisfaction in their teaching career. This view has repeatedly been confirmed by studies in which women teachers have been observed to experience greater job satisfaction than their male counterparts.

None of the above discussed factors solely determines the job satisfaction among the teachers. They all interplay alongside other personality, socio-economic variable within a particular culture and society. Generally, while intrinsic forces may motivate people to become teachers, extrinsic conditions can influence their job satisfaction and their desire to remain in teaching throughout their career. It has been experienced that challenging jobs create an environment of satisfaction. The nature of work done is very important element of job satisfaction. Infact, it can probably be said that it is the major determiner of job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) found positive events dominated by reference to intrinsic aspect of job itself while negative events dominated to extrinsic aspect of job satisfaction. One of the frequently cited reasons given by former teachers for leaving the job was dissatisfaction with their principals. Ahuja (1976) reported that dissatisfaction increases when one has to work under an incapable, inefficient and indifferent head or boss. Career planning and development have also been recognised for enhancing job satisfaction of an individual (Sharma and Jyoti, 2006) and lack of career development is reported to be
directly and negatively related to job satisfaction (Yousef, 2002).

Besides there are other variables like job experience which affect job satisfaction. Job experience is related to job satisfaction in a rather interesting fashion as one might expect new employees to be relatively more satisfied with their jobs but this expectation terminates after a period of time unless the worker feels that he is making steady progress towards the satisfaction of his occupational and social needs. Now a days, the concept of job satisfaction is not only limited to corporate sector, but covers all the sectors, where there is involvement of the employees and workers. The keystone in the educational edifice is doubtless the teacher. On him depends much more than any other, the progress and prosperity of children. Nobody can effectively take his place or influence children in the manner and to the degree; it is possible, for him alone to do. 'Schools are the nurseries of the Nation' and 'Teachers are the architects of the future' are no mere figurative expressions but truthful statements, as significant as they are suggestive. Teachers are arguably the most important group of professionals for our nation's future. Therefore, it is disturbing to find that many of today's teachers are dissatisfied with their jobs.

A teacher, who is happy with his job, plays a pivotal role in the upliftment of society. Well adjusted and satisfied teacher can contribute a lot to the well being of his/her pupils. A dissatisfied teacher can become irritable and may create tensions which can have negative influence on the students' learning process and it consequently affects their academic growth. Job satisfaction implies the overall adjustment to work situation. Teachers having favourable attitude towards their profession are generally successful, properly adjusted and well satisfied with their job. Stapleton, Croft and Frankiewiz (1979) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and effective teacher behaviour. These studies have provided valuable information about job satisfaction in educational settings. Keeping the role of job satisfaction into consideration, various commissions and committees have also given importance to the Job satisfaction' of the teaching community at various levels in India.
The Kothari Commission (1964-66) has aptly opined in its report that nothing is more important than providing teachers’ best professional preparation and creating satisfactory conditions of work in which they can be 'effective'. 'The future of our nation is being built in today's classrooms' (Education Commission, 1964-66). Teachers are responsible for organising these classrooms. That is why teacher are called the builders of the nation; and teaching has been considered as the noblest profession. The National Policy on Education (1986) has stressed the need of Pre and In-service training programmes to the teachers. Facilities like pay scales, promotion career, and medical care, encouraging participating in the symposia, workshops, conferences and other academic activities to enhance their teaching career. Further, necessary measures have been suggested to restrict the teacher-pupil ratio. Further, teachers are accorded permission to form teacher organisations to strengthen their professional skills and rights. Similarly, they are also accorded to participate in the social activities in the interest of public with certain limitations. The Governments and public organisations have also confined to achieve the objective of teacher job satisfaction in the interest of national development and make necessary provisions to the rules from time to time according to the needs and situations. Teachers are most dissatisfied about work overload, poor pay, and low status.” (Paul Bennell, 2004).

Research in OECD countries has consistently found that 'working with children' is the main determinant of teacher job satisfaction. It is the rewarding nature of the job rather than pecuniary gain that is the primary motivation for becoming a teacher.

Kulsum (1985) reported that the teachers working in the corporation schools had the highest level of job satisfaction followed by teachers working in the govt., private aided and private unaided schools. Female teachers as compared to the male teachers had higher levels of job satisfaction. Dixit (1986) found that female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers, both at primary and secondary levels and among the secondary school teachers, those with greater length of service were more satisfied. Sekar and Ranganathan (1988) reported that the relationship between types of school and levels of job satisfaction was found to be significant and the association between job satisfaction and sociological factors like sex, age,
community, family size and experience was not found to be significant. Reddy (1989) reported that women teachers were more satisfied with their job than men teachers and suitably qualified teachers were more satisfied with their job than middle aged and aged teachers. Dhotia (1990) explored that teaching experience was not related to job satisfaction whereas attitude towards interpersonal relationship were related to job satisfaction. Saxena (1990) showed no significant difference between male and female, between science and arts lecturers on the job satisfaction of social, individual, vocational, moral and economic elements.

Aggarwal (1991) revealed that the post graduate teachers, single family teachers and more experienced government school teachers were more satisfied with their jobs. Rama (1992) analyzed that teachers of rural schools exhibited a significantly higher level of overall job satisfaction as compared to the teachers of non-residential schools. Thakur (1996) reported that the job satisfaction of secondary school principals did not differ when gender, age, educational qualifications and marital status areas were considered. Mishra (1999) found that teacher effectiveness has significant positive correlation with job satisfaction. Rama (2000) found a significant relationship between the level of life satisfaction of teachers and their job satisfaction.

Shailaja (2003) showed that job involvement influences job satisfaction of teacher and a significant relationship exists between job involvement and job satisfaction of teachers. Kumar (2004) concluded that teachers with less job satisfaction were more prone to perceived stress than those with average or high job satisfaction. Singh, (2007) reported that job satisfaction of teacher educators was positively but not significantly related to their attitude towards teaching. Ghanti and Jagadish (2008) showed that the organizational climate and job satisfaction are influenced by many factors such as group characteristics, leadership behaviour characteristics, different patterns of climate etc. Gopalkrishnan (2009) found that while self-financing college teachers were satisfied with principal, parents and students, physical facilities, self-esteem and co-teachers, they were dissatisfied with salary and fringe benefits, opportunity for achievement academic policies, management and job security.
Gupta and Bansal (2011) conducted a study of job satisfaction and contemporary values of secondary school teachers in relation to some demographic variables. The study revealed that female teachers were more satisfied with their job than male teachers. Similarly, more experienced teachers possessed higher degree of job satisfaction than less experienced teachers. Sridevi (2011) conducted a study of job satisfaction of teacher educators of University of Mysore. The study revealed that there here was no significant difference of teacher educators with respect to gender and length of service.

1.3 ATTITUDE OF TEACHERS TOWARDS TEACHING PROFESSION

The concept of attitude is perhaps the most widely discussed in social psychology. Attitude determines and guides man’s social behaviour. An attitude may be defined as the degree of positive and negative effect associated with some psychological object (Thurstone, 1936). It means any symbol, person, slogan, institution, ideal or ideas towards which people can differ with respect to positive or negative effect. An individual who has positive effect or feeling associated with some psychological object is said to have a favourable attitude and who has associated negative effect or feeling would be said to have an unfavourable attitude.

Since attitude has a determining tendency, it can not be observed directly, rather we have to infer it from responses and adjustments. The role of attitude in human life has been clarified and recognized by psychologists since the 19th century.
Today, it is agreed upon that attitude not only determines the conclusion we shall derive from the facts, but also influences the very facts we are willing to accept.

The Education Commission (1966) has also pointed out: “Methods of teaching and evaluation in training institution are extremely important and the attitude of the student teacher will be influenced more by the methods used with them, than by what they are formally taught about the methods they should use in schools.” Allport (1967), a major contributor in the study of attitude, referred to the subject as “a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.” According to Travers (1973) “An attitude is readiness to respond in such a way that behaviour is given a certain direction.” Attitude towards teaching is a broad concept, having several dimensions in its interpretation. One dimension views teaching as a profession. Another dimension refers to the actual teaching process in the classroom. A third dimension is linked to the client in the classroom- i.e., the pupils. This dimension may regard teaching as the interaction between teacher and pupils. A fourth dimension refers to the workload of teachers.

Teachers may possess different attitudes towards teaching. No doubt attitudes depend upon factors especially among teachers, the factors being the school, the colleagues, the children, the value systems, views of life. Attitudes are always tied up with insights and interpretations and opinions and actions. An attitudinal change can be produced in the learner by teaching which is related to learning. This is accordingly interweaven with positive or negative attitude of teacher towards the pupils, the profession, classroom activities and the administration. The modern concept emphasizes the expected behavioural outcomes. Since attitude is a psychological process, it combines beliefs, concepts, motives, values, opinions habits and traits, it has tremendous impact on pupil. Teachers with favourable attitude can successfully develop positive attitude among children since learning depends upon effective teaching and effectiveness on part of teacher can be accelerated through positive attitude towards the profession.
Attitude are formed with three components: (i) affective (emotional) – refers to the feelings and emotions one has towards an object, an act or an event is seemed pleasantly and that is why attitude becomes strong and dynamic. For example – a teacher may have pleasant attitude towards the student of his class and less love for the students of others.; (ii) Behavioural – consists of one’s action and tendencies towards any object. Every one involves oneself in some activities. Those activities that have harmony with mental tendencies have positive effect on mind of the individual. This positive effect develops the behaviour of the individual; (iii) Cognitive (thought) – consists of ideas, beliefs and understanding which the attitude holder has about the particular object. Therefore, it is said that the affective component encompasses the direction and intensity of an individuals’ evaluation or kind of emotional experience towards the object. The cognitive component refers to person’s system of beliefs about the object. The behavioural component is a predisposition to act in a certain manner towards the object. Generally when it is said that we have a certain attitude towards something or some one, is like a shorthand way of saying that we have feelings or thoughts of like or dislike (affect), trust or distrust (cognition), attraction or repulsion (behaviour) towards something or some one.

Attitude possesses various dimensions. Some of which are important when we are attempting to evaluate them. These are summarized below:

**Direction** - An individual is usually for or against some object or value. This is the aspect of attitudes that is usually measured.

**Intensity** - As we begin to study attitudes. We soon become aware of the differences in the strength of feeling people have about them. People who are strongly in the favour of or strongly opposed to a certain place or an object naturally have more intense attitudes than those closer to the center of this continuum.

**Timeliness** - Different individuals may present the same very strong intense attitudes against organized religion. The first of these individuals may have arrived at this conclusion as a result of prolonged thought and deliberation.
**Acquaintance** – Attitudes may be either public or private. With some of attitudes we suffer no qualms about revealing them to our acquaintance.

**Fig. 1.4 : Dimensions of Attitude**

**Generally vs. Specialization** - The evidence today especially with adults seems to point to generally as being an aspect of attitudes.

Raina (1981) reported that the in-service and the pre-service teachers differed significantly in their attitude towards teaching when taken as a whole. Ghosh (1982) found that the pupils with high attitude do not get high scores in practice teaching. Som (1984) found that female teachers tended to be higher than males in their attitude towards teaching, the teaching profession and pupils and teaching attitude as well as the attitude towards profession correlated significantly.
with patience, carefulness, extrospection, and responsibility. Tripathi (1987) concluded that on professional attitudes, the mean differences between teachers of rural and urban colleges, government and private colleges and girls' and boys' colleges were not significant. Khatoon (1988) revealed that there exists no correlation between teacher classroom behaviour and attitude towards teaching. Singh (1988) found a significant positive relationship between attitude towards teaching and classroom verbal interaction of student teacher.

Srivastava (1989) explored that most of the trainee groups changed their teacher-attitude positively and significantly after training and after the completion of the training, the females showed better teacher-attitude and aptitude than the male trainees. Maurya (1990) found that external surroundings contributed a great deal in formulating teaching attitude and frequent changes in the curriculum adversely affected teaching efficiency, whereas attitude and academic achievement were not significantly related. Tapodhan (1991) explored that sex, area and caste had a main effect on professional attitudes, while qualification had no effect, whereas area and caste; area and qualification; caste and qualification as well as sex, area, and caste; sex, area, and qualification had no significant interaction effect on professional attitudes. Yadav (1992) revealed that training had a significant influence on their self-concept, social maturity and attitude towards teaching profession.

Uma and Venkatramaiah (1996) reported that majority of male rural elementary school teachers had high and average attitude towards teaching and they assumed teaching as a challenging job. Naik and Pathy (1997) found that science teachers possess positive attitude towards teaching of science and urban secondary school science teachers have more favourable attitude towards teaching of science than rural secondary school science teacher, whereas the female science teachers had significantly positive attitude towards teaching of science than male counterparts. Pandey and Maikhuri (1999) reported that high experienced effective teachers' attitude was positive towards teaching profession than low experienced ineffective teachers, whereas age of effective teachers was not a differentiating factor in their attitude towards teaching profession.
Devi (2005) reported that there was a positive and significant relationship between the attitude towards teaching and performance in the B.Ed. entrance examination. Gnanaguru and Kumar (2007) found that the normal and over achievers had favourable attitude towards teaching but the underachievers had unfavourable attitude towards teaching. There was a significant relationship between the B.Ed. students’ attitude towards teaching profession and their home environment.

Guneyle and Aslan (2009) found that a significant difference occurred in favour of female prospective teachers in relation to the gender factor. No significant difference between attitude scores was observed in relation to the effects of class and socio-economic level. Ghosh and Bairgya (2010) measured attitude of secondary school teachers towards teaching profession in relation to some demographic variables. It was found that there was no significant difference in the attitude of secondary school teachers towards teaching profession in relation to academic stream and educational qualification but there existed significant difference in relation to sex, caste and teaching experience. Marry and Samuel (2011) studied the attitude of B.Ed. student-teachers towards and academic achievement. It was found that students’ attitude towards teaching and academic achievement fell under the average category with a significant different between male and female student-teachers. Further, there was a significant relationship between overall attitude towards teaching and academic achievements of the student-teachers.

1.4 NEED OF THE STUDY

The twenty first century is characterized by the emergence of multiculturalism due to industrialization, urbanization, globalization and disintegration in the family system. Since education is viewed as an instrument to develop the cognitive qualities, tolerance and understanding of people. It should prepare the younger generation to understand and face the realities of globalization. In this context, the teachers have more responsibilities in moulding the character of students. It is rightly said, “if a teacher runs, students will walk; if a teacher walks, students will sit; and if a teacher sits, students will sleep.” The teacher is part and parcel of the institution where the future of nation is being shaped. The quality of
teacher education is very important for bringing about functional improvement in teacher education institutions and consequently in school education. A teacher can perform his or her multifarious tasks and responsibilities only if he or she is updated professionally and personally. Gone are the times when teaching was considered as an art.

Now with research in the concerned area and the changing demands, teaching is taken as a skill for which individuals can be trained. To train the teachers and to keep them updated is the purview of teacher education. So, like various other professions, teacher education has assumed special significance. Its objective is man making and producing enlightened teachers who will in turn prepare enlightened citizens. To achieve this, teacher educators in India need professional competence and they must have constant alertness to innovation in their field. NCTE (1998) has pointed out that teacher education programmes should focus on competencies and commitment in much greater magnitude. To improve the quality of teacher education, we should not only see that what type of students are selected but it is of vital importance that competent and committed teacher educators are given due place for this pious task of preparing future teachers.

Teacher education in our country has to face the challenge of producing teachers for a new society. However, in order to meet the challenge successfully, it is necessary to improve the quality of teacher educators. The part played by the teacher educator is most vital as he is the one who carefully produces teachers. The success of education is also based on the capabilities and competence of the teacher educator. His wisdom, knowledge and management of the class will depend upon so many factors. If a teacher educator has high level of occupational self efficacy i.e. beliefs in one’s capabilities, his effectiveness in the classroom situations will be helpful to produce good teachers. Occupational self efficacy can be different, in different areas of life as it is task specific. It is not only important to build in students but teachers as well. The teacher who has positive attitude, confidence and the belief that he can handle all of the classroom challenges makes a huge difference in his effectiveness as a teacher.
Similarly, status of teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of a society. If he is satisfied with his job, it will enhance his job performance. The Education Commission (1966) corroborates: Dissatisfaction of the individual, whatever may be the occupation in which he is engaged results in professional stagnation. A dissatisfied teacher spells disaster to the country’s future. Dissatisfaction among the workers is undesirable and dangerous in any profession. It is just suicidal if it occurs in the teaching profession. Similarly, the attitude of the teacher towards teaching constitutes an important condition of successful teaching and learning. Positive attitude towards teaching contributes towards professional success and negative towards failure. In order to understand the present scenario of teacher education in India, need was felt to study occupational self efficacy, job satisfaction and attitude towards teaching profession of teacher educators. Hence, the investigator made an attempt to examine the effect of gender, academic stream and teaching experience on the occupational self efficacy, job satisfaction and attitude towards teaching profession.

1.5  STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

“A Study of Occupational Self Efficacy, Job Satisfaction and Attitude Towards Teaching Profession among Teachers working in Teacher Training Institutions”

1.6  OPERATIONAL MEANINGS OF KEY WORDS

Occupational Self Efficacy

Occupational self efficacy is the extent to which one judges oneself able to do the tasks inherent in a given career or vocational pursuit.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction describes how contented an individual is with his or her job. It has been defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job.

Attitude towards Teaching Profession

An attitude is a tendency of an individual to favour or not to favour same type of object or situation.
Teachers Working in Teacher Training Institutions

A person employed in an official capacity for the purpose of guiding and directing the learning experiences of pupils or students in an educational institution whether Government or private may be termed as a teacher (Dictionary of Education, C.V.Good, 1973). Teachers working in Teacher Training Institutions in the present study refer to the teachers who are teaching B.Ed. classes.

1.7 VARIABLES INVOLVED

In this study following variables were taken:

- **Dependent Variables**
  - Occupational Self Efficacy
  - Job Satisfaction
  - Attitude of Teachers Toward Teaching Profession

- **Independent Variables**
  - Gender
  - Academic Stream
  - Teaching Experience

1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present study purported to realize the following objectives:

A. **Objectives related to Occupational Self Efficacy**

1. To study the effect of gender on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

2. To study the effect of academic stream on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

3. To study the effect of teaching experience on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

4. To find out the interaction effect of gender and academic stream on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

5. To find out the interaction effect of academic stream and teaching experience on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.
6. To find out the interaction effect of gender and teaching experience on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

7. To find out the interaction effect of gender, academic stream and teaching experience on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

B. Objectives Related to Job Satisfaction

8. To study the effect of gender on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

9. To study the effect of academic stream on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

10. To study the effect of teaching experience on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

11. To find out the interaction effect of gender and academic stream on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

12. To find out the interaction effect of academic stream and teaching experience on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

13. To find out the interaction effect of gender and teaching experience on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

14. To find out the interaction effect of gender, academic stream and teaching experience on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

C. Objectives Related to Attitude towards Teaching Profession

15. To study the effect of gender on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

16. To study the effect of academic stream on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

17. To study the effect of teaching experience on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.
18. To find out the interaction effect of gender and academic stream on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

19. To find out the interaction effect of academic stream and teaching experience on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

20. To find out the interaction effect of gender and teaching experience on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

21. To find out the interaction effect of gender, academic stream and teaching experience on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

1.9 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Based upon the above mentioned objectives, the following hypotheses were formulated.

A. Hypotheses related to Occupational Self Efficacy

H₀₁ There exists no significant difference in Occupational Self Efficacy between male and female teachers.

H₀₂ There exists no significant difference in Occupational Self Efficacy between teachers belonging to Science and Arts group.

H₀₃ There exists no significant difference in Occupational Self Efficacy between teachers having more and less teaching experience.

H₀₄ There exists no significant interaction effect of gender and academic stream on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

H₀₅ There exists no significant interaction effect of academic stream and teaching experience on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

H₀₆ There exists no significant interaction effect of gender and teaching experience on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.
B. **Hypotheses related to Job Satisfaction**

- **H₀₇** There exists no significant interaction effect of gender, academic stream and teaching experience on Occupational Self Efficacy of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

- **H₀₈** There exists no significant difference in Job Satisfaction between male and female teachers.

- **H₀₉** There exists no significant difference in Job Satisfaction between teachers belonging to Science and Arts group.

- **H₁₀** There exists no significant difference in Job Satisfaction between teachers having more and less teaching experience.

- **H₁₁** There exists no significant interaction effect of gender and academic stream on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

- **H₁₂** There exists no significant interaction effect of academic stream and teaching experience on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

- **H₁₃** There exists no significant interaction effect of gender and teaching experience on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

- **H₁₄** There exists no significant interaction effect of gender, academic stream and teaching experience on Job Satisfaction of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

C. **Hypotheses Related to Attitude towards Teaching Profession.**

- **H₁₅** There exist no significant difference in Attitude Towards Teaching Profession between male and female teachers.

- **H₁₆** There exist no significant difference in Attitude Towards Teaching Profession between teachers belonging to Science and Arts group.

- **H₁₇** There exists no significant difference in Attitude Towards Teaching Profession between teachers having more and less teaching experience.

- **H₁₈** There exists no significant interaction effect of gender and academic stream on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.
$H_{019}$ There exists no significant interaction effect of academic stream and teaching experience on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

$H_{020}$ There exists no significant interaction effect of gender and teaching experience on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

$H_{021}$ There exists no significant interaction effect of gender, academic stream and teaching experience on Attitude Towards Teaching Profession of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

**1.10 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The present study was delimitated to the following aspects keeping in view the time available and limited resources.

1. The present study was delimitated to teachers working in self financing teaching training institutions affiliated to M.D. University, Rohtak.

2. The present study was delimitated to only three demographic variables i.e. gender, academic stream, and teaching experience of the teachers.

3. The present study was delimitated to teachers teaching B.Ed. classes only.

**1.11 CHAPTERISATION SCHEME**

Out of six chapters, Chapter 1 is Introduction, which includes Need of the Study, Variables involved, Objectives, Hypotheses and Delimitations of the study. Chapter II is devoted to Review of the Related Literature. In Chapter III, the Design of the Study, Sample, Tools, Procedure and Statistical Techniques have been presented. Chapter IV deals with the Analysis and Interpretation of data along with the Discussion of Results. In Chapter V, Findings, Conclusions, Educational Implications of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research have been given. Chapter VI is devoted to the Summary of the Study.