1. INTRODUCTION
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Guru Brahma:, Guru Vishnu:
Gurur: devo Maheshwaraha:
Guru Sakashat Parabhrahma:
Tasmaye Shree, Guruve Namah:

No better tributes have been paid to any man on earth than to a teacher. In Ancient India, he is ranked next to God. East or West, everywhere he has been respected and worshipped. In the west he has been called the 'architect of nation', the 'harbinger of the progress of the culture', 'the maker of man' and 'the maker of history'. Like a gardener, caring the plants, so also a teacher cares young human beings and looks after their physical, mental, social growth and development.

The child, from the Hindu stand-point, receives second birth in the hands of the teacher. But it's the teacher who plays the most prominent role in moulding the habits, tastes, and the character of pupil. Books may teach a child, but a teacher educates him. "The guru is God for his disciples, and the disciple is God for his guru." says Vinoba Bhave. A teacher is therefore the pivot of educational system and an essential requirement for a progressive nation.

Premnath (1968) stated that according to Kabir, "without good teachers even the best of system is bound to fail, with good teacher, even the defects of the system can be largely overcome".
Premnath similarly stated that Saiyidani quotation “you cannot pour out of a vessel except that you have put into it and if a teacher is poor from within and if there is no sprinkling wire in him. He cannot quicken the mind and humanize the emotions of his children, if he is not a lighted candle himself he will never be able to light up the flame in others”.

The teacher is essentially a nation builder. He is a torch bearer of the race. On him depends the future of the school, village, and country and in fact the future of man kind. Teaching efficiency depends much on the academic and professional attainment of teachers. Therefore, teacher is given much importance from the past to the present. Teacher always holds a prestigious position in the society as teaching is considered to be noble, sincere, and honest profession. So now, also this cannot be disregarded.

An eminent educationalist referring to the teaching profession states, "Teaching profession should not be allowed to suffer from poverty, neglect, indifference and insecurity. A frustrated teacher is bound to produce frustrated personalities". Teacher must have good understanding in inter-personal relationships, in such a process, teachers must have sympathetic and constructive attitude to the problems of students. Such helpful attitude enables students to find realistic solutions to their academic problems.

Teachers must have an open mind that analyzes problems with the utmost objectivity. They must be very broad minded and secular with wide ranging interest which they most frequently exhibit through worth while
constructive contribution to the well-being of the student community in particular, and society in general. Teachers can play an effective role in guiding students to overcome any mental blocks that may hinder their emotional, academic, and psychological development. Teachers should have immense faith in their work profession and they should introspect their abilities and shortcoming and relating them to their achievements by so doing it helps them to have an objective profile of themselves.

1.1 Role of Teachers at Different Levels of Education

1.1.2 Role of Secondary School Teachers

The teacher should help the children in developing a feeling of the class and to help children share responsibility. A great part of teacher's job is done if he succeeds in helping children to find their roles in the school life for then they would readily join in for social activities.

Teachers should not give scope in children to grow minor conflicts if allowed to grow, may develop into major oppositions threatening the social life of the class or the school. Teacher should be impartial towards children otherwise he has to face opposition from his pupils by unduly favoring one against the other. Therefore the teacher-pupil relation is of mutual trust and cooperation. Teacher has to develop leadership qualities in the child through socializing. Teacher should know the child's social background as well as their motivation. Rightly it is observed: "No philosophy of Education, no curriculum, no method is any more effective than the teacher who implements
it." It is helpful for a teacher if he maintain record of social background of individual that must reflect the causes of specific behavior.

Teacher should give an understanding to student of the social situation and the enthusiasm and ability to strive for adjustment and for improving social relationships in the schools and in the family. The traits acquired in a child as such may be socially desirable or undesirable, deficient or in excess of the normal, it needs planning and all the resourcefulness of the teacher to help correct and improve the habits as the needs be.

1.1.3 Role of College Teachers

The better teachers must move over to take administrative work as principal, Vice Principal Warden of Hostel, NSS officer, Student Welfare Officer. Union Advisor, Staff secretary to find social recognition in the college and in the society.

In course of time, colleges will have earned their reputations based not upon the number of first classes, etc., but upon the contribution of their teachers and graduates to the field. College teacher their work should not be neglected and their teaching duties and realize their academic responsibilities of developing younger generation to achieve the right type of knowledge to build and develop their personalities. College teachers, through their teaching should impart knowledge and train students in various skills, so that when they go out of the portals of college and will find gainful employment in different profession and add to net wealth of the country.
1.1.4 Role of University Teachers

University is an institution for study in higher branches of learning. University has been derived from a Latin word "univerticas" meaning there by a "community or a collective body". University means a collective body of students and teachers who are engaged in the business of teaching and learning.

Teachers in the university are graded as selection grade and senior grade lecturers, research fellows and tutors. So one has to play their role accordingly and do justice to the students as well as to the university.

The university teacher must possess a fair knowledge in the subject he teaches. He must be conversant with all the branches of learning so that he can justify being a modern educated person. University teacher must possess thirst for knowledge and a literary bent of mind. Reading and writing must be his principal hobby, and deep study his main pursuit. He must improve upon his knowledge by coming in touch with persons of ability and experience by visiting different university, by attending national and international seminars, papers presentation is also a must. The university could become intellectual communities when teachers and students are given a real and meaningful participation in the universities colleges on a gradual and phased manner.

1.2 Psychological Well-Being (PWB)

1.2.1 Meaning & Definitions

Psychological well-being attempts to understand people's evaluation of their lives. These evaluations may be primarily cognitive (e.g.: life satisfaction
or marital satisfaction) or may consist of the frequency with which people experience pleasant emotions (e.g.; joy as measured by the experience sampling technique) and unpleasant emotion (e.g.; depression). Researchers in this field strive to understand not just undesirable clinical states, but also differences between people in positive levels of long term well-being. Psychological well-being refers to how people evaluate their lives, and include variables such as life satisfaction and marital satisfaction lack of depression and anxiety and positive moods and emotions.

Some researchers explain psychological well-being in terms of self-acceptance, personal growth in life and positive relations with others, environmental mastery and autonomy.

A person's evaluation of his or her life may be in form of cognitions e.g.: when person gives conscious evaluative judgments about his or her satisfaction with life as a whole, or evaluative judgments about specific aspects of his or life such as recreation. However, an evaluation of one's life may also be in the form of affect such as people experiencing unpleasant or pleasant moods and emotions in reaction to the life. Thus a person is said to have high psychological well-being if she or he experiences life satisfaction and frequent joy, and only infrequently experience unpleasant emotions such as sadness and anger. On the contrary a person is said to have low psychological well-being if he or she is dissatisfied with life, experiences little joy and affection, and frequently feels negative and affective such as anger or anxiety. The cognitive and affective components of psychological well-being highly interrelated.
Further, people virtually always experience moods and emotions, which have an hedonic component that is pleasant, signaling a positive reaction, or unpleasant, signaling a negative reaction. Thus, people have a level of psychological well-being even if they do not often consciously think about it. And the psychological system offers virtually a constant evaluation of what is happening to the person. Most often, quality of life is conceptualized as a composite of physical, psychological and social well-being of an individual, as perceived by the person or the group. A very important aspect of quality of life is the happiness, satisfaction or gratification subjectively experienced which is often called as Subjective Well-Being (SWB) or Psychological well-being (PWB). Research on SWB suggests that (a) it is based on subjective experience instead of the objective conditions of life; (b) it has positive as well as negative affect; and (c) it is a global experience as opposed to experience in particular domains such as work (Okun & Stock, 1987).

Quality of Life is also referred as Psychological well-being. Quality of life is the degree of well-being felt by an individual or group of people. Unlike standard of living, quality of life is not a tangible concept, and therefore cannot be measured directly. Furthermore, quality of life consists of two components. The first is physical aspect which includes such things as health, diet, as well as protection against pain and disease. The second component is psychological in nature. This aspect includes such things as stress, worry, pleasure and other positive or negative emotional states. It is virtually impossible to predict the
quality of life of a specific individual, since the combination of attributes may lead one individual to be content is may not be the same for another individual.

1.2.2 Characteristics of Psychological well-being

According to Diener (1984), Psychological well-being has several cardinal characteristics. First, the field covers the entire range of well-being from agony to ecstasy. It does not focus only on undesirable states such as depression or hopelessness. Instead, individual differences in levels of positive well-being are also considered to be important. Thus the field of psychological well-being includes the undesirable states that are treated by clinical psychologist, but is not limited to the study of these undesirable states. In other words, the field is concerned not just with the causes of depression and anxiety but also with the factors that differentiate slightly happy people, moderately happy and extremely happy people.

Secondly, Psychological well-being is defined in terms of the internal experience of the respondent. An external frame of reference is not imposed when assessing psychological well-being. Although many criteria of mental health are dictated from outside by researchers (e.g.; maturity, autonomy realism). Psychological well-being is measured from the individuals own perceptivity. In the field of psychological well-being, a person's beliefs about his or her own well-being are of paramount importance.

A final characteristic of psychological well-being focuses on long term states, not just momentary moods. Although a person's moods are likely to
fluctuate with each new event, the researcher is most interested in the person's moods over time. Often, what leads to happiness at the moment may not be the same as what produces long-term psychological well-being. Thus, importance is in relatively enduring feelings of well-being, not in fleeting emotions.

1.2.3 Components of Psychological well-being

There are three primary components of psychological well-being viz. satisfaction, pleasant affect, and low levels of unpleasant affect. Psychological well-being is structured such that these three components form a global factor of interrelated variables. Global satisfaction can be divided into satisfaction with the various domains of life such as recreation, love, marriage, friendship and so forth.

1.2.4 Theories on Psychological well-being

i. Telic Theories

ii. Activity theories

iii. Judgment theories.

1. Telic theories of psychological well-being maintain that happiness is gained when some state, such as goal is reached. One theoretical postulate offered by Welson (1960) is that the satisfaction of needs causes happiness and conversely, persistence of unfulfilled needs causes unhappiness.
2. Activity theories maintain that happiness is a byproduct of human activity. The most explicit formation about activity and psychological well-being is the theory of flow Csikszentmihaly's (1990) activities are seen as pleasurable when the challenge is matched to the personal skill level. If the activities are too easy, boredom will develop. If it is too difficult, anxiety will result.

3. Judgment theories maintain that happiness results from a comparison between some standard and actual conditions. In Social Comparison Theory, one uses the other people as standard. If a person is better off than others, that person will be satisfied and happy.

1.2.5 Factors Influencing Psychological Well-Being

Researchers need to use both pleasant and unpleasant affects, because both are major components of Psychological well-being. Bradhum and Caphovitz (1965) discovered that these two styles of emotion formally believed to be polar opposites, from two separable factors that often correlate with different variable. Although researchers can combine positive and negative affect into an affect balance or global happiness score, they may lose valuable information about the two types of affects.

In defining happiness, it is common sense to combine the frequency and intensity of pleasant emotions. That is people considered to be happy and those who are intensely happy most of the time. However Diener and his colleagues observed that the frequency is a better predictor of happiness. Thus, feeling
pleasant emotion most of the time and infrequently expressing unpleasant emotions even if the pleasant emotions are only mild is sufficient for high reports of happiness.

The next fundamental question that engages the emotion of researchers involved predictor of happiness. Since economic affluence is concerned by many as synonym for happiness, a great deal of research has been carried to such relationship Csikszentmihalyi (1990). Such studies have included cross-cultural samples ranging from low income group to high income groups. The overall pattern that averages from such studies indicated that economic affluence contributes to psychological well-being up to a level but it looses its impact after certain level. (Diener 1996).

In India, where low income threaten basic human needs more often being relatively well-off does predict well-being (Argale 1999). The other element in the category of prediction includes close relationship and social support system. Human being always searches for close social and personal relationship. For seeking acceptance and belongingness, we spend a lot of money on clothes, cosmetics, and diet and fitness aids, similarly being attached to friends and partners with whom we can share intimate relationship has effects.

Indeed people report happy with being other people (payout Diener and F'uzlia 1990). Findings confirm the co-relation between said supports and well-being for example; those who enjoy close relationship cope better with various stressors (Perineum & Brook 1987).
A specific manifestation to close relationship is indicated by marital status a mountain of data reveals that most people are happier when attached than when detached. Repeated surveys have predicted consistent results compared with those who never marry and especially compared with those who have separated or divorced. Married people report being happier and most satisfied with life. By marriage an intimated relationship is developed, commitment increased, and as result loneliness is reduced which offers a dependable lover and a good companion. (Hendrick & Hendrick 1997).

Another category of predictors have been identified in terms of dispositional variables. A number of researchers have examined the relationship between personality dimensions and happiness. A cross cultural study based in British, America, Australia and Canadian samples showed significant association between extroversion and happiness (Franc et al, 1999). It is also shown that extroverts respond more vigorously to joyful situations, whereas neurotics respond vigorously to negative situations. This proves clearly there is a close relationship between extroversion and happiness. In the context of individual difference, analysis, Diener & Diener (1985), have attempted to identify cross cultural co-relates of life satisfaction. Although they find "self esteem" as a stable predictor of happiness. The in-efficacy of self esteem in predicting happiness in collectivist countries raises the questions of the group's norms and expectations.

It is important to recognize that the bulk of evidence the area of related research does not strongly support a materialistic model. Rather a model of
spirituality or psychological nature is important. The psychological approach to happiness focuses exclusively in which human consciousness uses its self-organizing ability to activate a positive internal states through its own efforts. They have been many different ways to increase happiness or to avoid being unhappy. Different religions have proposed different ways to enhance happiness. Other such as 'yoga' and 'Zen' has developed complex technique for controlling the streams of thoughts and feelings there by shutting out negative contents from consciousness.

Some of the most radical and sophisticated disciplines force self control of the mind were developed in India, before years ago, is faith in god. Faith is a supernatural power seems to enhance Psychological well-being. There is consistent co-relation between religiosity and happiness (Myers 1993). In a more recent review, (Myers 2000) offers evidence to show that active religiosity is associated with a number of the mental health criteria. Such as effective coping, tendency to live healthier, longer and to reduce depression.

In an article Brickman and Campbell (1997) suggested as people rise in their accomplishment and profession, their expectation also raise. Soon they habituate to the new level and it no longer makes them happy. On the negative side people are unhappy, when they encounter misfortune, but they soon adapt, and it no longer makes them to be unhappy. This is line example of processor adaptation. With this we cannot deny that personality predisposition of an individual as a contributing factor force for psychological well-being.
Hendry and Wearing (1997) gave a dynamic equilibrium model in which they combine adaptation and personality. They proposed that people maintain pleasant and unpleasant affect that are determined by their personality. Taken together, studies of human happiness have identified the positive role of marital status, economical affluence, social support system (close relationship, friendliness and support system) and few individual difference such as self-esteem, extroversions and athletic personality. The positive association between active religiosity and well-being has been identified. The nature of adaptation has been delineated. The study of well-being has not truly employed subjective criteria of well-being. Though it reveals many aspects of life, which brings happiness. Yet, several research gaps exist in the area of vital concern.

Psychological Well-Being or Subjective well-being is a new field of research that focuses on understanding the complete range of well-being from utter despair, to elation and total life satisfaction. Most people in surveys around the world report predominantly positive feelings (Diener & C. Diener 1996) although this varies according to the wealth of the nation, because most people are not depressed most of the time, it makes sense to study positive forms of well-being, not just the absence of well-being. When we examine the entire range of well-being, we obtain hints about factors that can increase quality of life. As people come to meet their basic physical needs, they will increasingly turn to concerns about quality of life. If psychologists are to meaningfully contribute to public discussions about quality of life, they must understand psychological well-being through theory and research in this area.
1.2.6 Measures of Psychological Well-being

1.2.6.1 (P.G.I) Quality of Life Scale:

Quality of life scale developed by Moudgal, A.C. Verma, S.K. and Kuldip Kaur (1986). It has 26 items with 5 answer categories. It measures one’s positive mental health (quality of life).

The reported reliability co-efficients by test-retest and split half method are 0.79 and 0.72 respectively. The obtained concurrent validity by correlating with well-being scale developed by the same authors is 0.89.

1.2.6.2 Subjective Well-Being Scale:

This scale is developed by Ed Deiner (1984). Subjective well being is one of the most general construct of psychological well-being. The psychological well-being scale consists of 5 items with 7 alternatives that are completed by the individuals whose life satisfaction is being measured.

Validity of this scale has been observed by correlating it with other scales and is negatively correlated with clinical measures of distress. Psychological well-being is found to be significantly negatively correlated with all 8 symptom dimensions assessing including anxiety (r=0.54), depression (r=0.55) and psychological distress (r=0.55). Its reliability has shown strong internal reliability and moderate temporal stability. Diener et al (1985) reported a coefficient alpha of 0.87 for scale and a two month test retest stability coefficient is 0.82.
1.3 Work Motivation

"Far and away the best prize that life has to offer is the chance to work hard at work worth doing"

-Theodore Roosevelt

1.3.1 Meaning & Definition

A world without motivation would be a scary place. There would not be much accomplished everyday and we most definitely wouldn't have a lot of the luxuries that we have. It was other people being motivated to make these luxuries and come up with these ideas that make the world the way it is. Finding out what motivates you can help fulfill your life, it can give you internal happiness and/or external rewards. Motivation helps to give a different aspect of meaning and purpose to people's lives. Setting goals and finding motivation everyday to help an individual to accomplish those goals will intern result in becoming productive persons.

Perry (1991) states, it has become evident that "the processes that integrate the physiological important motives are different from the processes that under go psychological motives."

Motivation is defined as "some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something" (Harmer. 2001). As stated by Brown (1994), motivation is a term that is used to define the success or the failure of any complex task. Steers and Porter (1991) deal with three matters while discussing motivation.
What energizes human behavior?
What directs or channels such behavior? and
How this behavior is maintained or sustained?

Motivation is thought to be responsible for "why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it" (Dornyei, 2001).

Work motivation is a process to energize employee to the work goal through a specific path.

Work motivation is a process or path which energizes and develops inner urge in an individual to put effort on successful performance. Work motivation helps person employed to exchange his cognitive, affective and connative domains for achievement of organizational goal for salary etc, as contracted by the organization. And in the work motivation work goal is well defined, achievable and measurable and also specific path roles and job responsibilities are measurable and related to goal achievement.

1.3.2 Factors contributing to work motivation

Sylvia & Hutchinson (1985) discovered from the study that "teacher motivation is based in the freedom to try new ideas, achievement of appropriate responsibility levels, and intrinsic work element merit and pay were predicted to be counter product".
Rothman (1981) studied and found that "true job satisfaction is derived from the gratification of higher order needs social relations, esteem and actualization" rather than lower order needs.

Green wood and Soars (1973) their study found less lecturing by teachers and more classroom discussions relates positively to teacher morale and further supports the importance of higher order need also. The co-relation between teacher motivation and students self-esteem has been shown by Peck, Fox, and Morstorn (1977). "Teachers with strong positive attitude about teaching had students whose self esteem was high. Students seem to recognize the effectiveness of teachers who are satisfied with the teaching performance". Further Rothaman (1981) suggest that this association exist because teachers serve as more than just educators; they are role models. Csikszentmihalyis (1990) has proposed that individuals reach a state of happiness and satisfaction when they are involved in an activity and are functioning at the peak of their abilities. In this situation the individual experience “High Levels of concentration immersion, strength and control”. He terms this experience as "Flow". The concept of flow is used to measure teachers’ motivation in terms of their job satisfaction. And job satisfaction in turn is an index of morale and motivation (Schonfeld, 1989). The factors of motivation are broadly classified extrinsic factors and intrinsic factors as discussed further.
1.3.2.1 Extrinsic Motivation

"Tangible benefits" (Latham, 1998) related to job such as salary, fringe benefits and job security are known as extrinsic motivation or called extrinsic rewards. Wage increase or insufficient salary increase are in the salary category. Tenure and company stability are handled in job security. In addition to this, physical conditions, the amount of work and the facilities available for doing the work are regarded as extrinsic rewards (Hertzberg and et al., 1993). Latham (1998) points out that "sociologically extrinsic" elements play a role in disparity in job satisfaction. The research shows that the public school teachers have a small average class size and a much higher average salary when compared to the Catholic school teachers. However, public school teachers do not feel efficacious and satisfied despite the good condition.

Ryan and Deci (2000) define that extrinsic motivation is concerned with the performance of an activity to succeed in getting separable outcomes, which contrasts sharply with intrinsic motivation.

1.3.2.2 Intrinsic Motivation

Ellis (1984) defines intrinsic motivation "as self-respect of accomplishment and personal growth. That is, the emotional and personal benefits of the job itself are known as intrinsic rewards. Latham (1998) emphasizes that intrinsic rewards play an important role in teachers' lives. Seeing the growth and development of students makes a teacher more satisfied,
regardless of extrinsic elements, when compared with a teacher who does not feel anything with the success of his students. The activities that satisfy curiosity or lead to enhance the effectiveness are regarded as intrinsically motivated behaviors (Boggiano and Pittman, 1992).

Competence and autonomy are the important issues on intrinsic motivation. Social-contextual events such as feedback, communications, rewards which cause feelings of competence foster intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000). While positive performance feedback increases intrinsic motivation, negative performance feedback decreases it.

Intrinsic motivation is likely to be increased by a sense of relatedness. Kaflini (1996) defines relatedness as "the degree of emotional security" that teachers feel. A sense of belonging and acceptance is developed by conforming to the social and academic expectations of their colleagues and administrator. A social relational base is thought to be an important issue for intrinsic motivation. (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

Czubaj (1996) states that the teachers with an internal locus of control are under less stress and more successful in teaching. Therefore, the students of these teachers feel less school related stress and take higher scores in their assessments. It is clear that teacher efficacy affects students directly. There is a slight correlation between teacher efficacy and students performance.
1.3.3 Teacher Motivation Theories

Richard Ingersoll (2000), defines teaching as "an occupation with a very high turnover rate and the graying workforce is only a piece of the puzzle" (Lawrence, 1999). Johnson (1986) states that there are three theories of motivation and productivity that teacher motivation are based on Expectancy theory it is probable for a person to struggle for work if there is an expected reward such as bonus or a promotion that is worth working.

Equity theory: unfair treatment for their efforts and achievements makes individuals displeased.

Job enrichment theory: The more varied and challenging their work is the more productive employees become.

While merit pay and career ladders are dealt within the first two theories, the third one studies distinguished starring and "reform-oriented staff development".

There is a slight relation between performance-based pay and a career ladder to be climbed to take higher pay and higher status. Also, merit pay is known as "a compensation system" where employees are paid in terms of their rewards teachers for special services, a multitrack pay scale that provides rapid salary advancement for scanding teachers, or a bonus plan for accomplishment such as participating in extracurricular activities, or conducting in-service training" (Johnson, 1986). According to Hawley (1985), in order to increase
teacher competence career ladder plans should be done. There are some principles to be designed for career ladder plans. These are:

For high performance, economic rewards are important.

In order to keep higher levels of pay and status, teachers carry on showing high performance. There should not be any competitive rewards which can discourage peer interaction and social approval, important to effective teaching. Fair and predictable assessment measures should be used.

"The need to avoid pain and the need for psychological growth" are two basic elements found in job enrichment theory (Silver, 1982). It is said that motivation factors should be intrinsic which present tasks that are more enjoyable, interesting and psychologically rewarding. Achievement, recognition, work responsibility, advancement and possibility of growth take place in that group. On the other hand, other factors are extrinsic in terms of the context or setting where the work is performed. Organizational policy and administration, technical supervision, salary, working conditions, status, job security, effects on personal life, and interpersonal relations with superiors, peers and subordinates in that group.

According to Dornyei (2000), there are four motivational aspects in terms of teacher motivation. Intrinsic component there is a high correlation between intrinsic motivation and teaching. Internal desire to educate people to give knowledge and value is always in teaching as a vocational goal. Fulfillment of teaching is provided with intrinsic rewards. "Performing a
behavior for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity" is the definition of intrinsic motivation (Dornyei, 2001). With the help of this definition, intrinsic reward is divided into most satisfying views of teaching as a profession: a) the educational process itself, and, b) the subject matter. The first one is about the teacher's performance affected by working with students and perceiving the changes in the students' performance and behavior. The second one is related to studying a valued field and new information in it leads to increase one's own level of professional skills and knowledge. Such intrinsic rewards make teachers forgo high salaries and social recognition.

Professional effectiveness comes from being aware of one's strengths and limitations (Kottler and Zehn, 2000). Not only being in an autonomous manner, which means that the worker is given control of what, how and when the work is done, but also "competence" replaced by "efficacy" are crucial aspects in intrinsic dimension of teacher motivation. Wheatley (2000) states that "teacher efficacy refers to teachers' beliefs about their ability to influence student outcomes". It has also been defined as "teachers' general beliefs about the possibility of producing student learning in the face of multiple obstacles such as an unsupportive home environment" (Dornyei, 2000).

1.3.4 Factors Affecting Teacher Motivation:

Dornyei, (2001) identified the following factors:

- The school's general climate and the existing school norms
- The class sizes, the school resources and facilities
The standard activity structure within the institution

The definition of the teacher's role by colleagues and authorities

General expectations regarding student potential

The school's reward contingencies and feedback system

The school's leadership and decision-making structure.

1.3.5 Work context factors

Work context factors are those that meet basic line needs. They include working conditions such as class size, discipline conditions, and availability of teaching materials the quality of the supervision and basic psychological needs such as money, status and security.

In general context factors clear the road of the debris that block effective teaching. In adequate supply, these factors prevent dissatisfaction. Even the most intrinsically motivated teacher will become discouraged if the salary doesn't pay the mortgage. But these factors may not have an external motivational effect or lead to improved teaching, for example, a survey conducted by the national centre for education statistics found that teacher compensation, including salary, benefits, and supplemental income, showed little relation to long-term satisfaction with teaching as a career (NCES, 1997). According to Frase (1992), context variables are the crucial factor in motivating teachers to high levels of performance.
1.3.6 Work Content Factors

Work Content Factors are intrinsic to the work itself. They include opportunities for professional development, recognition, challenging and lured work, increased responsibility, achievement, empowerment, and authority. Some researchers argue that teachers who do not feel supported in these sets are less motivated to do their best work in the classroom (NCES 1997). Data from the centre for educational statistics (1997) concluded that staff recognition, parental support, teacher participation in school decision making, influence over school policy, and control in the classroom are the factors most strongly associated with teacher satisfaction. Other research concludes that most teachers need to have a sense of accomplishment in these sectors if they are to persevere and excel in the difficult work of teaching. Frase and Sorenson (1992) studied work content factors in a questionnaire administrated to 73 district school teachers. They identified three major areas that relate to teacher's job satisfaction.

Feedback is the factor most strongly related to job satisfaction, yet teachers typically receive very little accurate and helpful feedback regarding the teaching.

Autonomy is strongly related to job satisfaction for many, but not all, teachers. The majority of teachers view autonomy as freedom to develop collegial relationship to accomplish tasks.
Collegiality is also important for teachers. It can be expressed through experiencing challenging and stimulating work, creating school improvement plans, and lending curriculum development groups. Collegiality is directly linked to effective schools (Johnson 1986).

1.3.7. Teachers Job Satisfaction characteristics and its impact on their work.

The conventional survey data provides much information on characteristics that define teachers who had high levels of job satisfaction and motivation. One factor that had a significant impact on job satisfaction was job responsibility. Teachers who had higher level of responsibility usually in the form of compensatory - timework, administrative position (i.e. dean, department: head) or advisorship of a club, had significantly higher levels satisfaction. Increased responsibility levels of a teacher leads to satisfaction.

Nagy and Davi's (1985) notion that minimizing the value of social interaction weakens the social support system and leads to higher levels of burn out. Social interaction among the workers in an organization is must which helps to boost one's work and create interest in the work they are doing. Women did not feel sufficiently satisfied with their opportunities to socialize, than their lower satisfaction level may be associated with social dissatisfaction.

1.3.8. Gender differences and work motivation

Paper work, and marking papers and challenges of preparations may also be looked to the socializing differences. Perhaps women take these
activities more seriously that find them more bothersome or challenging. However the mean scores for attitudes towards paper work, indicating that teachers did not express dislike towards paper work, but did indeed showed lower levels of motivation and satisfaction, its effects was minimal. Though respondents were asked to indicate whether they were lecturing or discussing while teaching, they did not make enough of a distinction to permit testing the comparison proposed by Greenwood and Soars (1970). The importance of the classroom experience in teacher job satisfaction confirms the conclusion that the gratification of higher order needs is most important.

Sylvia and Hutchsion (1973) denigrated the advantage of pay incentives. Response, to the conventional survey suggests that teachers felt that, pay incentives would improve morale.

Teachers' especially younger ones also reported that they were not satisfied with their incomes. These results warrant a re-examination of the merits of pay incentives as a means for improving teacher motivations in the conventional survey, teachers were asked to select three words to describe their mood while doing paper work; many chose the words bored and sad. And teachers rated their mood negatively when asked about the paper work activity. This discrepancy may also relate to the contrast between the positive result of the study and reports about low morale. It may be that teachers describe themselves and their work differently from the way they actually feel on the job. Researchers on teacher motivation and satisfaction should gauge
effects of media reporting, outside perceptions and family and leisure involvement on teacher morale.

1.3.9 Measures of Work Motivation

A competence and Autonomy scale was developed by Deci and Ryan (2004). It measures competence motivation of a person in work situations. This measure essentially tries to capture the desire in the person to improve one's own ability and surpass the laid down benchmark. This measure consists of 9 items. Items are measured on 4 point scale ranging from 'Always' (4) to 'Never' (1) and its Cronbach alpha co-efficient is 0.75.

Autonomy measure scale assesses the respondent's sense and need of independence on thought and action. The measure consists of 9 items. The response was to be given on 4 point scale ranging from 'Always' (4) to 'Never' (1) and its Cronbach alpha co-efficient is 0.84.

1.4. Self-efficacy

1.4.1 Meaning & Definition

Perceived self-efficacy refers to "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required in managing prospective situations." Efficacy beliefs influence how people think, feel motivate themselves, and act. Scnunk, D.H. (2003), defined Perceived self-efficacy, "as personal beliefs about their capabilities to learn or perform behaviors at designated levels, it plays an important role in their motivation and learning. Self-efficacy is a key
mechanism in social cognitive theory, which postulates that achievement depends on interactions between behaviors, personal factors, and environmental conditions. Self-efficacy affects choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and achievement. Sources of self-efficacy information include personal accomplishments, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological indicators. At the outset of learning activities, students have goals and a sense of self-efficacy for attaining them.

Nicole et al (1977), define Teacher efficacy as "the extent to which the teacher, believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance".


Allinderj (1994), defines teacher self-efficacy as "goals and persistence".

Tschannen et al (1998), define teacher self-efficacy as "commitment to students and teaching".

Gibbs, et al (2002) stated that Teacher effectiveness is governed by levels of self-efficacy, that is, the belief teachers have about their teaching capabilities.

According to Gibson & Dembo (1984) Self-efficacy, when applied to teachers, refers to "the extent to which teachers believe they can bring about change and impact on student behavior and learning outcomes."
Bandura (1995) state that "Teachers who have a high sense of efficacy about their teaching capabilities can motivate their students and enhance their student’s cognitive development". Further, Bandura (1996) said that "The task of creating environments conducive to learning rests heavily on the talents and self-efficacy of teachers". Bandura, et al (1996) point out that being accepted socially is one of the important determinants of adjustment in an educational setting. Successful interactions with peers, academic faculty members, and general staff members are also thought to be related to mastery of academic work.

1.4.2 Factors Affecting Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1994) postulated that age would not correlate with efficacy because "there are many pathways through life and, at any given period, people vary substantially in how efficaciously they manage their lives". However, Coladarci and Breton's (1997) study found a weak, but significant positive correlation between age and personal teaching efficacy using the Teaching Efficacy-Scale. Four years earlier, a study by Hoy and Woolfolk (1993). Using a shortened version of the TES, yielded weak correlations between personal teacher self-efficacy and years of teaching experience.

In contrast, a study by using the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, (2002) yielded no significant differences for age or gender as expected. However, the same study revealed significant differences between experienced and novice teachers. On the basis of their own
research, Imants and Debrabander (1996) using a modified version of the TES, concluded that several factors influence on teacher self-efficacy. These include position in the school hierarchy, gender and years of experience.

Experience may be a key ingredient in teacher's sense of efficacy. Tsui (1995), using a modified version of the TES, found that years of teaching experience in a teaching setting is an overriding factor in moulding one's feelings of teaching efficacy." Bandura (1997) describes mastery and vicarious experiences as major sources of efficacy beliefs.

Sutton and Wheatley (2003) suggest that "the substantial variation in teacher efficacy may result in part from variance in teachers' emotions" Chan (2004) found that self-efficacy beliefs were significantly predicted by the components of emotional intelligence and suggested that differences between teachers might affect this relationship.

Emmer and Hickman (1991) recommend research to explore the relationship between teacher emotions and efficacy beliefs. Efficacy beliefs are the product of cognitive processing of diverse sources of information" (Bandura, 1997) which, Bandura names as Somatic and Emotional states, and "somatic information conveyed by physiological and emotional states", that is, referring to a person's own perception of their emotional and psychological position. The extent to which teachers are able to deal effectively with their own and others' emotions can be considered a reflection of their own / emotional intelligence (Atkins & Stough, 2005). Using the Swinburne
University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT), a self-report measure designed for the workplace, Gardner & Stough (2002) summarised that "leaders identified as having high levels of Emotional Intellengence are more likely to desire success, work harder, lead an effective team and be more satisfied working with others. It could be inferred that individuals with particularly low levels of emotional intelligence would not make effective leaders.

Emotional intelligence is positively related to teacher self-efficacy. In addition, consistent with prediction, female teachers reported higher levels of emotional intelligence than did male teachers. Age and status were significantly related to emotional intelligence, while experience and status were significantly related to personal teaching efficacy. However, none of the predicted moderators had a significant impact on the relationship between emotional intelligence and efficacy. Emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of efficacy even after controlling for the effects of gender, age length of experience, and current status.

People's beliefs about their efficacy can be developed by four main sources of influence. The most effective way of creating a strong sense of efficacy is through "mastery experiences". Successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy. Failures undermine it, especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established.

If people experience only easy successes they come to expect quick results and are easily discouraged by failure. A resilient sense of efficacy
requires experience in overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort. Some setbacks and difficulties in human pursuits serve a useful purpose in teaching that success usually requires sustained effort. After people become convinced they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks. By sticking it out through tough times, they emerge stronger from adversity.

The second way of creating and strengthening self-beliefs of efficacy is through the "vicarious experiences" provided by social models. Seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observers' beliefs that they too possess the capabilities master to the activities to succeed. By the same time, observing others' fail despite high effort lowers observers' judgments of their own efficacy and undermines their efforts. The impact on modeling on perceived self-efficacy is strongly influenced by perceived similarity to the models. The greater the assumed similarity the more persuasive is the models' successes and failures. If people see the models as very different from themselves their perceived self-efficacy is not much influenced.

Modeling influences do more than provide a social standard against which to judge one's own capabilities. People seek proficient models who possess the competencies to which they aspire. Through their behavior and expressed ways of thinking, competent models transmit knowledge and teach observers effective skills and strategies for managing environmental demands. Acquisition of better means raises perceived self-efficacy.
'Social persuasion' is a third way of strengthening people's beliefs that they have what it takes to succeed. People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master given activities are likely to mobilize greater effort and sustain it than if they harbor self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies when problems arise. To the extent that persuasive boosts in perceived self-efficacy lead people to try hard enough to succeed, they promote development of skills and a sense of personal efficacy.

It is more difficult to instill high beliefs of personal efficacy by social persuasion alone than to undermine it. Unrealistic boosts in efficacy are quickly disaffirmed by disappointing results of one's efforts. But people who have been persuaded that they lack capabilities tend to avoid challenging activities that cultivate potentialities and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. By constricting activities and undermining motivation, disbelief in one's capabilities creates its own behavioral validation. Successful efficacy builders do more than convey positive appraisals. In addition to raising people's beliefs in their capabilities, they structure situations for them in ways that bring success and avoid placing people in situations prematurely where they are likely to fail often. They measure success in terms of self-improvement rather than by triumphs over others.

And Fourthly People also rely partly on their somatic and emotional states in judging their capabilities. They interpret their stress reactions and tension as signs of vulnerability to poor performance. In activities involving strength and stamina, people judge their fatigue, aches and pains as signs of
physical debilities. Mood also affects people's judgments of their personal efficiency. Positive mood enhances perceived self-efficacy, despondent mood diminishes it. The fourth way of modifying self-beliefs of efficacy is to reduce people's stress reactions and alter their negative emotional proclivities and the interpretations of their physical states.

1.4.3 Efficacy-Activated Processes

Much research has been conducted on the four major psychological processes through which self-beliefs of efficacy affect human functioning.

1.4.3.1 Cognitive Processes

The effects of self-efficacy beliefs on cognitive processes take a variety of forms. Much human behavior, being purposive, is regulated by forethought embodying valued goals. Personal goal setting is influenced by self-appraisal of capabilities. The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal challenges people set for themselves and the firmer is their commitment to them.

Most courses of action are initially organized in thought. People beliefs in their efficacy shape the types of anticipatory scenarios they construct and rehearse. Those who have a high sense of efficacy, visualize success scenarios that provide positive guides and supports for performance. Those who doubt their efficacy visualize failure scenarios and dwell on the many things that can go wrong. It is difficult to achieve much while fighting self-doubt. A major
function of thought is to enable people to predict events and to develop ways to control those that affect their lives. Such skills require effective cognitive processing of information that contains many ambiguities and uncertainties.

In Learning predictive and regulative rules people must draw on their knowledge to construct options, to weigh and integrate predictive factors, to test and revise their judgments against the immediate and distal results of their actions, and to remember which factors they had tested and how well they had worked.

It requires a strong sense of efficacy to remain task oriented in the face of pressing situational demands, failures and setbacks that have significant repercussions. Indeed, when people are faced with the tasks of managing difficult environmental demands under taxing circumstances, those who are beset by self-doubts about their efficacy become more and more erratic in their analytic thinking, lower their aspirations and the quality of their performance deteriorates. In contrast, those who maintain a resilient sense of efficacy set themselves challenging goals and use good analytic thinking which pays off in performance accomplishments.

1.4.3.2 Motivational Processes

Self-beliefs of efficacy play a key role in the self-regulation of motivation. Most human motivation is cognitively generated. People motivate themselves and their actions anticipatorily by the exercise of forethought. They form beliefs about what they can do. They anticipate likely outcomes of
prospective actions. They set goals for themselves and plan courses of action designed to realize valued futures. There are three different forms of cognitive motivators around which different theories have been built. They include causal attributions, outcome expectancies, and cognized goals. The corresponding theories are attribution theory, expectancy-value theory and goal theory, respectively. Self-efficacy beliefs operate in each if these types of cognitive motivation. Self-efficacy beliefs influence causal attributions. People who regard themselves as highly efficacious attribute their failures to insufficient effort, those who regard themselves as inefficacious attribute their failures to low ability. Causal attributions affect motivation, performance and affective reactions mainly through beliefs of self-efficacy.

In expectancy-value theory, motivation is regulated by the expectation that a given course of behavior will produce certain outcomes and the value of those outcomes. But people act on their beliefs about what they can do. As well as on their beliefs about the likely outcomes of performance. The motivating influence of outcome expectancies is thus partly governed by self-beliefs of efficacy. There are countless attractive options people do not pursue because they judge they lack the capabilities for them. The productiveness of expectancy-value theory is enhanced by including the influence of perceived self-efficacy.

The capacity to exercise self-influence by goal challenges and evaluative reaction to one's own attainments provides a major cognitive mechanism of motivation. A large body of evidence shows that explicit, challenging goals
enhance and sustain motivation. Goals operate largely through self-influence processes rather than regulate motivation and action directly. Motivation based on goal setting involves a cognitive comparison process. By making self-satisfaction conditional on matching adopted goals, people give direction to their behavior and create incentives to persist in their efforts until they fulfill their goals. They seek self-satisfaction from fulfilling valued goals and are prompted to intensify their efforts by discontent with substandard performances.

Motivation based on goals or personal standards is governed by three types of self influences. They include self-satisfying and self-dissatisfying reactions to one's performance, perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, and readjustment of personal goals based on one's progress. Self-efficacy beliefs contribute to motivation in several ways: They determine the goals people set for themselves, how much effort they expend; how long they persevere in the face of difficulties; and their resilience to failures. When faced with obstacles and failures people who harbor self-doubts about their capabilities slacken their efforts or give up quickly. Those who have a strong belief in their capabilities exert greater effort when they fail to master the challenge. Strong perseverance contributes to performance accomplishments.

1.4.3.3 Affective Processes

People's beliefs in their coping capabilities affect how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations, as well as their
level of motivation. Perceived self-efficacy to exercise control over stressors plays a central role in anxiety arousal. People who believe they can exercise control over threats do not conjure up disturbing thought patterns. But those who believe they cannot manage threats experience high anxiety arousal. They dwell on their coping, deficiencies. They view many aspects of their environment as fraught with danger. They signify the severity of possible threats and worry about things that rarely happen. Through such inefficacious thinking they distress themselves and impair their level of functioning. Perceived coping self-efficacy regulates avoidance behavior as well as anxiety arousal. The stronger the sense of self-efficacy the bolder people is in taking on taxing and threatening activities Anxiety arousal is affected not only by perceived coping efficacy but by perceived efficacy to control disturbing thoughts. The exercise of control over one's own consciousness is summed up well in the proverb: "You cannot prevent the birds of worry and care from flying over your head. But you can stop them from building a nest in your head." Perceived self-efficacy to control thought processes is a key factor in regulating thought produced stress and depression It is not the sheer frequency of disturbing thoughts but the perceived inability to turn them off that is the major source of distress. Both perceived coping self-efficacy and thought control of efficacy operate jointly to reduce anxiety and avoidant behavior.

Social cognitive theory prescribes mastery experiences as the principal means of personality change. Guided mastery is a powerful vehicle for instilling a robust sense of coping efficacy in people whose functioning is
seriously impaired by intense apprehension and phobic self-protective reactions. Mastery experiences are structured in ways to build coping skills and instill beliefs that one can exercise control over potential threats. Intractable phobics, of course, are not about to do what they dread. One must, therefore, create an environment so that incapacitated phobics can perform successfully despite themselves. This is achieved by enlisting a variety of performance mastery aids. Feared activities are first modeled to show people how to cope with threats and to disconfirm their worst fears. Coping tasks are broken down into subtasks of easily mastered steps. Performing feared activities together with the therapist further enables phobic to do things they would resist doing by themselves. Another way of overcoming resistance is to use graduated time. Phobics will refuse threatening tasks if they will have to endure stress for a long time. But they will risk them for a short period. As their coping efficacy increases the time they perform the activity is extended. Protective aids and dosing the severity of threats also help to restore and develop a sense of coping efficacy.

After functioning is fully restored, the mastery aids are withdrawn to verify that coping successes stem from personal efficacy rather than from mastery aids. Self-directed mastery experiences, designed to provide varied confirmatory tests of coping capabilities, are then arranged to strengthen and generalize the sense of coping efficacy. Once people develop a resilient sense of efficacy they can withstand difficulties and adversities without adverse effects.
Guided mastery treatment achieves widespread psychological changes in a relatively short time. It eliminates phobic behavior and anxiety and biological stress reactions, creates positive attitudes and eradicates phobic ruminations and nightmares. Evidence that achievement of coping efficacy profoundly affects dream activity is a particularly striking generalized impact.

A low sense of efficacy to exercise control produces depression as well as anxiety. It does so in several different ways. One route to depression is through unfulfilled aspiration. People who impose on themselves standards of self-worth they judge they cannot attain drive themselves to bouts of depression. A second efficacy route to depression is through a low sense of social efficacy. People who judge themselves to be socially efficacious seek out and cultivate social relationships that provide models on how to manage difficult situations, cushion the adverse effects of chronic stressors and bring satisfaction to people's lives. Perceived social inefficacy to develop satisfying and supportive relationships increases vulnerability to depression through social isolation. Much human depression is cognitively generated by dejecting ruminative thought. A low sense of efficacy to exercise control over ruminative thought also contributes to the occurrence, duration and recurrence of depressive episodes.

Other efficacy-activated processes in the affective domain concern the impact of perceived coping self-efficacy on biological systems that affect health functioning. Stress has been implicated as an important contributing factor to many physical dysfunctions. Controllability appears to be a key
organizing principle regarding the nature of these stress effects. It is not stressful life conditions per se, but the perceived inability to manage them that is debilitating. Thus, exposure to stressors with ability to control them has no adverse biological effects. But exposure to the same stressors without the ability to control them impairs the immune system. The impairment of immune function increases susceptibility to infection contributes to the development of physical disorders and accelerates the progression of disease.

There are other ways in which perceived self-efficacy serves to promote health. Lifestyle habits can enhance or impair health. This enables people to exert behavioral influence over their vitality and quality of health. Perceived self-efficacy affects every phase of personal change whether people even consider changing their health habits; whether they enlist the motivation and perseverance needed to succeed should they choose to do so; and how well they maintain the habit changes they have achieved. The stronger the perceived self-regulatory efficacy the more successful people are in reducing health-imparing habits and adopting and integrating health-promoting habits into their regular lifestyle. Comprehensive community programs designed to prevent cardiovascular disease by altering risk-related habits reduce the rate of morbidity and mortality.

1.4.3.3 Selection Processes

The discussion so far has centered on efficacy-activated processes that enable people to create beneficial environments and to exercise some control
over those they encounter day in and day out. People are partly the product of their environment. Therefore beliefs of personal efficacy can shape the course lives take by influencing they types of activities and environments people choose. People avoid activities and situations they believe exceed their coping capabilities, but they readily undertake challenging activities and select situations they judge themselves capable of handling. By the choices they make, people cultivate different competencies, interests and social networks that determine life courses. Any factor that influences choice behavior can profoundly affect the direction of personal development. This is because the social influences operating in selected environments continue to promote certain competencies, values, and interests long after the efficacy decisional determinant has rendered its inaugurating effect.

Career choice and development is but one example of the power of self-efficacy beliefs to affect the course of life paths through choice-related processes. The higher the level of people's perceived self-efficacy the wider the range of career options they seriously consider, the greater their interest in them, and the better they prepare themselves educationally for the occupational pursuits they choose and the greater is their success. Occupations structure a good part of people's lives and provide them with a major source of personal growth.
1.4.4 Measures of Self-Efficacy:

1.4.4.1 Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale:

Schwarzer, R; Schmitz, G.S. and Daytner, G.T. (1999) developed the scale to identify the different job skills within the teaching profession. The four major areas of job skills related to teaching are: job performance, skill development on the job, social interaction with students, parents and colleagues and coping with job stress. This is a four point scale comprising ten items. The Cronbach’s alpha is found to be between 0.76 and 0.82 and the test-retest reliability is 0.67 and 0.76 respectively for a period of one year.

1.4.4.2 General Self Efficacy Scale (G.S.E.S)

This scale is developed by Jerusalem, Mathias and Schwarzar and Ralf (1992). The scale is designed for the general population, including adolescence. However, this test should not be used in the case of persons below the age of 12 years. Scoring responses are made on a four point scale and the sum of responses to all 10 items yield the final composite score with a range from 10-40.

It is reported that the Cronbach’s alpha ranged between 0.76 to 0.90.

1.4.4.3 Coping Self Efficacy Scale: (CSES)

This scale is developed by Margarut Chasney et al (2006). It consists of 26 items. This measures perceived self-efficacy for coping with challenges and threats.
Respondents are asked to rate on an 11 point scale. The extent to which they believe they could perform behaviours to adaptive coping. An overall CSES score was got by summing up all the item ratings of the scale.

The test retest-reliability and split half co-efficients are 0.57 and 0.56 respectively. And its validity ranged from 0.20 to 0.22 respectively.