CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Studies Related to Personality

In this chapter, the research scholar has presented the literature pertaining to the present study. The research scholar has made sincere effort to collect informations that are relevant the present study, from different libraries in Mysore, Bangalore, and Gwalior. Literature collected by the investigator has been outlined to provide background material for the present study. In cases where the most relevant literature was not available, the allied and peripheral literature has been presented.

Personality and adjustment of teachers would definitely influence the students behaviour. Jurgenliemk (1986) insisted that teachers should have awareness of the importance of their own personality and such sensitivity training in teacher education should be required

Delahunty (1984) in a study on Irish female teachers found that subjects were more dogmatic and authoritarian than American and English teachers and found relationship between lack of self-confidence, self-sufficiency, dominance and authoritarianism. Subjects with a more positive self-concept were more self-accepting and less predisposed toward authoritarian attitudes.

Schuttenberg, O'Dell and Kaczala (1990) found that length of service was not significantly related to assumption of a particular vocational personality type, but there
was a positive relationship between sex-role, self-perceptions and high job satisfaction for female and male subjects.

In a study on 112 student teachers, it was found that teaching behaviour like warmth, enthusiasm, clarity, variety, individualization, feedback, cognitive demand, freedom, and on-task activity were found to be highly interrelated (Briggs and Dickerscheid, 1985).

Feldman (1986) reviewed the literature correlating college teachers' personality characteristics with effectiveness in the classroom. The personality traits were grouped into fourteen clusters and significant average correlation between the traits and overall evaluations were found for eleven of the fourteen clusters.

Katz and Francis (1995) examined the personality, religiosity and computer oriented attitudes among trainee teachers and found a significant relationship between religiosity and attitude toward computer assisted instruction. Trainees who responded most positively to the induction programme were characterized by religiosity and tender than tough-mindedness, consistent with the view that these personality conditions respond more readily to social learning.

In a similar type of study Smith, Munday and Windham (1995) found that intuitive-thinking personality types were more likely to utilize technology in teaching, while sensory-feeling types were the least likely.
Studies on stress levels, gender and personality factors in teachers revealed that most of the teachers experienced moderate level of stress, no significant gender-related differences in stress, significant positive relation between stress and psychoticism and neuroticism, significant negative correlation between stress and extroversion were found (Fontana and Abouerie, 1993). Extroversion and neuroticism were found to be best predictors of stress levels. They concluded that personality dimensions appear to contribute more to stress levels than do the variables of either age or gender.

Hadfield and McNeil (1994) found that there is prevalence of high levels of anxiety in certain specific personality types.

Roy (1995) found that teachers were significantly more extroverted and anxious compared to physicians, bank managers and artists.

Goyal (1984) found slight personality differences in males and females at higher levels of creativity, but a relatively stable personality pattern differentiated males and females at lower levels.

Goyal (1984) also showed that intelligence was the only factor that significantly discriminated between high creative and low creative groups.
Parikh, Patel and Patel (1984) compared the personality characteristics of the most effective teachers and least effective teachers and found significant differences between two groups on various personality traits like introversion, extraversion, emotional stability, honesty, rigidity, flexibility and aggressiveness. The former group was found to be happy-go-lucky, self-sufficient, and extraverted, emotionally stable, honest, radical and consistent regarding leadership qualities. The latter group was serious, dependent, introverted and conservative and had few leadership qualities.

Cortis Gerald (1979) reported that teachers’ psychological, biographical and educational variables are significantly related to teacher success and satisfaction.

Yoder John (1992) highlighted that, the absence of appropriate personality or relationship skills precludes the instructional competence; and that the characteristics of teachers contribute more to teaching effectiveness; and that the teacher’s attitude towards teaching profession and his characteristics are closely related to each other.

Darrel and Harry (1998) examined student and teacher perceptions of classroom environment and teacher personality. 1,883 students in Grades 11 and 12 and 108 teachers participated. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Form G was used as a measure of teacher personality while student and teacher perceptions of classroom environment were assessed with the Secondary Colleges Classroom Environment Inventory. Significant associations between teacher personality type and perceptions of classroom environment were found; for example, both students and teachers perceived greater student
cohesiveness in the classes of extraverted teachers. Generally, students and teachers shared similar perceptions of the learning environment in association with the personality type of the teacher.

Darrell, Harry, and Barry (1998) investigated the relationship between student and teacher perceptions of teacher-student interpersonal behavior using the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) and teacher personality using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). 108 teachers from 8 secondary colleges (Grades 11 and 12) in Tasmania, Australia completed the MBTI and QTI and the students in 1 of the classes of each teacher completed the QTI. A greater positive association was found between teacher personality and self-perception of student-teacher interpersonal behavior than between teacher personality and their students' perceptions. Teacher personality appeared to be consistently associated with teacher self-perception of being friendly and helpful; giving freedom, responsibility and opportunity for independent work in class; uncertainty, maintaining a low profile; and being passive. Students' perceptions of their teacher's interpersonal behavior were related to the personality of the teacher in regard to how much freedom and responsibility students thought they were allowed. The relative proportions of the 16 personality types of the MBTI in the sample were determined and the college teachers were heavily represented by TJ (Thinking-Judging) types of personality (47.5%).

Cynthia, Carolyn and Beth (1996) describes the use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children in an urban middle
school to examine the impact of personality preferences on interpersonal communication and understanding in the learning environment. Ss were 7th graders and teachers. Results indicate that the majority of teachers have different personality preferences than do the majority of the students. Teachers and students who participated in the study report that heightened awareness regarding personality preferences increased the understanding and communication between student and teacher groups.

**Studies Related to Leadership**

Schnake, Cochran, and Dumler (1995) examined the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership behaviours, perceived equity, and organizational citizenship. 10 supervisors completed an organizational citizenship scale developed to rate the frequency in which their employees engaged in the various citizenship behaviours. Job satisfaction and leadership behaviour were also measured. Leader behaviour contributed to the organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Leader behaviour contributed to the predictive power of the leadership variables on all OCB dimensions. Only intrinsic job satisfaction contributed to OCB. Perceived equity did not exhibit an incremental effect beyond the effects of job satisfaction and leadership on 4 dimensions of OCB.

Burrows et al. (1996) investigated the predictive effects of certain leadership substitutes on the degree of teacher organizational commitment and general job satisfaction in a secondary school setting. A questionnaire packet containing instruments measuring substitutes for leadership, commitment, and satisfaction was sent to selected
secondary school teachers. A sample of 116 full-time secondary teachers responded. Stepwise multiple regression was used to analyze the data at the .05 level. The substitute for leadership, Professional Orientation was found to be statistically significant as a predictor of organizational commitment for secondary teachers. This substitute was inversely related to organizational commitment. Furthermore, 3 additional substitutes for leadership – Organizational Inflexibility, Intrinsic Satisfaction, and Spatial Distance – were found to be statistically significant as predictors of secondary teacher general job satisfaction.

Evans and Johnson (1990) determined the relationship between job satisfaction (JS), job-related stress (JRS), and teachers’ perception of principals’ leadership behaviour; and determined which factors or subscales of the principals’ leadership behaviour influenced JS and JRS among teachers. Questionnaires were completed by 166 middle and high school teachers in Florida. The questionnaire provided scores for JRS, JS, and leadership behaviour. Principals’ leadership behaviour was significantly related to JS and JRS of middle and high school teachers.

Gvanani and Agarwal (1998) explored the effects of classroom climate, teachers’ leadership behaviour, and teacher expectations of students on students’ achievement. The participants were 200 education degree-seeking college students and 16 supervisors, selected using non-probability sampling techniques. For the analysis of the data, three way ANOVA was used. Results showed significant independent effects of classroom climate, leadership behaviour of the teachers, and teachers expectations on the academic
achievement of the pupil teachers. However, the second and third order interactional effects were not found to be statistically significant.

Leithwood et al. (1996) tested a model of the effects of transformational school leadership on teacher burnout. Three major categories of factors associated with burnout are incorporated into the model: (1) personal factors i.e., personal goals, capacity and context beliefs, emotional arousal processes, (2) organizational support factors i.e., job demand, social support, and organizational support, and (3) transformational school leadership i.e., vision, goals, expectations, support, stimulation, modeling, culture, and structure. A secondary analysis of the factors was performed on a set of survey data from 331 teachers. Results of the analysis show that burnout is a psychological state created by teachers through their choice of features in their environments to notice, and their evaluations of those features. An indirect effect of leadership on teachers’ capacity beliefs is shown to be dependent upon teachers’ sense of personal accomplishment, which in turn is based upon organizational factors. In conclusion, the prevention of burnout depends upon the restructuring of schools to develop teachers being, and perception of themselves to be, increasingly successful in their work.

Cheng (1996) in his study of 58 principals, 1,476 teachers, and 7,969 students from 62 elementary schools shows that teachers’ professionalism at the school level was positively related to students’ affective educational outcomes. In classroom management, teachers with high professionalism tended to use more professional power, as perceived by students. Teachers in high-professionalism schools seemed to show more positive job
attitudes and feelings, higher spirit, and less disengagement. Professionalism was strongly associated with school formalisation and all measures of principal’s leadership. principal’s human leadership, teachers’ disengagement, and school formalization were the strongest predictors of professionalism at the school level. The profiles of high-and-low professionalism schools were contrastingly different in terms of students’ educational outcomes, classroom management, teachers’ job attitudes and feelings, and school organizational factors.

Shimizu et al. (1997) examined selection, motivation, and problems faced by leaders in relief shelters during the 1995 earthquake in Hanshin, Japan. First, this study investigated the operation of the relief shelters, including relief activities, focusing on the leaders of the shelters. Next, this study concentrated on factors contributing to the effective management of the shelters. Three weeks following the earthquake, data were collected on 3 domains (conditions of the emergency facilities, how leaders were selected, and what managerial problems they faced) from interviews with volunteer workers and with 32 leaders of the relief shelters. Three types of motivation for becoming leaders were revealed: (1) occurring naturally as an outcome of their activities, (2) by their own choice, and (3) due to their regular job positions. Results show that the most effective management of the relief shelters was under leaders chosen by the last method; that is, those who held positions of leadership in their regular jobs.

Atwater et al. (1998) examined attributes of leaders that influenced their use of contingent and noncontingent punishment and the results of using punishment on leader
effectiveness. Subjects were 225 male cadet leaders (juniors) and 227 male subordinates (sophomores). Results indicated that leaders with higher levels of physical fitness and moral reasoning were more likely to use contingent punishment, while those with lower self-esteem were more likely to use noncontingent punishment. Noncontingent punishment negatively impacted leader effectiveness, while contingent punishment positively impacted leader effectiveness.

Graham and Cockriel (1996) used the new ACT College Outcomes Survey to evaluate the effects of college on the personal and social self-concept and development of a national sample of 9,348 undergraduate students. Indexes of “personal growth attributed to college attendance” were developed for each of 36 items as an indicator of “college effect” considering the interaction of student growth and the college role in that development. These indexes indicated that colleges had tangible impact for 28 of the 36 areas and suggest to college administrators the areas of personal and social development where college has its greatest effects. Factor analysis was also used to identify 4 general factors including (1) intra-personal development, (2) personal valuing and moral development, (3) social leadership and development, and (4) civic involvement and awareness. A weighted – average score for the 4 factors produced average index values with the highest score in the area of intra-personal development, followed by social leadership and development, civic involvement and awareness, and personal valuing and moral development.
Carless (1998) tested B. Bass's (1985) proposition that transformational leadership can be defined by distinct constructs (charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration). Using LISREL 8 confirmatory factor analysis, a three-factor first-order model (Model 1) was compared with a single-factor model (Model 2) and a hierarchical model (Model 3). The sample consisted of 1440 subordinates who worked in Australia for an international bank. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ – 5X; B. Avolio, B. Bass & D.I. Jung, 1995) was used to assess transformational leadership. The findings showed that a multidimensional first-order model and a hierarchical model both fitted the data. Based on the evidence presented, it was argued that the MLQ assesses a single higher order construct of transformational leadership and that there is little evidence to support the contention that the MLQ measures distinct transformational leader behaviours.

Church and Waclawski (1998) explored the link between individual differences in personality orientation and subsequent leadership behaviours in the workplace. More specifically, relationships among 2 measures of personality and 1 measure of transformational-transactional leadership style were investigated using data collected from 253 senior executives (and their direct reports) from a highly diversified global corporation. After an initial examination of the personality variables using a correlational approach, a k-means cluster analysis was used to generate four distinct “groups” based on a mean personality orientation or style exhibited. These groups were levelled accordingly in order to reflect the dispositional characteristics among each cluster of executives: (1) innovators for change or inventors; (2) analytical coordinators or
managers; (3) organized pragmatists or implementors; and (4) enthusiastic idealists or motivators. Subsequent ANOVA models using these cluster groups yielded significant differences with respect to the perceptions of both executives and their direct reports of their leadership behaviour. In general, inventors and motivators were found to be more transformational in their leadership style than managers and implementors.

Geyer and Steyrer (1998) examined the relations between transformational / transactional leadership and performance indicators of 20 different banks, using a sample of some 1,500 observations. Leadership behaviour is measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which is used for the first time in the German-speaking area. The psychometric quality of the German MLQ is analysed and found to be inadequate. And therefore derive and cross-validated a modified four-factor MLQ. This is the first empirical study that relates leadership behaviour to objective performance indicators without any qualitative or subjective influence. Objective performance measures take into account customer features and local market conditions, and show whether reasonable targets are over- or underperformed. Based on LISREL model estimates they found support for the hypothesis that transformational leadership affects performance over and above transactional leadership. Another new aspect of this study is the distinction between long-term and short-term performance. Core dimensions of transformational leadership are more strongly related to long-term than to short-term performance. Individualized consideration is positively related to short-term but negatively related to long-term performance.
Piro et al. (1996) investigated the power of the Average Leadership Style (ALS) and Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) models of leadership in explaining relationships between leader’s initiating structure behaviour and consideration behaviour, and subordinates’ attitudes and perceptions in 2 occupational samples of 127 family physicians and 155 nurses working in 28 Primary Health Care Teams. The considered dependent variables were 5 facets of job satisfaction, 2 role stress variables (role conflict and ambiguity), 1 role strain indicator (job tension), and 4 dimensions of workteam climate. Within and between analysis and contextual analysis were applied in order to determine the appropriate level of analysis (group as expected from ALS or individual as expected from VDL) for studying the relationships between leader consideration and initiating structure behaviours and the dependent variables. Results showed the prevalence of the VDL model in most of the cases although 2 of the relationships studied fitted the ALS model.

Sosik, Avolio and Kahai (1998) examined the effects of group members’ perceptions of behavioural components of transformational and transactional leadership on group creativity under anonymous and identified electronic brainstorming conditions. 159 undergraduates were assigned a 20 minute task to generate recommendations for the Center of Commercial Competitiveness. Results show that perceptions of transactional goal setting and inspirational leadership were each positively related to group creativity. Intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration were negatively related to group creativity. Except for the effect of intellectual stimulation on group creativity, these effects were stronger under anonymous versus identified conditions.
Witkowski (1997) investigated predictors of management effectiveness in Polish organisations. 41 of 121 people were chosen for the study based on a competitive procedure that was designed to pick persons for high management positions. Subjects completed a battery of tests and were assessed in the presence of a psychologist, an economist, and a management specialist. The experts checked each candidate's knowledge, skills, and personality traits. The author made positive prognosis based on a psychological diagnosis that used 12 predictors to obtain information about 31 traits. Subjects were evaluated on general, social and intellectual effectiveness. After a minimum of 2 years, subjects were followed-up in order to evaluate the author's predictions. Results show that those subjects who were effective managers were characterized by intellectual skills, self-confidence, and dominance. Independent in their thinking and acting, successful subjects demonstrated social liberty, psychological awareness, and the ability to manipulate other people (machiavellism). The successful subjects were performance-oriented which often made them neglect the opinions and needs of their coworkers.

Studies Related to Self-concept and Self-conflict

Langan-Fox (1992) measured important goals and their persistence over time for 95 men and 110 women (1st and 3rd year university students, aged 18 and 20 years respectively) using a theoretical framework that links motivation to the self-concept. A method for categorizing S goals was adapted from J. Nuttin (1985), namely the Motivational 'Content Analysis. Females had more persisting goals than males, and there
were significant main effects for sex in persisting goal types of physical, character, autonomy, intimacy, and contact in general with others. Sex by age interaction effects were found for character and autonomy, with 20 year old females obtaining significantly higher scores for these persisting goals than other groups.

Yates (1980) analysed the self-perceived self-concept of 665 adults enrolled in an adult education programme, administering the Cooper Smith Self-esteem Inventory together with the original demographic questionnaire, and used the two-way and one-way analysis of variance to test the null hypothesis, with demographic characteristics of age, sex, urban and rural residence, and race as the independent variables, and self-concept scores as the dependent variable. Main effects of sex and race were found to be significant, with males scoring higher than females and blacks scoring higher than whites; additionally, a significant interaction between sex and race was found, where black males tended to score significantly higher than all other sex and race interactions. Supplementary findings indicated a generally stable set of seven factors by using Kaiser's Criterion.

Vogel (1980) conducted a study to determine creative perception and self-concepts of community college vocational-technical and academic students with 191 subjects with the purposes of finding differences between the groups and the relations between the self-concept and creative perception among the groups and found, that statistically significant differences existed among black and white American students and Mexican-American students in certain parameters; and that no statistically significant
ionships were found to exist between creativity and self-concept for ethnic
utional-technical or academic respondents.

Nwachukwu (1983) in his study on 90 students from a teacher training college in
Nigeria, attempted to find the relationship of self-concept or self-perception and
vocational choice. He concluded, that many aspects of the subject's self-perceptions or
descriptions did not correlate significantly with their descriptions of the typical persons
found in their chosen vocation and the subjects perceived the typical members of their
chosen vocations more favourably than the typical members of least-preferred vocation.

Camp (1980) studied the changes in self-concept and attitudes towards teaching
among seven curricular groups of pre-service secondary school teachers enrolled in
university, during the student teaching programme and identified that, the self-concept
would change in both directions during student teaching experience; age was
significantly correlated with self-concept, their commitments were found to be significant
predictors of self-concept; their feelings of teaching both present and future were
significantly related to self-concept; and the strongest predictors of self-concept and
changes in self-concept were those variables relating to student teacher commitments and
the environment into which the student teachers were placed; and that the commitments
were shown to be related to changes in attitude toward teaching during the study.

Close (1981) investigated the self-concept of 113 adults enrolled in adult basic
education classes and the relationship of their self-concept to selected demographic and
sociological variables. He concluded that age and sex were the independent variables
most often found to be related to various dimensions of the self-concept of the respondents. Males were found to have a more positive mean total, family, moral-ethical, behaviour, and social self-concepts than females. Also, the mean total, family moral-ethical, personal, self-satisfaction behaviour and social dimensions of the self-concept of the respondents increased as age increased; males were found to have a more positive mean total in different variables under consideration. He also found that the race was more significantly related to the physical self-concept and level of educational attainment was significantly related to self-satisfaction. The independent variables considered in the study did not account for majority of the variance in the dependent variables. In particular, level of educational attainment did not seem to be a significant determiner of self-concept.

Nwachukwu (1992) investigated whether a significant relationship between self-concept and vocational choice would obtain for 100 subjects from a Nigerian teacher training college for men. Each subject was given three adjective check-list booklets and asked to mark in separate booklets adjectives that were (1) self-descriptive, (2) descriptive of the kind of person found in the subjects chosen vocation, and (3) descriptive of the kind of person found in the least-preferred occupation. Correlation between the subject's descriptions of themselves and their descriptions of a typical member of their chosen vocation were only marginally significant. Subjects used more favourable terms to describe a person in their chosen vocation than a person in their least-preferred vocation. The subjects on the whole consider the person in their chosen vocation as important.
In a study conducted by Street (1992) 110 police trainees and 477 under-graduates completed a complexity of self-concept inventory. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-tests showed no differences between groups in self-complexity scores, indicating that police trainees use as many dimensions in self-perception as do under-graduates.

Walsh (1974) administered the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Career Questionnaire (Form IV), the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), and the Vocational Development Inventory to 54 male and 54 female under-graduates. Congruent, incongruent, and undecided college major choice groups were defined using VPI. Results tentatively suggest that congruent males and females tend to report more specificity in occupational planning and implementation of preferences through major field choice than other groups (particularly the undecided male and female groups). Data support J.L. Holland’s 1966 theory that congruent person-environment relations are associated with vocational stability and maturity.

Marsh’s (1998) studies on age and gender effects in 10 physical self-concept scales for elite athletes and nonathletes were based on responses from 899 participants in 4 age cohorts (grades 7-10 in high school) who completed the same instrument 4 times during a 2-year period. A multicohort-multioccasion design provides a stronger basis for assessing developmental differences than a cross-sectional comparison collected on a single occasion or a longitudinal comparison based on responses by a single age cohort collected on multiple occasions. Across all 10 physical self-concepts there were substantial differences due to group (athletes > nonathletes), gender (males > females),
gender group interactions (athletes < nonathletes in gender differences). There were significant effects of age cohort and only very small effects of occasions. Thus longitudinal and cross-sectional comparisons both showed that mean levels of physical self-concept were stable over this potentially volatile adolescent period and that this stability generalized over gender, age, and athlete groups.

Wolf and Ruediger (1997) have made attempts to link the physical self and involvement in sport with identity formation during the turmoil of the adolescent years. The details of some specific components are presented, and the extent to which they vary according to gender, age, and sport involvement in a large sample of 12-21 yr olds in Germany is detailed. The physical self-concepts of adolescents are set alongside other aspects of the self-concept such as academic and social relationships. There is good empirical evidence that sport involvement, even at the highest levels, does not have a negative impact on the self-concept and that it may have considerable benefit in this regard. Sport appears to provide an arena for achievement, and the development of a positive physical self-concept may contribute to other aspects of self-concept and self-esteem.

Robert (1997) in his study attempts to trace the development of newer measures and models for studying the physical self-concept. Emphasis is placed on presenting the newer information about the physical self that these measures and models have developed. The research reviewed shows that people are able to distinguish among 4 levels of generality in attributing personal characteristics to the self. A path analysis exhibited model structure and variable associations that were reliable over time.
perceived physical competence proved capable of predicting subsequent athletic performance. The net effect of much of this research is to provide preliminary evidence that physical self-components possess certain attributes that are generally ascribed to global self-esteem.

In their study, Harbert et al. (1997) administered Physical Self-Description Questionnaire (PSDQ) to elite athletes and nonelite high school students (N = 1,514). Physical self-concepts were higher for elite than for nonelite groups, and for boys than for girls, but gender differences were smaller for elite athletes. Responses were also higher for nonsports high school students than for nonelite athletes in an athleticism selective school. Confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated the invariance of factor loadings for the 11 PSDQ scales across the 4 groups, and factor variances and correlations across the 2 elite-athlete groups and the 2 nonelite groups. PSDQ factors were more distinct for elite athletes, but relations between global esteem and the PSDQ scales were no higher. Results demonstrate the appropriateness of the PSDQ and extend understanding of self-concept in school settings.

Veenman, Jonghe and Wezel (1996) in their study described the implementation effects of a program for the training of coaching skills with Dutch school counsellors. Coaching was intended to provide teachers with feedback on their own functioning and thereby stimulate self-reflection and self-analysis in order to improve instructional effectiveness. To assist school counsellors in their attempts to coach teachers, a training program was designed. A quasi-experimental, treatment-control group investigation was set up to test the effects of this program. Based on the pre- and post-training ratings of
coaching conferences, a significant treatment effect was found for the coaching skills concerned with the development of autonomy (empowerment), feedback, and purposefulness. The pre- and post-training ratings from coached teachers showed no significant treatment effects. Positive ratings from the coached teachers indicated that the coaching conferences improved their instruction.

Garg (1993) examined the influences of demographic, social, health, and recent life-change experiences on four facets of academic self-concept and nine facets of non-academic self-concept. Subjects were 150 under-graduates. Multiple regression analysis showed that, in general, past academic performance, family structure and family satisfaction were important predictors of academic self-concept. Family structure, family satisfaction, social satisfaction, mental stress associated with recent life-change experiences, and health factors in general were important predictors of non-academic self-concept. Recent life-change experiences and mental health were significantly associated, more prominently among subjects who were low on emotional self-concept than those who scored high.

James (1983) investigated the perceived attitudes of self-concept of educationally disadvantaged vocational students, vocational students, and academic students by administering the Piers-Harris children's self-concept scale. The self-concept scores of 311 students from the three groups were tested for significance by an analysis of variance. The conclusions drawn from the findings of the study were that disadvantaged students possessed positive self-concept, although lower than those of other two groups; the lowered self-concept was observed among the disadvantaged group regardless of sex,
age or years of placement in the programme; and disadvantaged females had significantly lower self-concepts than any other group.

House (1992) investigated the relationship between 996 male and 1,328 female college students' academic self-concept, their achievement-related expectancies, and their subsequent college persistence. Findings show that questionnaire items that assessed students' academic self-concept were better predictors of persistence than were expectancies for success in college. There were some differences between men and women in which variables were significantly associated with persistence. Most notably, self-perceptions of mathematical ability were significantly associated with persistence for both 4 and 8 semesters for women but not for men. Neither of the 2 student expectancies directly related to persistence (expectations of dropping out temporarily or permanently) were significantly related to persistence.

Griffore and others (1980) have made an effort to determine the relationship between college students’ academic self-concept and academic achievement. Brookover's Self-concept of Ability Scale was administered to 100 under-graduates. High moderate correlations were obtained between academic self-concept and over-all GPA (0.58), but the correlation between academic self-concept and a final examination, although significant, was relatively low (0.26). Academic self-concept was moderately high.
“The general finding of Martire’s (1957) study was that subjects who obtained high n achievement scores under both Neutral and Achievement-motivating conditions were found to have a significantly greater discrepancy between their self-ideal and self-ratings on the five achievement-related traits combined than subjects in three other categories….. which were also based upon measures of strength and generality of n achievement.”

Ian, Adrian, and Christina (1998) re-examined the topic using a more representative sample and a contemporary self-concept measure, the Self-Description Questionnaire-1. From an initial screening of 515 9.4-11.3 yr old coeducational students in 18 schools, Ss significantly high or low in self-concept were compared using standardized tests in reading, spelling, and mathematics, and teacher interviews to determine Ss' academic and nonacademic characteristics. Compared to Ss with low self-concept, Ss with high self-concept were rated by teachers as being more popular, cooperative, and persistent in class, showed greater leadership, were lower in anxiety, had more supportive families, and had higher teacher expectations for their future success. Teachers observed that Ss with low self-concept were quiet and withdrawn, while peers with high self-concept were talkative and more dominating with peers. Ss with lower self-concepts were also lower than their peers in reading, spelling, and mathematical abilities. Findings support the notion that there is an interactive relationship between self-concept and achievement.

Claire (1998) verified the relation between the types of the social self-concept of 12 year old school children and their interpersonal relationship. It considered the
olarity of children's social self-concepts as well as how they were evaluated by teachers and peers in order to assess the congruency between these evaluations and the students' self-evaluations. The methodology consisted of (1) evaluation of the children's social self-concept (Self-Perception Profile Children); (2) teacher evaluation of the children (Teacher's Rating of Child Perception); and (3) evaluation of the children's sociometric status via a peer nomination procedure. Results indicate that the children with positive-congruent social self-concept were significantly more selected as playmates than the children with other types of self-concept (positive-incongruent, negative-congruent, negative-incongruent, and average). Furthermore, the children with negative-congruent social self-concept were significantly more rejected than the children with other types of self-concept (positive-congruent, positive-incongruent, negative-incongruent, and average). The results suggest the type of social self-concept influences the behavior of others toward this person.

Edward, Ronald and Barbara (1996) assessed the effects of placement settings on the self-concept of 75 7th grade special and general education students. The placement settings for English classes were an inclusive education classroom, a conflict resolution group, and a general education classroom with a regular curriculum format. The Ss in the inclusive education group scored significantly higher than the Ss in the regular curriculum group on measures of both perceived school behavior and personal self-concept. Statistically significant teacher-student intercorrelations on both measures were observed in the regular curriculum group.
Chaudhari and others (1993) compared the self-concept, locus of control, and adjustment of intellectually superior (ISP) students with those of intellectually normal (INR) students. 48 ISP and 57 INR students were selected from the 7th, 8th, and 9th standards and were administered measurement scales. Results indicate that the ability of both groups to adjust appears to be similar and is thus not influenced by intelligence, that intelligence does not seem to influence the locus of control and that there is a significantly positive relationship between intelligence and self-concept. The ISP subjects had a higher self-concept:

**Studies Related to Motivation**

Mukhopadhyay and Jayanti (1997) explored the factors of high achievement from the perspective of higher education personnel. 72 male university teachers and educational administrators (aged 38-48 yrs) provided a list of traits required in a student for high achievement in post-graduate examinations, and graded these traits according to their importance. These items, checked for duplication, converged into 17 traits which were subjected to cluster analysis. Five clusters emerged which were named the intellectual factor, educational adjustment, personality integration, persistence and physical health. It is concluded that persons associated with the education system consider the non-intellective factors as much relevant to success as the intellective ones. The necessity of incorporating the educationists' point of view in understanding achievement is discussed.
Jennifer (1997) examined work motivation using personal investment theory as a theoretical framework in a sample of 73 public secondary school physical education teachers. Ss voluntarily completed SPECTRUM, a 200-item Likert Scale Inventory that measures 20 self and work perception categories. Results show few within-group perception differences based on gender, age, years of teaching experience, or job capacity. Comparisons between these Ss and a preexisting normative sample show that these Ss reported significantly lower incentives for accomplishment and recognition, and significantly higher affiliation incentives. Ss also reported significantly fewer perceived opportunities for recognition and power and significantly lower levels of organizational commitment. It is concluded that these findings provide preliminary insight into how teachers' perceptions of themselves, their jobs, and their work environments may operate together to result in common behavioral patterns.

Patrick, Hicks and Ryan (1997) selected 380 male and 373 female 5th graders who participated in an investigation of the association between students' perceived academic efficacy and both their perceived social efficacy and their social goals (to be socially responsible and to form intimate social relationships with peers). Data indicate that females felt more efficacious than males in their interactions with their teachers and endorsed both responsibility and intimacy goals more strongly than did males. No gender difference was found for social efficacy with peers. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that Ss' perceptions of their social efficacy both teacher and peers and their endorsement of responsibility goals were related significantly to their academic efficacy after accounting for prior achievement and gender. Findings indicate that such social
perceptions are important for students' academic progress and that teachers should pay serious attention to students' social relationships in the classroom.

Singh, Mishra and Kim (1998) investigated the effects of intrinsic motivation to do research and perceived lack of rewards contingent on doing research on burnout or disenchantment from research. Findings, based on a survey of 328 faculty at a major university, indicate that these two variables account for 74% and 81% of the variance in scores on a scale relating to burnout among 260 tenured and 68 untenured professors, respectively. The effect of perceived lack of rewards contingent on doing research on burnout was moderated by the tenure status.

Reeve (1998) examined the motivating styles of 301 beginning preservice teachers by asking 2 questions: (1) Do personality characteristics orient preservice teachers toward either an autonomy-supportive or controlling motivating style? and (2) Is the autonomy-supportive style teachable to preservice teachers? Study 1, which addressed the 1st question, relied on self-determination theory to identify and confirm causality orientation as 1 personality characteristic related to motivating style. Study 2, which addressed the 2nd question, randomly assigned preservice teachers to receive training in either autonomy-supportive, controlling, or neutral instructional strategies. Results showed that the autonomy-supportive style was teachable. Autonomy-oriented preservice teachers (as measured by causality orientation) assimilated the information rather easily, while control-oriented preservice teachers accommodated the information only in proportion to the extent that they perceived it to be highly plausible and
classroom applicable. The discussion relies on self-determination theory and the conceptual change literature to recommend how teacher certification programs can assist teachers-in-training develop an autonomy supportive motivating style.

LeBlanc and McCrary (1990) designed a questionnaire that was sent to 90 publishing researchers who were members of college music faculties in the fields of music theory, music history, music education, and music therapy asking them why they engaged in research activity and what specific rewards they believe they obtained because of their own research. Among the 55 respondents (aged 32-72 yrs), intellectual curiosity, enjoyment, self-improvement, and perceived duty were the main reasons for conducting research. Intrinsic motivators linked to the nature of the research process were the most important reward for these people, while salary increase was considered the most important external reward.

Hackman's (1987) job characteristics model of work motivation is described and applied to English language teaching, with concrete recommendations made on the basis of Hackman's action principles for job design. By attending to these job design principles, those charged with setting up and running English language teaching units create the conditions for teachers to reap the maximum rewards from their profession, including opportunities for long term growth and career advancement and an increased sense of self-actualization and empowerment. As teachers grow and prosper, so do the language programs and the larger field of English as a second language with which they are associated.
Tawata and Ogawa (1986) indicated that at the start of the subjects’ employment, the traditional variables of employment motivation and age correlated with vocational attitudes.

Soldan (1980) found that teachers working with behaviour disordered children tend to have a strong need for dominance, affiliation, and achievement and tend not to have a strong need for endurance, change, abasement and aggression.

Studies Related to Job Satisfaction

Darey, Kusznikow and Lester (1995) examined whether special education teachers were less satisfied with their jobs than teachers in regular elementary and high school classrooms. Results revealed that two groups did not differ in overall job satisfaction.

Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) investigated the effect of teacher’s decision participation and school climate on self-efficiency and job satisfaction. Aspects of school climate emerged as stronger predictors of job satisfaction than did the elements of decision participation. Lack of obstacles to teaching and principal’s leadership was the strongest factors in school climate decisions.

Graham, West and Kristi (1992) proposed a relational teaching approach (RTA) comprised of behaviors indicative of competence, immediacy, and humor and examined the association between the RTA and teacher satisfaction. 211 college professors
completed a competence measure, an immediacy scale, and a humor index. The results of
a canonical correlation reveal one meaningful canonical foot, which suggest a significant
association between the RTA and an instructor's satisfaction. Apparently, it is within
teachers' control to enhance satisfaction with their job by developing a repertoire of
interpersonal skills. Implications of these findings are addressed within an instructional
framework.

Hossain (1992) in his study designed to measure and compare the job satisfaction
of the secondary school teachers in Dhaka city of Bangladesh. A total of 100 secondary
school teachers (50 from public and 50 from private schools) from 20 different schools
were selected on a random basis as Ss for the study. Ss were asked to complete 3 scales
measuring job satisfaction. Results suggest that most Ss are satisfied with their jobs. In
addition, it was found that public school teachers have higher levels of job satisfaction
than private school teachers. Job security, recognition of good work, application of sound
management principles, and working environment were reported to be the most important
factors in determining job satisfaction for private school teachers. Public school teachers
considered salary, job security, recognition of good work, and advancement opportunities
as the most important factors for job satisfaction. Important causes of job dissatisfaction
among the private school teachers were job insecurity, under influence of managing
committee, and poor salary. The public school teachers consider poor salary,
undemocratic conditions, lack of advancement opportunities, and poor working
conditions as important causes of job dissatisfaction.
Boston and Boston (1998) in their study examined the professional satisfaction of teachers in urban middle schools. Two questions were addressed: (1) How congruent are teachers' perceptions of the importance of various aspects of their jobs and their reported satisfaction with those components; and (2) Do teachers in more, as compared to less, effective schools differ in their ratings of importance and satisfaction with various aspects of their job. Interviews and questionnaires from 92 teachers in 4 urban middle schools were used to assess the importance and satisfaction they assigned to various aspects of their jobs. Teacher-pupil relationships ranked highest overall in terms of importance and satisfaction. Parent-teacher relationships commanded respondents' highest concern. Teachers in the lower achieving schools were more dissatisfied with teacher-teacher relationships and their school's curriculum than those in the higher achieving schools, and they reported a greater discrepancy in student achievement. Principals are advised to act on issues that erode teacher satisfaction by promoting teacher involvement in decision making and simultaneously focusing on education reforms.

Bhatt (1997) had investigated the correlation between PSTs' job stress, job involvement, and job satisfaction. A random sample of 120 male and 120 female PSTs aged 18-59 yrs from public and private schools of Jamnagar city completed D. J. Bhatt's (1994) job stress scale, T. M. Lodhal and M. Kejner's (1965) job involvement scale, Bhatt's (1986) job satisfaction scale (Gujarati adaptation) and PDS. Results indicate that the PSTS' job stress was highly significantly negatively associated with their job involvement and job satisfaction and that job involvement was highly significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction. Job involvement was significantly positively
correlated with 14 job factors and in 2 cases the correlation was positive, but not significant even at .05 level per cent.

Hanna (1997) assessed teachers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their work, as well as their perceptions of the source of difficulties in teaching, as a function of their participation in an in-service instructional change project. A 2-part questionnaire was administered to the teachers in the 9 participating junior high schools both prior to the start of the project (n = 393) and 2.5 yrs later (n = 313). The 1st part obtained statements regarding their satisfaction with their work, while the 2nd part asked about the sources of their difficulties in teaching heterogeneous classrooms. Analysis of statements from Part 1 revealed that satisfaction remained stable over the period of the study while their statements of dissatisfaction declined from the pretest to the post-test. The 2nd part of the questionnaire found that teachers consider their pupils to constitute the main source of their difficulties in teaching rather than their training as teachers or the availability of the proper conditions. This factor declined in salience over the period of the study, but remained the most noteworthy source of difficulty, in the perception of these teachers. Results also reveal differences between schools in teachers expression of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their work.

Barbara, Drora and Fadia (1997) studied an empirical investigation was made of a model for predicting commitment to teaching as measured by the extent to which teachers expressed an unwillingness to change careers. Predictor variables included personal variables as well as job-related factors. Data are reported from 175 teachers who had completed their preservice training at an Israeli teachers college over a ten-year
period. Results indicated that only job satisfaction could directly predict commitment. Other factors, such as professional self-image, abilities, gender, job advancement, and pupil grade level were indirectly related, generally through their relationship with satisfaction. Teaching experience was unrelated to other variables in the model.

Vivian and Paula (1996) examined the relationship among perceptions of empowerment, job satisfaction, and commitment of 612 public school teachers from 39 schools in a northeastern state. Instruments used to collect data included the School Participant Empowerment Scale (SPES), the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), and a demographic form. Pearson product moment correlations and stepwise multiple regressions indicated that teachers' perceptions of their level of empowerment are significantly related to their perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Among the 6 subscales of the SPES, Self-Efficacy and Professional Growth were significant predictors of job satisfaction while Professional Growth, Self-Efficacy, and Status were significant predictors of commitment.

David and Thomas (1996) studied the probability and potential causes of special education teachers' resignations from their current teaching positions. 158 rural special education teachers, 21-66 yrs old, completed a questionnaire and provided written comments on their short-term (1 yr) and long-term (5 yrs) career plans. Only 57% of the Ss indicated that it was likely that they would be in the same or similar position in 5 yrs. Those who anticipated leaving reported frustration with the system and a lack of support, time, and recognition.
Singh and Billingsley (1996) examined work-related variables to determine if the factors that influence job satisfaction, professional commitment, and intent to continue in the profession were the same among 130 teachers of students with emotional disorders as they were among 412 special educators from other fields. The independent variables included job stress, employability, role problems, and principal support. For both groups of teachers, the most important determinant of intent to stay in teaching was workplace conditions. For both groups, job satisfaction had the strongest direct positive effect on intent to stay and role-related problems had negative effects on intent to stay. Principal support influenced intent indirectly through role-related problems and job satisfaction. Stress had an adverse indirect effect on intent to stay through job satisfaction and professional commitment.

Abu and Isralowitz (1992) found that higher the educational level of teachers, the higher the level of satisfaction with work itself and the level of JS was higher among female teachers.

White Paula (1992) reported that job satisfaction is significantly related to the opportunity in the profession. Clark Christopher (1992) found that job satisfaction is significantly related to recognition, status, workload and rewards. Hellers Williams (1993) reported that leadership behaviour, co-workers behaviour are significantly related to their job satisfaction.
Ushashree and Chandraiah (1990) used the Work Values Inventory and the Cornell JDI on professional and non-professional college teachers. Teachers in the professional colleges enjoyed more job satisfaction. Study by Indiresan (1982) on teachers from higher technological institutions found no relation between job satisfaction and bureaucratic orientation. A cross cultural study by the same author (Indiresan, 1981), on English and Indian teachers revealed that English subjects expressed greater job satisfaction than did Indian subjects, who had greater expectations for the future.

Abraham (1994) investigated the relationship among levels of job satisfaction, teacher effectiveness and length of service tenure among college teachers and found that teachers with high and medium levels of job satisfaction were more effective than those with low job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was independent of length of service and related solely to an individual’s attitude towards his or her job.

But studies conducted by Mukthamath, Gaonkar and Khadi (1991) on college teachers especially women teachers revealed that family responsibility and attitude toward teaching were the most influential factors for job involvement and satisfaction. Family responsibilities and job involvement were inversely related.

Smith and Fredrick (1977) reported that job satisfaction is significantly related to the place of work and the culture of the students.
Demp's Henry Willie (1979) found that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction for middle school teachers and their biographical characteristics of gender, age, years of experience in the profession.

Bowen Blank (1980) highlighted that job satisfaction of teacher educators did not significantly differ in terms of types of employing institution, academic rank, tenure and studies. Further it was found that there is no relationship between the job-satisfaction of teachers and their age and experience.

Antoneahia Donald (1983) studied the classroom conflict management and secondary school teachers job satisfaction and found that there is a relationship between job satisfaction with gender, age and experience. Further, it was found that male teachers’ level of job satisfaction is higher than female teachers.

Similansky (1984) revealed that job satisfaction is significantly related to the internal factors like perceived general life satisfaction, self efficiency, the external factors like principal, other teachers and pupil, parents feelings about the teacher.

Sampon Theophilus Nimley (1984) reported that elementary teachers are more satisfied with teaching as a profession but they are dis-satisfied with salary, pay, time, physical facilities, professional growth, large classes and work load.

Quick and Quick (1984), Eckles (1987) found that health and psychological outcomes are the major factors of job satisfaction.