CHAPTER - II
REVIEWS OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature is of paramount importance for the researcher. It is through the review of related studies that the researcher knows the work that has already been done over a period of time. He knows the areas untouched or unexplored and has an idea of the scope of the subject or the study in all aspects. To quote Good (1972), without a critical study of the related literature the investigator will be groping in the dark and perhaps uselessly, repeat the work already done. Therefore, to save time, energy, and resources, it is necessary to undertake a detailed and penetrating study of all available literature.

Review of related literature serves as a guide post not only with regard to the quantum of work done in the field but also enables us to perceive the gap and lacuna in the concerned field of research. The investigator’s analysis and review of such resourceful studies work as an impetus which pushes the investigator into greater details and wider applicability of the problems in hand to provide new ideas, theories, explanations or hypotheses.

This chapter devoted to review available literatures is relevant to the present study. An effort has been made to present a review of pertinent literature which is likely to have a direct or indirect bearing on this study.

Adyemo and Ogunyemi (2012) in their research work explained the interactive and relative effects of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy on occupational stress of University academic staff. It made use of simple random sampling in selecting 300 academic staff from all the eight faculties of the institution. The study sample responded to three valid and reliable instruments, i.e. Emotional intelligence scale, General perceived self-efficacy scale and occupational stress scale. Data analysis involved the use of Pearson correlation and multiple regression procedure to investigate predictive capacity of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The results indicated that the two independent variables, when taken together, were effective in predicting occupational stress. Each of the variables contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational stress with self-
efficacy, making higher contribution to the prediction of occupational stress. On the basis of this finding, it is suggested that emotional intelligence programming and self-efficacy intervention techniques will benefit teachers immensely in coping with stress.

_Indoo and Ajeya (2012)_ revealed a strong correlation between emotional intelligence and occupational stress of the faculty members. It also revealed a significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence (EI) of the medical and engineering faculty members with latter having higher EI but the difference in their Occupational Stress Index (OSI) scores was insignificant. Gender wise difference on the scores of OSI and EI was also not significant. A sample of 239 faculty members was selected using random and judgmental sampling method.

_Jahanian, Zolfaghari and Bagherpour (2012)_ examined relationship between the Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Tehran educational principals’ Efficacy. 1732 assistants among all Tehran high school assistants in 1388 were chosen by systematic randomizing. The instruments of the study were Shring’s EI questionnaire and the researcher’s questionnaire based on efficacy factors of schools’ principals. The results revealed that there are significant relationships among Emotional Intelligence, the principal’s guidance of teachers, friendly behaviors towards teachers, helping students, good relationship with students’ parents, rating skill, and principals’ conducting of schools’ affairs.

_Jamshidi, Pool and Khoshkorodi (2012)_ studied the impact of emotional intelligence on employees' self-efficacy at Isfahan University. Methodology of the survey was descriptive-analytical and based on structural equations modeling. Statistical population includes all employees of Isfahan University in 2011. Therefore, one-hundred seventy employees were selected using random-cluster sampling method. Tools of data collection are Goleman's emotional intelligence questionnaire and Sherer et al's self-efficacy questionnaire. This survey illustrates that emotional intelligence and its dimensions (self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, sympathy and social skills) play an important role in employees' self-efficacy and influence of training emotional intelligence components and the information related to emotional intelligence at the workplace could have a considerable impact on improvement of employees' self-efficacy beliefs.
Abdolvahabi, Bagheri, Haghighi and Karimi (2012) found the significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in practical courses among physical education teachers. 124 male and 76 female physical education teachers were randomly selected. Bar-on Emotional and Self-efficacy job Questionnaires were used to evaluate the teachers’ attitudes. Pearson correlation coefficient was used to investigate the two by two relationships between variables at p<0.05 level. The results demonstrated a significant relationship between emotional awareness, empathy, and self-efficacy in theory courses. Teaching physical education teachers with respect to components of emotional intelligence was significant.

Aftab and Khatoon (2012) examined the relationships of a set of independent variables (gender, qualification, teaching experience, salary, subjects taught and marital status) with occupational stress among secondary school teachers. The population in this study consists of 608 teachers from 42 schools of Uttar Pradesh. The Teachers Occupational Stress Scale was used for data collection, while t-test and F-test are used for statistical analysis. According to the results of the analysis, nearly half of the secondary school teachers experience less stress towards their job and males display more occupational stress towards job than the females. Moreover, the trained graduate teachers are found to have higher occupational stress than post-graduate and untrained teachers. Teachers with an experience of 6-10 years face occupational stress the most, and 0-5 years the least; while those falling in the remaining two groups slide in between these two. Findings also reveal no significant differences between monthly salary, subjects taught, marital status and occupational stress of secondary school teachers.

Latha (2012) found no significant difference between Emotional Intelligence of male and female B.Ed trainees. The result also shows that no significant difference between Emotional Intelligence of Science and Arts B.Ed trainees and Aided and Private College trainees. The sample of 200 B.Ed trainees of Mandya city were selected on the basis of gender, subject of study and type of institutions.
Hussain, Jamil, Noor, Sibtain and Shah (2011) conducted research on a sample of 100 students from the 10 High and Higher secondary schools of DIKhan City. 50 teachers from the 10 high and higher secondary schools of DIKhan city, 5 teachers each from male and female schools were selected. Two attitude scales, one for professional attitude and another for teaching behavior of the teachers were used for data collection. The co-relation statistic was used. The results show that there was a high co-relation between the professional attitude and teaching behavior of the teachers.

Singh (2012) studied the effect of some variables of teachers on professional attitude of teachers. In the study primary teachers were selected as a sample. This study covers Akola district. The investigator selected 20 schools from urban area and 20 schools from rural area randomly. Initially 200 primary teachers (100 male and 100 female) were selected from above 40 schools. It was reported that urban teachers were possessing higher professional attitude than rural teachers, experience and gender do not play any role towards professional attitude.

Bryan (2011) in his study entitled “Examining the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Self-Efficacy among Elementary Teachers in Southeast Michigan” demonstrated a significant negative relationship between Emotional Intelligence and teacher self-efficacy. Teachers with the highest levels of Emotional Intelligence were those who had lowest self-efficacy. The purpose of this study was to investigate a correlation between Emotional Intelligence and teacher self-efficacy by examining moderating factors including sex, age, years of experience, level of education, and certification status. The methodology for this non-experimental co-relational study focused on a random sample of currently practicing elementary teachers in southeast Michigan.

Vaezi and Fallah (2011) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout among 104 Iranian EFL teachers. In addition, teachers’ differences on emotional intelligence and burnout were examined with respect to demographic variables. The participants were administered emotional intelligence and Burnout questionnaires. The results obtained by using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation showed that there were significant negative correlations between
emotional intelligence and burnout, teaching experience and age and positive correlations between teachers’ emotional intelligence, teaching experience, and age. Finally, using t-test, the researchers found no significant differences in teachers’ emotional intelligence and burnout with respect to gender.

Jude (2011) investigated the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on occupational stress among secondary school teachers. An ex-post facto design was used to gather 392 usable copies of the questionnaires from secondary school teachers working in Ondo state. Stratified random sampling technique was used to choose the sample. Two instruments, Emotional intelligence and Occupational stress scales were used to collect data for the study. The t-test analysis at 0.05 level of significance indicated that there was a significant difference between the occupational stress of secondary school teachers with low and those with high emotional intelligence. There was no significant difference between the occupational stress experienced by male and female secondary school teachers.

Kocoglu (2011) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy among 90 English language pre-service teachers from a university in Turkey. Data sources included Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy’s Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale and Reuven Bar-On’s Emotional Quotient Inventory. The findings indicated that Turkish EFL pre-service teachers felt more efficacy in managing the class rather than in making the class enjoyable. The findings also showed that the pre-service teachers scored highest in the stress tolerance and assertiveness competencies, but lowest in independence and self-regard in terms of emotional intelligence. Findings revealed a significant, positive relationship between emotional intelligence and pre-service teachers’ efficacy. The highest correlation was between the interpersonal emotional intelligence subscale and the engagement efficacy subscale. On the other hand, both adaptability emotional intelligence scale and stress management emotional intelligence scale scores were not significantly correlated with the three efficacy subscales.

Nikooopour, Farsani, Tajbakhsh, and Kiyaie (2011) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) and their self-efficacy. To this end, 336 teachers were asked to complete “Trait
Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire—Short Form (TEIQue–SF)” [18] and “Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)” [29]. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation showed significant relationship between trait EI and self-efficacy. Trait EI subconstructs showed significant relationship with self-efficacy subconstructs as well. Moreover, to investigate subconstructs of trait EI predictive power in self-efficacy, a regression analysis was run which showed moderate predictive power of all sub-constructs of trait emotional intelligence.

Erawan (2011) conducted research on the predictors of teaching efficacy in a sample of pre-service teachers from a number of public universities in Thailand. A total of 899 pre-service teachers under the final year responded to scales that assessed teaching efficacy, attitudes toward the teaching profession, the preparation program effectiveness, and practicum experience. According to the analysis, attitudes toward teaching profession, preparation program effectiveness, and practicum experience were significant predictors of teaching efficacy. The strongest predictor of teaching efficacy was the preparation program effectiveness.

Hsu (2010) studied the relationships between the emotional intelligence, burn-out, and teacher efficacy among the Elementary School teachers in the city of Kaohsiung. “Questionnaire Analysis Method”, with the Elementary School teachers in Kaohsiung was used as subject and “Questionnaire on emotional intelligence, burn-out, and the teacher efficacy among Elementary School teachers” put together by the researcher. Using stratified random sampling, there were 541 questionnaires passed out, 521 questionnaires collected, and 484 effective questionnaires. This study used statistical techniques as one-way ANOVA and multiple stepwise regressions to analyze the data and testing of the hypothesis, and reached the following conclusions: 1. The emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy are currently well, and the burn-out rate is low. 2. Male teachers tend to have higher emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy than female teachers. 3. Teachers over the age of 40 have higher emotional intelligence, teacher efficacy, and lower burn-out. 4. “Teachers of specific subjects” have higher emotional intelligence. 5. “Teachers with the jobs of managing” have higher burn-out. 6. Teachers who’ve been teaching for more than 21 years and those with Master’s
degree or above (including 40-credit class) have higher teacher efficacy. 7. The emotional intelligence and burn-out can affect the teacher’s efficacy, among which the “use of emotions” of the emotional intelligence has much influence on teacher’s efficacy.

Li-chuan Chu (2010) evaluated the benefits of mediation with regard to emotional intelligence, perceived stress and negative mental health with cross sectional and experimental studies, among 351 full time working adults with different amount of experience in mediation and found that those participants with greater meditation experience, exhibited higher emotional intelligence and less perceived stress and negative mental health than those who had less or none. It then randomly divided 20 graduate students with no experience of meditation into a mindfulness meditation group (n=10) and a control group (n=10) and measured them for same variables. Pre-treatment and post-treatment to test the hypothesis, found that those who completed the mind fullness meditation training demonstrated significant improvements compared to the control group.

Klassen and Chiu (2010) reported that teachers’ years of experience showed nonlinear relationships with all three self-efficacy factors, increasing from early career to mid-career and then falling afterwards. Female teachers had greater workload stress, greater classroom stress from student behaviors, and lower classroom management self-efficacy. Teachers with greater workload stress had greater classroom management self-efficacy, whereas teachers with greater classroom stress had lower self-efficacy and lower job satisfaction. Those teaching young children (in elementary grades and kindergarten) had higher levels of self-efficacy for classroom management and student engagement. Lastly, teachers with greater classroom management self-efficacy or greater instructional strategies self-efficacy had greater job satisfaction. The sample of the study was consisted of 1430 teachers.

Another study on relationship between emotional intelligence and age reported by Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) among B.Ed. teacher trainees (N=300) revealed a significant effect of age on emotional intelligence. Results showed that the socio economic status or monthly income do not cause any significant effect on the emotional intelligence.
Jadhav and Havalappanavar (2009) investigated the level of emotional intelligence among male and female police constable trainees (N=200). Results revealed that Women Police Constable (WPC) trainees scored significantly high on emotional intelligence than their counterparts. It may be because of the fact that men spend most of their time with peers and home, whereas, women spend most of their time from the childhood in the home, with family members and even in their later life at house. Hence they learn how to behave with others and how to control their emotions. Women are keener in every aspect and they utilize opportunities properly etc. Furthermore, the results also revealed that the women police constable trainees scored higher on self motivation, emotional stability, commitment, altruism empathy and self awareness factors of emotional intelligence in comparison of male candidates.

Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2009) concluded that there is significant correlation between emotional intelligence and teachers’ self-efficacy. Further analysis by using regression with multiple variables indicated that dimensions of emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relation, and solving- problem are significant predicators of teachers’ self-efficacy.

Moafian, et al. (2009) examined the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy in language institutes. To this end, 89 EFL teachers were selected from different language in Mashhad, a city in North-East of Iran. The participants were asked to complete institutes the “Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale” and the “Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire”. Data analysis and statistical calculations revealed a significant relationship between the teachers’ emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy.

Rastegar and Memarpour (2009) attempted to assess emotional intelligence and its relationship to self-efficacy (one important belief that appears to have important effects on teacher and student outcomes) among Iranian EFL teachers. EFL teacher differences on EI and self-efficacy beliefs were also examined with respect to gender, age, and teaching experience. The instruments for data collection were Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) and Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy,
The results obtained by using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation showed a positive significant correlation between perceived emotional intelligence and self-efficacy (r = 0.5). Using t-test and ANOVA, the researchers found no significant difference among EFL teachers with regard to genders, age and teaching experience concerning their EI and self-efficacy.

Sani (2009) researched the influence of efficacy and emotional intelligence of technical secondary school administrators' and teachers' professional collaboration on teachers' job satisfaction. The respondents comprising of administrators (N=444) and teachers (N=1,426) of the Technical Secondary Schools in Malaysia. It was found that there were significant relationships between all the constructs studied. However, only teachers' professional collaboration, administrators' collective efficacy and emotional intelligence competency for relationship management (social skills) were predictors of teachers' job satisfaction. Administrators' collective efficacy and relationship management partially mediate the relationship between teachers' professional collaboration and teachers' job satisfaction.

Clipa and Ignat (2009) figured out the relation between emotional intelligence and the self-efficacy in a sample of pre-school and primary teachers. The goal of the study was to identify whether there is any correlation between the emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in order to look for some modalities of enhancing the teachers’ professional development. The sample comprised of 91 teachers both from urban and rural areas, having different didactic experience in terms of professional training and number of career years. The instruments used in investigation were three questionnaires to evaluate the emotional intelligence, general self-efficacy and teacher self-efficacy. The results showed a strong correlation between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy.

Ahmed (2009) concluded that married teachers of public schools at secondary level had higher self efficacy, self esteem and emotional intelligence, and had less amount of burnout, whereas unmarried teachers of private schools at senior secondary level had high level of burnout and showed less self efficacy, self esteem and emotional intelligence. Moreover, self efficacy, self esteem and emotional
intelligence were negatively contributing to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but positively associated with personal accomplishment. It indicated that low self efficacy, self esteem and emotional intelligence lead to high degree of burnout and high self efficacy, self esteem and emotional intelligence lead to low degree of burnout. For the sample, 47 schools were chosen on the random basis from the Delhi metropolitan city. A total of 240 teachers were taken with equal number of 120 both in public and private schools, include 60 secondary teachers and 60 senior secondary teachers, respectively.

**Fabio (2008)** conducted a study entitled “Emotional intelligence and self-efficacy Italian high school teachers”. The Italian version of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On, 2002) and the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001) were administered to 169 participants. Significant differences in emotional intelligence emerged with respect to age. In comparison to females, males obtained higher scores in the intrapersonal dimension, while women scored higher on the interpersonal dimension. Teacher self-efficacy was best explained by the intrapersonal dimension.

**Ogrenir (2008)** examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness beliefs of elementary and kindergarten pre-service teachers. This study found that there were some significant differences in pre-service teachers’ teacher effectiveness beliefs associated with emotional intelligence competencies.

**Chan (2008)** in his study examined teacher efficacy and emotional intelligence as personal resources for active and passive coping strategies among Chinese pre-service and in-service teachers in Hong Kong. It was concluded that emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy contributed to coping strategies such as behavioral or psychological responses designed to change the nature of the stressor itself or how one thinks about it. The findings of these studies indicate that people who have higher control on their emotions develop stronger efficacy, and this leads to higher emotional intelligence.

In **Andrea, Chris and Ian’s (2007)** study Practicing teachers and principals in selected Government schools in Victoria provided data on their levels of
emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy beliefs. The data supported the theoretical expectation of a linkage between emotional intelligence and teacher self efficacy. Regression analysis showed that neither gender nor age moderated this relationship. However length of teaching experience and current status add significant direct effects on predicting teacher self efficacy but did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self efficacy.

To delineate the human ecological factors affecting emotional intelligence skills of school teachers (N=60) a study was made by Duhan and Chhikara (2007). It revealed a significant association between the developmental facilities (exosystem variables), provided in community surrounding and emotional intelligence skills of teachers. The results also revealed that most of the high category respondents (16.7%) were having more developmental facilities (i.e. hospital, bank, park, club, market etc.) in their surroundings, whereas near about 19% (out of 28%) of low category respondents were having less number of development facilities.

Rezaeeyan (2007) demonstrated that there is a significant and positive relationship between emotional intelligence and institutional commitment. Shridhar (2007) also found that there was a positive and significant relationship between teacher efficacy and emotional intelligence.

Lordanoglou (2007) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership, job commitment and satisfaction among 332 primary education teachers in Greece. Results showed that emotional intelligence has positive effect on leadership effectiveness and also strongly related to teachers’ commitment and satisfaction, as determined by self-report measures.

Salami (2007) investigated the relationships of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy to work attitudes of secondary school teachers in southwestern Nigeria. The sample consists of 475 secondary school teachers (males=230, females=245) randomly selected from southwestern Nigeria. Measures of demographic data form, career commitment, organizational commitment, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and work-family conflict were administered to the teachers. Data collected were analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Results of the study indicate that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy had significant relationships with work attitudes; however, age, sex and work experience had none.
Andrea, Chris and Ian (2007) found linkage between emotional intelligence and teacher self efficacy. Regression analysis showed that neither gender nor age moderated this relationship. However length of teaching experience and current status add significant direct effects on predicting teacher self efficacy but did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self efficacy.

Gohm, Corser and Dalsky (2006) examined the association between emotional intelligence (emotion-relevant abilities) and stress (feelings of inability to control life events) among 158 freshmen. The results suggest that emotional intelligence is potentially helpful in reducing stress for some individuals, but unnecessary or irrelevant for others.

Another study aimed at examining the direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence and subjective fatigue; reported by Brown and Schulte (2006). 167 university students completed questionnaires assessing subjective fatigue, emotional intelligence and a range of other psychological factors. A series of regression analysis were used to examine the direct and indirect relationships between subjective fatigue and psychological factors. Results indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with less fatigue. The psychological variables depression, anxiety, optimism, internal health locus of control, each mediated partially between emotional intelligence and fatigue. Additionally, sleep quality partially mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue.

Shulman and Hemenover (2006) studied whether dispositional emotional intelligence predicted psychological health. Participants (N=263) completed measures of three emotional intelligence disposition viz. perception, understanding and regulation of emotions, psychological well being and emotional distress. Participants completed the health scales a second time three month later. Results revealed that dispositional EI is related to health outcomes cross-sectionally and predicts health over time.

Adeyemo and Ogunyemi (2005) examined the interactive and relative effect of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy on occupational stress of university
academic staff. Their findings revealed that emotional intelligence contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational stress of the participants. The study of emotional intelligence significantly contributed to occupational stress among employees in Australia. In addition,

Yusoff (2005) carried out a study to explore the influence of headmasters’ attributes towards effective schools. The headmasters’ attributes being studied were their self-efficacy and emotional intelligence, whereas, the attributes of effective school being studied were teachers’ collective efficacy and school organizational climate. A sample of 158 headmasters and 787 teachers from 158 primary schools in Kedah were randomly selected. Multiple Regression statistics was used. It was found that headmasters with high self-efficacy were able to influence teachers’ collective efficacy, and all aspects of school organizational climate except teacher affiliation aspect. Headmasters’ emotional intelligence was found to have influence on all aspects of school organizational climate. However, it was found that teachers’ collective efficacy was not influenced by headmasters’ emotional intelligence. Specifically, the social awareness cluster of emotional intelligence was found to have influence on institutional integrity and resource influence aspects of school organizational climate. Whereas, the social skill cluster of emotional intelligence was found to have influence on 3 out of 5 aspects of school organizational climate, that is, collegial leadership, teacher affiliation, and academic emphasis.

The study made by Extremera, Duran & Rey (2005) investigated the relationship among dimensions of self reported Emotional Intelligence, burnout and engagement among staff in services for people with intellectual disabilities and found that emotional clarity was significantly associated with personal accomplishment and dedication. Further, repair to moods (subscale of work engagement scale) was significantly correlated with all engagement dimensions and with personal accomplishment.

Lewandowski (2005) found teachers of the low efficacy group expressed a confidence and belief in their personal ability to affect and improve student achievement. These teachers realized that students have unique needs, therefore, it is necessary to incorporate various techniques and methods in order to meet as many
individual needs of children as possible. Additionally, the low efficacy group verbalized the realization that their own personal efficacy directly impacts students’ learning because of the willingness of the teacher to try new ideas and to make multiple attempts to allow students to experience success at their own level.

**VanRooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005)** in their study examined gender differences on emotional intelligence by administrating a common measure of emotional intelligence on 275 participants (216 female). Results indicated that females scored slightly higher than males.

**Pant and Prakash (2004)** studied gender differences in emotional intelligence for Indian participants (N=60). 30 male and 30 female individuals were approached for the study from personnel and human resources departments of both government and non-governments organizations; as well as students with an educational level of post graduation. Multifactor emotional intelligence scale was used for assessment process. Results showed no substantial gender differences on the various emotional intelligence dimensions. More specifically indicating that both males and females do not differ significantly on the two sub- tasks of ‘managing emotions’. Whereas, ‘Managing others’ (sub tasks) has the males (M=0.28, S.D. = 0.08) scoring higher than the females (M=0.26, S.D.=0.08) on the sub-task of ‘managing self’, both the males and females have the same mean (m=0.25). However, women scored higher, though not significantly than men on total emotional intelligence (M women = 5.13, M men=4.86).

**Chan’s (2004)** study assessed the relationship between perceived emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among 158 secondary school teachers. Results indicated that teachers scored most highly on different components of emotional intelligence; moreover, findings showed that there was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy and that this study provided no support for gender differences.

Another study examining the relationship of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among 291 Indian army officers using a structured interview schedule was reported by **Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004)**. The result showed that the overall regression equation between the dimensions of emotional intelligence as
predictors and job satisfaction as criterion variable was not significant. This result suggested that emotional intelligence does not contribute towards satisfaction with the job. Whereas, other researches have showed the linkages between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Higher levels of emotional intelligence predicted higher levels of job satisfaction and stronger connections with co-workers and supervisors (Abraham, 1999; Kahn, 1990). Kahn (1990) in his study of job satisfaction reported that more psychologically meaningful job tasks resulted when those tasks included positive interactions with coworkers.

Moving ahead to next review on sex differences in emotional intelligences, study reported by Pandey and Tripathi (2004) on a sample of 100 individuals (50 males and 50 females) completing the measure of emotional intelligence, consisting of identification of emotion, perception and recognition of emotion with probing, perception and recognition of emotion-without probing, understanding emotional meaning and emotion intensity rating. Results revealed that females scored significantly higher than male and were more proficient in managing and handling their own emotions as well as of others.

In order to measure the relationship between emotional intelligence and gender, Tyagi (2004) have conducted a study among secondary school teachers. The results revealed that emotional intelligence is independent of gender.

The relationship of emotional intelligence was studied with leadership effectiveness, success and job satisfaction among Indian army officers by Srivastava (2004). It was found that emotionally more intelligent army officers adopted a transformational style of leadership to motivate their subordinates to perform beyond expectations. They also perceived them to be more successful in their careers.

Looney (2004) investigated the relationship between teacher efficacy (as measured by the TSES, Gibson and Dembo, and school effectiveness researchers) and the study variables. Teachers’ efficacy beliefs as measured with the TSES were significantly and positively related to professional community, the four professional community features, verbal persuasion, teachers’ view of colleagues as proficient teaching models, teachers’ perceptions of student performance, and teachers’ years
of experience. Conversely, teacher efficacy measured by the TSES was significantly and negatively related to teachers’ view of student ability as incremental or fixed.


Cote and Morgan (2002) found that amplification of positive emotions increased job satisfaction while suppression of unpleasant emotions decreased job satisfaction. The emotional intelligence construct has important implication for maintaining the commitment, productivity, and job satisfaction (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997).

Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) reported a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and stress at work indicating that high scorers in emotional intelligence suffered less stress related to occupational environment. Landa et al. (2008) found a differential effect of the emotional intelligence on stress.

Pethe and Chaudhari (2000) analyzed data for determining correlation between role efficacy dimensions and occupational self-efficacy, and between role efficacy dimensions and learned helplessness. Results showed positive relationship between occupational self-efficacy and personal growth, as a person with high self-efficacy believes that his role has a potential of personal growth, which may in turn leads to higher self-efficacy.

Chiarrochi et al. (2000) posited that emotional intelligence may protect people from stress and lead to better adaptation. They opined that an objective measure of emotional management skill is associated with a tendency to maintain an experimentally inducted positive mood which has obvious implication for preventing stress. Oginska-Bulik (2005) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and perceived stress in workplace and health related consequences in human service and workers. The result confirmed an essential but not very strong role of emotional intelligent in perceiving occupational stress and preventing employees of human services from negative health outcomes. Oginska-
Bulik (2005) concluded that the ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in coping with occupational stress. Therefore, it should be developed in stress management trainings.

Goleman (1998) reported that emotional intelligence is twice as important as technical skills and more important than Intelligence Quotient for success in jobs at all levels.

Bandura (1997) related the role of efficacy to concepts of emotional intelligence throughout his work. He stated that self-awareness and control of emotions can be correlated with a higher emotional intelligence.

Lim and Teo (1996) examined gender differences in occupational stress and coping strategies among information technology personnel in Singapore. The results revealed that female IT personnel reported significantly higher scores on sources of stress originating from factors intrinsic to the job, career and achievement, organizational structure and climate and relationship with others. McCarty et al. (2007) examined gender differences in occupational stress and burnout among male and female officers. Results indicate that male and female officers reported very similar levels of occupational stress and burnout.

One study in particular (Raudenbush, Rowan, & Cheong, 1992) examined the relationship between student factors (i.e., age, ability, engagement) and teacher efficacy on a sample of 315 high school teachers. Variables were measured at the class level, therefore teachers responded to questions regarding the track level of their students (e.g., vocational, general, college, honors, or mixed) in each class, what percentage of students they felt were actively engaged in each class, and their level of efficacy in each class. Findings from this study showed substantial track effects on teachers’ level of efficacy, indicating a strong positive relationship between students’ ability level and teachers’ self-efficacy. Specifically, teachers reported higher levels of efficacy in honors classes than in vocational and general track classes. Moreover, the effect of track level on teacher efficacy varied significantly across academic disciplines, with the track effects more pronounced in math and science classes than in English and social studies classes. Teachers also
reported lower levels of efficacy when teaching younger students than when teaching older students. However, both track and student age effects diminished significantly once student engagement was added to the model. Student engagement was also strongly related to teachers’ self-efficacy, and the authors concluded that track and age effects on student efficacy were closely tied to track and age effects on student engagement. In other words, the possibility exists that teachers found low-track students and younger students to be difficult to engage, thereby feeling less able to carry out the tasks needed to affect performance for these students.

The overall discussion above on teacher efficacy, occupational stress, professional attitude and emotional intelligence provides us with many valuable insights in to the diverse aspects of the problems. Literature cited above indicates that teacher efficacy has been studied in relation to a number of teaching, psychological and demographic variables like teacher student relationship, teacher burnout, job satisfaction, multiple intelligence, attitude, gender, locale, experience etc. Researches taken for review significantly indicates that teacher efficacy should be explored with respect to teaching variables like classroom planning and preparation, instruction, classroom management, classroom assessment, professional development, professional responsibility etc.( Hammond, 2012; Singh, 2005; Giallo & Little, 2003). It is also required to study the professional attitude and emotional intelligence of teachers as these seems to be the significant predictors of teacher efficacy. It is the emotional intelligence of a teacher that can play a major role in determining his personal and professional growth. Research of Singh and Manser, 2008 indicates that emotional intelligence leads a teacher towards effective communication, healthy relationships, empathy and trust. So, there is a dire need to study the emotional intelligence with respect to other teaching variables.

All these psychological and teaching variables are seeking greater attention of researchers these days. However, there is research evidence of such type of studies in foreign but lacking in Indian context. Therefore, present study is aimed at exploring the relationship of teacher efficacy, occupational stress, professional attitude and emotional intelligence of teachers working in secondary schools.